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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 (O₂) 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

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

57 Today, the Anthropocene is presenting extant marine fishes with another hypoxic challenge. Associated with global warming, the increased frequency of hypoxic episodes can be 58 59 one of the key driving forces well into the future, reshaping the distribution and evolution of 60 marine species (Deutsch *et al.*, 2015). The hypoxia-induced redistribution can be affected by the ability of aquatic ectotherms to obtain O_2 in the hypoxia (Seibel and Deutsch, 2020; Seibel *et al.*, 61 2021). With this prospect, a key question concerning the biodiversity of marine fishes is how 62 plastic is the respiratory phenotype of marine fishes? We define respiratory phenotype as a suite 63 of respiratory performance metrics that characterize whole-animal aerobic and glycolytic 64 65 metabolism.

In nature, ample opportunities exist for fishes to manifest new respiratory phenotypes that 66 preserve their capacity to sustain their activities. These opportunities are the daily and seasonal 67 68 environmental cycles experienced by fish in freshwater (Morash et al., 2018), intertidal (Somero, 69 2002) and marine (Drinkwater et al., 2003) ecosystems, as well as diurnal or seasonal migrations 70 into hypoxic zones of certain marine fishes for foraging (Douglas *et al.*, 1976; Gjøsaeter, 1984; 71 MacKenzie and Mariani, 2012). In the present study, we were particularly interested in 72 examining the aerobic performance of fish, the development of a hypoxic phenotypic and its 73 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? 74

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 78 79 exposure (Yang *et al.*, 2021). Similarly, the mangrove rivulus (*Kryptolebias marmoratus* Poey, 80 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 81 82 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, 84 2017; Carnevale *et al.*, 2021). Hence, we hypothesized that hypoxic acclimation, besides 85 generating a hypoxic respiratory phenotype, would also provide respiratory benefits upon re-86 acclimation to normoxia. Our broader objective was to contribute to understanding how marine 87 fishes might respond to seasonal O₂ cycling and thereby better predict future distributions of 88 marine fish species. 89

Our model species was European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax Linnaeus, 1758) 90 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 ($P_{50} = ~ 1.7$ kPa; Pichavant *et al.*, 2003), which lies between that of the hypoxia-tolerant common carp ($P_{50} = 0.9$ kPa; Roy and Lykkeboe, 1978) and that of the active, 95 96 hypoxia-sensitive rainbow trout ($P_{50} = 2.9$ 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 fact, sea bass held at 10.4 kPa ambient O₂ [50 % saturation (% sat.) at 20 °C] displayed a full 99

postprandial peak O₂ uptake (Zambonino-Infante *et al.*, 2017). Thus, hypoxia acclimation of the
present study used 50 % sat. for the maintenance of normal growth during hypoxia.

102 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 103 they simply reverted to the original normoxic phenotype, or whether a new normoxic phenotype 104 105 would emerge (Fig. 1). Also, to provide clues to the mechanisms underlying any new respiratory 106 phenotype, we tested hypoxia-acclimated fish under normoxic and hypoxic conditions. Thus, by holistically characterizing a normoxic and hypoxic phenotype might provide insights into the O₂ 107 108 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 109 110 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) 111 112 (Childress and Somero, 1979; Dalziel et al., 2012). In addition, we generated individual hypoxic 113 performance curves (Zhang et al., 2022).

115 Materials and methods

116 (a) Experimental animals and acclimation procedures

117 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

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

120 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-

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

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procedures followed the guidelines of current animal care rules and regulations in France (Apafis2018040916374437).

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 seawater (16 °C; the average summer temperature of the species experience in the region). 127 128 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 pressure of O₂ level of ~20.4 kPa (dissolved O₂ of ~98 % sat.). Some of these fish were tested 130 after 4 weeks of acclimation to on-going normoxic conditions (N-N: 61.5 ± 2.0 g, n = 28). The 131 other acclimation tank had been made progressively hypoxic at a rate of 10 % sat. h⁻¹ to 50 % 132 sat. (10.4 kPa) using a custom-built, 50-L gas-equilibration column that was situated upstream of 133 the aquarium and received the thermoregulated seawater into the top while nitrogen gas was 134 135 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 hypoxic conditions (10.4 kPa; H-H; 63.6 ± 5.7 g; n = 16; Suppl. Mat.) or under normoxic 137 conditions (H-N: 74.7 \pm 4.5 g, n = 16). The remainder were returned to normoxia for four weeks 138 139 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).

