

1 **Title:**

2 **Increased metabolic rate of hauled out harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*) during the**  
3 **molt**

4 **Running page head: Metabolic rate of hauled out harbor seals during the molt**

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21 **Keywords**

22 *Phoca vitulina*, harbor seal, marine mammals, pinnipeds, metabolic rate, haulout, molt

23 **What is already known?**

24 Metabolic rate has been measured while molting in captive phocid seals in the water  
25 (Rosen and Renouf 1998, Sparling et al. 2006) and while on land (Ashwell-Erickson et  
26 al. 1986, Boily 1996). Previous studies have been conflicted in whether metabolic rate  
27 increases (Boyd et al. 1993; Boily 1996; Sparling et al. 2006) or decreases (Ashwell-  
28 Ericksen et al. 1986; Rosen and Renouf 1998) while phocid seals are molting.  
29 Theoretical predictions from thermal imaging by Paterson et al. (2012) suggested that  
30 metabolic rate increased in hauled out harbor seals during the first 30 minutes post-  
31 haulout to meet the cost of increasing skin surface temperature and the subsequent  
32 evaporative heat loss incurred while molting.

33 **What this study adds?**

34 The results of the present study fill a knowledge gap in which very little is known about  
35 changes in metabolic rate of molting phocid species at the point immediately after  
36 transition from water onto land. This study presents conclusive, empirical  
37 measurements of increased metabolic rate in hauled out harbor seals during the molt  
38 while demonstrating how this effect varies within haulout periods and over the molting  
39 season. Metabolic rate during the molt was found to be relatively high over the first 40  
40 minutes post-haulout compared to when the molt was complete, which highlights the  
41 importance of mitigation to protect phocid seals at haulout sites throughout the molting  
42 season.

43 **ABSTRACT**

44 Harbor seals (*Phoca vitulina*) live in cold temperate or polar seas and molt annually,  
45 renewing their fur over a period of approximately four weeks. Epidermal processes at  
46 this time require a warm skin and therefore to avoid an excessive energy cost at sea  
47 during the molt, harbour seals and many other pinnipeds increase the proportion of time  
48 hauled out on land. We predicted that metabolic rate during haulout would be greater  
49 during the molt to sustain an elevated skin temperature in order to optimize skin and  
50 hair growth. To examine this, we measured post-haulout oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) in  
51 captive harbor seals during molt and post-molt periods. We recorded greater  $\dot{V}O_2$  of  
52 seals while molting than when the molt was complete. Post-haulout  $\dot{V}O_2$  increased  
53 faster and reached a greater maximum at 40 minutes during the molt. Thereafter,  $\dot{V}O_2$   
54 decreased but still remained greater suggesting that while metabolic rate was relatively  
55 high throughout haulouts, it was most pronounced in the first 40 minutes. Air  
56 temperature, estimated heat increment of feeding (eHIF) and mass also explained 15.5%  
57 of  $\dot{V}O_2$  variation over 180 minutes post-haulout, suggesting that the environment,  
58 feeding state and body size influenced the metabolic rate of individual animals. These  
59 results show that moulting seals have greater metabolic rates when hauled out,  
60 especially during the early stages of the haulout period. As a consequence, human  
61 disturbance that changes the haulout behaviour of molting seals will increase their  
62 energy costs and potentially extend the duration of the molt.

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64

65

66 **Introduction**

67 The molt period is an important phase in the annual life cycle of phocid seals. Each year  
68 shortly after the breeding season, hair over the entire body surface is shed and renewed  
69 and is a time when seals spend more time on land (Boily 1995). More time on land is  
70 necessary because the proliferation of phocid skin cells appears to be optimized at 37°C  
71 and ceases below 17°C (Feltz and Fay 1966). This is problematic in that thermal  
72 conductivity of water is 25 times greater than air, meaning maintenance of a warm skin  
73 for extended periods, for the shedding and renewal of hair, is energetically prohibitive  
74 in the cold temperate or polar seas where phocid seals are found (Nadel 1984).  
75 Elevation of skin temperature can therefore only be achieved by increasing the amount  
76 of time spent on land which reduces foraging time at sea (Watts 1996). This is also  
77 problematic in that phocid seals are capital breeders and must optimize foraging  
78 throughout the year to maximize success during the breeding season (Pistorius et al.  
79 2004; Bowen et al. 2006). To counter this, phocid seals do show behavioral and  
80 physiological traits that allow a more rapid molt, the most obvious being to haul out on  
81 land and regulate blood flow through the blubber layer to increase skin temperature  
82 (Paterson et al. 2012).

83 Molting southern elephant seals (*Mirounga leonina*) (Boyd et al. 1993), grey  
84 seals (*Halichoerus grypus*) (Boily 1996; Sparling et al. 2006) and harbor seals (*Phoca*  
85 *vitulina*) (Paterson et al. 2012) have relatively high metabolic rates. In these studies, the  
86 cumulative effect of maintaining a warm skin in a cold environment coupled with active  
87 hair cell growth appears to be energetically demanding. Boyd et al. (1993) estimated  
88 that the energy required for molting in adult female southern elephant seals was  
89 approximately half that invested in pups during suckling. In contrast, resting metabolic

90 rate has also been shown to be lower during the molt in harbor seals (Ashwell-Erickson  
91 et al. 1986, Rosen and Renouf 1998) and northern elephant seals (*Mirounga*  
92 *angustirostris*) (Worthy et al. 1992). These opposing findings demonstrate the  
93 complexity of molt physiology and therefore there is a clear need to better understand  
94 factors influencing the energetic cost of molt in phocid seals.

