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2 Interspecies variation in hypoxia tolerance, swimming
3 performance and plasticity in cyprinids that prefer different
4 habitats

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22 Running title: Hypoxia tolerance and swimming in carps
23

24 **Abstract** This study quantified and compared hypoxia tolerance and swim performance among
25 cyprinid fish species from rapid-flow, slow-flow and intermediate-flow habitats (4 species per
26 habitat) in China. In addition, we explored effects of short-term acclimation on swim
27 performance, maximum metabolic rate ($\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$) and gill remodelling to detect
28 habitat-associated patterns of plastic response to hypoxia. Indices of hypoxia tolerance included
29 oxygen threshold for loss of equilibrium (LOE₅₀) and aquatic surface respiration (ASR₅₀) and
30 critical oxygen tension for routine metabolic rate (P_{crit}). Critical swimming speed (U_{crit}) and
31 $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ were measured under normoxic and hypoxic conditions after 48 hours acclimation to
32 normoxia and hypoxia, and gill remodelling was estimated after 48 hours of hypoxia exposure.
33 Both traditional ANCOVA and phylogenetically independent contrast (PDANOVA) analyses
34 showed that fish species from rapid-flow habitat exhibited lower LOE₅₀ compared to fish from
35 intermediate and slow-flow habitats. Habitat-specific difference in P_{crit} and U_{crit} were detected
36 using PDANOVA but not traditional ANCOVA analyses, with fish species from rapid-flow
37 habitat exhibited lower P_{crit} but higher U_{crit} compared to fish from intermediate and slow-flow
38 habitats. Fish species from rapid-flow habitats were also characterized by less plasticity in swim
39 performance and gill morphology in response to hypoxia acclimation compared to species from
40 slow-flow habitats, but a greater drop in swim performance in response to acute hypoxia
41 exposure. The study detected a habitat-specific difference in hypoxia tolerance, swimming
42 performance and its plasticity among fish from habitats with different flow conditions possibly
43 due to the long-term adaptation to the habitat caused by selection stress. The phylogenetically
44 independent contrasts were more powerful than traditional statistical analyses according to the
45 habitat effects in both hypoxia tolerance and swimming performance in this study.

46 **Keyword:** hypoxia tolerance, preferred habitat, swimming performance, phenotypic plasticity,

48 Introduction

49 Oxygen availability in aquatic habitats is a major environmental factor that influences the
50 ecology, behaviour and physiology of fish (Martínez et al., 2011). Hypoxia (defined as any
51 ‘level of DO low enough to negatively impact the behaviour and (or) physiology of an
52 organism’) occurs naturally in many aquatic systems (Pollock et al., 2007). However, the
53 frequency and extent of hypoxia is increasing associated with anthropogenic activities such as
54 eutrophication and pollution of water bodies (Rabalais et al., 2010). Therefore, it has become
55 increasingly important to understand the mechanisms that fish use to persist and survive under
56 hypoxic conditions and to identify indicators of hypoxia tolerance that can be compared across
57 species and systems. In this study, we use a closely related group of cyprinid fishes from China
58 to explore habitat-associated hypoxia tolerance, relationships among tolerance indices and
59 mechanisms that may contribute to the interspecific patterns observed.

60 Critical O₂ tension for routine oxygen consumption rate (P_{crit}) is the minimum O₂ level
61 required to sustain routine oxygen consumption rate ($\dot{M}_{O_2, rout}$), and is considered to be an
62 indicator of an animal’s hypoxia tolerance (Ultsch et al., 1978; Mandic et al., 2009). In addition
63 to P_{crit} , the O₂ threshold for the loss of equilibrium (LOE), which represents the partial pressure
64 of oxygen at which the fish can maintain balance, is also a frequently used indicator of hypoxia
65 tolerance (Barnes et al., 2011; Mandic et al., 2013). Aquatic surface respiration (ASR) whereby
66 fish breathe water from surface film is a common response of water-breathing fish to extreme
67 hypoxia (Shingles et al., 2005; Sloman et al., 2006). ASR is hypothesised to be triggered by
68 environmental oxygen tensions at which respiratory mechanisms fail to compensate for
69 environmental hypoxia (Takasusuki et al., 1998). Therefore, the O₂ threshold for ASR is another
70 potentially useful hypoxia tolerance indicator in addition to P_{crit} and LOE.

71 In many fish species, swimming performance is postulated to be a central determinant of
72 Darwinian fitness (Brett, 1964; Plaut, 2001; Blake, 2004). In fish, the determination of
73 maximum sustainable swimming speed or critical swimming speed (U_{crit}) is widely used to
74 evaluate aerobic swimming performance (Gregory and Wood, 1998; Plaut, 2001; Lee et al.,
75 2003; MacNutt et al., 2004). Aerobic swimming performance may be limited by either O_2
76 uptake and delivery or the aerobic metabolic capacity of the muscle. Ecologically, decreased
77 swimming performance, which includes both swimming speed and swimming efficiency, in
78 hypoxic water may render animals more vulnerable to predation and may also affect the
79 foraging efficiency of predators (Abrahams et al., 2007). Therefore, the mechanism by which
80 fish can maintain their swimming ability under hypoxic conditions may be closely related to
81 their survival in such an environment.

82 The ability of fish to maintain their swimming ability under hypoxic condition may be
83 affected by acclimation to hypoxia, i.e. acclimation may induce a phenotypically plastic
84 response that improves tolerance to hypoxic stress. For example, the $\dot{M}_{O_2, max}$ and swimming
85 performance of goldfish (*Carassius auratus*) improved significantly after acclimation to hypoxia
86 for 48 h (Fu et al., 2011). And, in several species of cyprinids, including the crucian carp
87 (*Carassius carassius*) (Sollid et al., 2003), goldfish (Sollid et al., 2005; Mitrovic et al., 2009)
88 and scaleless carp (*Gymnocypris przewalskii*) (Matey et al., 2008), hypoxia exposure has been
89 found to result in dramatic changes in gill morphology (Sollid et al., 2003) that reduces the
90 water-blood diffusion distance (Matey et al., 2008).

91 Hypoxia tolerance and physiological plasticity may differ between fish that live in
92 rapid-flow habitats and fish that live in slow-water habitats. Rapid-flow rivers often exhibit little
93 DO change and generally have high DO levels, whereas some small, isolated bodies of water,

94 such as ponds, exhibit large daily DO fluctuations. The Cyprinidae is one of the largest families
95 of vertebrates in the world. This family has a wide geographic distribution, including mainland
96 Eurasia, Japan, the East Indian Islands, Africa and North America. There are approximately 532
97 species of cyprinid within approximately 132 genera in China, and the phylogenetic
98 relationships among these fish are well-documented (Wang, 2005). Because of considerable
99 morphological and physiological diversity, cyprinids exist in a wide variety of habitats (Howes,
100 1991). Therefore, we investigated the hypoxia tolerance, swimming performance and plastic
101 response to hypoxia in 12 cyprinid species that live in slow-flow, intermediate-flow or
102 rapid-flow habitats (Table 1). The objective of this study was to test whether hypoxia tolerance,
103 gill remodelling ability, swimming performance and plasticity are related to habitat. To test our
104 hypotheses, we used both traditional statistical analyses and phylogenetically independent
105 contrasts.