153

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

We followed simultaneously individual $\dot{M}O_2$ for eight, fasted (for 48 h) fish over a 3-day period 155 156 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 \pm 0.5 °C. This outer bath was connected via a pump to the gas-equilibrium column used to 161 control water PO₂. Water from the outer bath (normoxic or hypoxic depending on the test 162 163 conditions) was supplied to each respirometry chamber via a dedicated individual water pump. Water PO_2 in each of the eight respirometers was continuously measured using an optical O_2 164 probe (Robust O₂ Probe OXROB2, PyroScience GmbH, Aachen, Germany). MO₂ of each 165 individual fish was reported on-line every 10 min (see Fig. 2a) by AquaResp software (Svendsen 166 et al., 2019), which used a sequential interval regression analysis for a 420-s period when the 167 respirometer was sealed (see Suppl. Mat.). The remainder of the 10-min $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement cycle 168

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was taken up by a 120-s flush period (the respirometer open) and a 60-s stabilization period (the 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 > 30-min period of habituation to the respirometer. 174 During the 10-min agitation period each fish become refractory and during this agitation the online monitoring of MO_2 revealed peaks and plateaus in MO_2 associated with activity and rest 175 176 periods. Peaks in MO_2 were occasionally seen in the 10-min measurement cycle when the fish was no longer being agitated and $\dot{M}O_2$ was in a declining phase. Maximum O_2 uptake ($\dot{M}O_{2max}$) 177 178 was determined from these peaks in $MO_2(MO_{2peak})$ using a more precise, off-line analysis 179 (Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang and Gilbert, 2017 an iterative algorithm applied to 2-min measurement windows (Fig. S1); see Appendix). This method of generating an \dot{MO}_{2max} was 180 previously validated for rainbow trout because \dot{MO}_{2max} was higher compared with a protocol that 181 182 chased rainbow trout outside of the respirometer (Zhang et al., 2020). Indeed, sea bass chased to exhaustion at 16 °C outside of the respirometer at the Ifremer laboratory (Brest, France) had a 183 numerically lower MO2max (~400 mg O2 h⁻¹ kg⁻¹; Zhang et al., 2017) when compared with our 184 185 $\dot{M}O_{2max}$ measurements (see *Results*).

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

procedures. SMR was analysed off-line with a quantile algorithm (q0.2) (Chabot *et al.*, 2016) 192 193 applied to the $\sim 240 \text{ MO}_2$ measurements. Absolute aerobic scope (AAS) was derived from the 194 numerical difference between \dot{MO}_{2max} and SMR, while factorial aerobic scope (FAS) was 195 derived from the quotient of MO_{2max} and SMR. RMR was determined as the average of the ~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{MO}_2 values were corrected for the background \dot{MO}_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 MO_2 could be subtracted from each relevant $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement. 202

203 IRAP ended with a hypoxia challenge test (HCT) when the gas-equilibration column reduced PO₂ in the outer bath initially to ~6.25 kPa (DO = ~30 % sat.) within 45 min (*i.e.*, 0.313 204 kPa min⁻¹ or ~1.5% sat. min⁻¹) and then at a slower rate of deoxygenation (0.0313 kPa min⁻¹ or 205 ~0.15% sat. min⁻¹) until the fish lost its dorso-ventral equilibrium. The incipient lethal O₂ partial 206 207 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 \dot{MO}_2 during the HCT and as a fish became progressively hypoxic yielded the PO₂ level at which SMR could no longer be maintained, the critical O₂ partial pressure (P_{crit}; see calculation in 211 Appendix). The scope for O₂ deficit (SOD) was assigned to the difference between P_{crit} and 212 213 ILOP.

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Our holistic respiratory phenotyping was based, therefore, on 10 measured or derived 214 215 respiratory indices for individual fish. The respiratory phenotype of the H-N group was 216 compared with the N-N group to ascertain the nature of the that had emerged for the hypoxic 217 phenotype. The H-H and H-N groups were also compared (Suppl. Mat.) to understand the 218 limiting effect of ambient hypoxia (Fry, 1971). Respiratory indices were statistically compared among treatment groups (N-N, H-N and 219 HN-N) with general linear effect models and body mass as a covariate. Logarithm 220 transformations were needed for comparisons of the variance of RMR to meet the assumptions of 221 normality of residuals and homoscedasticity of the variance. 222 223 (c) Protocol used for measuring an individual hypoxic performance curve 224 A hypoxic performance curve (HPC) can quantify the constraint of a progressive decrease of 225 ambient water PO₂ on $\dot{M}O_{2max}$, *i.e.*, the relationship between $\dot{M}O_{2peak}$ and water PO₂. Previous 226 227 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 228 229 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 231 232 take < 24 h (Milligan, 1996; Zhang *et al.*, 2018).