95         Amongst phocid seals there are two main molt types. In both northern and  
96 southern elephant seals, animals shed skin and hair as sheets of keratinized epidermis  
97 during a ‘catastrophic’ molt (Ling 1970). These species generally remain on land  
98 throughout the molt and therefore fast for the majority if not the entire period (Worthy  
99 et al. 1992; Boyd et al. 1993), although studies have identified occasional trips to sea  
100 while molting in southern elephant seals (Boyd et al. 1993; Chaise et al. 2017). In most  
101 but not all other phocids, hair is shed and renewed during a longer, more diffuse process  
102 that, while still requiring more time on land, is characterized by intermittent foraging  
103 trips. However, even in these species that are not fasting while molting, foraging may  
104 not be a priority. For example, voluntary reduction in food intake has been observed in  
105 harp seals (*Pagophilus groenlandicus*) (Lager et al. 1994) and harbor seals (Rosen and  
106 Renouf 1998), possibly indicating a response to predictable periods when some degree  
107 of fasting is required. The annual molt therefore represents a period when energetic  
108 demands are increased at a time when energy intake is reduced, as seals spend more  
109 time hauled out. Consequently, factors that prolong the moult on land could increase  
110 energy costs and delay foraging at sea.

111         Increased metabolic rate while molting may be partly attributable to having to  
112 synthesize new skin and/or hair (Ling 1970). There will also be an energetic cost from  
113 heat loss due to a high skin temperature on land (Paterson et al. 2012) and heat loss will

114 be greater for species molting in colder, harsher environments. Animals that are fasting  
115 entirely on land or intermittently foraging may not have a sufficient energy intake to  
116 balance their energy needs. This is evident in longitudinal studies demonstrating mass  
117 loss while molting in species that fast throughout the molt (Worthy et al. 1992; Boyd et  
118 al. 1993; Chaise et al. 2018). Similarly, both longitudinal (Boily 1996) and cross-  
119 sectional (Chabot and Stenson 2002) studies show mass loss in species that periodically  
120 forage as the molt proceeds. This negative energy balance may be an important driver  
121 for conserving energy during the molt. For example, sustained lower food intake in harp  
122 seals is associated with a depressed metabolic rate (Ochoa-Acuna et al. 2009). Reduced  
123 metabolic rates have also been observed in harbor seals that voluntarily decreased food  
124 intake while molting (Rosen and Renouf 1998). This may partly explain why lower  
125 metabolic rates have been observed in molting harbour seals (Ashwell-Erickson *et al.*  
126 1986, Rosen and Renouf 1998) and northern elephant seals (Worthy *et al.* 1992).  
127 However, this is complicated by the fact that for species that intermittently forage while  
128 molting, metabolic rate is likely to be temporarily elevated while prey is digested  
129 (Markussen et al. 1994).

130         The aim of this study was to examine the energy costs of molting harbour seals  
131 following haulout to land. We predicted that metabolic rate during haulout would be  
132 greater during the molt to sustain an elevated skin temperature in order to optimize skin  
133 and hair growth. To examine this, we measured post-haulout oxygen consumption  
134 ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) in captive harbor seals during molt and post-molt periods. This allowed  
135 assessment of potential energy costs of human disturbance on seals during the molt.

136

137 **Methods**

138

139 *Animals*

140 Six male harbor seals, five adults and one sub-adult, were caught in the wild at either  
141 the Eden Estuary, Scotland (56°22'N, 02°48'W) or Ardersier, Scotland (57°35'N,  
142 04°02'W). The sub-adult was estimated to be less than five years old which is the age of  
143 sexual maturity in male harbor seals determined by Bjorge (1992). Captured animals  
144 were immediately transferred to the captive facility at the Scottish Oceans Institute,  
145 University of St. Andrews. Two animals were brought into the facility in April/May in  
146 each of the years 2013, 2014 and 2015 and held until the post-molt period was complete  
147 around mid-October. When not in the experimental setup, animals were housed in  
148 separate outdoor holding pools in ambient temperature seawater surrounded by a  
149 haulout area exposed to ambient air temperature and solar radiation. Within the  
150 experimental setup and while respirometry measurements were being taken, animals  
151 also had access to seawater but were restricted to being kept within the respirometry  
152 chamber while breathing either in the water or when hauled out. When measurements  
153 were not being taken, animals remained within the experimental setup but had access to  
154 a platform (at ambient air temperature and solar radiation) surrounding the haulout  
155 respirometry chamber. Animals were always housed singularly and were trained to  
156 move voluntarily between the separate outdoor holding pools and the experimental  
157 setup, alternating between one week within the experimental setup and one week in  
158 holding pools.

159           Animals were fed a varied fish diet supplemented with multivitamins and  
160 ferrous gluconate (Aquavits, International Zoo Veterinary Group, Keighley, UK). Each  
161 individual was weighed ( $\pm 0.1\text{kg}$ ) upon capture, opportunistically throughout the  
162 experimental period and immediately prior to release into the wild. All experiments  
163 with animals used in this study were conducted under Home Office License (60/4009  
164 and 60/7806).

165

### 166 *Respirometry*

167 We measured metabolic rates of harbor seals hauled out in a respirometry chamber. This  
168 was constructed using non-transparent high-density polyethylene and incorporated into  
169 the structure of a large experimental pool within the facility (Fig. 1). The chamber itself  
170 was also covered in reflective insulating material to prevent excess heating under direct  
171 sunlight. Panels restricted access to the water surface while animals were in the pool so  
172 that all breaths were captured within the chamber. The approximate air space chamber  
173 volume was 1700 l allowing sufficient room for animals to haul out and to turn around  
174 if necessary. Animals entered and exited the chamber during experiments through a  
175 submerged internal hatch.

176           Mixing of air was achieved by way of multiple, equally spaced air inlets at the  
177 rear of the chamber. Air flow through the chamber was maintained at  $350\text{ l min}^{-1}$  by an  
178 air mass controller (Sable Systems Flow Kit 500H, Sable Systems International, Las  
179 Vegas, USA). This resulted in a lag time to measurement of approximately 25 seconds  
180 and a time-constant, as defined by Lighton and Halsey (2011) of 4 minutes 52 seconds  
181 giving a 95% equilibrium of 14.6 minutes. Air entered through holes in the rear of the

182 chamber and exited through a 30mm diameter tube at the front, transferring air into the  
183 facility building where a gas analysis system was located.