106 **Materials and methods**

107 **Experimental fish and holding conditions**

108 Juveniles of the cyprinid species, *Schizothorax prenanti* (SP), *Ohychostoma sima* (OS),
109 *Spinibarbus sinensis* (SS), *Carassius auratus* (AA), *Carassius carassius* (CA), *Cyprinus carpio*
110 (CC), *Aristichthys nobilis* (AN), *Hypophthalmichthys molitrix* (HM), *Parabramis pekinensis*
111 (PP), *Ctenopharyngodon idellus* (CI), *Ctenopharyngodon piceus* (CP) and *Zacco platypus* (ZP),
112 were either collected by local fisherman or caught by hook-and-line angling from a local river or
113 lake, except goldfish that were bought from local market of Chongqing City in southwest China.
114 Based on our investigation on local fishery catchment and water velocity where fish were
115 collected, we classified the 12 species into 3 groups: rapid-flow, intermediate-flow, and
116 slow-flow (Table 1). The fish were maintained in a re-circulating-water rearing system at

117 Chongqing Normal University for at least 2 weeks prior to experimentation. During this time,
118 the temperature of the de-chlorinated freshwater was maintained at 15.0 ± 0.5 °C and the oxygen
119 content was maintained above 10 mg L^{-1} . The photoperiod was 12L:12D. One tenth of the water
120 was replaced daily with freshwater to maintain good water quality. Throughout the experimental
121 period, the fish were fed daily to satiation with commercial forage until 48 h before the
122 experimental trials. Fish were used only once in any experimental trial. All procedures were
123 conducted in accordance with the national animal regulations.

124 **Measurement of hypoxia indicators**

125 *ASR₅₀ and LOE₅₀*

126 To quantify hypoxia tolerance, we determined the oxygen tension at which individual fish
127 *ASR₅₀* thresholds and *LOE₅₀* thresholds during the same experiment. Briefly, for a given species,
128 3 groups of 10 individual fish were transferred from the holding tank to a 30 L tank and held
129 under flow conditions for 4 h prior to the experiment. At the start of the experiment, a mesh
130 screen was placed below the waterline to prevent the fish from accessing the water-air interface.
131 Inflowing water was shut off and nitrogen gas was introduced into the tank to rapidly decrease
132 the DO from normoxic levels of approximately 10 mg L^{-1} to 5 mg L^{-1} , then 2.5 mg L^{-1} , then 1.2
133 mg L^{-1} . Thereafter, the oxygen tension was decreased in the same step-wise manner but in
134 smaller steps of 0.1 mg L^{-1} to a final DO of 0 mg L^{-1} . Fish were held for 1 h intervals at each DO
135 level and the change of the DO between steps required less than 1 min. At each DO, the total
136 number of attempts of ASR and LOE were counted over 20 successive 3 min intervals. An
137 attempt to perform ASR of individual fish was defined as the point where the fish made contact
138 with the mesh surface suspended below the water-to-air interface and the *ASR₅₀* value of any
139 fish group was defined as the point at which 5 of 10 individual fish made contact with the mesh

140 surface suspended below the water-air interface for 3 consecutive observations. The elapsed
141 time between ASR of the 1st and the 5th fish was 40 to 80 min in all species except goldfish and
142 crucian carp that showed relatively large variation (1 to 4 h). LOE of individual fish was defined
143 as the failure of the fish to maintain dorsoventral orientation and the LOE₅₀ value of any fish
144 group was defined as the DO point at which 5 of 10 individual fish failed to maintain a
145 dorsoventral orientation for 3 consecutive observations. The elapsed time between LOE of the
146 1st and the 5th fish was 20 to 60 min in all experiment fish species except goldfish and crucian
147 carp that showed no LOE.

148 *Determination of $\dot{M}_{O_2\text{ rou}}$ and P_{crit}*

149 After 48 h fasting, 15 fish were randomly selected from each experimental group and placed
150 in 160 mL respirometers for measurement of \dot{M}_{O_2} and P_{crit} (Zhang et al., 2010). The fish were
151 allowed to recover from transfer to the respirometer for 4 h. During this time, continuously
152 aerated water flowed (3 cm s^{-1}) through the respirometer. Subsequently, the respirometer was
153 closed and \dot{M}_{O_2} was measured over a range of water DO values as the fish depleted the oxygen
154 within the closed respirometer, beginning at approximately 95% saturation and decreasing to 1%
155 saturation with a duration of 90 to 120 min. If the fish showed movements such as struggling
156 and moving back and forth during the experiment, the data from the trial were discarded. To
157 measure DO, the circulating water from the respirometer was drawn from the respirometer by a
158 peristaltic pump, forced past a DO probe (HQ20, Hach Company, Loveland, CO, USA) housed
159 in a sealed thermostated chamber, and then returned to the respirometer. The temperature of the
160 system was maintained at $15 \pm 0.2\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

161 The following formula was used to calculate the \dot{M}_{O_2} ($\text{mg kg}^{-1}\text{ h}^{-1}$) of individual fish:

162 $\dot{M}_{O_2} = ([O_2]_k - [O_2]_{k+1}) VOL / (t \times m)$ (1)

163 where $[O_2]_k$ is the oxygen concentration (mg L^{-1}) at time point k and $[O_2]_{k+1}$ is the oxygen
164 concentration (mg L^{-1}) at the next time point. These values were calculated according to the O_2
165 solubility coefficient in water at the corresponding temperature and pressure. VOL (L) is the
166 total volume of the respirometer minus the volume of the fish, t (h) is the interval between time
167 points k and $k+1$ and m (kg) is the body mass of the fish. To account for effects of body size, the
168 \dot{M}_{O_2} was adjusted to a standard body mass of 1 kg using a mass exponent of 0.75 (Reidy et al.,
169 2000).

170 The P_{crit} is the point at which $\dot{M}_{O_2, \text{rout}}$ could no longer be maintained with a further reduction
171 in the water O_2 tension and was estimated for the individual fish with the two-segment linear
172 model described by Yeager and Ultsch (1989).

173 **Acclimation to hypoxia**

174 After the 2-week habituation period, the fish were fasted for 48 h, and 60 fish of similar size
175 were randomly selected and divided into the hypoxia acclimation group and control acclimation
176 group. The water temperature was maintained at 15 °C. Thirty fish were transferred to a 120 L
177 exposure chamber in which hypoxia was achieved by covering the surface of the water with
178 translucent plastic and bubbling nitrogen into the water (Matey et al., 2008). The DO was
179 reduced from aerated values of 10 mg L^{-1} to 0.3 mg L^{-1} over 1 h and was then maintained at 0.3
180 mg L^{-1} for 48 h. During this time, the water DO was continuously monitored using a DO probe.

181 **Measurement of U_{crit}**

182 After 48 h acclimation to hypoxic or normoxic (control group) conditions, 20 fish were
183 selected from each group and subjected to a critical swimming speed (U_{crit}) test in either
184 normoxic water (10 mg L^{-1} , $n = 10$) or hypoxic water (1 mg L^{-1} , $n = 10$). The water DO ranged

185 from 10.2 to 10.4 mg L⁻¹ for normoxic swimming conditions and from 1 to 1.2 mg L⁻¹ for
186 hypoxic swimming conditions.

187 A Brett-type swimming tunnel respirometer with a swim chamber with 19.87 cm²
188 cross-sectional area was used to measure the U_{crit} (total volume 3.5 L, see detail in Li et al., 2010
189 and Pang et al., 2010) of the fish. The fish were individually transferred into the swim tunnel
190 and allowed to recover at either normoxic or hypoxic water for 1 h (Fu et al., 2011). The water
191 temperature in the swim chamber was controlled at 15 ± 0.2 °C. The water velocity was 3 cm s⁻¹
192 during habituation period. The water velocity was increased in 5 cm s⁻¹ increments every 30 min
193 until the fish became fatigued. Fatigue was defined as the time at which the fish failed to move
194 off the rear honeycomb screen of the swim chamber for 20 s (Lee et al., 2003). The U_{crit} was
195 calculated for the individual fish using Brett's equation (Brett, 1964) as follows:

$$196 \quad U_{crit} = V + (t / T) \Delta V \quad (2)$$

197 where V is the fastest speed at which the fish swam for the entire time period (cm s⁻¹), ΔV is
198 the velocity increment (5 cm s⁻¹), T is the prescribed period of swimming per speed (30 min) and
199 t is the length of time that the fish swam at the final speed (min). The swim tunnel was designed
200 to switch between a closed mode and an open mode. The closed mode was for respirometry, and
201 the open mode was to replenish the oxygen levels. In the open mode, the respirometer was
202 supplied with 15 °C water supplied from a 350 L reservoir tank at a flow rate of 500 mL min⁻¹.
203 For the normoxic conditions, the water in the reservoir tank was fully aerated (10 mg L⁻¹),
204 whereas for the hypoxic conditions, the surface of the reservoir tank was covered with
205 translucent plastic and the water bubbled with nitrogen to achieve a nominal water DO of 1 mg
206 L⁻¹.

