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Respiratory plasticity during acclimation to hypoxia and following a recovery in normoxia

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Abstract :

Phenotypic plasticity manifested after acclimatization is a very important source of biological variability among fish species. We hypothesized that hypoxic acclimation, besides potentially generating a temporary hypoxic respiratory phenotype, would also manifest as a continued benefit after re-acclimation to normoxia. Hence, we holistically characterized the respiratory phenotype of European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax) acclimated to normoxia with or without prior acclimation to hypoxia. Compared with the original normoxic phenotype, prior acclimation to hypoxia and return to normoxia produced a 27% higher absolute aerobic scope (AAS), a 24% higher citrate synthase activity in red muscle and a 28% lower excess post-exercise O2 consumption. Additional testing of hypoxia-acclimated fish under normoxia explored the specific effects of hypoxic acclimation. The hypoxic phenotype, when compared with the original normoxic phenotype, had a lower standard metabolic rate, a better hypoxia performance and a lower minimum PO2 for supporting 50% AAS. Given this respiratory malleability, general predictions for marine fish exploiting a more hypoxic future should better consider respiratory plasticity and prolonged effects of hypoxic exposures.

48 **Introduction**

- 49 Animals respond to environmental change either by moving to a more favourable location, by
- 50 changing their phenotype (acclimatization), or potentially by evolving over multiple generations
- 51 (genetic adaptation). Yet, the drastic decrease in dissolved oxygen (O_2) availability (*i.e.*,
- 52 hypoxia) during the Permian era (299-251 million years ago), which extirpated over 90% of
- 53 marine fish species (Graham *et al*., 1995; Clack, 2007), illustrates potential limits to such coping
- 54 strategies. Nonetheless, fish species subsequently radiated into the most specious vertebrate

 group, suggesting that successful and broad environmental adaptations did occur among the survivors of the Permian era.

 Today, the Anthropocene is presenting extant marine fishes with another hypoxic challenge. Associated with global warming, the increased frequency of hypoxic episodes can be one of the key driving forces well into the future, reshaping the distribution and evolution of marine species (Deutsch *et al*., 2015). The hypoxia-induced redistribution can be affected by the 61 ability of aquatic ectotherms to obtain O_2 in the hypoxia (Seibel and Deutsch, 2020; Seibel *et al.*, 2021). With this prospect, a key question concerning the biodiversity of marine fishes is how plastic is the respiratory phenotype of marine fishes? We define respiratory phenotype as a suite of respiratory performance metrics that characterize whole-animal aerobic and glycolytic metabolism.

 In nature, ample opportunities exist for fishes to manifest new respiratory phenotypes that preserve their capacity to sustain their activities. These opportunities are the daily and seasonal environmental cycles experienced by fish in freshwater (Morash *et al*., 2018), intertidal (Somero, 2002) and marine (Drinkwater *et al*., 2003) ecosystems, as well as diurnal or seasonal migrations into hypoxic zones of certain marine fishes for foraging (Douglas *et al*., 1976; Gjøsaeter, 1984; MacKenzie and Mariani, 2012). In the present study, we were particularly interested in examining the aerobic performance of fish, the development of a hypoxic phenotypic and its reversibility, *i.e.*, would a fish restore its original normoxic respiratory phenotype after being returned to normoxia following hypoxic acclimation, or would a new phenotype emerge?

 Phenotypic plasticity in response to hypoxia can occur rapidly in fishes and enhances aerobic performance under hypoxic conditions (*see summaries* by Wang *et al*., 2009; Gamperl and Driedzic, 2009; Richards, 2009). The high-latitude minnow (*Rhynchocypris lagowskii*

 Dybowski, 1869), for example, remodels its entire gill structure after just a 30-min hypoxic exposure (Yang *et al*., 2021). Similarly, the mangrove rivulus (*Kryptolebias marmoratus* Poey, 1880) remodels epidermal ionocytes and respiratory traits after just 24 h of air exposure (Blanchard *et al*., 2019; Dong *et al*., 2021). Moreover, a brief ischemic period can precondition fish cardiac myocytes to help maintain stroke volume and cardiac output, can induce cardiac 83 hypertrophy and can enhance the sarcolemmal ATP-sensitive K^+ channels, helping fish to perform better in a subsequent hypoxic episode (Gamperl *et al*., 2001b; Gillis and Johnston, 2017; Carnevale *et al*., 2021). Hence, we hypothesized that hypoxic acclimation, besides generating a hypoxic respiratory phenotype, would also provide respiratory benefits upon re- acclimation to normoxia. Our broader objective was to contribute to understanding how marine 88 fishes might respond to seasonal O_2 cycling and thereby better predict future distributions of marine fish species.

90 Our model species was European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax* Linnaeus, 1758) 91 because it has an active lifestyle and naturally exploits hypoxic habitats. Adults require a high 92 aerobic capacity to capture prey in hydraulically dynamic coastal waters (Pickett and Pawson, 93 1994), while juveniles successfully exploit hypoxic estuaries and coastal lagoons. Indeed, their 94 hemoglobin-O₂ affinity (P₅₀ = \sim 1.7 kPa; Pichavant *et al.*, 2003), which lies between that of the 95 hypoxia-tolerant common carp ($P_{50} = 0.9$ kPa; Roy and Lykkeboe, 1978) and that of the active, 96 hypoxia-sensitive rainbow trout (P₅₀ = 2.9 kPa; Weber *et al.*, 1976), suggests a moderate hypoxia 97 tolerance. Furthermore, when ambient O_2 was cycled between 8.3 and 17.8 kPa (Thetmeyer *et* 98 *al*., 1999), growth rate and feed conversion efficiency were preserved over a 4-week period. In 99 fact, sea bass held at 10.4 kPa ambient O_2 [50 % saturation (% sat.) at 20 °C] displayed a full

100 postprandial peak O_2 uptake (Zambonino-Infante *et al.*, 2017). Thus, hypoxia acclimation of the present study used 50 % sat. for the maintenance of normal growth during hypoxia.