184

185 *Measurement of oxygen consumption during haulouts*

186 Oxygen consumption ( $\dot{V}O_2$ ) over time was measured using open flow respirometry  
187 during voluntary haulouts. A subsample of air from the excurrent air flow drawn from  
188 the chamber was extracted at a rate of 500 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. Water vapor and CO<sub>2</sub> were  
189 removed by passing the subsample through two desiccating tubes filled with calcium  
190 sulfate either side of a CO<sub>2</sub> absorbing tube filled with soda lime. Oxygen concentrations  
191 of the subsamples were measured continuously using a Sable Systems FC-10 Oxygen  
192 Analyzer (Sable Systems International, Las Vegas, USA) and logged every three  
193 seconds. Baseline measurements of ambient air concentrations of O<sub>2</sub> were automatically  
194 recorded every hour to correct for drift in the system using LabAnalyst X software (M.  
195 Chappell, UC Riverside, Riverside, USA).

196 The open flow respirometry system was calibrated before each experiment with  
197 known volumes of N<sub>2</sub> using a technique described by Fedak et al. (1981).  $\dot{V}O_2$  during  
198 haulouts was then calculated using the following equation:

199 
$$\dot{V}O_2 = (0.2094VN_2/0.8)(\Delta C/\Delta C^*), \quad (1)$$

200 where  $\Delta C$  denotes the change in O<sub>2</sub> concentrations ( $\pm 0.1\%$ , range = 0 – 100%) during  
201 haulouts,  $\Delta C^*$  denotes the change in O<sub>2</sub> concentrations during calibration and  $VN_2$   
202 denotes the volume of N<sub>2</sub> (l) used when calibrating the system. Errors associated with

203 the respiratory quotient (RQ) are accounted for in this equation by the inclusion of a  
204 correction factor (0.8) according to Fedak et al. (1981).

205         Measurements of oxygen concentration were recorded continuously throughout  
206 each haulout period and then converted to  $\dot{V}O_2$  ( $l\ O_2\ min^{-1}$ ). Data were then averaged  
207 every five minutes to account for the fact that while on land, harbor seals can exhibit a  
208 pattern of breath-holds (apnea) followed by rapid breathing (eupnea) similar to diving  
209 (Pasche and Krog 1980; Castellini 1996). By averaging data in this way, troughs and  
210 peaks in the data caused by apneic and eupneic breathing could be evened out. Only  
211 measurements during which animals were in a resting state for at least one hour up to a  
212 maximum of three hours post-haulout were used for analysis.

213

#### 214 *Measurement of haulout activity*

215 Haulout activity was recorded using a closed-circuit video surveillance system with  
216 cameras (IR 37CSHR-IR 2M Submersible, RF Concepts Ltd., Dundonald, UK) installed  
217 within the respirometry chamber. Video was recorded using a digital video recorder  
218 (Samsung SRD-470, Hanwah Techwin America, New Jersey, USA) inside the facility  
219 building so that seals were unaware of any human presence during experiments.  
220 Experiments were carried out in the evening after 17:00 as this was a time when there  
221 was less activity and noise around the facility influencing haulout behaviour. This  
222 maximized the chances of taking measurements while seals were in a relaxed state on  
223 land. A seal haulout began when approximately half of the animal's body had exited the  
224 water and similarly ended when approximately half the animal's body entered the water  
225 at the end of the haulout. Only haulouts lasting more than one hour were used in this

226 study. For haulouts lasting more than three hours, data were truncated at three hours due  
227 to the uncertainty of the efficacy of calcium sulfate and CO<sub>2</sub> treatments of air samples  
228 beyond that point.

229

### 230 *Environmental measurements*

231 While experiments were in progress, air temperature ( $\pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ ) was recorded inside the  
232 respirometry chamber using a temperature logger (Tiny Tag Plus 2 TGP-4500, Gemini  
233 Data Loggers Ltd., West Sussex, UK). Data were logged at a five minute sampling  
234 interval.

235

### 236 *Food consumption*

237 Markussen et al. (1994) showed that the effect of HIF in harbor seals was to increase  
238  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  within the first 30 minutes, which then declined but was still evident for up to 15  
239 hours post-consumption. In the present study, HIF could not be measured directly in  
240 terms of changes in  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  due to time constraints involved in running a separate suite of  
241 experiments. Instead, on each experimental day, all boluses of food given to animals  
242 were weighed ( $\pm 0.01\text{kg}$ ) and the time of consumption recorded. An estimate of HIF,  
243 here defined as eHIF, was then derived by assuming that the effect of all boluses of food  
244 decayed linearly to zero over a 15-hour period post-consumption. This allowed for the  
245 effect of eHIF to be quantified both in terms of the size of the bolus of food consumed  
246 and temporal changes while animals were hauled out. The effect of eHIF as a measure  
247 of the effect of the mass of fish (kg) consumed, and how that effect diminished over 15

248 hours, were included in statistical models. In the hours leading up to experiments  
249 animals were fed *ad libitum*.

250

### 251 *Molt categorization*

252 Animals were observed daily to visually determine the date of peak molt and this was  
253 estimated to correspond to the day of maximum hair loss. Based on previous records of  
254 the maximum molt duration in harbor seals (Thompson and Rothery 1987), the start and  
255 end of molt in each animal was therefore estimated to be 16 days either side of the peak  
256 molt date.  $\dot{V}O_2$  measurements recorded during these periods were categorized  
257 respectively as molt and post-molt.

258

### 259 *Statistical analysis*

260 We modelled how the response variable  $\dot{V}O_2$  changed non-linearly over time when seals  
261 were hauled out (minutes post-haulout) during both the molt and post-molt periods. A  
262 Generalized Additive Mixed Model (GAMM) was used with the gam function in the  
263 mgcv library (Wood 2004) using the statistics package R (R Development Core Team  
264 2016). Comparisons between the two measurement periods were made by including  
265 molt stage as an explanatory factor with two levels (molt and post-molt) while  
266 simultaneously fitting separate smooths (thin plate regression splines) of  $\dot{V}O_2$  over  
267 minutes post-haulout at each of those two levels. The use of thin plate regression splines  
268 allows for the automatic optimization of the degree of smoothness for the relationship of  
269 interest (Wood 2003) which in this case was changes in  $\dot{V}O_2$  over minutes post-haulout.