207 In the closed mode, the tunnel was isolated from the reservoir tank and water was recirculated

208 within the system. A small volume of water was drawn from the sealed respirometer by a
209 peristaltic pump, forced past a DO probe housed in a sealed temperature-controlled chamber,
210 and then returned to the respirometer. The oxygen concentration (mg L^{-1}) was recorded once
211 every 2 min. The \dot{M}_{O_2} ($\text{mg kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) of the individual fish while swimming was calculated from
212 the depletion of oxygen according to the following equation:

$$213 \quad \dot{M}_{\text{O}_2} = 60 \text{ slope VOL} / m \quad (3)$$

214 where slope ($\text{mg L}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$) is the decrease in the water DO per min, VOL is the total volume of
215 the respirometer (3.5 L) minus the volume of the fish and m is the body mass (kg) of the fish.
216 The slope was obtained through linear regression between time (min) and water DO (mg L^{-1}).
217 Only slopes with an $r^2 > 0.95$ were considered for the analyses. During \dot{M}_{O_2} measurements DO
218 was never allowed to drop by more than 0.25 mg L^{-1} in either the normoxic or hypoxic U_{crit}
219 determinations. The maximal \dot{M}_{O_2} during the U_{crit} test was defined as the maximum
220 \dot{M}_{O_2} ($\dot{M}_{\text{O}_2 \text{ max}}$). The metabolic rate was adjusted to a standard body mass of 1 kg using a mass
221 exponent of 0.75 (Reidy et al., 2000).

222 **Gill morphology**

223 The gill morphology of only 4 fish species was evaluated, *S. prenanti*, *O. sima*, *S. sinensis*
224 and *Z. platypus*, because the gill morphology change that was elicited by hypoxia acclimation of
225 the other 8 species has previously been performed by our laboratory (Dhillon et al., 2013, Table
226 1).

227 After 48 h acclimation to hypoxic or control conditions, 4 fish from each group were
228 immediately euthanised using neutralised tricaine methanesulphonate (MS-222, 50 mg L^{-1}) and
229 terminally sampled. The second gill arch from the right side of each fish was removed, rinsed,
230 and immediately fixed in cold Karnovsky's fixative for scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (at

231 the Third Military Medical University, Chongqing, China).

232 The middle part of each fixed gill arch (5 mm) with up to 20 filaments in both the anterior and
233 posterior rows was used for scanning electron microscopy. All fixed gill tissues were rinsed in
234 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide for 1 h. The gill tissues
235 were dehydrated in ascending concentrations of ethanol from 30% to 100%, critical-point dried
236 with liquid CO₂, mounted on stubs, sputter-coated with gold–palladium, and examined with a
237 Hitachi S 3400 scanning electron microscope (SEM) at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. The
238 protruding lamella height was measured to estimate changes in the gill morphology.

239 **Data analysis**

240 Statistics17 was used for data analysis. *P* values < 0.05 were considered statistically
241 significant, and all data are presented as the mean ± SEM.

242 The effects of the habitats and species (nested within habitat) on hypoxia tolerance and
243 swimming performance (we only tested the swimming performance of control group measured
244 under normoxic condition) were determined by a nested analysis of covariance (ANCOVA,
245 body size used as the covariate). One-way ANCOVA which followed by a Duncan
246 multiple-comparison posthoc test was used to detect differences among habitats. The effect of
247 species and DO (oxygen concentration in which the trait was measured), and their interaction on
248 U_{crit} and $\dot{M}_{\text{O}_2 \text{ max}}$ was performed by two-way ANCOVA. The effect of hypoxia acclimation on
249 U_{crit} and $\dot{M}_{\text{O}_2 \text{ max}}$ was detected using t-tests. For the 12 fish species, Pearson correlation was
250 used to examine the relationship between ASR₅₀ and LOE₅₀, and P_{crit} and $\dot{M}_{\text{O}_2 \text{ rest}}$.

251 We also conducted phylogenetically independent ANOVAs, which tested for differences in
252 hypoxia tolerance and swimming performance (for the control group measured under normoxia)
253 among species inhabiting environments under different flow conditions. We used the PDSIMUL

254 and PDANOVA programs (Garland et al., 1993) to perform phylogenetically independent
255 ANOVAs. Using these programs, we simulated trait evolution as Brownian motion with the
256 means and variances of the simulations set to the means and variances of the original data. We
257 performed 1000 simulations, producing a null distribution of F-statistics against which the
258 F-value of one way ANOVA from the actual data could be compared to assess the statistical
259 significance (i.e., we determined how different the observed patterns were from those expected
260 via genetic drift alone). We constructed a best-estimate phylogenetic hypothesis for this group
261 of species based on previous morphological and molecular studies (Fig. 1). All branch lengths
262 were set as equal to one.

263 **Results**

264 **Hypoxia tolerance differences based on habitat**

265 *ASR₅₀*

266 Effects of species on ASR_{50} were significant while neither habitat nor covariate (fish length)
267 was significant (nested ANCOVA, Fig. 2A). The habitat effect on ASR_{50} was also not significant
268 when controlling for phylogeny (PDANOVA, $P = 0.429$).

269 *LOE₅₀*

270 Both habitat and species showed significant effects, while body length showed no effect on
271 LOE_{50} (nested ANCOVA, Fig. 2A). The habitat's effect on LOE_{50} was also significant when
272 controlling for phylogeny (PDANOVA, $P = 0.004$). The LOE_{50} of fish species from rapid-flow
273 water exhibited significantly higher LOE_{50} values than the intermediate group while the latter
274 exhibited significantly higher LOE_{50} values than the fish species from slow-flow habitats
275 (one-way ANCOVA, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 2B). Neither AA nor CA showed any sign of LOE_{50} after
276 exposure to DO-free water for 1 h.

277 The ASR_{50} value was positively related to LOE_{50} among 12 species ($R^2 = 0.580$, $P = 0.004$,
 278 Fig. 2C).

279 ***P*_{crit} and $\dot{M}_{O_2 \text{ rest}}$**

280 The P_{crit} varied from 0.78 ± 0.05 in AN to 3.00 ± 0.38 mg O₂ L⁻¹ in ZP (Fig. 3A), whereas
 281 the $\dot{M}_{O_2 \text{ rest}}$ varied from 29.5 ± 2.1 in PP to 63.6 ± 4.7 mg O₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹ in SP (Fig. 3B). There was
 282 no significant difference in neither P_{crit} nor $\dot{M}_{O_2 \text{ rest}}$ among habitats (nested ANCOVA, $P > 0.05$).
 283 However, the habitat effect was significant for P_{crit} when controlling for phylogeny (Fig. 3A, B).
 284 One-way ANCOVA indicated a significant difference in P_{crit} between the rapid-flow group and
 285 the other 2 groups. The mean P_{crit} value was positively related to mean $\dot{M}_{O_2 \text{ rest}}$ among 12
 286 species ($R^2 = 0.341$, $P = 0.038$, Fig. 3C).

287 ***U*_{crit} differences based on habitat**

288 ***U*_{crit}**

289 In the control group (normoxia), the fish species showed great variation in U_{crit} ranging from
 290 7.05 BL s⁻¹ in OS to 3.62 BL s⁻¹ in CI (Fig. 3A). Both species and body length showed
 291 significant effects ($P < 0.001$) while habitat showed no significant effect on U_{crit} (nested
 292 ANCOVA, Fig. 2A). However, the habitat's effect on U_{crit} was showed using phylogenetic
 293 analysis (PDANOVA, $P = 0.046$). The U_{crit} of the rapid-flow fish species was significantly
 294 higher than the other fish groups (one-way ANCOVA, $P < 0.001$).

