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## Long-term exposure to an extreme environment induces species-specific responses in corals' photosynthesis and respiration rates

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### Abstract :

Extreme reef environments have become useful natural laboratories to investigate physiological specificities of species chronically exposed to future-like climatic conditions. The lagoon of Bouraké in New Caledonia (21°56'56.16" S; 125°59'36.82" E) is one of the only reef environments studied where the three main climatic stressors predicted to most severely impact corals occur. In this lagoon, temperatures, seawater pHT and dissolved oxygen chronically fluctuate between extreme and close-to-normal values (17.5–33.85 °C, 7.23–7.92 pHT units and 1.87–7.24 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). In March 2020, the endosymbiont functions (chl a, cell density and photosynthesis) and respiration rates were investigated in seven coral species from this lagoon and compared with those of corals from an adjacent reference site using hour-long incubations mimicking present-day and future conditions. Corals originating from Bouraké displayed significant differences in these variables compared to reference corals, but these differences were species-specific. Photosynthetic rates of Bouraké corals were all significantly lower than those of reference corals but were partially compensated by higher chlorophyll contents. Respiration rates of the Bouraké corals were either lower or comparable to those of reference corals. Conversely, photosynthesis and respiration rates of most studied species were similar regardless of the incubation conditions, which mimicked either present-day or future conditions. This study supports previous work indicating that no unique response can explain corals' tolerance to sub-optimal conditions and that a variety of mechanisms will be at play for corals in a changing world.

**Keywords :** Coral reefs, Extreme environments, Ocean acidification, Photosynthesis, Respiration, Climate change

|    |                      |   |
|----|----------------------|---|
| 24 | <b>Abbreviations</b> |   |
| 25 | Chl                  | Chlorophyll                             |
| 26 | Day R                | Day respiration                         |
| 27 | DO                   | Dissolved oxygen                        |
| 28 | P                    | Photosynthesis                          |
| 29 | $P_{chl}$            | Photosynthesis per chlorophyll <i>a</i> |
| 30 | $P_g$                | Gross photosynthesis                    |
| 31 | $P_s$                | Photosynthesis per surface area         |
| 32 |                      |   |

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| R/V | Research vessel |
| T   | Temperature     |

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## Introduction

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Coral-dominated ecosystems are predicted to decline by 99% under a temperature increase of 2 °C (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2019), which remains an optimistic scenario for 2100 given our current pathway (IPCC 2019). As a result, it seems likely that most reef ecosystems will disappear or significantly degrade in the coming decades. However, outlying coral populations are being identified in extreme environments, which are characterized by one or more abiotic conditions outside of corals' usual range of tolerance (Kleypas et al. 1999). The identification of these resistant corals (Grottoli et al. 2017; Camp et al. 2018a) provides new insights into how coral populations could persist in a warm, acidified and deoxygenated ocean, which is the trio of climate-induced

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48 stressors predicted to most impact corals in the future (IPCC  
49 2019).

50 Ocean acidification is driven by the dissolution of atmos-  
51 pheric CO<sub>2</sub> in the ocean, which is increasing due to elevated  
52 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. As a result, sea surface pH<sub>T</sub>  
53 has been declining by a range of 0.01–0.03 units per decade  
54 since the late 1980s (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2017), and  
55 is predicted to decrease another 0.28–0.29 units by 2100  
56 (RCP8.5 scenario; IPCC 2019). Ocean acidification leads  
57 to a decline in the saturation state of calcium carbonate, as  
58 well as a concomitant decrease in [CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>] and increase in  
59 [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>], which is thought to decrease corals' calcification  
60 rates (Hoegh-Guldberg et al. 2008). Ocean deoxygenation,  
61 i.e. the decrease in partial pressure of oxygen (pO<sub>2</sub>), is due  
62 to global warming and local eutrophication, which lead to  
63 lower O<sub>2</sub> saturation and increased microbial O<sub>2</sub> demands  
64 (Breitburg et al. 2018). The impacts of deoxygenation on  
65 coral reefs have received little attention, and hypoxia thresh-  
66 olds of main scleractinian groups remain unknown (Hughes  
67 et al. 2020). However, the proximity of tropical dead zones  
68 to reef ecosystems suggests that it could constitute an impor-  
69 tant threat (Altieri et al. 2017).

70 Some marginal and extreme environments expose corals  
71 to climate conditions comparable to or exceeding those pre-  
72 dicted for the end of the century. Such environments provide  
73 natural laboratories where corals have developed in ecologi-  
74 cally realistic and complex systems, which cannot be fully  
75 reproduced in tank experiments. Additionally, they allow  
76 one to investigate long-term mechanisms involved in corals'  
77 tolerance to climatic stressors, which do not have time  
78 to occur in most tank experiments that rarely exceed a year.  
79 Long-term acclimatory or adaptive mechanisms could play  
80 an important role in corals' ability to cope with future cli-  
81 matic conditions as climate change likely occurs at a speed  
82 allowing for acclimation and rapid adaptation processes to  
83 take place in coral populations (Kenkel et al. 2018; Logan  
84 et al. 2014; Palumbi et al. 2014; Torda et al. 2017). To char-  
85 acterize these long-term processes, an increasing number of  
86 studies are using marginal and extreme reef sites as natural  
87 laboratories to study corals' responses to future conditions  
88 (reviewed by Camp et al. 2018b). Currently, most studies  
89 have focused on sites displaying high and highly variable  
90 temperatures, such as back-reef pools (Oliver and Palumbi  
91 2011; Schoepf et al. 2015) or the Red Sea (Howells et al.  
92 2016; Grottoli et al. 2017), and sites displaying low pCO<sub>2</sub>,  
93 such as CO<sub>2</sub> vents (Fabricius et al. 2011; Inoue et al. 2013;  
94 Rodolfo-Metalpa et al. 2011; Strahl et al. 2015). However,  
95 a significant limit to most sites is that they display a single  
96 stressor and consequently fail to inform on the combined  
97 effects of low pH, low dissolved oxygen (DO), and high  
98 temperature (T) that will simultaneously affect corals in the  
99 future. While no natural site described can serve as a real-  
100 istic analogue to all upcoming climatic and environmental