270 Separation of the two smooths for molt and post-molt periods involved using the “by”  
271 option for smoothing parameters in the mgcv library where a separate smooth is derived  
272 at each level of the supplied factor variable. Air temperature within the chamber in the  
273 full model to assess changes in metabolic rate that may be associated with differing  
274 ambient conditions. The variable eHIF was included in the full model to account for the  
275 timing and quantity of food consumed. Air temperature, eHIF and mass were included  
276 as smooths in the full model. Smoothed terms were tested for significance to determine  
277 whether they should or should not be treated as linear predictors. A continuous time  
278 auto-regressive correlation structure was incorporated using the nlme library (Pinheiro  
279 et al. 2017) to account for autocorrelation of measurements taken within each haulout.  
280 The autocorrelation structure penalizes smoothed lines for the response variable  
281 assuming equally spaced time covariate measurements taken in succession and are  
282 therefore likely to be autocorrelated with one another (Pinheiro and Bates 2000).  
283 Additionally, individual was included as a random variable to account for the effect of  
284 particular individual animals that may bias the results either positively or negatively.  
285 Model selection was carried out in a step-wise backwards selection process using  
286 Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC) with candidate models being chosen based on  
287 having the lowest AIC score.

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293 **Results**

294

295 *Study animals and haulout activity*

296 Mean  $\pm$  S.D. mass of the five adult males used in this study was  $85.62 \pm 6.00\text{kg}$  ( $n = 31$ )  
297 and  $84.2 \pm 4.92\text{kg}$  ( $n = 45$ ) during the molt and post-molt study periods respectively.

298 Mass of one sub-adult male was  $63.5 \pm 1.33\text{kg}$  ( $n = 6$ ) and  $61.0 \pm 1.50\text{kg}$  ( $n = 8$ ) during  
299 the same periods. A total of 127 haulouts were recorded over 113 days with 52 during  
300 the molt and 75 post-molt over the course of the study. Mean  $\pm$  S.D. haulout durations  
301 during the molt and post-molt periods were  $156 \pm 32.59$  ( $n = 52$ ) minutes and  $157 \pm 33.00$  ( $n = 75$ )  
302 respectively (see Table 1 for details on individual animals).

303

304 *Environmental measurements*

305 Mean  $\pm$  S.D. air temperature inside the respirometry chamber during haulouts was  
306 greater during the molt ( $16.8 \pm 2.05^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $n = 52$ ) than during the post-molt ( $13.4 \pm 2.41^\circ\text{C}$ ,  
307  $n = 75$ ) period.

308

309 *Oxygen consumption*

310 GAMM model predictions showed there to be a significant non-linear relationship  
311 between  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  and time since hauling out both during the molt ( $p < 0.001$ ) and post-molt  
312 ( $p < 0.001$ ) periods. Model predictions of  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  during haulouts are shown in Figure 2.  
313 Predictions  $\pm$  S.E.  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  showed that at zero minutes post-haulout  $\dot{V}\text{O}_2$  was greater when

314 animals were molting ( $0.70 \pm 0.06$  l O<sub>2</sub> min<sup>-1</sup>) compared to when not molting ( $0.64 \pm$   
315  $0.05$  l O<sub>2</sub> min<sup>-1</sup>). During both molt and post molt periods  $\dot{V}O_2$  increased to a maximum  
316 ca. 40 minutes after hauling out and then declined continuously until 180 minutes post-  
317 haulout (Fig. 2). However, during the molt period,  $\dot{V}O_2$  increased more rapidly and  
318 reached a greater maximum than during the post-molt period. Maximum  $\dot{V}O_2$   
319 measurements at 40 minutes were  $0.90 \pm 0.06$  l O<sub>2</sub> min<sup>-1</sup> and  $0.70 \pm 0.05$  l O<sub>2</sub> min<sup>-1</sup>  
320 decreasing to  $0.65 \pm 0.05$  l O<sub>2</sub> min<sup>-1</sup> and  $0.53 \pm 0.05$  l O<sub>2</sub> min<sup>-1</sup> at 180 minutes post-  
321 haulout during the molt and post-molt periods, respectively.

322         The explanatory variables retained in the final model as smooths were air  
323 temperature, mass and eHIF. Molt stage, as defined above, was also retained as a factor.  
324 Air temperature showed no particular pattern over the range of values recorded during  
325 haulouts, though air temperature appeared to reduce  $\dot{V}O_2$  above  $\sim 18^\circ\text{C}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ).  
326 However, this may have been an artefact of having less data in that higher range of  
327 temperatures. Similarly, decreasing mass seemed to reduce  $\dot{V}O_2$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), but data  
328 were limited at the lower range for mass due to only one sub-adult male being included  
329 in the study. Decreasing eHIF was generally shown to have a negative relationship with  
330  $\dot{V}O_2$  ( $p < 0.001$ ). This was associated with a reduction in feeding when not molting  
331 resulting in 35% of molt measurements effectively being measured under post-prandial  
332 conditions as 15 hours had lapsed between feeding and experimental measurements  
333 taking place, whereas only 29% of post-molt measurements were considered post-  
334 prandial due to animals feeding more frequently. Partial effect predictions of molt stage  
335 as a factor showed there to be an overall reduction in  $\dot{V}O_2$  during the post-molt period  
336 compared to the molt period ( $p < 0.001$ ). The adjusted R<sup>2</sup> value for the final model was  
337 0.155 meaning that 15.5% of the variation of  $\dot{V}O_2$  over minutes post-haulout was

338 explained by the modelling approach used. Partial effects plots of each of the  
339 explanatory variables retained in the final model are summarized in Figure 3, allowing  
340 visualization of the magnitude of the effect of each explanatory variable on  $\dot{V}O_2$  at the  
341 different levels of each effect. The final GAMM model was checked for meeting  
342 assumptions of homogeneity (fig. S1, available online) and normal distribution (fig. S2,  
343 available online) of residual errors. Candidate models used during model selection are  
344 summarized in table S1, available online.