 Our hypothesis was tested by returning European sea bass that had been acclimated to a stable hypoxic environment back into their original normoxic environment. We asked whether they simply reverted to the original normoxic phenotype, or whether a new normoxic phenotype would emerge (Fig. 1). Also, to provide clues to the mechanisms underlying any new respiratory phenotype, we tested hypoxia-acclimated fish under normoxic and hypoxic conditions. Thus, by 107 holistically characterizing a normoxic and hypoxic phenotype might provide insights into the $O₂$ cost of breathing hypoxic water as well as establishing the nature of hypoxic acclimation. We holistically characterized the individual respiratory phenotype of sea bass using whole-animal respirometry (Claireaux and Lagardère, 1999; Svendsen *et al*., 2016; Zhang *et al*., 2019) and measured muscle enzymes activities of citrate synthase (CS) and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) (Childress and Somero, 1979; Dalziel *et al*., 2012). In addition, we generated individual hypoxic performance curves (Zhang *et al*., 2022).

Materials and methods

(a) Experimental animals and acclimation procedures

Before experiments started, a stock of juvenile European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*,

Linnaeus 1758; n = 150; Aquastream, Lorient, France) was reared for 12 weeks under normoxic

laboratory conditions in a 2000-L indoor tank in Ifremer research facilities (Plouzané, France).

They were fed *ad libitum* twice weekly (Le Gouessant, Lamballe, France). Individual radio-

frequency identification tags were subcutaneously implanted under anaesthesia (100 mg L−1 MS-

222) at the end of the sixth week of the rearing period. Fish holding and all experimental

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123 procedures followed the guidelines of current animal care rules and regulations in France (Apafis 124 2018040916374437).

125 Acclimation prior to respirometry measurements involved equally redistributing fish into 126 two acclimation tanks (500-L) that received flow-through (300 L h⁻¹) and thermoregulated 127 seawater (16 \degree C; the average summer temperature of the species experience in the region). 128 Photoperiod was synchronized to the natural regional cycle with an adjustment to the diurnal 129 cycle each week. One acclimation tank contained control normoxic fish that remained at a partial 130 pressure of O_2 level of \sim 20.4 kPa (dissolved O_2 of \sim 98 % sat.). Some of these fish were tested 131 after 4 weeks of acclimation to on-going normoxic conditions (N-N: 61.5 ± 2.0 g, n = 28). The 132 other acclimation tank had been made progressively hypoxic at a rate of 10 % sat. h⁻¹ to 50 % 133 sat. (10.4 kPa) using a custom-built, 50-L gas-equilibration column that was situated upstream of 134 the aquarium and received the thermoregulated seawater into the top while nitrogen gas was 135 injected at the bottom. The hypoxic water was maintained for six weeks for the hypoxia-136 acclimated group. Thereafter, some fish respirometry tests were performed either under the same 137 hypoxic conditions (10.4 kPa; H-H; 63.6 ± 5.7 g; n = 16; Suppl. Mat.) or under normoxic 138 conditions (H-N: 74.7 ± 4.5 g, n = 16). The remainder were returned to normoxia for four weeks 139 for re-acclimation before being tested under normoxic conditions (HN-N: 63.3 ± 6.1 g, n = 13) 140 and comparison with the N-N group.

 A common acclimation period for temperate fish species is 3-4 weeks under normoxic conditions (*e.g.* Fangue *et al*., 2009); a new cardiac phenotype can begin to appear even after 8 h of 4 °C acclimation (Sutcliffe *et al*., 2020; Gilbert *et al*., 2022). Therefore, we assumed that a steady-state phenotype would emerge after a normoxic acclimation period of four weeks and be stable thereafter. The respiratory phenotype of a temperate fish can be stable for 9–18 weeks

 under controlled laboratory conditions (Table S1; Zhang *et al*., 2019; Polinski *et al*., 2021; Zhang, 2021). Hypoxia, however, could slow the acclimation processes. Therefore, as a precaution, we used a 6-week hypoxic acclimation period in the event of a slower acclimation process in an oxygen limiting environment. Our reasoning was partly based on a 6-week hypoxic (~40 % sat., 8.4 kPa) acclimation period being previously used for a hypoxic phenotype of Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*, Linnaeus, 1758) at a colder temperature of 10 °C (Petersen and Gamperl, 2010; Petersen and Gamperl, 2011).

154 **(b) Protocol used to characterize the individual respiratory phenotypes**

155 We followed simultaneously individual $\dot{M}O_2$ for eight, fasted (for 48 h) fish over a 3-day period 156 using an automatic respirometry system (Steffensen, 1989), as previously validated and 157 described for the Integrated Respiratory Assessment Protocol (IRAP; Zhang *et al*., 2016; 2019). 158 Phenotyping of each treatment group (n=~16) consequently involved two sets of measurements 159 over a 5-day period using eight 2.25-L Loligo®-type respirometer chambers (water volume: fish 160 ratio = 36:1) that were immersed in a 500-L seawater bath at an ambient water temperature of 16 161 \pm 0.5 °C. This outer bath was connected via a pump to the gas-equilibrium column used to 162 control water PO_2 . Water from the outer bath (normoxic or hypoxic depending on the test 163 conditions) was supplied to each respirometry chamber via a dedicated individual water pump. 164 Water PO₂ in each of the eight respirometers was continuously measured using an optical O_2 165 probe (Robust O₂ Probe OXROB2, PyroScience GmbH, Aachen, Germany). $\dot{M}O_2$ of each 166 individual fish was reported on-line every 10 min (*see* Fig. 2a) by AquaResp software (Svendsen 167 *et al*., 2019), which used a sequential interval regression analysis for a 420-s period when the 168 respirometer was sealed (*see* Suppl. Mat.). The remainder of the 10-min $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement cycle

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169 was taken up by a 120-s flush period (the respirometer open) and a 60-s stabilization period (the 170 respirometer closed) prior to the actual 420-s $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement period.