conditions, the recently identified site of Bouraké in New  
Caledonia is unique because it combines these three main  
stressors (Camp et al. 2017). The site of Bouraké is a semi-  
enclosed lagoon surrounded by mangroves and characterized  
by low pH, low DO and high T, all fluctuating according to  
tidal and diel cycles. To date, it is among the only sites in the  
world where healthy and diverse coral populations have been  
identified despite values of pH and DO exceeding those fore-  
casted for the open ocean by 2100 (Bopp et al. 2013; IPCC  
2019), and temperatures of 1–3 °C higher than surrounding  
local values (Camp et al. 2017).

One of the most sensitive aspects of corals' physiology  
under climate change is their energy budget. Prolonged heat  
stress can cause corals to bleach, a process in which Symbio-  
diniaceae are expelled from their host, depriving them of the  
transfer of photosynthates, their main energy source when  
healthy (Muscatine 1990; Grottoli et al. 2006). Addition-  
ally, ocean acidification is expected to marginally increase  
the energy costs required to maintain calcification rates and  
growth (McCulloch et al. 2012). It has been suggested that  
corals developing in acidified environments could display  
increased respiration rates to compensate for their additional  
energy requirements, but this remains inconclusive. So far,  
studies have shown equivocal results, as the effects of high  
pCO<sub>2</sub> on corals' photosynthesis and respiration rates have  
appeared to be species-specific and dependant on experi-  
mental designs (e.g., Crawley et al. 2010; Rodolfo-Metalpa  
et al. 2011; Edmunds 2012; Comeau et al. 2017; McLachlan  
et al. 2020) and feeding levels (Schoepf et al. 2013). Con-  
cerning photosynthesis, a meta-analysis showed that the lat-  
ter was not affected by short-term exposure to acidified con-  
ditions during lab experiments (Kroeker et al. 2010, 2013),  
but the few studies using low pH environments showed that  
photosynthesis rates were increased in acclimatized coral  
populations (Inoue et al. 2013; Strahl et al. 2015; Biscéré  
et al. 2019). The combined effects of acidification and warm-  
ing on corals' photosynthesis and respiration rates have only  
been investigated during short-term experiments, which can-  
not account for realistic and adaptive processes (Anthony  
et al. 2008; Schoepf et al. 2013; Hoadley et al. 2015; Brown  
et al. 2019). Consequently, an important knowledge gap  
remains in the understanding of how corals' photosynthesis  
and respiration rates will be affected by climate change, and  
whether corals could rely on their metabolic plasticity under  
extreme environmental conditions.

This study investigated the photosynthesis, respiration  
rates and symbiotic parameters of corals originating from  
a natural environment combining elevated T, decreased  
pH and decreased DO. To do so, we carried out incuba-  
tions of corals originating from Bouraké in present-day or  
end-of-the-century conditions and compared their photo-  
synthesis and respiration rates with those of corals from an  
adjacent reference site incubated in similar conditions. This

154 experiment was conducted at the end of the austral summer  
 155 season, i.e., when corals were exposed to the most extreme  
 156 environmental conditions. We hypothesized that long-term  
 157 adaptive processes would prevail on the short-term plasticity  
 158 of the corals' photosynthesis and respiration rates, meaning  
 159 that (1) endosymbiotic functions, photosynthesis and respi-  
 160 ration rates of corals from Bouraké would differ from those  
 161 of corals from the reference reef; (2) incubating corals from  
 162 either site in contrasting conditions (present-day or future  
 163 conditions) would not modify their photosynthesis and res-  
 164 piration rates.