345

## 346 **Discussion**

347 We found that in harbour seals, post-haulout  $\dot{V}O_2$  was greater during the molt compared  
348 to a post-molt period, indicating the importance of this life-stage in their overall energy  
349 budget. Assuming that animals consumed an average  $\dot{V}O_2$  of 0.76 (molting) and 0.62 l  
350  $O_2 \text{ min}^{-1}$  (post-molt) over three hours post-haulout (where 1 l of  $O_2 = 19.7 \text{ kJ}$ , (Schmidt-  
351 Nielsen, 1997)), the metabolic rate during molt was equivalent to an additional energetic  
352 requirement of 500 kJ (18.4% increase). This represents 2.5% of the daily energy  
353 requirement (20,000 kJ) of an adult harbor seal (Harkonen and Heidejorgensen 1991).  
354 Changes in  $\dot{V}O_2$  were non-linear over the duration of three hours post-haulout both  
355 during the molt and post-molt periods. However,  $\dot{V}O_2$  increased faster and reached a  
356 greater maximum at 40 minutes post-haulout when seals were molting. Beyond 40  
357 minutes,  $\dot{V}O_2$  steadily declined indicating that during the molt the first 40 minutes post-  
358 haulout have a high energetic cost relative to the remainder of the haulout.

359 In harbor seals, the process of molting is facilitated by hauling out and elevating  
360 skin temperature by shunting blood to the epidermis through anastomoses in the blubber

361 layer (Ling 1970). Paterson et al. (2012) calculated that heat loss associated with  
362 elevating skin temperature post-haulout in molting harbor seals approximately doubled.  
363 The same study also showed that elevation of skin temperature while seals were molting  
364 reached an asymptote 30 minutes after hauling out. The results of the present study are  
365 lower but both studies indicate that molting seals increase metabolic rate in the initial  
366 part of a haulout to drive the physiological processes involved in achieving a high skin  
367 temperature and compensating for evaporative heat loss while drying out. Beyond the  
368 point at which skin temperature asymptotes and stasis is achieved, the need for a high  
369 metabolic rate is reduced and so metabolic rate declines. The results of both studies  
370 demonstrate that it is the initial stage of the haulout that is relatively energetically  
371 demanding. Any increase in the frequency with which seals ended one haulout and  
372 began another would therefore increase the amount of time in this elevated metabolic  
373 state. This effect may be exacerbated in inclement weather conditions that reduce skin  
374 temperature and/or increase the amount of time taken for seals to dry out, or may in fact  
375 be diminished if seals benefit from higher levels of solar radiation that speed drying of  
376 fur.

377         While harbor seals are molting, they spend a large proportion of time hauled out.  
378 For example, using telemetry data Lonergan et al. (2013) showed that the mean  
379 proportion of time hauled out during the molt was 0.72. By comparison, Cunningham et  
380 al. (2009) reported the proportion of time hauled out during a post-molt period as 0.34.  
381 A behavioral shift during the molt that results in seals spending more time on land  
382 makes them vulnerable to anthropogenic sources of disturbance that may cause them to  
383 enter the water at a higher frequency than normal. Previous studies have shown that  
384 harbor seals are highly site faithful (Yochem et al. 1987; Cordes and Thompson 2015),

385 even when exposed to disturbance that causes them to temporarily leave preferred  
386 haulout sites (Andersen et al. 2014; Paterson et al. 2019). It is therefore likely that  
387 anthropogenic sources of disturbance that cause seals to enter the water will repeatedly  
388 affect the same animals around the point of disturbance (Paterson et al. 2019). In the  
389 context of the results of the present study, this is important as each time seals are forced  
390 into the water they are then faced with hauling out again with a corresponding increase  
391 in metabolic rate.

392         Molting harbor seals must balance the amount of time spent on land to complete  
393 the molt process and the amount of time at sea foraging. If seals continue to haul out for  
394 the same proportion of time even when frequently displaced from their haulout sites, the  
395 frequency with which they initiate haulouts will necessarily increase. Alternatively, if  
396 frequent displacement from haulouts reduces the proportion of time hauled out, the  
397 duration of the molt process may be prolonged due to the inability to elevate skin  
398 temperatures when in the water.

399         The relatively long duration of the molt in harbor seals compared to species that  
400 undergo a catastrophic molt requires that they forage intermittently while molting to  
401 meet their daily energetic requirements. In the present study, a derived estimate of the  
402 effect of HIF (eHIF) was used which was assumed to decline linearly over time. While  
403 this approach simplifies HIF on metabolic rate (Markussen et al. 1994), eHIF in this  
404 study was retained as a significant explanatory variable indicating that metabolic rate  
405 was higher when boluses of food were larger and had a greater effect when the time  
406 between food consumption and  $\dot{V}O_2$  measurements was shorter.

407           Seals in this study did feed around the time  $\dot{V}O_2$  measurements were taken,  
408 consuming less food during the molt which resulted in a lower eHIF effect. These  
409 results may reflect  $\dot{V}O_2$  in wild animals more realistically than if they were kept in a  
410 post-absorptive state as harbor seals in the wild would be expected to continue to feed  
411 while molting, albeit at a lower rate. The fact that the effect of eHIF was lower during  
412 the molt due to reduced food intake means that the difference between  $\dot{V}O_2$  in molting  
413 versus non-molting seals may have been greater if seals were consuming equal amounts  
414 of food in both periods. The lowering of metabolic rate in response to reduced feeding  
415 may also partly explain why metabolic rate has been found to be lower in molting seals  
416 in other studies. In these cases, animals were either kept in a post-absorptive state for  
417 respirometry measurements such as for harbor seals (see Ashwell-Erickson et al. (1986)  
418 and Rosen and Renouf (1998)), or were known to be fasting while on land such as in the  
419 study of northern elephant seals (Worthy et al. 1992). Seals in the wild are also likely to  
420 consume more food than in captivity due to greater activity during foraging suggesting  
421 that HIF would contribute more to haulout metabolic rate in wild seals.