295 ***Sensitivity to hypoxia***

296 Under hypoxic conditions, all fish species showed significantly lower U_{crit} values ($P < 0.001$).
 297 The U_{crit} value of control fish decreased by 21 to 60%, with the percentage reduction being
 298 greater in fish from rapid-flow environments (significant species by condition interaction, $P <$
 299 0.001, Fig. 4A, B).

300 *Acclimation effect*

301 After 48 h hypoxia acclimation, only CA and AA showed significantly higher U_{crit} values
302 under normoxic conditions, whereas both SP and PP showed significantly lower U_{crit} values
303 compared to the control group (Fig. 4A, B, $P < 0.05$). However, when measured under hypoxic
304 conditions, half the fish species from the intermediate group, all 4 fish species from the
305 slow-flow group showed significantly higher U_{crit} values compared to the control fish under
306 hypoxic conditions. Therefore, the hypoxia acclimation had no effect on the U_{crit} measured
307 under hypoxia for the rapid-flow species, but significantly improved the U_{crit} measured under
308 hypoxia for the slow-flow species.

309 $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ differences based on habitat

310 $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$

311 The $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ also showed great variation among the different species. SP showed the
312 highest $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ value with $267 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$, whereas CA showed the lowest value with 117
313 $\text{mg O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Fig. 3C). However, neither habitat nor body mass showed significant effects on
314 $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ (nested ANCOVA, Fig. 5A). The habitat effect on $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ was also not significant
315 when controlling for phylogeny (PDANOVA, $P = 0.142$).

316 *Sensitivity to hypoxia*

317 Under hypoxic conditions, all fish species showed significantly lower $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ values ($P <$
318 0.001). The $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ value of control fish decreased by 53 to 81%, with the percentage
319 reduction being greater in fish from rapid-flow environments (significant species by condition
320 interaction, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 5A, B).

321 *Acclimation effect*

322 After 48 h hypoxia acclimation, only CA showed significantly higher $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ values under
323 normoxic conditions, whereas AN showed significantly lower $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ values compared to the
324 control group (Fig. 5A, B) ($P < 0.05$). However, under hypoxic conditions, half the fish species
325 from the intermediate group and 3 of 4 fish species from the slow-flow group showed
326 significantly higher $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ values compared to the control fish ($P < 0.05$). Hypoxia
327 acclimation had no effect on the $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ for all 4 rapid-flow fish species.

328 **Gill morphology**

329 All 4 fish species that were evaluated exhibited no gill morphology changes after hypoxia
330 acclimation as indicated by the protruding lamella height. The protruding lamella heights were
331 62.1 ± 4.2 (N= 4 for all 4 species both before and after hypoxia acclimation) vs. 54.5 ± 2.9 , 47.0
332 ± 3.1 vs. 37.6 ± 3.3 , 51.8 ± 2.0 vs. 53.8 ± 1.3 and 75.2 ± 2.1 vs. 62.0 ± 3.8 μm in the
333 hypoxia-acclimated and non-acclimated SP, OS, SS and ZP, respectively.

334 **Discussion**

335 The primary objective of this study was to answer the question of whether hypoxia tolerance
336 and swimming performance differed in fish species that live in different habitats.
337 Habitat-specific differences in hypoxia tolerance and swimming performance were detected by
338 phylogenetically independent contrast while only hypoxia tolerance (as suggested by LOE₅₀)
339 was detected by traditional contrast in this study, suggesting phylogenetically independent
340 contrast proves to be a more powerful test of habitat than the traditional analyses. The fish
341 species from rapid-flow habitats showed lower hypoxia tolerance but better swimming
342 performance and greater sensitivity to DO change compared to slow-flow fish, as expected.
343 Furthermore, the fish from the slow-flow habitats showed improved swimming and respiratory
344 capacities when measured under hypoxic conditions after hypoxia acclimation, possibly related

345 to changes in the gill morphology, whereas none of rapid-flow fish showed any improvement in
346 aerobic swimming performance after hypoxia acclimation.

347 **Hypoxia tolerance and preferred habitat**

348 Habitat-specific differences in hypoxia tolerance as suggested by LOE_{50} and P_{crit} were
349 detected by phylogenetically independent contrast in this study. However, the habita-specific
350 difference in P_{crit} was not showed by traditional analyses. The difference between these two
351 methods is the latter take phylogenetic relationship into account. It suggested the
352 phylogenetically independent contrast may be more powerful than traditional nested ANOVA. It
353 has been demonstrated that P_{crit} is quite changeable and is affected by the routine metabolic rate
354 and, therefore, nutritional status (Hochachka, 1986; Guppy and Withers, 1999), hypoxia
355 acclimation (Fu et al., 2011) and temperature (Barnes et al., 2011). A positive relationship
356 between P_{crit} and $\dot{M}_{O_2, rest}$ also showed in the present study (Fig. 3C). Another important reason
357 that P_{crit} may not be an appropriate indicator for hypoxia tolerance is that it neglects the role of
358 anaerobic metabolic capacity in hypoxia tolerance (this is particularly true for both AA and CA
359 in the present study).

360 An animal's ability to tolerate environmental fluctuations requires the integration and
361 coordination of behavioural, physiological and biochemical processes (Sloman et al., 2008).
362 Behavioural response of hypoxia using ASR may be beneficial for surviving hypoxia; however,
363 the threshold for initiating ASR may be affected by perceived predation risk (Sloman et al.,
364 2008). Although it may be predicted that ASR is triggered by environmental DO levels at which
365 the respiratory mechanisms fail to compensate for environmental hypoxia (Takasusuki et al.,
366 1998), other studies have also supported the hypothesis that there is an element of flexibility in
367 the performance of ASR (Sloman et al., 2008). In this study, there were no significant

368 differences in the ASR among fish with different preferred habitats. Furthermore, both AA and
369 CA, the champions of anoxia-tolerance, showed a relatively higher ASR threshold, suggesting
370 that ASR may not be an appropriate hypoxia tolerance indicator for these 2 fish species (Fig. 2).
371 This may be because some bold fish species, such as AA and CA in this study, performed ASR
372 early whereas other fish did not. We can also speculate that ASR may change as a result of
373 predator stress variation.

374 Nevertheless, this study suggested that the LOE might be a better indicator of hypoxia
375 tolerance, whereas P_{crit} and ASR may not be appropriate for some species because of
376 physiological and behavioural factors.

377 **Swimming performance, gill morphology, plasticity and preferred habitat**

378 Cyprinids living in rapid-flow water showed higher U_{crit} values compared to slow-flow fish
379 species which is independent of phylogenetic relationship, which is consistent with our
380 hypothesis. Similar to P_{crit} , traditional contrast showed no significant difference among fish
381 species from different habitats, which again suggesting that phylogenetically independent
382 contrast was more powerful to detect the habitat difference than traditional analyses.
383 Furthermore, the swimming performance of the rapid-flow fish was more sensitive to the DO
384 change. This may reflect more stable and high DO conditions in rapid-flow habitats. By contrast,
385 it may be critical for slow-flow fish species to maintain the majority of swimming performance
386 under hypoxic conditions to survive in such an environment.

387 We determined whether swimming performance showed adaptive plasticity after hypoxia
388 acclimation and whether such plasticity differed among groups of fish species from different
389 preferred habitats. All 4 fish species showed no improvement in U_{crit} after hypoxia acclimation
390 either under normoxic or hypoxic conditions. However, in the slow-flow fish species, all 4 fish

391 species showed improved swimming performance under hypoxic conditions, whereas AA and
392 CA also showed improved swimming performance under normoxic conditions. Similar to
393 swimming performance, the fish species from slow-flow habitats also showed significant gill
394 morphology changes whereas fish species from rapid-flow habitats showed less or no gill
395 plasticity after 48 h hypoxia acclimation. It suggested that the improved swimming and
396 respiratory capacities after hypoxia acclimation might partially due to the gill morphological
397 change. Interestingly, we provide evidence here that gill remodelling may not be
398 phylogenetically dependent because closely related fish, such as and PP and CI, showed
399 alternative morphological responses after hypoxia acclimation. We further suggest that
400 swimming performance and gill flexibility are habitat-specific as long-term adaption to the
401 habitat DO condition. Besides morphological change, the physiological mechanism might also
402 contribute to the improved swimming performance of hypoxia-acclimated fish. It has been
403 found that hypoxia acclimation results in an increase in [hemoglobin] (Hb) and blood oxygen
404 carrying capacity (Wells et al., 1989; Silkin and Silkina, 2005), an increase in the number of
405 muscle mitochondria and muscle myoglobin concentration, and a higher capillarization of
406 muscle, which improves the extraction and utilization of circulating oxygen stores at low DO
407 (Sänger, 1993).