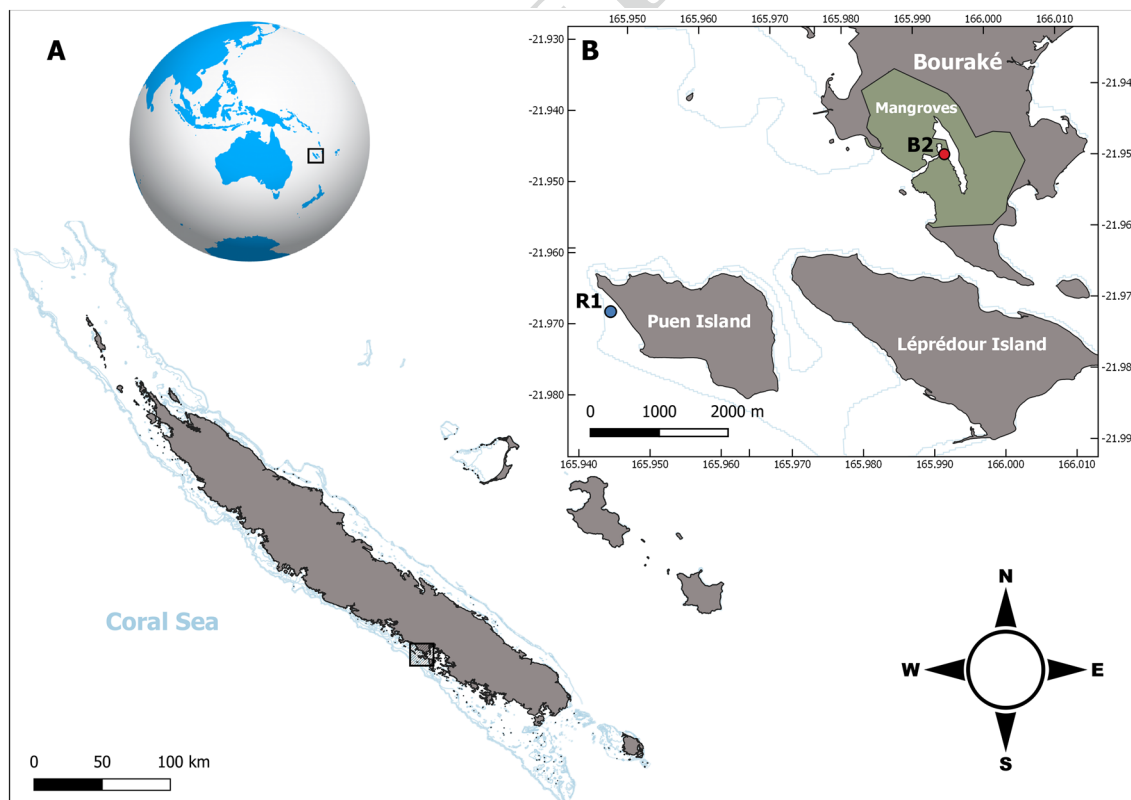
## 165 Material and methods

### 166 Study site

167 Corals were sampled from shallow reefs (1–2 m depth) in the  
 168 lagoon of Bouraké (site B2, 21°56'56.16" S; 125°59'36.82"  
 169 E) and in an adjacent fringing reef (site R1, 21°58'13.12"  
 170 S; 165°56'45.66" E), located on the west coast of New Cal-  
 171 edonia in the Southwest Pacific Ocean (Fig. 1) on the 12th  
 172 and 13th of March 2020. The Bouraké lagoon (described in  
 173 Camp et al. 2017) is connected to the ocean by a channel

174 approximately 4–5 m wide which enters a mangrove for-  
 175 est and forms large back pools 5–7 m deep. It displays a  
 176 diverse and abundant coral population (66 coral species,  
 177 up to 96% coral cover; Maggioni et al. 2021) that develops  
 178 despite acidified ( $\text{pH}_T$  down to 7.23), warm (up to 33.85 °C)  
 179 and deoxygenated (down to 2.28 mg O<sub>2</sub> L<sup>-1</sup>) conditions.  
 180 Water parameters in the Bouraké lagoon also undergo large  
 181 fluctuations following tidal and diel cycles, during which  
 182 they regularly exceed forecasted values for 2100 (Camp et al.  
 183 2018b). The lowest values for pH, DO and the highest for T  
 184 are reached at low tide, while high tides display values close  
 185 to present-day conditions. In contrast, R1 displays present-  
 186 day and relatively stable conditions for pH, T and DO, and  
 187 is outside of the area influenced by the mangrove ecosystem  
 188 (Table 1). As such, it is used in this study as a reference site.

189 A fine-scale abiotic and biotic characterization of both  
 190 sites has been conducted since 2016 (Camp et al. 2017;  
 191 Maggioni et al. 2021). Here, we used data collected from  
 192 Maggioni et al. (2021) to characterize the two study sites.  
 193 Data were collected during a four-year-long monitoring  
 194 campaign (from 03/2016 to 04/2020) and accounted for both  
 195 diel and seasonal fluctuations, compiling several thousands  
 196 of measurements (Table 1). Seawater temperature (°C), dis-  
 197 solved oxygen content (DO, mg L<sup>-1</sup>), and seawater  $\text{pH}_T$



**Fig. 1** **A** Location of New Caledonia within the Pacific South-West and **B** location of the two study sites: the Bouraké lagoon (B2) and the reference site (R1). Map tiles were collected from [www.georep.nc](http://www.georep.nc) (© Georep contributors)

**Table 1** Main environmental parameters measured at the reference (R1) and at the Bouraké site (B2)

|                               |           | R1            | B2             |
|-------------------------------|-----------|---------------|----------------|
| Temperature (°C)              | Mean ± SD | 25.25 ± 1.89  | 26.13 ± 2.67   |
|                               | Min       | 19.98         | 17.49          |
|                               | Max       | 30.54         | 33.85          |
| pH <sub>T</sub> (total scale) | Mean ± SD | 8.01 ± 0.04   | 7.67 ± 0.23    |
|                               | Min       | 7.91          | 7.23           |
|                               | Max       | 8.18          | 8.06           |
| pCO <sub>2</sub> (µatm)       | Mean ± SD | 353.4 ± 7.24  | 1318.9 ± 819.8 |
|                               | Min       | 343.3         | 464.7          |
|                               | Max       | 361.5         | 2860.7         |
| DO (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )      | Mean ± SD | 6.45 ± 0.95   | 5.23 ± 0.89    |
|                               | Min       | 3.06          | 2.28           |
|                               | Max       | 10.65         | 7.10           |
| Salinity                      | Mean ± SD | 35.44 ± 0.049 | 36.97 ± 1.18   |
|                               | Min       | 35.24         | 35.59          |
|                               | Max       | 36.65         | 39.37          |