422           This study highlights that the molt is an energetically important stage in the  
423 annual life cycle of harbour seals and provides evidence that mitigation measures to  
424 protect seals from disturbance at haulout sites, particularly during the molt, are  
425 important. Seals on haulout sites may be exposed to anthropogenic disturbances that  
426 cause them to enter the water at a greater frequency (Blundell and Pendleton 2015;  
427 Paterson et al. 2019), which should be avoided in molting seals that have a clear  
428 physiological need to be on land. Seals frequently forced from their haulouts lose heat  
429 on entering the water and must repeatedly elevate skin temperature when hauling out  
430 again (Erdsack et al. 2012). Our findings show that each new haulout started while

431 actively molting is likely to incur an energetic cost which would have a cumulative  
432 effect where disturbance of seals was prevalent. Potentially, human disturbance that  
433 changes the haulout behaviour of molting seals could therefore increase the overall  
434 energetic cost of the molt process. Mitigation measures to avoid disturbance that  
435 increases haulout frequency in molting seals are therefore essential.

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575 **Tables**

Table 1. Number of haulouts used for analyses as well as mean  $\pm$  S.D. (n) mass (kg) are given for each study animal for both molt and post-molt periods in 2013, 2014 and 2015.

		<b>Animal</b>					
		<b>Adult</b>	<b>Adult</b>	<b>Adult</b>	<b>Adult</b>	<b>Adult</b>	<b>Sub-adult</b>
		<b>(2013)</b>	<b>(2013)</b>	<b>(2014)</b>	<b>(2014)</b>	<b>(2015)</b>	<b>(2015)</b>
<b>No. of haulouts</b>	<b>Molt</b>	5	7	14	6	11	9
	<b>Post</b>						
	<b>- molt</b>	15	5	13	20	11	11
<b>Mass</b>	<b>Molt</b>	83.5 $\pm$ 0.55	76.2 $\pm$ 0.46	86.0 $\pm$ 1.54	88.6 $\pm$ 0.09	92.1 $\pm$ 2.53	63.5 $\pm$ 1.33
		(5)	(6)	(8)	(4)	(8)	(6)
	<b>Post</b>						
<b>- molt</b>		79.9 $\pm$ 1.05	80.3 $\pm$ 1.09	92.0 $\pm$ 1.42	85.8 $\pm$ 1.75	83.6 $\pm$ 1.78	61.0 $\pm$ 1.50
		(13)	(5)	(7)	(15)	(5)	(8)

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580 Table S1. GAMM models for predicting  $\dot{V}O_2$ . Explanatory variables are abbreviated as  
 581 molt stage (MS), air temperature (AT), mass of animals (M) and estimated heat  
 582 increment of feeding (eHIF). Variables in s() indicate a smooth function has been used.  
 583 Otherwise the variable was treated as linear. The use of separate smooths for molt  
 584 stages is indicated with “by”. Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC), degrees of freedom  
 585 (df) and deviance explained (%) are given for each model. The model in bold with the  
 586 lowest AIC score is the final chosen model after backwards selection.

GAMM formula	AIC	df	dev. (%)
<b><math>\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + s(AT) + s(M) + s(eHIF) + \text{factor}(MS)</math></b>	<b>-642.85</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>15.5</b>
$\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + AT + s(M) + s(eHIF) + \text{factor}(MS)$	-567.58	14	21.3
$\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + s(M) + s(eHIF) + \text{factor}(MS)$	-565.48	13	20.5
$\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + s(AT) + M + s(eHIF) + \text{factor}(MS)$	-578.72	14	13.6
$\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + s(AT) + s(eHIF) + \text{factor}(MS)$	-578.79	13	12.8
$\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + s(AT) + s(M) + eHIF + \text{factor}(MS)$	-495.38	14	14.9
$\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + s(AT) + s(M) + \text{factor}(MS)$	-469.65	13	10.0
$\dot{V}O_2 \sim s(\text{Time by MS}) + s(AT) + s(M) + s(eHIF)$	-541.39	14	6.9

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593 **Figure Legends**

594 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the open flow respirometry system (figure adapted from  
595 Sparling et al. (2004). Arrows indicate the direction of air flow.

596 Figure 2. Smoothed model predictions of  $\dot{V}O_2$  ( $l\ O_2\ min^{-1}$ ) over minutes post-haulout  
597 during the molt and post-molt periods (black solid lines). Shaded areas extend to two  
598 standard errors either side of the smooths. Black dashed lines indicate predicted mean  
599  $\dot{V}O_2$  for both study periods combined. Variations in air temperature, eHIF, mass of  
600 animals and moult stage are accounted for in model predictions.

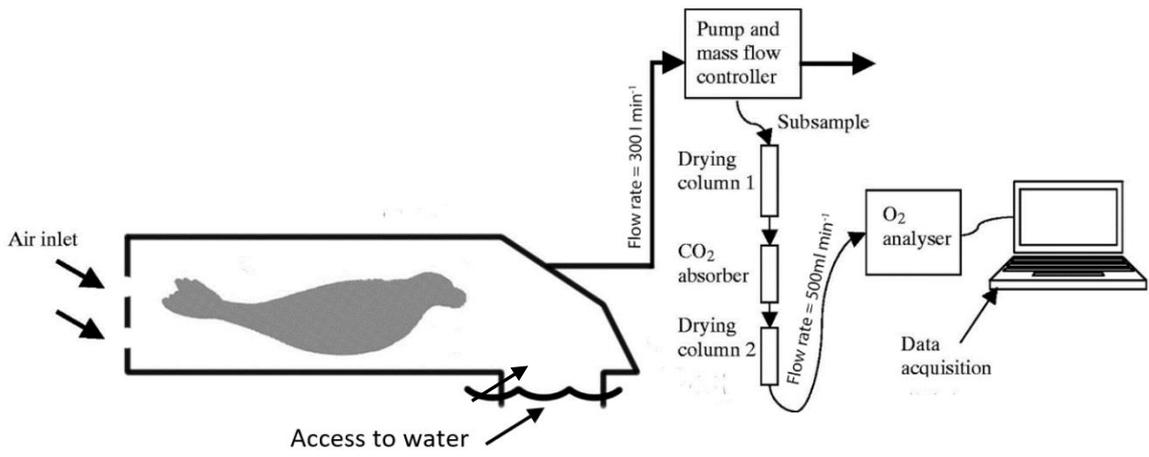
601 Figure 3. Partial effects for the relationship between  $\dot{V}O_2$  and each of the explanatory  
602 variables in the final model. Note that the effects for smoothed terms centred on zero  
603 which is the mean partial effect of the variable. These are given for air temperature (a),  
604 mass (b) and estimated heat increment of feeding (eHIF) (c). The predicted effect for  
605 the factor molt stage is also given with molt being the reference value with post-molt  
606 (e). The shaded area for the smoothed terms extends to two standard errors either side of  
607 the smooth. Confidence intervals for the factor molt stage extend to two standard errors  
608 either side of the estimated effect.