408 The acclimation effect on U_{crit} was more profound when fish that were tested under low DO.
409 Increased O_2 uptake capacity, which may have been elicited by hypoxia acclimation, may not
410 result in increased swimming performance under normoxic conditions because the limiting
411 factor is not likely to be the availability of O_2 . However, when measured under hypoxia,
412 slow-flow fish showed significant swimming plasticity whereas rapid-flow fish did not.

413 In conclusion, this study clearly demonstrated that there was a phylogenetically-independent

414 habitat-specific difference in both hypoxia tolerance and swimming performance among fish
415 from habitats with different flow conditions. This difference may reflect response to flow
416 regime and associated DO differences among habitats. Rapid-flow fish showed poor hypoxia
417 tolerance but stronger swimming performance than the slow-flow fish, as expected. The
418 slow-flow fish also displayed significant gill morphology changes and swimming performance
419 improvement after hypoxia acclimation, whereas rapid-flow fish showed no such ability.
420 Furthermore, the swimming performance of the slow-flow fish was less sensitive to DO change
421 compared to the rapid-flow fish. The differences in sensitivity and plasticity of swimming
422 performance in the fish from habitats with different flow conditions may be due to differences in
423 O₂ fluctuation among the different habitats. The study also suggested that the phylogenetically
424 independent contrast might be more powerful than traditional statistical approach when detected
425 the habitat difference in both swimming performance and hypoxia tolerance.

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Table 1. Biological information and body size of the 12 fish species used in this study.

Common name	Latin name	Preferred habitat	Distribution *	Collected sites	Body mass (g)	Body length (cm)	Gill remodelling ability
Mountain carp (SP)	<i>Schizothorax prenanti</i>	Rapid-flow	M(1.5-4)	M (2-4)	8.72±0.35	8.49±0.13	NO (Present Study)
Sharp-jaw barbell (OS)	<i>Onychostoma sima</i>	Rapid-flow	R(1.5-4)	R (1.5-4)	3.92±0.23	6.34±0.16	NO (Present Study)
Qingbo (SS)	<i>Spinibarbus sinensis</i>	Rapid-flow	R(1.5-4)	R (1.5-4)	6.61±0.24	7.10±0.08	NO (Present Study)
Chinese hook snout carp (ZP)	<i>Zacco platypus</i>	Rapid-flow	R, M(1.5-4)	R (1.5-4)	6.79±0.10	4.69±0.20	NO (Present Study)
Silver carp (HM)	<i>Hypophthalmichthys molitrix</i>	Intermediate	L, R(0-2)	L (0)	7.30±0.08	6.48±0.25	YES (Dhillon et al., 2013)
Chinese bream (PP)	<i>Parabramis pekinensis</i>	Intermediate	L, R(0-2)	L (0)	9.05±0.32	7.96±0.12	NO (Dhillon et al., 2013)
Grass carp (CI)	<i>Ctenopharyngodon idellus</i>	Intermediate	L, R(0-3)	L (0)	9.22±0.23	9.24±0.12	YES (Dhillon et al., 2013)
Black carp (CP)	<i>Ctenopharyngodon piceus</i>	Intermediate	L, R(0-2)	L (0)	6.27±0.09	4.29±0.15	NO (Dhillon et al., 2013)
Goldfish (AA)	<i>Carassius auratus</i>	Slow-flow	/	/	6.45±0.36	5.85±0.14	YES (Dhillon et al., 2013)
Crucian carp (CA)	<i>Carassius carassius</i>	Slow- flow	P, L, R(0-1)	L (0)	8.60±0.40	6.96±0.14	YES (Dhillon et al., 2013)
Common carp (CC)	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Slow- flow	P, L, R(0-3)	L (0)	7.05±0.23	6.40±0.08	YES (Dhillon et al., 2013)
Bighead carp (AN)	<i>Aristichthys nobilis</i>	Slow- flow	L(0)	L (0)	11.27±0.44	8.73±0.14	YES (Dhillon et al., 2013)

* L: lake, P: pond, R: River, M: mountain steam. Distribution is based on our investigation, local fish catchment and information from local fishermen. The number in brackets is the water velocity ($m s^{-1}$). Common carp and crucian carp are classified as slow-flow type because they live well in pond.

Captions

Fig. 1. The phylogenetic relationship among the 12 experimental cyprinid species (the hierarchical topology tree was built based on the data of Wang 2005). See Table 1 for more information regarding each of the selected fish species.

Fig. 2. The oxygen threshold for aquatic surface respiration (ASR_{50} , $\text{mgO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$) (Fig. 2A) and loss of equilibrium (LOE_{50} , $\text{mgO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$) (Fig. 2B) of 12 different cyprinid fish species and the relationship between ASR_{50} and LOE_{50} among 12 fish species from three different habitats (rapid-flow, blank circle; intermediate, grey circle; slow-flow, dark circle) (Fig. 2C). Shared letters A, B, C indicated no difference in the trait measured (ANCOVA with habitat as a factor ($n = 3$) and Duncan post-hoc tests) among groups of fish species from different habitat types (rapid-flow, blank column; intermediate, grained column; slow-flow, filled column). The results of nested ANCOVA according to different preferred habitats and species (nested within habitat) and PDANOVA were listed above the figure. \$, the LOE_{50} of AA and CA were zero.

Fig. 3. The critical oxygen tension for routine metabolic rate (P_{crit} , $\text{mgO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$) (Fig. 3A) and routine metabolic rate ($\dot{M}_{\text{O}_2 \text{ rest}}$, $\text{mgO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) (Fig. 3B) of 12 different cyprinid fish species and the relationship between P_{crit} and $\dot{M}_{\text{O}_2 \text{ rest}}$ among 12 fish species from three different habitats (rapid-flow, blank circle; intermediate, grey circle; slow-flow, dark circle) (Fig. 3C). Shared letters A, B, C indicated no difference in the trait measured (ANCOVA with habitat as a factor ($n = 3$) and Duncan post-hoc tests) among groups of fish species from different habitat types (rapid-flow, blank column; intermediate, grained column; slow-flow, filled column). The results

of nested ANCOVA according to different preferred habitats and species (nested within habitat) and PDANOVA were listed above the figure.

Fig. 4. The U_{crit} (BL s⁻¹) of the control (blank column) and 48 h hypoxia-acclimated (filled column) cyprinid fish species measured under normoxic (Fig. 4A) and hypoxic (Fig. 4B) conditions. Shared letters A, B, C indicated no difference in the trait measured (ANCOVA with habitat as a factor (n = 3) and Duncan post-hoc tests) among groups of fish species from different habitat types. * indicated significant difference in U_{crit} between the hypoxia-acclimated and non-acclimated fish (t-test). The results of nested ANCOVA according to different preferred habitats and species (nested within habitat) and PDANOVA (we only compared control fish measured under normoxic condition) were listed above the figure.

Fig. 5. The $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ (mgO₂ kg⁻¹ h⁻¹) of of the control (blank column) and 48 h hypoxia-acclimated (filled column) cyprinid fish species measured under normoxic (Fig. 5A) and hypoxic (Fig. 5B) conditions. * indicated significant difference in $\dot{M}_{O_2 \max}$ between the hypoxia-acclimated and non-acclimated fish (t-test). The results of nested ANCOVA according to different preferred habitats and species (nested within habitat) and PDANOVA (we only compared control fish measured under normoxic condition) were listed above the figure.