171 Each respirometry chamber was equipped with a customized chasing device (a 14-cm 172 soft, flexible plastic strip located at the mid-point of the chamber; Zhang *et al*., 2020). This 173 device individually agitated fish after $a \ge 30$ -min period of habituation to the respirometer. 174 During the 10-min agitation period each fish become refractory and during this agitation the on-175 line monitoring of $\dot{M}O_2$ revealed peaks and plateaus in $\dot{M}O_2$ associated with activity and rest 176 periods. Peaks in $\dot{M}O_2$ were occasionally seen in the 10-min measurement cycle when the fish 177 was no longer being agitated and $\dot{M}O_2$ was in a declining phase. Maximum O_2 uptake ($\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$) 178 was determined from these peaks in $\dot{M}O_2(\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}})$ using a more precise, off-line analysis 179 (Zhang *et al*., 2019; Zhang and Gilbert, 2017 an iterative algorithm applied to 2-min 180 measurement windows (Fig. S1); *see* Appendix). This method of generating an $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ was 181 previously validated for rainbow trout because $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ was higher compared with a protocol that 182 chased rainbow trout outside of the respirometer (Zhang *et al*., 2020). Indeed, sea bass chased to 183 exhaustion at 16 °C outside of the respirometer at the Ifremer laboratory (Brest, France) had a 184 numerically lower $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ (~400 mg O_2 h⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Zhang *et al.*, 2017) when compared with our 185 *Ṁ*O2max measurements (see *Results*).

186 After the agitation, we followed the decline in $\dot{M}O_2$ of fish for about 10 h to calculate the 187 total O₂ consumed during the recovery (Zhang *et al.* 2018) and estimate the excess post-188 exhaustion O_2 consumption (EPOC; see calculation in Appendix). After this recovery, each fish 189 remained undisturbed (except for a daily visual check) for the ensuing two-day quiescent period 190 that yielded \sim 240 measurements of routine $\dot{M}O_2$ per fish, from which standard metabolic rate 191 (SMR) and routine metabolic rate (RMR) were estimated using established analytical

192 procedures. SMR was analysed off-line with a quantile algorithm (q0.2) (Chabot *et al*., 2016) 193 applied to the \sim 240 $\dot{M}O_2$ measurements. Absolute aerobic scope (AAS) was derived from the 194 numerical difference between $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ and SMR, while factorial aerobic scope (FAS) was 195 derived from the quotient of $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ and SMR. RMR was determined as the average of the \sim 240 196 *MO*₂ measurements and the standard deviation of an individual's RMR was used as an index of 197 spontaneous activity, *i.e.* the more active a fish, the greater the variability of RMR measurements 198 for an individual fish. All $\dot{M}O_2$ values were corrected for the background $\dot{M}O_2$, which was 199 measured for 20 min in each respirometer without a fish, both before and immediately after 200 every trial. A logarithmic microbial growth model was applied to background measurement over 201 the entire period of respirometry so that the background $\dot{M}O_2$ could be subtracted from each 202 relevant $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement.

203 IRAP ended with a hypoxia challenge test (HCT) when the gas-equilibration column 204 reduced PO₂ in the outer bath initially to ~6.25 kPa (DO = ~30 % sat.) within 45 min (*i.e.*, 0.313 205 kPa min⁻¹ or \sim 1.5% sat. min⁻¹) and then at a slower rate of deoxygenation (0.0313 kPa min⁻¹ or 206 \sim 0.15% sat. min⁻¹) until the fish lost its dorso-ventral equilibrium. The incipient lethal O₂ partial 207 pressure (ILOP; Claireaux *et al.*, 2013) was assigned to the partial O_2 pressure (PO₂) when the 208 fish first lost equilibrium. At this point, fish were immediately removed from the respirometer 209 and successfully revived before returning them to their holding aquaria. The off-line analysis of 210 *MO*₂ during the HCT and as a fish became progressively hypoxic yielded the PO₂ level at which 211 SMR could no longer be maintained, the critical O_2 partial pressure (P_{crit} ; see calculation in 212 Appendix). The scope for O_2 deficit (SOD) was assigned to the difference between P_{crit} and 213 ILOP.

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 Our holistic respiratory phenotyping was based, therefore, on 10 measured or derived respiratory indices for individual fish. The respiratory phenotype of the H-N group was compared with the N-N group to ascertain the nature of the that had emerged for the hypoxic phenotype. The H-H and H-N groups were also compared (Suppl. Mat.) to understand the limiting effect of ambient hypoxia (Fry, 1971). Respiratory indices were statistically compared among treatment groups (N-N, H-N and HN-N) with general linear effect models and body mass as a covariate. Logarithm transformations were needed for comparisons of the variance of RMR to meet the assumptions of normality of residuals and homoscedasticity of the variance. **(c) Protocol used for measuring an individual hypoxic performance curve** A hypoxic performance curve (HPC) can quantify the constraint of a progressive decrease of 226 ambient water PO₂ on $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$, *i.e.*, the relationship between $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ and water PO₂. Previous studies have generated and validated an HPC for group activity of fish (Lefrancois and Claireaux, 2003) and for individual fish (Zhang *et al*., 2021; Zhang *et al*., 2022). We generated 229 HPC on individual fish after normoxic acclimation $(N-N; n=8)$ and after hypoxic acclimation (H-230 N; n=8). These sea bass were tested following a 7-day recovery (5 days feeding and 2 days fasting) from their IRAP test and assumed full recovery from the exhaustive and the HCT would take < 24 h (Milligan, 1996; Zhang *et al*., 2018). Fish were placed in individual respirometers, as described above, for the HPC. They

234 habituated to the respirometer in a flush mode and received normoxic seawater (with DO = 235 \sim 95 % sat., 19.8 kPa, 16 °C) for 30 min. The $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement cycle was 5 min: a 120-s $\dot{M}O_2$ 236 recording period, a 150-s flush period and a 30-s stabilization period to better capture $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$.