Mean (± SD), minimum (min) and maximum (max) values of temperature, pH<sub>T</sub> (in total scale), dissolved oxygen (DO), salinity, and calculated pCO<sub>2</sub>. Values for temperature, pH, pCO<sub>2</sub> and DO were obtained through a four-year long monitoring (from 03/2016 to 04/2020) considering both diel and seasonal fluctuations, and compiling several thousands of measurements (Maggioni et al. 2021). Salinity was averaged between two sets of continuous measurements: during the winter of 2019 (from 15/07/2019 to 18/07/2019), and the summer of 2020 (from 29/11/2020 to 04/12/2020)

(total scale), were periodically recorded using 600 OMS-M (YSI, USA), SeaFET pH loggers (Sea-Bird, USA), and Hobo water temperature Pro V2 (Onset, USA), all settled at a 10-min logging interval. Salinity was measured only during the winter of 2019 (from the 15th to the 18th of July), and the summer of 2020 (from the 29th of November to the 4th of December, see Maggioni et al. (2021) for further details on the probe deployments).

### 206 Coral sampling

207 Six coral fragments (3–5 cm long) of *Acropora tenuis* (Dana, 1846), *Pocillopora damicornis* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Montipora digitata* (Dana, 1846) were collected at B2 and R1 on the 8th of March 2020. Coral fragments were collected from distinct mother colonies ( $n = 6$  at both sites) at least 10 m apart from each other, using a plier. In B2, corals were collected along a reef of ca 150 × 20 m, while in R1 they were collected in a larger area of about 250 × 20 m. Additionally,  $n = 5–7$  coral fragments of *Acropora samoensis* (Brook, 1891), *Acropora tenuis* (Dana, 1846), *Echinopora* spp. (Lamarck, 1816), *Montipora stellata* (Bernard, 1897), and *Porites cylindrica* (Dana, 1846) were collected using the same sampling methodology on the 12th and 13th of March 2020. Only one fragment was sampled from each

mother colony. Fragments collected on the 8th of March were immediately frozen at – 20 °C and fragments collected on the 12th and 13th were frozen after being incubated for photosynthesis and respiration measurements on that same day.

### Symbiont density, chlorophyll concentration and surface measurements

All fragments collected were unfrozen and measured for symbiont density and chlorophyll concentrations throughout March and April 2020. This resulted in the analysis of  $n = 12$  fragments of *A. tenuis*,  $n = 5–7$  fragments of the 4 other species used in the incubations, and  $n = 6$  fragments of *M. digitata* and *P. damicornis*.

Coral tissue was extracted in 20 mL of filtered seawater (GF/F 47 mm filters) using an air pick, and the slurry obtained was homogenised with a potter tissue grinder. For symbiont density measurement, 2 mL of the slurry was sampled to count the number of Symbiodiniaceae using a Neubauer’s cell under a stereomicroscope. Four to six replicates were measured for each sample. For chl content measurement, 10 mL of the slurry was centrifuged at 5,000 g for 10 min, after which the supernatant was discarded. The remaining algal pellet was re-suspended in 10 mL of pure acetone, and pigments were extracted over 24 h at 4 °C in darkness. The extract was then centrifuged at 10,000 g for 15 min, and the supernatant was sampled to measure its absorbance at 630, 663 and 750 nm using a spectrophotometer (Evolution 201, Thermo Scientific). Chlorophyll *a* and *c*<sub>2</sub> concentrations were calculated using the spectrophotometric equations by Jeffrey and Humphrey (1975). Surface area of coral fragments was measured using the single wax method (Veal et al. 2010).

### Experimental design of the incubations

The incubations were performed on board the research vessel (R/V) Alis, which was moored in front of the study sites. The incubations were designed to test the effects of short- and long-term exposure to present-day and future-like conditions on corals’ photosynthesis, day respiration and symbiont content. Effects of long-term exposure were tested by comparing these variables between corals originating from two contrasting environmental conditions: i) the site of Bouraké (B2), where corals have been chronically exposed to fluctuating and extreme conditions; ii) the reference site (R1), where conditions are those of a typical fringing reef. Effects of short-term exposure were tested by comparing the photosynthesis and respiration rates of corals during hour-long incubations carried out under both present-day and future-like conditions. The incubation reproducing future-like conditions displayed temperatures higher by 2 ±

270 0.2 °C, pH lower by  $0.3 \pm 0.03$  units and DO lower by  $1.3 \pm$   
 271  $0.02 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  than the incubation in present-day conditions  
 272 (Table 2). Incubations under present-day conditions were  
 273 achieved by collecting seawater in the lagoon of Bouraké  
 274 during high tide, while incubations under future-like condi-  
 275 tions were achieved by collecting seawater in the lagoon of  
 276 Bouraké during falling tide when values of T, pH and DO  
 277 reach their extremes. Consequently, both coral groups were  
 278 incubated in seawater collected from the lagoon of Bouraké,  
 279 which was an opportunity to carry out our experiment using  
 280 ecologically realistic conditions rather than artificially repro-  
 281 duced ones. The experimental design thus encompassed four  
 282 types of incubations, to account for the two groups of corals  
 283 both incubated under two seawater conditions. Corals  
 284 from the Bouraké and the reference site were collected and  
 285 incubated following the same methodology on two different  
 286 days (respectively the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> of March 2020) because  
 287 of logistic constraints. Characteristics of seawater collected  
 288 at Bouraké were found to be in very close ranges on both  
 289 incubation days (Table 2), ensuring comparable incubation  
 290 conditions for both coral groups.