609 Figure S1. Relationship between standardized residuals and fitted values for the final  
610 GAMM model, demonstrating that the assumption of homogeneity of residual errors  
611 was met.

612 Figure S2. Distribution of residual errors for the final GAMM model, demonstrating  
613 that the assumption of errors being normally distributed was met.

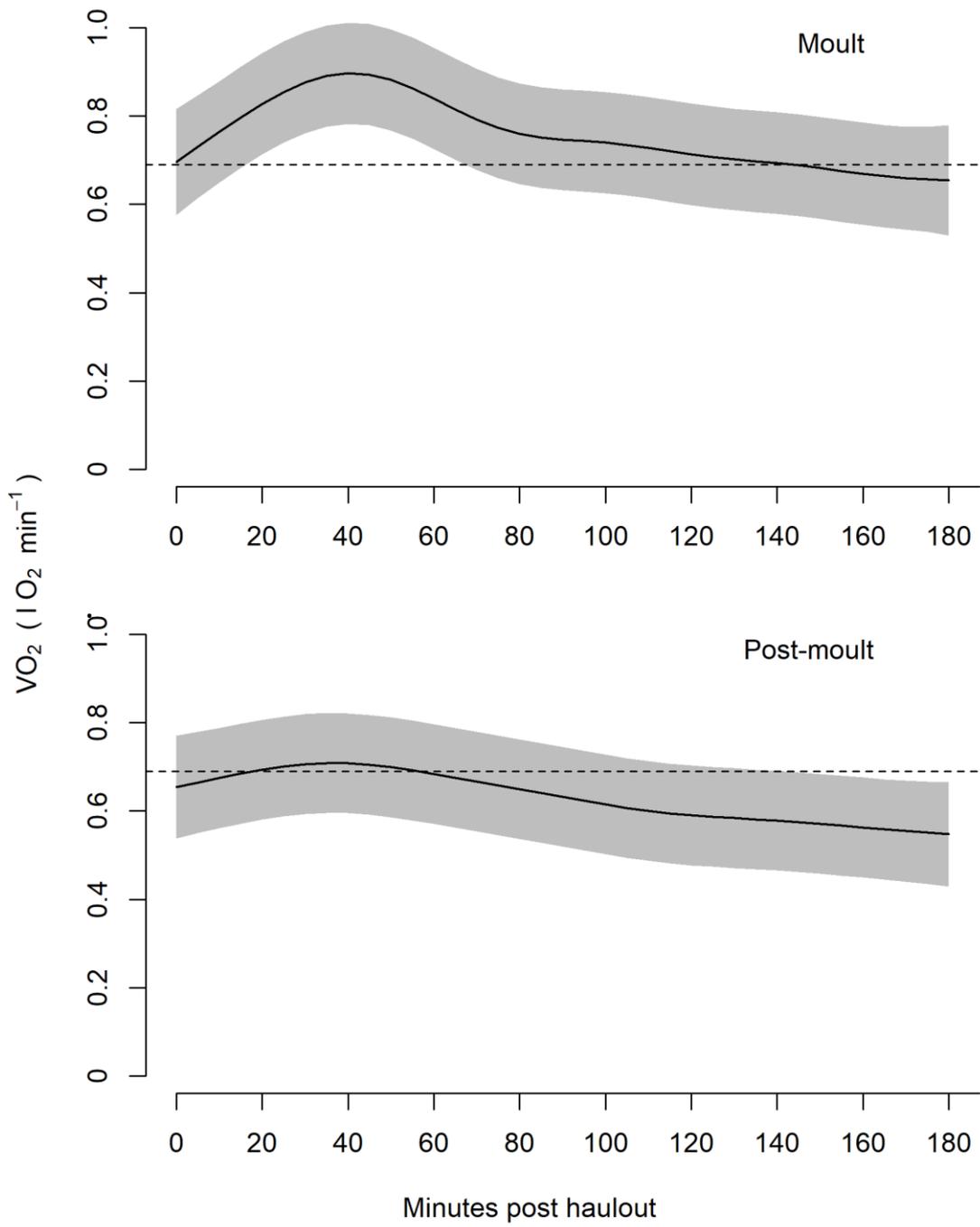
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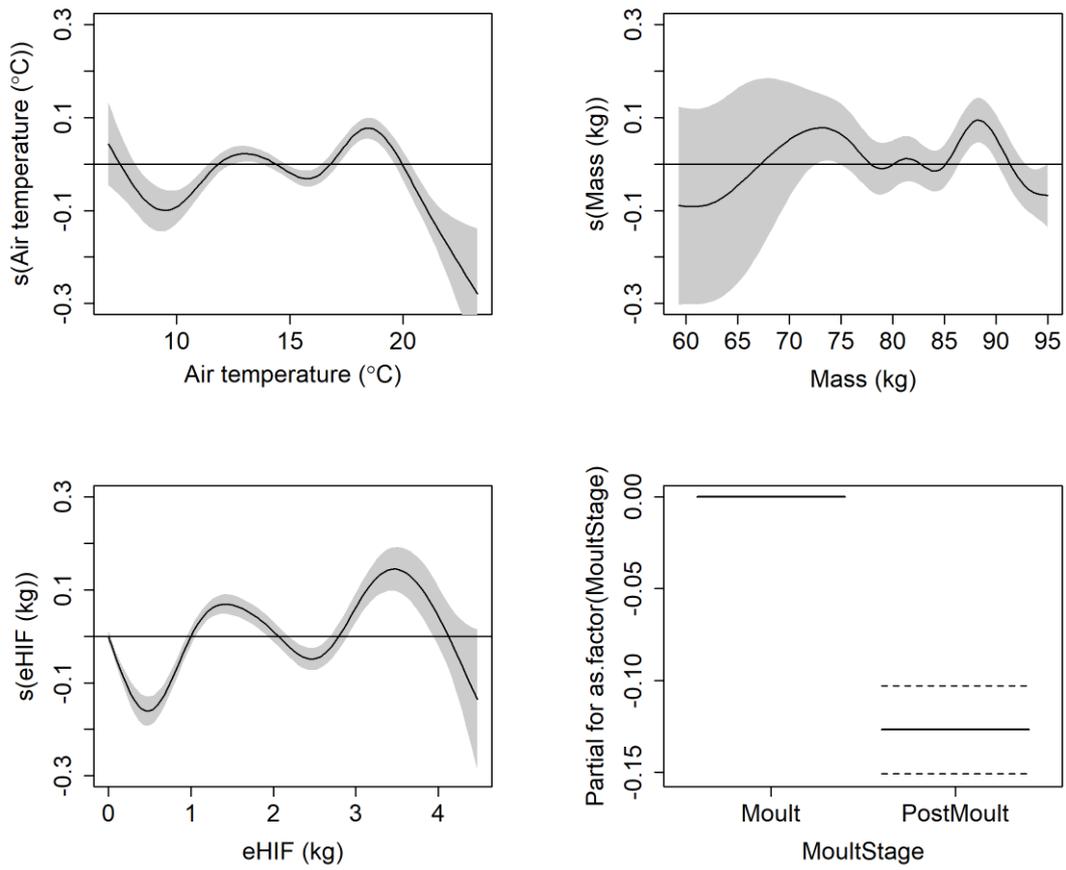
615 **Figures**