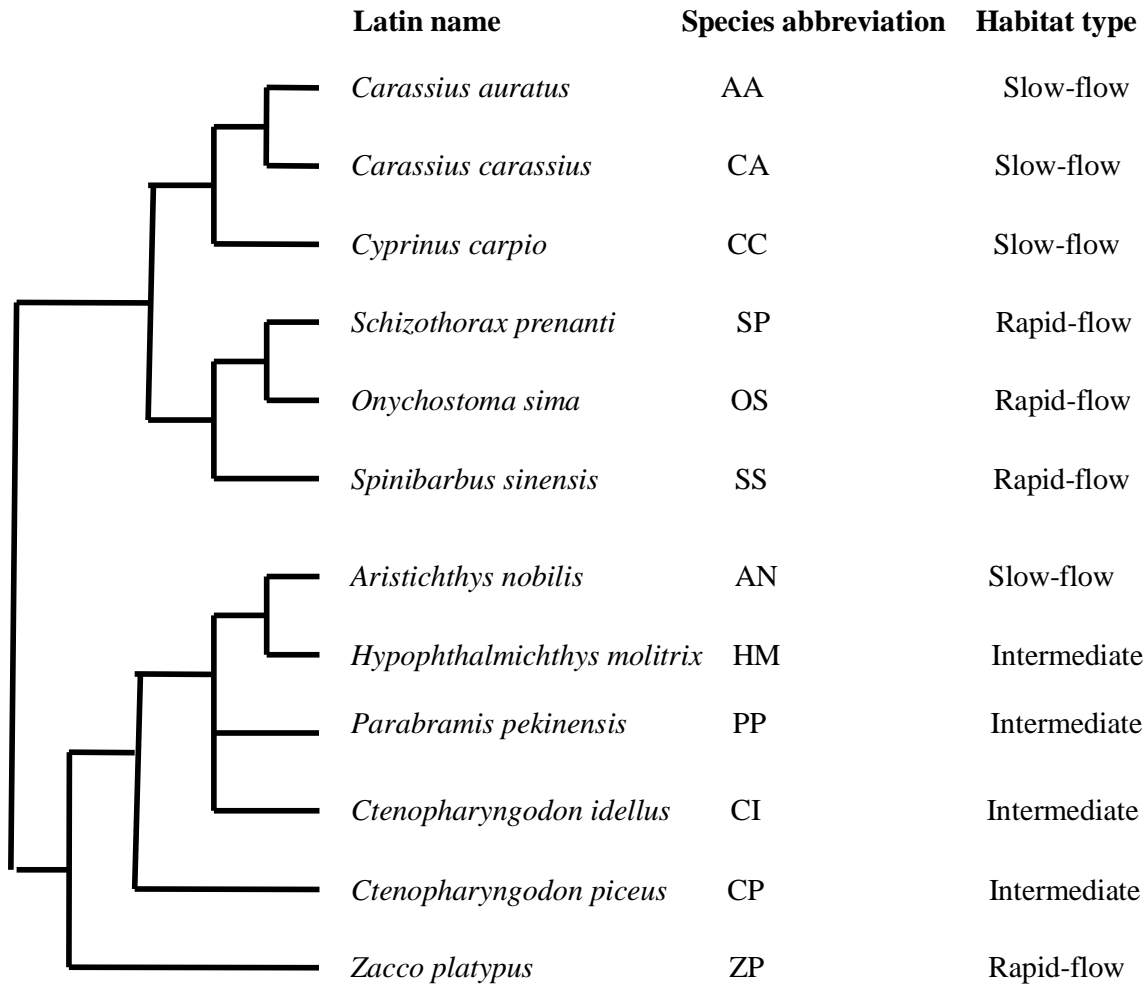


Fig. 1

A) ASR₅₀

Nested ANCOVA: Habitat effect $F_{2,9} = 4.08, P = 0.055$
Species effect $F_{3,3} = 8.47, P < 0.001$
Body length effect $F_1 = 0.671, P = 0.421$
PDANOVA (Habitat effect): $CV = 32.15, P = 0.429$

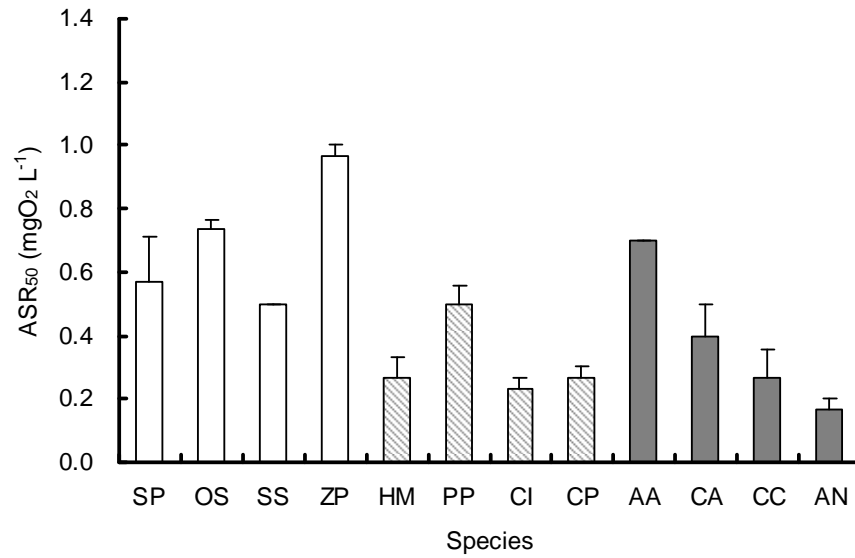


Fig. 2A

B) LOE₅₀

Nested ANCOVA: Habitat effect $F_{2,9} = 12.02, P = 0.003$
Species effect $F_{3,3} = 80.00, P < 0.001$
Body length effect $F_1 = 2.822, P = 0.106$