## 291 Experimental set up of incubations

292 The coral fragments ( $n = 5-7$ ) of *Acropora samoensis*  
 293 (Brook, 1891), *Acropora tenuis* (Dana, 1846), *Echinopora*  
 294 spp. (Lamarck, 1816), *Montipora stellata* (Bernard, 1897),  
 295 and *Porites cylindrica* (Dana, 1846) collected from the  
 296 Bouraké site on the 12<sup>th</sup> of March 2020, and from the refer-  
 297 ence site on the 13<sup>th</sup> of March 2020 were used for the pho-  
 298 tosynthesis and respiration measurements. Fragments were  
 299 collected during the morning, one hour before the high tide  
 300 (11:19 am and 11:53 am local time on the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> of  
 301 March, respectively) to avoid any bias due to diurnal varia-  
 302 tions (Edmunds and Davies, 1988). Fragments were trans-  
 303 ported onboard the R/V in individual hermetic plastic bags  
 304 containing seawater and immersed in a cooler. Fragments  
 305 were then transferred in a 100 L tank in the indoor labora-  
 306 tory of the vessel where the temperature was maintained  
 307 close to the one that was measured with a dive computer  
 308 in situ during collection. The tank was equipped with a sub-  
 309 mersible pump and an air stone for water circulation, and  
 310 filled with seawater freshly collected in Bouraké. A low light  
 311 level (ca.  $70 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) was provided by the same source

of light used for the incubations (see below) to allow corals  
 to recover for an hour.

Fragments were first incubated twice for  $50 \pm 10$  min in  
 the morning under high tide conditions. The first incubation  
 was carried out in the dark to measure day respiration (day  
 R) rates and the second in the light to measure net photo-  
 synthesis ( $P_n$ ) rates.  $P_n$  rates were measured using saturating  
 light intensity ( $250 \pm 10 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) provided by one  
 bank of four T5 bulbs (10,000°K, Giesemann, Germany).  
 Seawater in beakers was renewed between the dark and the  
 light incubations using the same sample of seawater col-  
 lected in Bouraké during sampling. After the first two incu-  
 bations (i.e., dark and light), corals were let to recover for  
 two hours under a low light level in fresh seawater collected  
 in Bouraké at intermediate conditions between high and low  
 tide. During the afternoon falling tide, when the seawater in  
 the lagoon reached values close to projected future condi-  
 tions, fresh seawater was collected again and the corals were  
 gently transferred and let to recover in the collected seawater  
 for about one hour. Two incubations were then carried out  
 in the afternoon to measure the  $P_n$  and R rates of corals  
 under low tide conditions, using the same methodology as  
 the incubations carried out in the morning. Because  $pO_2$   
 levels are low at the falling tide,  $P_n$  was conducted first in  
 the afternoon so that R would not be constrained by low  $pO_2$ .  
 This resulted in a total of four sets of incubations of the same  
 30 coral fragments collected in the morning (see also Sup-  
 31plementary Figure S1 for a summarized representation of the  
 32 incubation chronology). This exact sampling procedure and  
 33 incubation protocol were carried out on the 12<sup>th</sup> of March  
 34 with corals from Bouraké, and on the 13<sup>th</sup> of March with  
 35 corals from the reference site.

## 344 Photosynthesis and day respiration rates

The experimental set-up used (i.e., incubation duration and  
 volume of beakers) was as in Biscéré et al. (2019), which  
 allows to measure clear DO variations without variations  
 exceeding 15–20% during the incubation. For each incu-  
 bation, coral fragments ( $n = 5-7$ ) of the five species were  
 placed in individual 100 mL Pyrex glass beakers ( $n = 30$ )  
 filled with seawater and hermetically sealed underwater with  
 transparent cellophane and a rubber band after all air bub-  
 bles were removed, to avoid any bias from  $O_2$  exchanges

**Table 2** Values of  $pH_T$  (in total scale), temperature (T) and dissolved oxygen (DO) used during the four incubations of corals from the reference (R1) and Bouraké (B2) sites under present-day, and future conditions

| Seawater<br>Conditions | Incubation R1 corals |        |                          | Incubation B2 corals |        |                          |
|------------------------|----------------------|--------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------|--------------------------|
|                        | $pH_T$               | T (°C) | DO (mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) | $pH_T$               | T (°C) | DO (mg L <sup>-1</sup> ) |
| Present-day            | 8.03                 | 29.8   | 6.0                      | 7.98                 | 29.4   | 5.9                      |
| Future                 | 7.73                 | 32.0   | 4.6                      | 7.65                 | 31.3   | 4.8                      |

354 with air (Biscéré et al. 2019). Three control beakers, in  
 355 which no coral fragment was placed, were used to measure  
 356 the metabolic microbial activity of the water. Control beak-  
 357 ers were emptied and filled again with fresh seawater for  
 358 each new incubation. Beakers were placed on two submers-  
 359 ible multi-stirring plates with  $n = 18$  individual stirring posi-  
 360 tions each (Fig. S1), which continuously stirred the seawater  
 361 in each beaker, and were semi-submersed in a thermostatic  
 362 water bath settled at  $\pm 0.5$  °C from the temperature of the  
 363 collected seawater (Table 2). After five minutes of incuba-  
 364 tion, and at the end of each incubation, concentrations of  
 365 DO were measured in each beaker, where  $O_2$  sensor spots  
 366 were fixed, using an optical fiber (PreSens Fibox 4 trace).  
 367 Rates of  $P_n$  and day R were calculated using the change of  
 368 DO concentrations in each beaker, corrected by the mean  
 369 of the microbial activity measured in three empty beakers,  
 370 and normalized by the incubation duration, the volume of  
 371 seawater in each beaker, and either the coral’s surface or its  
 372 content in chl *a* (Edmunds and Gates 2002).