237 An initial agitation for 10 min generated a $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ under normoxic condition (again using off-238 line analysis; *see* Appendix). During the ensuing 25 min, while the water $PO₂$ was progressively 239 reduced with the respirometer in flush mode (*see* above), a fish would partially recover. The next 240 *MO*₂ measurement cycle started 25 min after the previous measurement and at a lower PO₂, 241 which was maintained while the fish was again agitated to generate a new $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$. This 242 procedure was then repeated every 10 min at a progressively lower PO₂ down to 4.2 kPa (DO = 243 20% sat.) (*i.e.*, slightly higher than our measured P_{crit}). The total test time of an HPC was \sim 125 244 min and yielded 11 $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ values at progressively lower levels of water PO₂. After an HPC test, 245 the fish were removed from the respirometer and returned to a well-aerated aquarium where they 246 all recovered.

247 An individual-based HPC was based on a one-phase association regression equation 248 (Eqn. 1), which best modelled the relationship between the measured $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ and the ambient 249 PO₂ (Mueller and Seymour, 2011). We only used individual regression models that had $0.65 \le$ 250 R² ≤ 0.99 (three fish were rejected). Those satisfying this level of quality assurance were pooled 251 for averaged HPCs of the normoxia-acclimated ($n=6$) and hypoxia-acclimated ($n=7$) test groups. 252 Individual variation among the individual HPCs was accounted for by normalizing $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ as a 253 percentage of the individual AAS (derived from the individual *MO*_{2peak} measured at normoxia). 254 This normalized HPC was then used to interpolate the minimum PO_2 at which a fish could 255 generate 50% of its normoxic aerobic scope, PAAS-50 (Zhang *et al*., 2022). These individual data 256 were used to statistically compare $P_{\text{AAS-50}}$ normoxia-acclimated and hypoxia-acclimated test 257 groups with an independent sample t-test.

259
$$
y = I + (Asymptote - I) * [1-exp(-K * x)]
$$
 One-phase association equation (Eqn. 1)

 Where *I* is the intercept at the y-axis, *Asymptote* is a line that the curve continues to approach at infinity. *I* and *Asymptote* are expressed in the same unit as y. *K* is the rate constant for a hyperbolic increase.

(d) Organ and enzyme activity measurements

 Additional fish were directly sampled by removing them directly from the acclimation tanks (normoxic, hypoxic and re-aerated hypoxic fish) to provide representative measurements of organ size, hematology and metabolic enzyme activity of each acclimation phenotype. They 269 were sacrificed with a blow on the head (N: $n = 23$; H: $n = 13$ and HN: $n = 12$). Blood was removed immediately by caudal puncture into a heparinized syringe to determine hematocrit (Sigma 201m microhematocrit centrifuge) and hemoglobin concentration [Hb]. The [Hb] was calculated as described by Clark *et al*. (2008) from the absorbance measured in triplicates (PerkinElmer EnSpineTM 2300 Multilabel plate reader, Perkin Elmer, Turku, Finland) at 540 274 nm for 10 µl of blood diluted to 1 ml with a solution containing: 50 mg $K_3Fe(CN)_6$ (Merck, 275 Espoo, Finland), 12.5 mg KCN (Pharmakon Inc, NJ, USA), 40 mg KH₂PO₄ (MilliporeSigma, 276 Darmstadt, Germany) in 175 ml H_2O . The ventricle and liver were removed and weighed to calculate relative liver and ventricular masses as a percentage of fish body mass. Samples of red and white skeletal muscle (7-8 mm thickness) were removed from the cross-section of the second dorsal fin and caudal fin. They were flash-frozen with liquid nitrogen before storage at -80°C until analysis. We reasoned that, because skeletal muscle is the largest and most active organ in fish, citrate synthase (CS, EC 2.3.3.1) and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH, EC 1.1.1.27) activities from the red and white muscle of fish are useful index of oxidative and substrate-level energy

 metabolic capacity of the fish. These muscle samples were homogenized in 19 and 6 vol. homogenization buffer (0.1% Triton, 50 mM Hepes, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4) for CS activity, and in 19 and 40 vol. homogenization buffer for LDH. Both assays were performed in triplicate (randomized) at room temperature measuring the maximal activity for three minutes with the EnSpire 2300 Multilabel Reader and subtracting the background reaction rate (Dalziel *et al*., 288 2012). The concentration of protein in muscle homogenates was analyzed with a BCA protein 289 assay kit (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA, USA) to express enzyme activity as g^{-1} protein. Organ, hematocrit, haemoglobin and enzyme activity metrics were statistically compared among treatment groups using ANOVA with Tukey-Kramer *post-hoc* tests. Statistical significances for 292 all analyses were assigned when $\alpha \le 0.05$.

Results

(a) Re-acclimation to normoxia of hypoxia-acclimated sea bass produced a new normoxic respiratory phenotype, one with an improved aerobic capacity

 Hypoxia-acclimated sea bass returned to normoxia for 4 weeks did not fully return to their original normoxic phenotype. Notably, aerobic performance was significantly improved. While SMR was similar compared with the N-N test group, the HN-N test group had an 18% higher $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}(503.4 \pm 27.2 \text{ vs. } 427.3 \pm 11.7 \text{ mg } O_2 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}, F_{2,53} = 6.4, p = 0.003)$, which contributed 301 to a 27% higher AAS (402.5 \pm 23.3 vs. 318.0 \pm 13.7 mg O₂ h⁻¹ kg⁻¹, $F_{2,53}$ = 7.2, p = 0.001) and a 28% higher FAS (5.1 ± 0.2 vs. 4.0 ± 0.2, *F*2, 53 = 7.1, *p* = 0.003; Fig. S6). The HN-N phenotype 303 also had a 24% higher citrate synthase activity in red muscle $(F_{2,47} = 3.2, p = 0.049,$ Fig. 3a) than the N-N phenotype.

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312

305 Furthermore, the HN-N group had a 10% lower $P_{\text{crit}}(F_{2, 53} = 18.1 \text{ p} = 0.001$; Fig. 4a) than 306 the N-N phenotype, indicating an improved hypoxia tolerance. The relative liver mass of the 307 HN-N phenotype was significantly lower $(F_{2, 25} = 4.5, p = 0.016,$ Fig. S3d) and their EPOC was 308 28% lower $(F_{2,46} = 5.4, p = 0.013;$ Fig. 4d) compared to hypoxia-acclimated fish.