PDANOVA (Habitat effect): $CV = 21.49, P = 0.004$

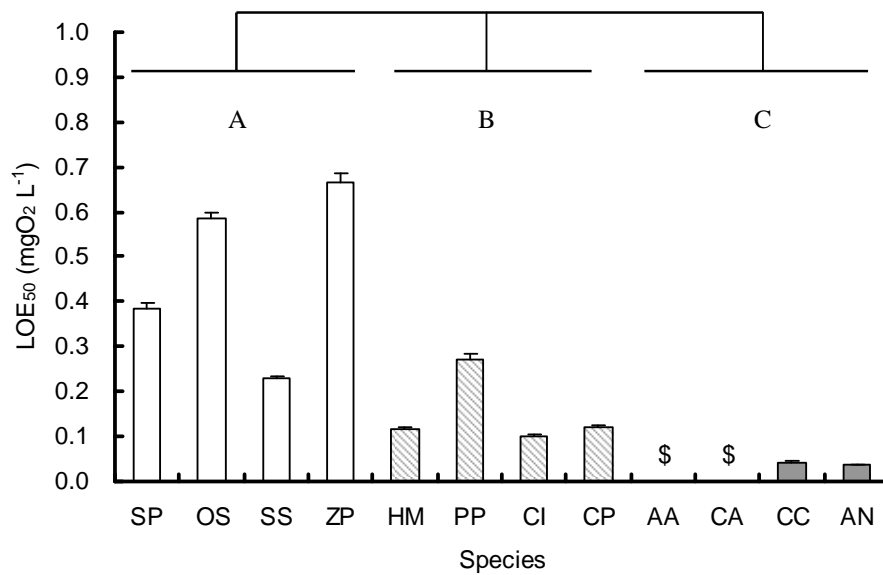


Fig. 2B

C) Correlation between ASR_{50} and LOE_{50}

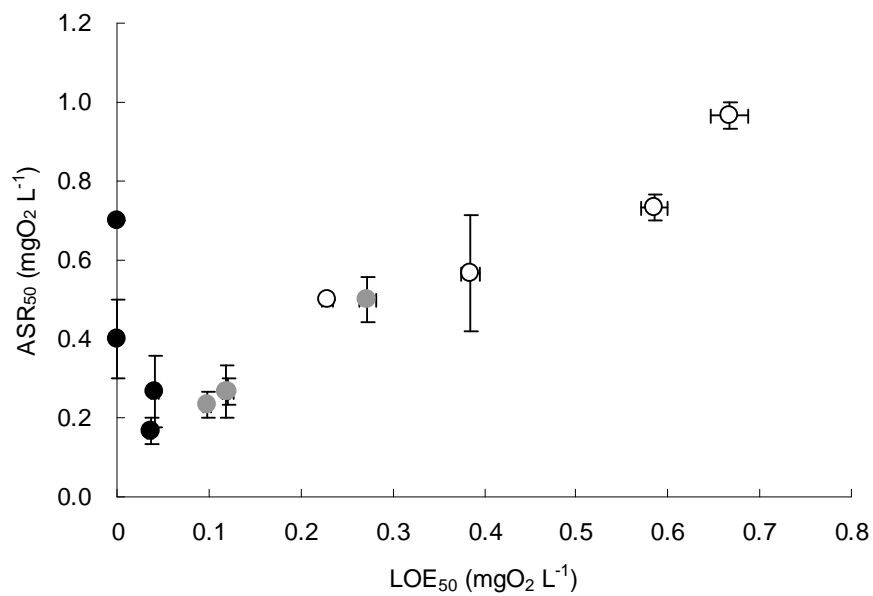


Fig. 2C

A) P_{crit}

Nested ANCOVA: Habitat effect $F_{2,9} = 2.069, P = 0.182$
Species effect $F_{3,3} = 10.00, P < 0.001$
Body mass effect $F_1 = 1.245, P = 0.266$
PDANOVA (Habitat effect): $CV = 16.19, P = 0.049$

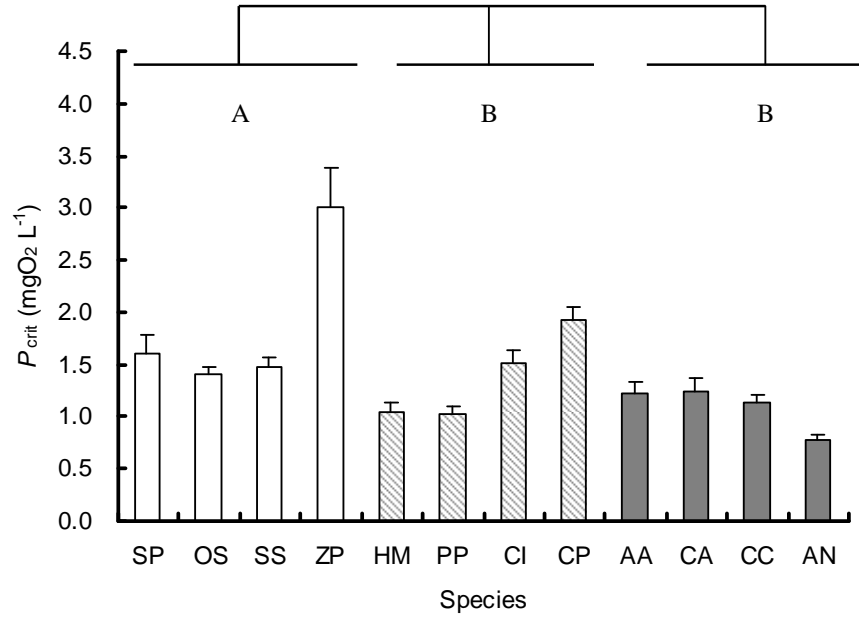


Fig. 3A

B) $\dot{M}_{O_2 \text{ rest}}$

Nested ANCOVA: Habitat effect $F_{2,9} = 1.006, P = 0.403$
Species effect $F_{3,3} = 9.44, P < 0.001$
Body mass effect $F_1 = 2.92, P = 0.089$
PDANOVA (Habitat effect): $CV = 11.09, P = 0.143$

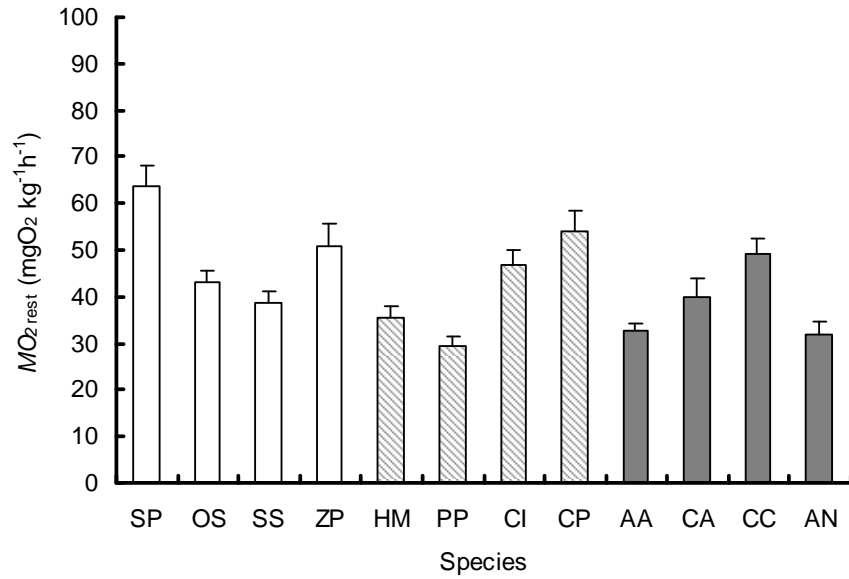


Fig. 3B

C) Correlation between P_{crit} and $\dot{M}_{\text{O}_2 \text{rest}}$

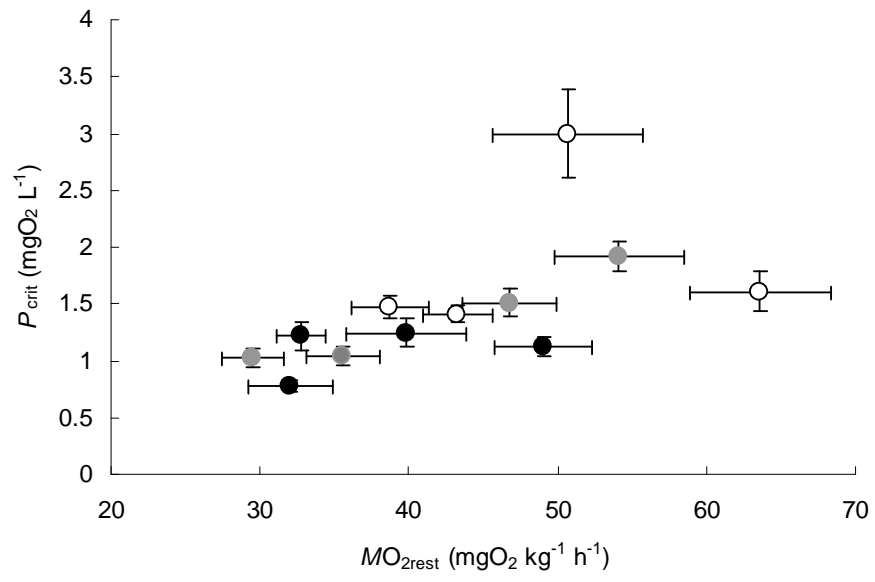
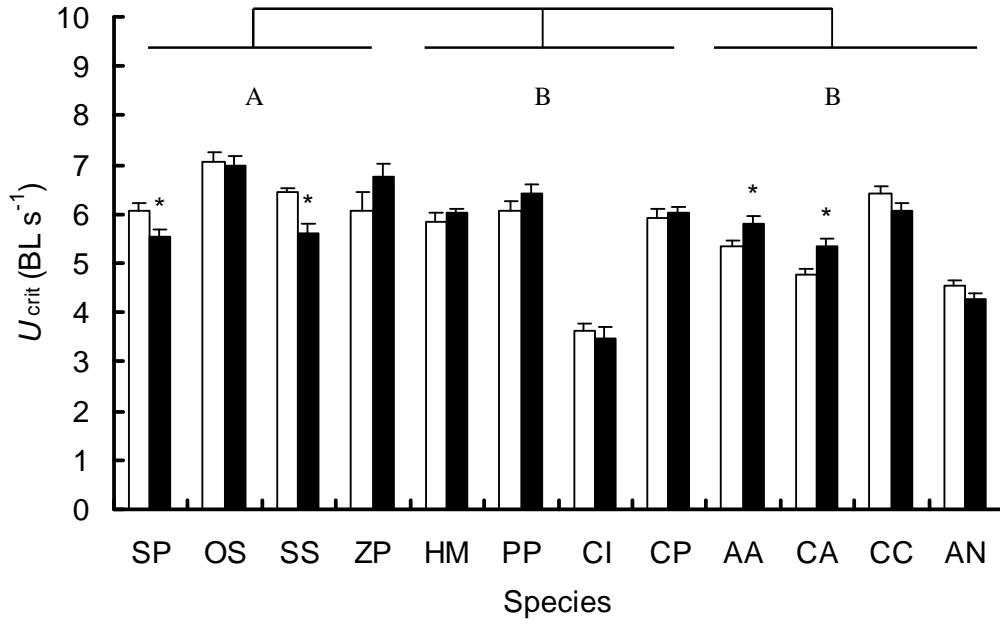