373 Rates of gross photosynthesis  $P_g$  were calculated as the  
 374 sum of  $|P_n|$  and  $|R|$ . Photosynthesis to respiration ratio ( $P_g$ :  
 375 day R) was calculated as:

$$376 P_g : \text{day } R = \frac{P_g \times \text{hours of daylight}}{\text{day } R \times 24}$$

377 with  $P_g$  and day R in  $\mu\text{mol } O_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ . The value of hours  
 378 of daylight equalled 12.2 on March 13th in New Caledonia.  
 379 At the end of each incubation pair (dark and light), coral  
 380 fragments were frozen at  $-20$  °C for subsequent measure-  
 381 ments of chlorophyll (chl) concentration and symbiont den-  
 382 sity and surface area. Values of  $P_g$  are presented hereafter  
 383 as normalized by the chl content ( $P_{\text{chl}}$ ) or by the surface area  
 384 ( $P_s$ ) of each coral fragment.

### 386 Statistical analyses and data presentation

387 Statistical analyses were carried out and figures were pro-  
 388 duced using RStudio v.4.1.0 (2021), including the pack-  
 389 ages {ggplot2}, {stats}, {ARTool} and {car}. Data were  
 390 first visually inspected and abnormal values were deleted.  
 391 Homogeneity of variance was tested using the Bartlett test  
 392 and the distribution of variances within groups was checked  
 393 graphically on a normal P-P plot (i.e., expected vs observed).  
 394 Chlorophyll and Symbiodiniaceae contents did not meet the  
 395 assumptions of normality so values from both sites were  
 396 compared using the non-parametrical Kruskal–Wallis test.  
 397 Day R,  $P_{\text{chl}}$ ,  $P_s$  and  $P_g$ : day R rates verified normality and  
 398 homoscedasticity conditions, so a  $2 \times 2$ -way ANOVA was  
 399 run to test for the effect of long-term exposure (i.e. site  
 400 of origin: reference and Bouraké) and the effect of short-  
 401 term exposure (i.e. incubation conditions: present-day and  
 402 future), and their interaction on corals’  $P$  and  $R$  rates. As

no interaction term was significant, post hoc Tukey HSD  
 tests were not performed.  $P$ -levels were not adjusted. Data  
 were presented using boxplots displaying median values  
 (line)  $\pm 25$ th and 75th percentiles (box), minimum and maxi-  
 mum values (whiskers), and mean values (dots).

## 408 Results

### 409 Environmental parameters at the study sites

410 Environmental data collected from 2016 to 2020 (see Mag-  
 411 gioni et al. (2021) for full data set) clearly demonstrated  
 412 the large differences between the reference site R1 and the  
 413 Bouraké site (Table 1). While the environmental param-  
 414 eters for seawater measured at the reference site R1 were  
 415 all within the normal range known for New Caledonia, sea-  
 416 water temperature was on average 1 °C higher in Bouraké,  
 417 and up to 3 °C higher during the hot season. Measured pH  
 418 was ca. 0.2  $\text{pH}_T$  units lower, reaching the extreme value of  
 419 7.23  $\text{pH}_T$  and  $p\text{CO}_2$  was three times higher in Bouraké than  
 420 at R1. Measured DO was on average 1  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  lower than  
 421 at R1 and salinity was on average 1 point higher, reaching  
 422 extreme values during the summer (+3 points). Dissolved  
 423 oxygen, temperature, pH and salinity fluctuated in relation  
 424 to the tide, respectively up to 4.91  $\text{mg } O_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$ , 6.50 °C, 0.69  
 425  $\text{pH}_T$  units, and 3.42 points within a day.

### 426 Chlorophyll and Symbiodiniaceae content

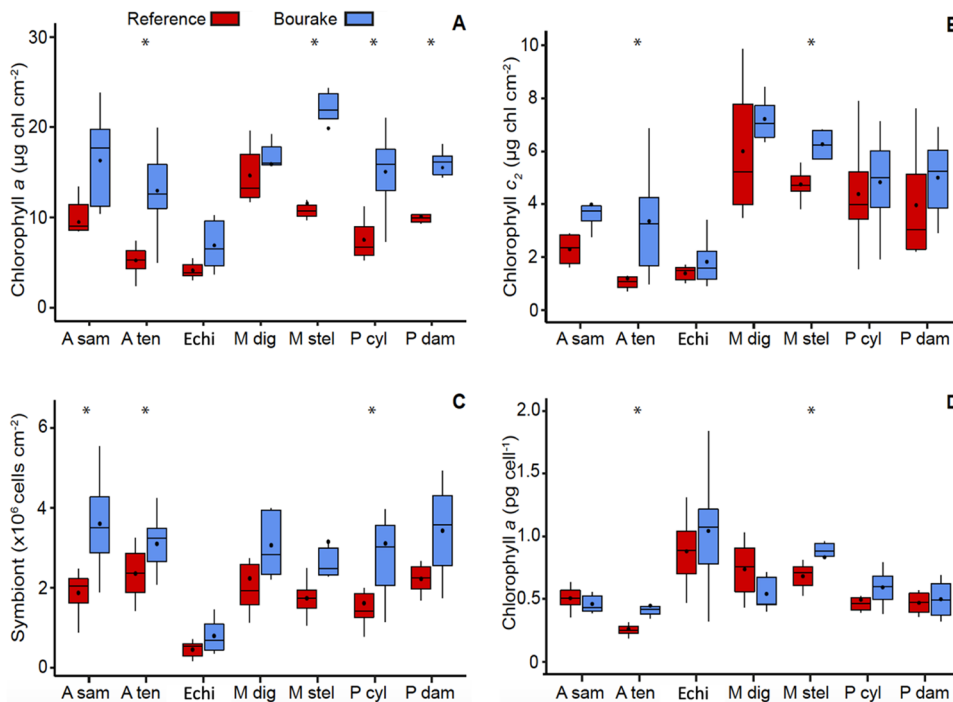
427 Chlorophyll and symbiont contents in coral fragments signif-  
 428 icantly differed between the Bouraké and the reference site  
 429 (Fig. 2; Table 3). Bouraké fragments displayed significantly  
 430 higher content of chl *a* for 4 out of 7 species; higher content  
 431 of chl *c*<sub>2</sub> for *A. tenuis* and *M. stellata*, higher symbiont den-  
 432 sity for *A. samoensis*, *A. tenuis* and *P. cylindrica* and higher  
 433 chl *a* per symbiont for *A. tenuis* and *M. stellata*.