309 While a new normoxic phenotype certainly emerged after the hypoxia-acclimated sea 310 bass were re-acclimated to normoxia, SMR, ILOP and SOD remained statistically the same as 311 those of the original N-N group ($F_{2, 53} \le 7.7$, $p \ge 0.059$, power ≥ 0.71 , Fig. 2c & Fig. 4b, c).

313 **(b) Hypoxic acclimation of sea bass produced a new respiratory phenotype with improved** 314 **hypoxia tolerance and hypoxic performance**

315 As anticipated (Zambonino-Infante *et al*., 2017), hypoxic acclimation at 10.4 kPa (50% sat.) did 316 not affect body size (Fig. S2). Likewise, the maximum lactate dehydrogenase activities for both 317 red and white muscles ($F_{2,46} \le 0.27$, $p \ge 0.93$, Fig. S7), hematocrit, [Hb] and relative masses of 318 the ventricle and liver were similar for the hypoxia-acclimated fish ($F_{2, 25} \le 3.5$, $p \ge 0.07$; Fig. 319 S3) when compared to the normoxia-acclimated fish.

 All the same, a new hypoxic phenotype was confirmed by testing the hypoxic and normoxic phenotypes in normoxia (*i.e.* H-N and N-N test groups) and revealing significant differences in their respiratory indices. Notably, SMR was 19% lower in the H-N test group 323 when compared with N-N fish $(88.0 \pm 2.1 \text{ vs. } 109.3 \pm 3.5 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}, F_{2,53} = 6.0, p = 0.003;$ Fig. 2c). This hypometabolic state was also reflected in the RMR of the H-N test group. RMR was similarly 15% lower in the H-N test group over the 2-day quiescent period when compared 326 with N-N fish $(117.3 \pm 3.7 \text{ vs. } 138.1 \pm 4.4 \text{ mg } O_2 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}, F_{2,53} = 3.6, p = 0.033$; Fig. 2d). Furthermore, a sustained metabolic depression of the hypoxia-acclimated group was quite

328 evident throughout the quiescent period after inspection of both individual (Fig. 2a) as well as 329 grouped mean $\dot{M}O_2$ traces (Fig. 2b). Such a sustained reduction in RMR was likely not due to a 330 lower spontaneous activity because the individual variance for RMR, our index of spontaneous 331 activity, was similar for the H-N and N-N test groups $(F_{2, 53} = 1.7, p = 0.98, power = 0.334; Fig.$ 332 2e).

333 Despite a reduction of SMR in the hypoxia-acclimated phenotype, both $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ and AAS 334 were maintained; they were similar for the H-N and N-N tests groups ($F_{2, 53} \le 7.2$, $p \ge 0.53$, 335 power \geq 0.98; Fig. 2f, g). With maximal aerobic capacity unchanged and SMR lowered, FAS 336 was significantly higher for the H-N test group compared with the N-N test group ($F_{2, 53} = 7.1$, *p* 337 = 0.035 ; Fig. 2h).

338 The phenotype after hypoxic acclimation also had an improved hypoxia tolerance. 339 Specifically, three indicators were significantly lower for the H-N test group than for the N-N 340 test group: P_{crit} by 28% (2.69 \pm 0.10 vs. 3.75 \pm 0.14 kPa, $F_{2,53}$ = 18.1; p < 0.001), ILOP by 22% 341 (1.02 ± 0.084 vs. 1.31 ± 0.063 kPa, $F_{2,52} = 4.2$; $p = 0.03$) and SOD by 34% (1.65 ± 0.09 vs. 2.39 342 $\pm 0.14\%$ sat., $F_{2,52} = 7.7$, $p = 0.001$) (Fig. 4).

343 Nonetheless, the hypoxic ambient environment clearly constrained peak respiratory 344 performance, as revealed when the hypoxic phenotype was tested under the ambient hypoxic 345 condition (*i.e.*, the H-H test group). For example, $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$, AAS and FAS of the H-H test group 346 were all significantly reduced, almost halved ($F_{3,69} \ge 14.6$, $p \le 0.0007$) when compared with 347 the H-N test group. However, SMR and RMR were the same as the H-N test group ($F_{3, 69} \le 7.9$, 348 $p \ge 0.29$; Fig. S4).

349 Given the improved aerobic performance and hypoxia tolerance of the hypoxic 350 phenotype, the original normoxic phenotype was compared with the hypoxic phenotype using a 351 hypoxic performance curve (HPC). Their $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ values in normoxia were statistically 352 indistinguishable $(365.1 \pm 15.3 \text{ vs. } 334.6 \pm 13.3 \text{ O}_2 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ kg}^{-1}$, respectively; t-test: $t = 1.4$, $p = 0.17$, 353 power = 0.296). The hypoxic phenotype, however, had a significantly left-shifted HPC compared 354 with the normoxic phenotype. This shift produced a 21% lower $P_{\text{AAS-50}}[7.92 \text{ vs. } 10.0 \text{ kPa} (38 \text{ vs. } 10.0 \text{ kPa} (3$ 355 48 % sat.); $t = 1.6$, $p = 0.0031$; Fig. 5]. As quality assurance for the HPC of the hypoxic 356 phenotype, the interpolated $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ at 10.4 kPa (50% sat.) was compared to and was similar to 357 that measured as $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ at a similar level of ambient hypoxia [i.e., H-H; 10.4 kPa (50% sat.)].