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617 **Figure 1.**





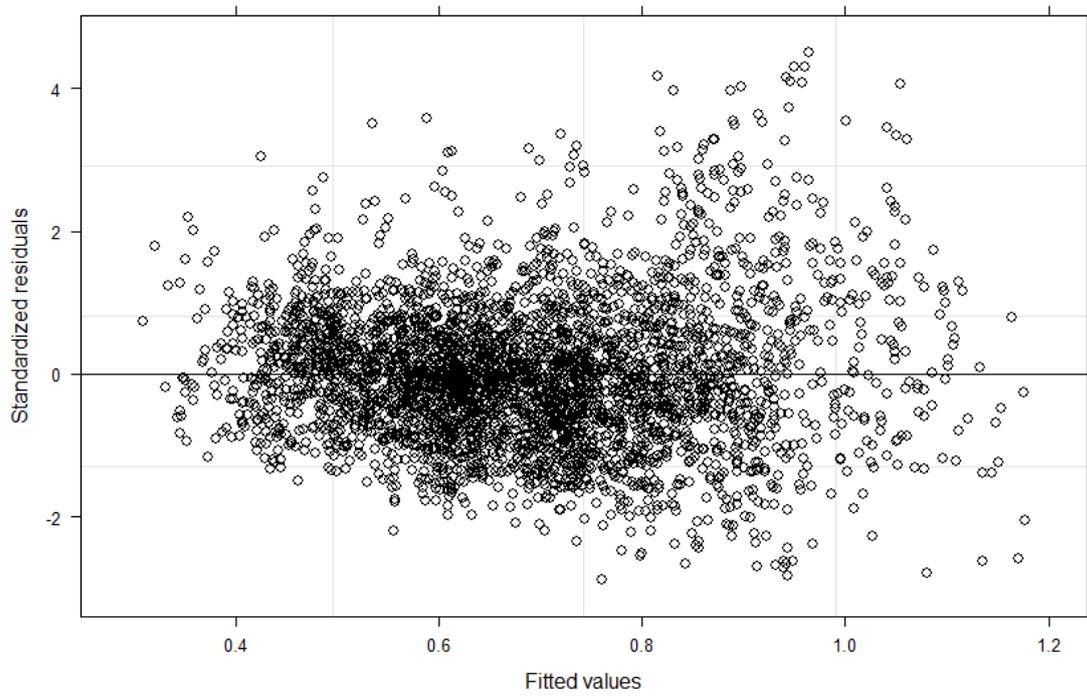
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623 Figure 3.

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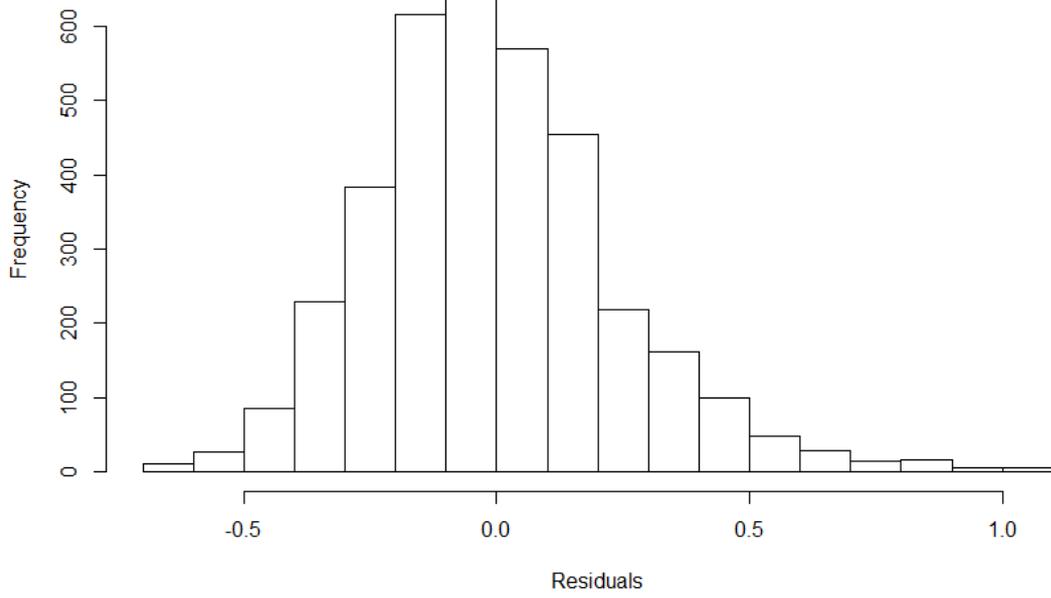
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635 Figure S2.