### 434 Photosynthesis and day respiration rates

435 ANOVA showed no significant effect of incubation con-  
 436 ditions (present day vs. future) on the photosynthesis and  
 437 respiration rates of corals (Fig. 3 for the corals from the  
 438 Bouraké site, Fig. S2 for corals from the reference site and  
 439 Table 4 for statistical values).

440 In contrast, significant differences between corals from  
 441 different sites were observed for the  $P_{\text{chl}}$  of all coral species,  
 442 the  $P_s$  of three coral species, the  $P_g$ : day R of two species and  
 443 the day R rates of *Echinopora* spp. (Table 4). Figure 4 pre-  
 444 sents the values of the four measured variables for fragments  
 445 from both sites, after having pooled together both incuba-  
 446 tion conditions. Mean photosynthesis rates per chl *a* ( $P_{\text{chl}}$ )  
 447 were lower for all corals originating from Bouraké compared

**Fig. 2** **A** Chl *a* and **B** chl *c*<sub>2</sub> content per unit surface area of the skeleton ( $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ ); **C** symbiont density per unit surface area ( $\times 10^6 \text{ cells cm}^{-2}$ ), and **D** chl *a* content per symbiont ( $\text{pg cell}^{-1}$ ) measured on corals collected at the reference site and Bouraké site ( $n=12$  for *A. tenuis* and  $n=5-7$  for other species). Data are represented as median value (line)  $\pm$  25th and 75th percentiles (box), minimum and maximum values (whiskers) and mean value (dot). Asterisks indicate statistical differences between sites of origin (see Table 3)



448 to the reference fragments (Fig. 4A). When normalizing P  
 449 rates per surface area ( $P_S$ ), contrasting trends were observed  
 450 depending on the species. While colonies of *P. cylindrica*  
 451 from Bouraké increased  $P_S$ , *A. tenuis* and *Echinopora* spp.  
 452 displayed decreased  $P_S$ , and the two other species had similar  
 453  $P_S$  compared to colonies from the reference site (Fig. 4B).  
 454 Mean respiration (day R) rates were lower for *Echinopora*  
 455 spp. from Bouraké compared to the reference site, and compar-  
 456 able for the other species between both sites (Fig. 4C).  
 457 The mean  $P_g$ : day R ratios of Bouraké fragments were higher  
 458 for *M. stellata*, *Echinopora* spp. and *P. cylindrica* but similar  
 459 for *A. samoensis* and *A. tenuis* compared to fragments from  
 460 the reference site (Fig. 4D).

461 **Discussion**

462 Zooxanthellae and chlorophyll contents of corals from the  
 463 Bouraké lagoon were in similar ranges or higher than those  
 464 of usual tropical corals in New Caledonia and in the GBR:  
 465  $1-6 \times 10^6 \text{ cells cm}^{-2}$  of symbionts,  $5-25 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$  of chl *a*  
 466 and chl *c*<sub>2</sub>,  $2-15 \times 10^{-6} \text{ pg cell}^{-1}$  of chl *a* (e.g., Connolly  
 467 et al. 2012; Schoepf et al. 2015; Camp et al. 2020). These  
 468 results demonstrate that despite developing in a site with  
 469 extreme conditions, corals from the Bouraké lagoon display  
 470 healthy levels of symbionts and chlorophyll, even during the  
 471 hottest period of the year (February to March), when frag-  
 472 ments were collected for this study. This is coherent with  
 473 the field observations made during sampling for this study,  
 474 during which no sign of bleaching of corals in either site

was observed. For a majority of species (five out of seven),  
 chl *a* concentrations per surface area were even found to be  
 higher at the Bouraké site than at the reference site. This  
 resulted from increased symbiont densities and/or increased  
 chl per symbiont in Bouraké corals compared to the refer-  
 ence site. The ability of Bouraké corals to maintain “normal”  
 symbiont and chlorophyll contents under combined stressors  
 could result from genetic adaptations, but several additional  
 mechanisms could explain this ability. A first explanation  
 could be related to the high levels of turbidity in the lagoon,  
 especially at the end of the falling tide when the system empties  
 and receives water rich in organic matter from the surrounding  
 mangrove forest. Although light irradiance in the lagoon has  
 yet to be extensively measured, the attenuation of solar radi-  
 ations by turbidity has been shown to mitigate the stress exerted  
 on corals from elevated temperatures and UV radiations by  
 reducing photoinhibition and thus bleaching (Lesser and Farrell  
 2004; Sully and Woesik 2020). Many studies have reported  
 lower bleaching rates at sites displaying higher turbidity levels  
 in comparison to adjacent clear-water reefs (e.g., van Woesik  
 et al. 2012; Morgan et al. 2017), and a similar mechanism  
 could be at play in the Bouraké lagoon. A second mechanism  
 involved could originate from the high nutrient concentrations  
 (Rees and Smith 1991) which are likely to occur in the lagoon  
 in relation to the surrounding mangrove ecosystem (Kristensen  
 et al. 2008). Increased heterotrophy has previously been  
 evidenced in turbid coastal environments (Anthony 2000) and  
 has been shown to strengthen corals’ symbiosis and help to  
 maintain chlorophyll contents and high symbiont