359 **Discussion**

360 As an extension of the cellular metabolic signalling pathways proposed for hypoxic phenotypes 361 (Hochachka, 1986), we considered the lesser studied whole-animal respiratory phenotype. We 362 demonstrated that the hypoxia-acclimated phenotype of sea bass had an enhanced O_2 uptake in 363 hypoxia, a lower P_{crit}, and a left-shifted HPC (a higher $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ under moderate hypoxia). While 364 the lower P_{crit} is clearly influenced by a lower SMR, the $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ under moderate hypoxia is not. 365 Moreover, the re-acclimation of hypoxia-acclimated sea bass to normoxia produced a new 366 normoxic phenotype. This new normoxic phenotype also had an enhanced $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ and AAS, as 367 well as a reduced P_{crit} like the hypoxic phenotype, but not the reduced SMR. Thus, it seems 368 probable, but not definitely demonstrated, that certain (but not all) respiratory enhancements 369 shown for the hypoxic phenotype were retained after 4-weeks of re-acclimation to normoxia. 370 Such potential and sustained (many weeks) effects on the current performance of an animal's 371 previous experience are more generally termed a carryover effect (O'Connor *et al*., 2014), but

 we cannot be certain that our demonstration for sea bass is necessarily a carryover effect. Nonetheless, and regardless of the exact mechanism, phenotypic plasticity following a hypoxic 374 acclimation can clearly benefit whole-animal aerobic performance and O_2 handling in normoxia as well as hypoxia. Moreover, European sea bass could be a 'fence-sitter' when exploiting hypoxic habitats, taking advantage of both a reduced maintenance metabolic demand and an improved aerobic performance during the hypoxic experience, two processes that are typically thought of as mutually exclusive strategies for fish living in an oxygen-limiting environment.

(a) Sustained effect of improved aerobic performance

 A hypoxia-acclimated fish returned to their original normoxic condition can have three general outcomes (Fig. 1): i) Restoring their original normoxic phenotype, *i.e.*, status quo, ii) Suffering a compromised normoxic performance, a negative consequence of hypoxic acclimation, or iii) Acquiring enhanced normoxic performance, a beneficial prolonged consequence of hypoxic 385 acclimation. We observed increased aerobic performance and capacity ($\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$, AAS & FAS) after hypoxia-acclimated sea bass were re-acclimated to and tested in normoxia. These whole animal changes align with the observed increase in CS activity in their red muscles. This new normoxic phenotype may have maintained some of the same physiological improvements for at least 4 weeks after hypoxia-acclimated sea bass were returned to normoxia. An enhanced aerobic capacity, for example, reduced the need for glycolytic capacity (Farrell, 2016; Zhang *et al*., 2018) because EPOC was reduced in the normoxia re-acclimated group when compared to the normoxia group (Fig. 4).

 A novel discovery was a left-shifted HPC after an acclimation of sea bass to hypoxia. 394 This means that hypoxia-acclimated sea bass had improved O_2 handling for $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$, as indicated

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395 by their 21% lower $P_{\text{AAS-50}}$ compared with hypoxia-acclimated fish. Likewise, a lower P_{crit} has 396 been correlated with a higher AAS among eight populations of four fish species (Zhang *et al*., 397 2018; Zhang *et al.*, 2021). However, in terms of hypoxic acclimation of sea bass, SMR and P_{crit} 398 were not reduced when they were tested in hypoxia, but were reduced when tested in normoxia. 399 Therefore, the observed suppression of SMR is likely not a contributing factor to the lower P_{AAS} . 400 $\frac{50}{20}$ because the HPC and IRAP testing was performed at a similar 50% hypoxia. Other beneficial 401 hypoxia acclimation mechanisms include remodeling of gill secondary lamellae (Brauner and 402 Rombough, 2012; Anttila *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2021), which would reduce the O₂ diffusion 403 distance (Randall, 1982), could improve hypoxia tolerance and could defend $\dot{M}O_{2\text{peak}}$ under 404 ambient hypoxia. Improved cardiovascular O_2 delivery and O_2 utilization by mitochondria are 405 also possible. For example, hemoglobin- O_2 binding affinity could increase (Weber and Jensen, 406 1988; Montgomery *et al*., 2019; Wells *et al*., 1989), venous blood stores could be better 407 mobilized by increasing venous tone, and capillarity could increase in cardiac (Gillis and 408 Johnston, 2017) and swimming muscles (McKenzie *et al*., 2004).

409 Future experiments should test whether or not the beneficial $P_{\text{AAS-50}}$ is retained on re- acclimation to normoxia because logistical constraints prevented us from doing so in the present 411 study. Indeed, and more generally, the malleability of the O_2 transport cascade system of sea bass could be a useful model system to study how a fish might benefit from prior hypoxic exposures. Beyond hypoxia, other environmental stressors are also known to have sustained effects, increasing subsequent tolerance to that stressor (Kawabata *et al*., 1998; Gamperl *et al*., 2001). Another uncertainty generated by the present study is the exact time course for developing new phenotypes and for how long the benefits of a hypoxic exposure might persist. Our acclimation periods (4 weeks for normoxia and 6 weeks for hypoxia) were based on many previous studies

 and did not consider any potential modulating effects of seasonality. We do know, however, that IRAP metrics in normoxic fish can be stable for up to 18 weeks (Zhang *et al*., 2019; Polinski *et al*., 2021; Zhang, 2021), but time-series studies with time-matched controls over different acclimation periods and developmental stages will be needed to resolve this unknown.

(b) Reduced SMR as a mechanism for hypoxic acclimation in active marine fish

 While a maintained aerobic scope of hypoxia-acclimated sea bass is consistent with previous hypoxia acclimation studies for rainbow trout (Bushnell *et al*., 1984), Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) (Petersen and Gamperl, 2010; 2011) and silver seabream (*Pagrus auratus* Forster, 427 1801) (Cook *et al.*, 2013), all of which maintained $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ and aerobic scope when they were tested in normoxia, none of these previous studies measured SMR. Therefore, a reduced metabolism (a lower SMR and RMR without any apparent change in locomotory activity, differs from the inactivity in overwintering fishes, Reeve *et al*., 2022) in active marine fish after acclimation to a moderate hypoxic condition is, to the best of our knowledge, a novel finding and adds to previous reports a much larger suppression seen typically in anoxia for a limited group of extremely anoxia-tolerant fish species (*see* review by Stecyk, 2017). Nonetheless, a 19% SMR reduction in sea bass was not nearly as extreme as the up to 90% reduction seen for anoxia-435 tolerant fishes in very severe hypoxia (Vornanen *et al.*, 2009; Thoral *et al.*, 2022). While P_{crit} was not improved when measured in hypoxia, this index of hypoxic tolerance was improved after an acute transfer to (and IRAP testing) in normoxia where SMR reduction was manifested, and was subsequently retained after 4 weeks in normoxia. Yet, the reduced SMR remains as a meaningful energy saving in hypoxia because it cascaded through to a 15% reduction in RMR. Notably, body condition of hypoxia-acclimated sea bass was unaffected by a 50% reduction in oxygen

441 availability in the water, along with a similar liver mass (Fig. S3d) and activity of citrate 442 synthase in both red and white skeletal muscle (Fig. 3; Fig S7) compared to the normoxia-443 acclimated group.