Fish were placed in individual respirometers, as described above, for the HPC. They habituated to the respirometer in a flush mode and received normoxic seawater (with DO = \sim 95 % sat., 19.8 kPa, 16 °C) for 30 min. The $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement cycle was 5 min: a 120-s $\dot{M}O_2$ recording period, a 150-s flush period and a 30-s stabilization period to better capture $\dot{M}O_{2peak}$. Page 11 of 45

237 An initial agitation for 10 min generated a MO_{2peak} under normoxic condition (again using offline analysis; see Appendix). During the ensuing 25 min, while the water PO₂ was progressively 238 239 reduced with the respirometer in flush mode (see above), a fish would partially recover. The next $\dot{M}O_2$ measurement cycle started 25 min after the previous measurement and at a lower PO₂, 240 241 which was maintained while the fish was again agitated to generate a new MO_{2peak} . This 242 procedure was then repeated every 10 min at a progressively lower PO_2 down to 4.2 kPa (DO = 20% sat.) (*i.e.*, slightly higher than our measured P_{crit}). The total test time of an HPC was ~125 243 244 min and yielded 11 MO_{2peak} values at progressively lower levels of water PO₂. After an HPC test, the fish were removed from the respirometer and returned to a well-aerated aquarium where they 245 246 all recovered.

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

258

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.

264

260

265 (d) Organ and enzyme activity measurements

Additional fish were directly sampled by removing them directly from the acclimation tanks 266 (normoxic, hypoxic and re-aerated hypoxic fish) to provide representative measurements of 267 organ size, hematology and metabolic enzyme activity of each acclimation phenotype. They 268 269 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 270 (Sigma 201m microhematocrit centrifuge) and hemoglobin concentration [Hb]. The [Hb] was 271 calculated as described by Clark et al. (2008) from the absorbance measured in triplicates 272 273 (PerkinElmer EnSpineTM 2300 Multilabel plate reader, Perkin Elmer, Turku, Finland) at 540 274 nm for 10 μ l of blood diluted to 1 ml with a solution containing: 50 mg K₃Fe(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 277 278 and white skeletal muscle (7-8 mm thickness) were removed from the cross-section of the second 279 dorsal fin and caudal fin. They were flash-frozen with liquid nitrogen before storage at -80°C 280 until analysis. We reasoned that, because skeletal muscle is the largest and most active organ in 281 fish, citrate synthase (CS, EC 2.3.3.1) and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH, EC 1.1.1.27) activities 282 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. 283 homogenization buffer (0.1% Triton, 50 mM Hepes, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4) for CS activity, and 284 285 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 286 287 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 assay kit (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA, USA) to express enzyme activity as g⁻¹ protein. Organ, 289 hematocrit, haemoglobin and enzyme activity metrics were statistically compared among 290 291 treatment groups using ANOVA with Tukey-Kramer *post-hoc* tests. Statistical significances for all analyses were assigned when $\alpha \leq 0.05$. 292

294 Results

293

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

297 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 298 SMR was similar compared with the N-N test group, the HN-N test group had an 18% higher 299 $\dot{M}O_{2max}$ (503.4 ± 27.2 vs. 427.3 ± 11.7 mg O₂ h⁻¹ kg⁻¹, $F_{2,53}$ = 6.4, p = 0.003), which contributed 300 to a 27% higher AAS (402.5 ± 23.3 vs. 318.0 ± 13.7 mg O₂ h⁻¹ kg⁻¹, $F_{2,53} = 7.2$, p = 0.001) and a 301 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 302 also had a 24% higher citrate synthase activity in red muscle ($F_{2,47}$ = 3.2, p = 0.049, Fig. 3a) than 303 304 the N-N phenotype.