Fig. 3C

A) Normoxic condition

Nested ANCOVA: Habitat effect $F_{2,9} = 4.21, P = 0.051$
 Species effect $F_{3,3} = 15.42, P < 0.001$
 Body length effect $F_1 = 31.99, P < 0.001$
 PDANOVA (Habitat effect): $CV = 19.60, P = 0.046$



B) Hypoxic condition

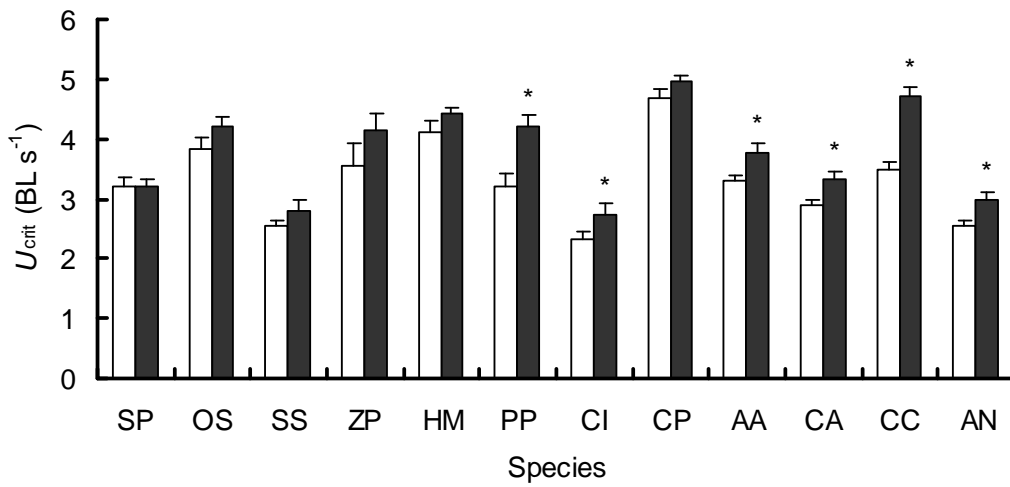
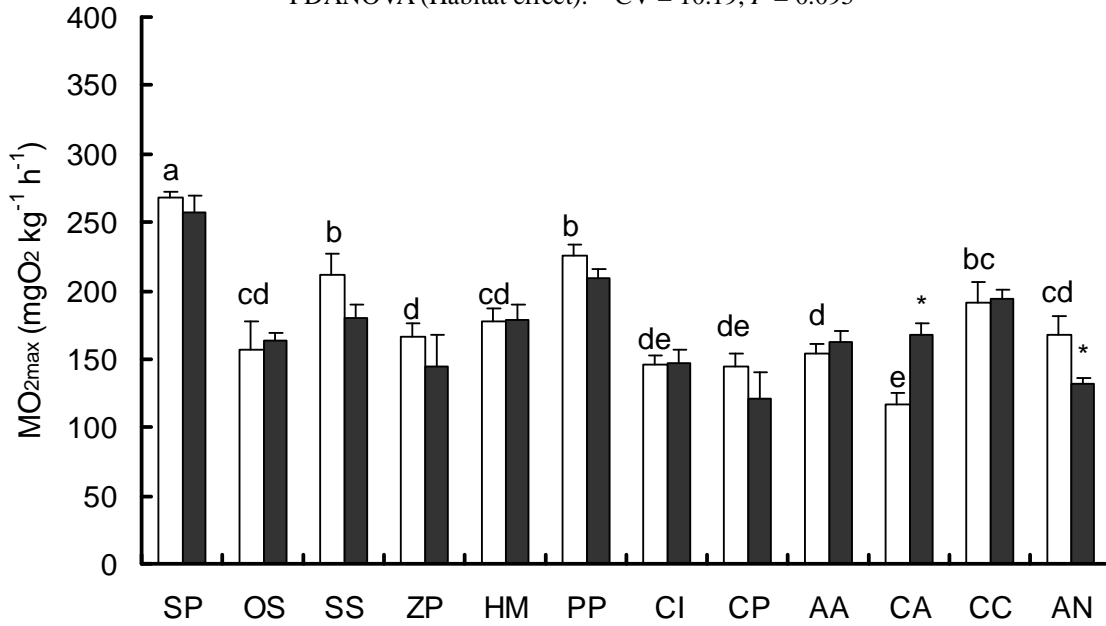


Fig. 4

A) Normoxic condition

Nested ANCOVA: Habitat effect $F_{2,9} = 0.685$, $P = 0.529$
 Species effect $F_{3,3} = 9.46$, $P < 0.001$
 Body mass effect $F_1 = 0.004$, $P = 0.949$

PDANOVA (Habitat effect): $CV = 10.19$, $P = 0.095$



B) Hypoxic condition

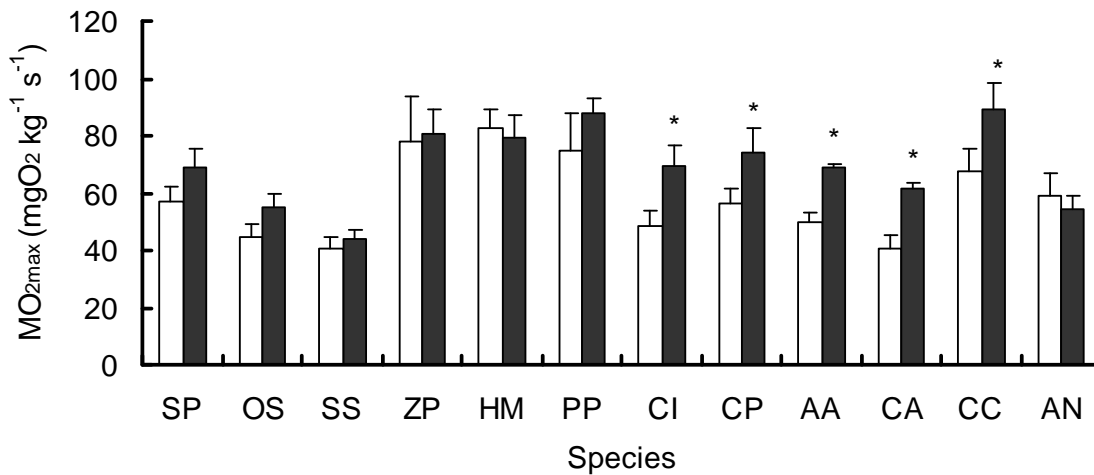


Fig. 5