 Unanswered, however, is why SMR of the hypoxia-acclimated fish tested in hypoxia (H-445 H) was similar to that for normoxia-acclimated fish tested in normoxia (N-N) (Fig. $S4 \& S5$) and the metabolic suppression was only revealed by testing hypoxia-acclimated sea bass after an acute transfer to normoxia (H-N). A possible explanation, one that would be worth testing, 448 relates to the fact that in hypoxia O_2 availability was reduced by 50%, and so the hypoxic phenotype would have had to compensate by increasing ventilation volume, which would present 450 an increased O_2 cost of ventilation. Improvements to O_2 extraction at the gills through expansion of gill blood vessels, an increase in cardiac output and gill blood flow, lamellar recruitment, 452 increased barrier permeability and greater $Hb-O₂$ affinity are all possible contributing 453 mechanisms to improve O_2 transfer at the gills, but ventilation volume would still have to 454 increase for the halving of water O_2 content given the efficiency of oxygen exchange in normoxia. A review of the ventilatory response of 34 teleost species to acute hypoxia found that 456 approximately halving the ambient water O_2 content, as in the present study, produced at least a 100% compensatory increase in ventilation volume for the majority of species (*see* Table S2; Perry *et al*., 2009). Even the exceptions (*i*.*e.,* tuna species, dourado and plaice) had a 45–75% compensatory increase in ventilation volume (Table S2). Consequently, if ventilation costs 10– 15% of RMR for normoxic, resting rainbow trout (Farrell and Steffensen, 1987), a doubling of this for the hypoxic sea bass phenotype in hypoxia might double the energy cost of ventilation. In this case, the observed reduction in SMR of the hypoxic phenotype would largely offset this increase in routine energy expenditure. While this quantitative matching could be an association

 rather than a causation, we did not observe the well-documented increase in restlessness associated with an acute hypoxic exposure (*e.g.* Steffensen *et al*., 1982; van Raaij *et al*., 1996) because neither RMR nor its variability increased in hypoxia-acclimated sea bass tested in hypoxia.

 How widespread a modest reduction in SMR is a strategy used by active marine fishes to acclimate to a challenging hypoxic environment is unclear until we have a better understanding of the specific mechanisms (*see* review by Hochachka *et al*., 1996). For example, we know that SMR is stable for up to 18 weeks under normoxic conditions (Zhang *et al*., 2019; Polinski *et al*., 472 2021; Zhang, 2021), we cannot exclude the possibility of the seasonal effects on SMR. Furthermore, if suppression of protein turnover was the mechanism to reduce SMR, protein turnover would need to be halved to quantitatively account for our observed 19% decrease in SMR given that protein turnover accounts for about 30–40% of SMR (Houlihan *et al.*, 1988; Houlihan *et al*., 1992; Carter *et al*., 1993). While suppression of protein synthesis occurs with acute hypoxia exposure in cichlids (*Astronotus ocellatus* Agassiz, 1831) (Cassidy *et al*., 2018), Arctic char (*Salvelinus alpinus* Linnaeus, 1758) (Cassidy and Lamarre; 2019), and jumbo squid (*Dosidicus gigas* d'Orbigny, 1835) (Seibel *et al*., 2014), which are all hypoxia-sensitive organisms, no acclimation studies besides the present study have shown a similar response. What is also clear from the present study is that a reduction of SMR, while a key response to hypoxic acclimation in sea bass, was not carried over on their return to normoxia.

Conclusion

 Prolonged encounters with environmental stressors such as hypoxia can substantially change the respiratory phenotype of fish. Indeed, we characterized how European sea bass, an athletic

marine fish that naturally exploits both hypoxic and normoxic habitats, remodeled its respiratory

phenotype during hypoxia acclimation (a reduced minimum maintenance metabolism, better

hypoxia performance, enhanced aerobic performance and capacity). Moreover, after hypoxia-

acclimated sea bass were returned to normoxia, a different normoxic phenotype was still evident

after 4 weeks in normoxia, one that displayed a better hypoxia performance and enhanced

aerobic performance and scope compared with the original normoxic phenotype. Given these

findings for sea bass, greater attention should be given the cyclic nature of the ambient

environment (both short-term and long-term), especially in view of the scarcity of studies on

phenotype reversibility (*see* review by Burggren, 2020).

 Ethics. Fish holding and all experimental procedures were in compliance with the guidelines of current animal care rules and regulations in France (Apafis 2018040916374437).

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 Author contribution. Y.Z., A.P.F., G.C. conceived and designed the experiments. Y.Z. conducted the respirometry experiment, data analysis and drafted the manuscript. F.M. assisted with the respirometry experiments and respirometry data acquisition. L.P., K.A. analyzed molecular samples. H.O., F.L., FM. greatly contribute to all aspects of the project. A.P.F., G.C., and K.A. collaborated in editing the manuscript. All authors read, contributed to, and approved the final manuscript.

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844

834 **Figure Captions**

 Fig. 1. A theoretical framework for phenotypic plasticity (*i.e.* within a generation) for hypoxic acclimation and a return to ambient normoxia, *i.e.*, environmental changes. (a) Even with acclimation, which may take some time, the performance of a hypoxic phenotype may be constrained by the limiting ambient environmental factor, *i.e.,* hypoxic water at 10.4 kPa (50 % air saturation) (panel b). Also, when the hypoxia-acclimated animal is returned to normoxia, the normoxic phenotype might revert to the original normoxic phenotype, or another normoxic phenotype might emerge with either a compromised or even an enhanced performance in normoxia. The present study investigated the respiratory plasticity of a marine fish species, the European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*).