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312

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

While a new normoxic phenotype certainly emerged after the hypoxia-acclimated sea bass were re-acclimated to normoxia, SMR, ILOP and SOD remained statistically the same as 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

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

All the same, a new hypoxic phenotype was confirmed by testing the hypoxic and 320 321 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 322 when compared with N-N fish (88.0 ± 2.1 vs. 109.3 ± 3.5 mg O₂ h⁻¹ kg⁻¹, $F_{2,53} = 6.0$, p = 0.003; 323 324 Fig. 2c). This hypometabolic state was also reflected in the RMR of the H-N test group. RMR 325 was similarly 15% lower in the H-N test group over the 2-day quiescent period when compared with N-N fish (117.3 \pm 3.7 vs. 138.1 \pm 4.4 mg O₂ h⁻¹ kg⁻¹, $F_{2,53}$ = 3.6, p = 0.033; Fig. 2d). 326 327 Furthermore, a sustained metabolic depression of the hypoxia-acclimated group was quite

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

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

The phenotype after hypoxic acclimation also had an improved hypoxia tolerance. Specifically, three indicators were significantly lower for the H-N test group than for the N-N test group: P_{crit} by 28% (2.69 ± 0.10 vs. 3.75 ± 0.14 kPa, $F_{2,53} = 18.1$; p < 0.001), ILOP by 22% (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 ± 0.14 % sat., $F_{2,52} = 7.7$, p = 0.001) (Fig. 4).

Nonetheless, the hypoxic ambient environment clearly constrained peak respiratory performance, as revealed when the hypoxic phenotype was tested under the ambient hypoxic condition (*i.e.*, the H-H test group). For example, $\dot{M}O_{2max}$, AAS and FAS of the H-H test group were all significantly reduced, almost halved ($F_{3, 69} \ge 14.6, p \le 0.0007$) when compared with the H-N test group. However, SMR and RMR were the same as the H-N test group ($F_{3, 69} \le 7.9$, $p \ge 0.29$; 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{MO}_{2peak} values in normoxia were statistically indistinguishable (365.1 ± 15.3 vs. 334.6 ± 13.3 O_2 h⁻¹ kg⁻¹, respectively; t-test: t = 1.4, p = 0.17, 352 353 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_{AAS-50} [7.92 vs. 10.0 kPa (38 vs. 355 48 % sat.); t = 1.6, p = 0.0031; Fig. 5]. As quality assurance for the HPC of the hypoxic 356 phenotype, the interpolated MO_{2peak} at 10.4 kPa (50% sat.) was compared to and was similar to 357 that measured as MO_{2max} 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 demonstrated that the hypoxia-acclimated phenotype of sea bass had an enhanced O₂ uptake in 362 363 hypoxia, a lower P_{crit} , and a left-shifted HPC (a higher \dot{MO}_{2peak} under moderate hypoxia). While 364 the lower P_{crit} is clearly influenced by a lower SMR, the $\dot{M}O_{2peak}$ under moderate hypoxia is not. 365 Moreover, the re-acclimation of hypoxia-acclimated sea bass to normoxia produced a new normoxic phenotype. This new normoxic phenotype also had an enhanced $\dot{M}O_{2max}$ and AAS, as 366 367 well as a reduced P_{crit} like the hypoxic phenotype, but not the reduced SMR. Thus, it seems probable, but not definitely demonstrated, that certain (but not all) respiratory enhancements 368 369 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
acclimation can clearly benefit whole-animal aerobic performance and O₂ 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.

380 (a) Sustained effect of improved aerobic performance

A hypoxia-acclimated fish returned to their original normoxic condition can have three general 381 outcomes (Fig. 1): i) Restoring their original normoxic phenotype, *i.e.*, status quo, ii) Suffering a 382 compromised normoxic performance, a negative consequence of hypoxic acclimation, or iii) 383 384 Acquiring enhanced normoxic performance, a beneficial prolonged consequence of hypoxic acclimation. We observed increased aerobic performance and capacity (MO_{2max}, AAS & FAS) 385 after hypoxia-acclimated sea bass were re-acclimated to and tested in normoxia. These whole 386 animal changes align with the observed increase in CS activity in their red muscles. This new 387 388 normoxic phenotype may have maintained some of the same physiological improvements for at 389 least 4 weeks after hypoxia-acclimated sea bass were returned to normoxia. An enhanced aerobic 390 capacity, for example, reduced the need for glycolytic capacity (Farrell, 2016; Zhang et al., 391 2018) because EPOC was reduced in the normoxia re-acclimated group when compared to the 392 normoxia group (Fig. 4).