845 Fig. 2. The respiratory phenotype in juvenile European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) at 16 ˚C based on 846 individual oxygen uptake $(\dot{M}O_2)$ measurements. The three test groups were normoxia-acclimated fish 847 tested in normoxia (N-N; grey), hypoxia-acclimated fish tested in normoxia (H-N; orange), and hypoxia-848 acclimated fish re-acclimated to and tested in normoxia (HN-N; green). (a) Continuous *M*O₂ traces from 849 representative individuals for the three treatment groups over the first 40 h of IRAP. The individual's 850 standard metabolic rate (SMR; solid horizontal lines) and maximum oxygen uptake ($\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$; dotted 851 horizontal lines) are provided for reference. White-&-grey segments indicate average summer diel cycles 852 in western France (~15 L:9 D). (b) Continuous mean $\dot{M}O_2$ traces (solid line) \pm s.e.m (shaded area) for all 853 individuals in each of the three test groups over the first 40 h of IRAP. Panels (c) to (h) summarize mean 854 values for five key aerobic respiratory indices derived from $\dot{M}O_2$: (c) SMR, (d) routine metabolic rate 855 (RMR), (e) the variance of RMR, (f) $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$, and (g) absolute aerobic scope (AAS = $\dot{M}O_{2\text{max}}$ – SMR). 856 Phenotypic plasticity associated with hypoxic acclimation is indicated by statistically significant 857 differences between N-N (grey) and H-N (orange) test groups. Comparison of N-N (grey) and HN-N 858 (green) reveals the new normoxic phenotype that results from a prior hypoxic acclimation. The boxplots 859 indicate the bar as the 25-75 percentile, the whiskers as the 10-90 percentile, the line as the median and

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860 $^{\circ}$ + $^{\circ}$ as the mean (n = 13–28). Different letters denote a statistical significance (ANCOVA with Holm-861 Šídák *post-hoc* tests, α < 0.05). No mathematical or statistical transformations are applied to the data 862 presented.

 Fig. 3. Effects of a 6-week hypoxic acclimation on the maximal activity of citrate synthase (CS) in red and white muscles of juvenile European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) at 16 ˚C. Phenotypic plasticity associated with hypoxic acclimation is indicated by statistically significant differences between normoxia-acclimated fish (N; grey) with hypoxia-acclimated (H; orange) test groups. A comparison of the 869 normoxia-acclimated (grey) and the hypoxia-acclimated re-acclimated to normoxia (HN; green) reveals 870 the new normoxic phenotype that results from a prior hypoxic acclimation. The boxplots indicate the bar 871 as the 25-75 percentile, the whiskers as the 10-90 percentile, the line as the median and '+' as the mean (n = 13–23). Different letters denote a statistical significance (one-way ANOVA with Tukey-Kramer *post-hoc* tests, α < 0.05). No mathematical or statistical transformations are applied to the data presented.

875 Fig. 4. The respiratory phenotype in juvenile European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) at 16 ˚C based on 876 individual oxygen uptake $(\dot{M}O_2)$ measurements. Panel (a, critical oxygen partial pressure, P_{crit}) is the PO₂ 877 level at which SMR could no longer be maintained, (b) incipient lethal oxygen partial pressure (ILOP). 878 Panels (c) & (d) summarize mean values for four key indices of glycolytic capacity derived from $\dot{M}O_2$ 879 [(c) scope for oxygen deficit (SOD) and (d) excess post-exercise oxygen consumption (EPOC)]. The three 880 test groups were normoxia-acclimated fish tested in normoxia (N-N; grey), hypoxia-acclimated fish tested 881 in normoxia (H-N; orange), and hypoxia-acclimated fish re-acclimated to and tested in normoxia (HN-N; 882 green). Phenotypic plasticity associated with hypoxic acclimation is indicated by statistically significant 883 differences between N-N (grey) and H-N (orange) test groups. A comparison of N-N (grey) and HN-N 884 (green) reveals the new normoxic phenotype that results from a prior hypoxic acclimation. The boxplots 885 indicate the bar as the 25-75 percentile, the whiskers as the 10-90 percentile, the line as the median and 886 \rightarrow '+' as the mean (n = 13–28). Different letters denote statistical significance (one-way ANCOVA with

887 Holm-Šídák *post-hoc* tests, α < 0.05). No mathematical or statistical transformations are applied to the 888 data presented.

891 Fig. 5. Hypoxic performance curves of normalized oxygen uptake ($\dot{M}O_2$) for normoxia- and hypoxia-892 acclimated juvenile European sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) at 16 ˚C. The data were taken from 893 individual-based hypoxic performance curves where $\dot{M}O_2$ were normalized as a percentage of each 894 individual's absolute aerobic scope (% AAS). (a) Mean % AAS (dots) \pm s.e.m (error bars) across a range 895 of partial pressure of O_2 (PO₂, kPa) were modeled using one-phase association equations [normoxic 896 phenotype: $y = -39.5 + (130.0 + 39.5) \times [1 - e^{(-0.005 \times x)}]$; $R^2 = 0.88$, AIC=339.8; hypoxic phenotype: $y = -$ 897 85.8 + (88.3 + 85.8) × [1-e^(-0.057 × x)]; R² = 0.81, AIC=412.6]. The solid curves are one-phase association 898 regression models, and the shaded areas are the 95% confidence intervals of these curves. Blue dash lines 899 graphically illustrate the comparison of mean values for the minimum O_2 partial pressure that supports 900 50% of AAS ($P_{\text{AAS-50}}$). (b) A statistic comparison of the interpolated $P_{\text{AAS-50}}$ values for the hypoxic and 901 normoxic phenotype. The mean values were based on the $P_{\text{AAS-50}}$ values interpolated from each individual 902 hypoxic performance curve. The boxplots indicate the bar as the 25-75 percentile, the whiskers as the 10- 903 90 percentile, the line as the median and $+$ as the mean (n = 6–7). Different letters denote statistical 904 significance (independent sample t-test, α < 0.05). No mathematical or statistical transformations are 905 applied to the data presented.

Time

N H HN N H HN Red muscle White muscle