A novel discovery was a left-shifted HPC after an acclimation of sea bass to hypoxia.
 This means that hypoxia-acclimated sea bass had improved O₂ handling for MO_{2peak}, as indicated

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by their 21% lower P_{AAS-50} compared with hypoxia-acclimated fish. Likewise, a lower P_{crit} has 395 396 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. Therefore, the observed suppression of SMR is likely not a contributing factor to the lower PAAS-399 400 ₅₀ because the HPC and IRAP testing was performed at a similar 50% hypoxia. Other beneficial hypoxia acclimation mechanisms include remodeling of gill secondary lamellae (Brauner and 401 Rombough, 2012; Anttila et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2021), which would reduce the O₂ diffusion 402 403 distance (Randall, 1982), could improve hypoxia tolerance and could defend MO_{2peak} under 404 ambient hypoxia. Improved cardiovascular O₂ delivery and O₂ utilization by mitochondria are also possible. For example, hemoglobin-O₂ binding affinity could increase (Weber and Jensen, 405 1988; Montgomery et al., 2019; Wells et al., 1989), venous blood stores could be better 406 mobilized by increasing venous tone, and capillarity could increase in cardiac (Gillis and 407 408 Johnston, 2017) and swimming muscles (McKenzie et al., 2004). Future experiments should test whether or not the beneficial PAAS-50 is retained on re-409

410 acclimation to normoxia because logistical constraints prevented us from doing so in the present 411 study. Indeed, and more generally, the malleability of the O₂ transport cascade system of sea bass 412 could be a useful model system to study how a fish might benefit from prior hypoxic exposures. 413 Beyond hypoxia, other environmental stressors are also known to have sustained effects, 414 increasing subsequent tolerance to that stressor (Kawabata et al., 1998; Gamperl et al., 2001). 415 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 416 417 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.

423 (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 424 425 hypoxia acclimation studies for rainbow trout (Bushnell et al., 1984), Atlantic cod (Gadus 426 *morhua*) (Petersen and Gamperl, 2010; 2011) and silver seabream (*Pagrus auratus* Forster, 427 1801) (Cook *et al.*, 2013), all of which maintained MO_{2max} and aerobic scope when they were tested in normoxia, none of these previous studies measured SMR. Therefore, a reduced 428 429 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 430 431 acclimation to a moderate hypoxic condition is, to the best of our knowledge, a novel finding and 432 adds to previous reports a much larger suppression seen typically in anoxia for a limited group of 433 extremely anoxia-tolerant fish species (see review by Stecyk, 2017). Nonetheless, a 19% SMR 434 reduction in sea bass was not nearly as extreme as the up to 90% reduction seen for anoxiatolerant fishes in very severe hypoxia (Vornanen et al., 2009; Thoral et al., 2022). While P_{crit} was 435 436 not improved when measured in hypoxia, this index of hypoxic tolerance was improved after an 437 acute transfer to (and IRAP testing) in normoxia where SMR reduction was manifested, and was 438 subsequently retained after 4 weeks in normoxia. Yet, the reduced SMR remains as a meaningful 439 energy saving in hypoxia because it cascaded through to a 15% reduction in RMR. Notably, 440 body condition of hypoxia-acclimated sea bass was unaffected by a 50% reduction in oxygen

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

444 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 446 the metabolic suppression was only revealed by testing hypoxia-acclimated sea bass after an 447 acute transfer to normoxia (H-N). A possible explanation, one that would be worth testing, 448 relates to the fact that in hypoxia O₂ availability was reduced by 50%, and so the hypoxic 449 phenotype would have had to compensate by increasing ventilation volume, which would present 450 an increased O₂ cost of ventilation. Improvements to O₂ extraction at the gills through expansion 451 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 O₂ transfer at the gills, but ventilation volume would still have to 454 increase for the halving of water O₂ content given the efficiency of oxygen exchange in 455 normoxia. A review of the ventilatory response of 34 teleost species to acute hypoxia found that approximately halving the ambient water O2 content, as in the present study, produced at least a 456 457 100% compensatory increase in ventilation volume for the majority of species (see Table S2; 458 Perry et al., 2009). Even the exceptions (*i.e.*, tuna species, dourado and plaice) had a 45–75% 459 compensatory increase in ventilation volume (Table S2). Consequently, if ventilation costs 10– 460 15% of RMR for normoxic, resting rainbow trout (Farrell and Steffensen, 1987), a doubling of 461 this for the hypoxic sea bass phenotype in hypoxia might double the energy cost of ventilation. 462 In this case, the observed reduction in SMR of the hypoxic phenotype would largely offset this 463 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 468 469 acclimate to a challenging hypoxic environment is unclear until we have a better understanding 470 of the specific mechanisms (see review by Hochachka et al., 1996). For example, we know that 471 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. 473 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 474 SMR given that protein turnover accounts for about 30–40% of SMR (Houlihan et al., 1988; 475 476 Houlihan et al., 1992; Carter et al., 1993). While suppression of protein synthesis occurs with 477 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 478 479 (Dosidicus gigas d'Orbigny, 1835) (Seibel et al., 2014), which are all hypoxia-sensitive 480 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 481 482 acclimation in sea bass, was not carried over on their return to normoxia.

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484 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

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marine fish that naturally exploits both hypoxic and normoxic habitats, remodeled its respiratory
phenotype during hypoxia acclimation (a reduced minimum maintenance metabolism, better

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

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

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

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

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

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

495 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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834 Figure Captions

836 Fig. 1. A theoretical framework for phenotypic plasticity (*i.e.* within a generation) for hypoxic 837 acclimation and a return to ambient normoxia, *i.e.*, environmental changes. (a) Even with acclimation, 838 which may take some time, the performance of a hypoxic phenotype may be constrained by the limiting 839 ambient environmental factor, *i.e.*, hypoxic water at 10.4 kPa (50 % air saturation) (panel b). Also, when 840 the hypoxia-acclimated animal is returned to normoxia, the normoxic phenotype might revert to the 841 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 842 843 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 $\dot{M}O_2$ 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 (MO_{2max}; 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{MO}_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 (RMR), (e) the variance of RMR, (f) $\dot{M}O_{2max}$, and (g) absolute aerobic scope (AAS = $\dot{M}O_{2max}$ – SMR). 855 856 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 '+' as the mean (n = 13–28). Different letters denote a statistical significance (ANCOVA with Holm861 Šídák *post-hoc* tests, α < 0.05). No mathematical or statistical transformations are applied to the data
862 presented.

865 Fig. 3. Effects of a 6-week hypoxic acclimation on the maximal activity of citrate synthase (CS) in red 866 and white muscles of juvenile European sea bass (Dicentrarchus labrax) at 16 °C. Phenotypic plasticity 867 associated with hypoxic acclimation is indicated by statistically significant differences between 868 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 as the 25-75 percentile, the whiskers as the 10-90 percentile, the line as the median and '+' as the mean (n 871 872 = 13-23). Different letters denote a statistical significance (one-way ANOVA with Tukey-Kramer *post*-873 *hoc* tests, $\alpha < 0.05$). 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 individual oxygen uptake ($\dot{M}O_2$) measurements. Panel (a, critical oxygen partial pressure, P_{crit}) is the PO₂ 876 level at which SMR could no longer be maintained, (b) incipient lethal oxygen partial pressure (ILOP). 877 878 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 '+' as the mean (n = 13-28). Different letters denote statistical significance (one-way ANCOVA with

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887 Holm-Šídák *post-hoc* tests, $\alpha < 0.05$). 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 of partial pressure of O2 (PO2, kPa) were modeled using one-phase association equations [normoxic 895 phenotype: $y = -39.5 + (130.0 + 39.5) \times [1 - e^{(-0.005 \times x)}]; R^2 = 0.88, AIC = 339.8; hypoxic phenotype: <math>y = -1000 + 10000 + 10000 + 1000 + 10000 + 10000 + 10000 + 10000 + 10000 + 10000$ 896 897 $85.8 + (88.3 + 85.8) \times [1 - e^{(-0.057 \times x)}]; R^2 = 0.81, AIC = 412.6].$ 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 50% of AAS (P_{AAS-50}). (b) A statistic comparison of the interpolated P_{AAS-50} values for the hypoxic and 900 901 normoxic phenotype. The mean values were based on the PAAS-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, $\alpha < 0.05$). No mathematical or statistical transformations are 905 applied to the data presented.





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