**Table 3** Results from non-parametric Kruskal–Wallis test on the corals' chlorophyll (chl) and symbiont contents

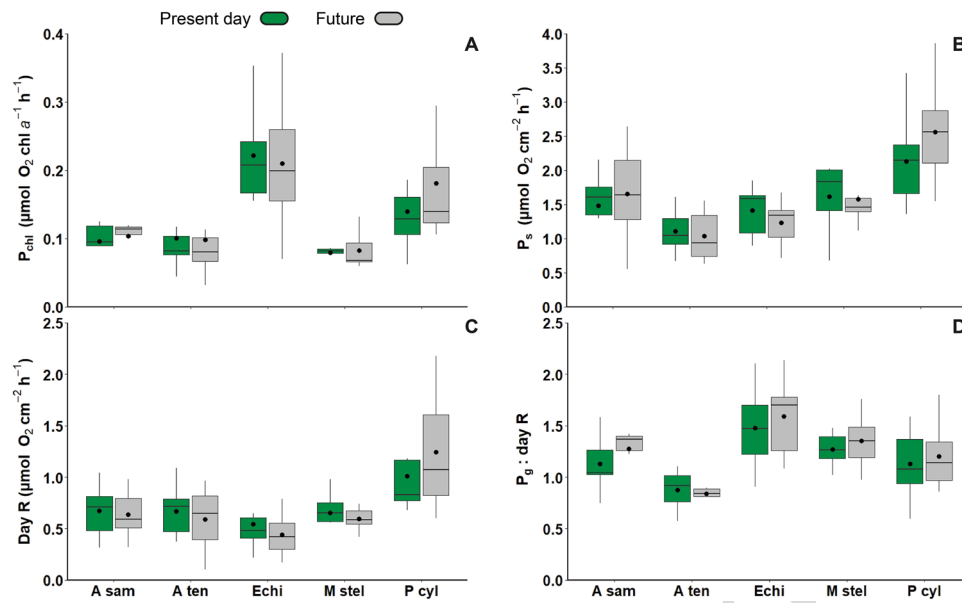
| Species                | Parameters                      | df   | H     | p-value      |
|------------------------|---------------------------------|------|-------|--------------|
| <i>A. samoensis</i>    | chl <i>a</i>                    | 1,13 | 3.50  | 0.063        |
|                        | chl <i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>       | 1,13 | 2.94  | 0.086        |
|                        | Symbionts                       | 1,13 | 5.90  | <b>0.015</b> |
|                        | chl <i>a</i> cell <sup>-1</sup> | 1,13 | 0.51  | 0.475        |
| <i>A. tenuis</i>       | chl <i>a</i>                    | 1,24 | 13.53 | <b>0.000</b> |
|                        | chl <i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>       | 1,24 | 11.49 | <b>0.000</b> |
|                        | Symbionts                       | 1,24 | 6.06  | <b>0.014</b> |
|                        | chl <i>a</i> cell <sup>-1</sup> | 1,24 | 15.30 | <b>0.000</b> |
| <i>Echinopora</i> spp. | chl <i>a</i>                    | 1,13 | 2.47  | 0.116        |
|                        | chl <i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>       | 1,13 | 0.18  | 0.668        |
|                        | Symbionts                       | 1,13 | 2.04  | 0.153        |
|                        | chl <i>a</i> cell <sup>-1</sup> | 1,13 | 0.31  | 0.574        |
| <i>M. digitata</i>     | chl <i>a</i>                    | 1,11 | 0.13  | 0.715        |
|                        | chl <i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>       | 1,11 | 1.63  | 0.201        |
|                        | Symbionts                       | 1,11 | 2.13  | 0.144        |
|                        | chl <i>a</i> cell <sup>-1</sup> | 1,11 | 2.70  | 0.100        |
| <i>M. stellata</i>     | chl <i>a</i>                    | 1,13 | 4.60  | <b>0.032</b> |
|                        | chl <i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>       | 1,13 | 4.00  | <b>0.045</b> |
|                        | Symbionts                       | 1,13 | 2.94  | 0.086        |
|                        | chl <i>a</i> cell <sup>-1</sup> | 1,13 | 4.00  | <b>0.045</b> |
| <i>P. cylindrica</i>   | chl <i>a</i>                    | 1,15 | 8.37  | <b>0.004</b> |
|                        | chl <i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>       | 1,15 | 0.12  | 0.728        |
|                        | Symbionts                       | 1,15 | 4.34  | <b>0.037</b> |
|                        | chl <i>a</i> cell <sup>-1</sup> | 1,15 | 1.77  | 0.183        |
| <i>P. damicornis</i>   | chl <i>a</i>                    | 1,12 | 7.41  | <b>0.006</b> |
|                        | chl <i>c</i> <sub>2</sub>       | 1,12 | 1.25  | 0.262        |
|                        | Symbionts                       | 1,12 | 3.10  | 0.078        |
|                        | chl <i>a</i> cell <sup>-1</sup> | 1,12 | 0     | 1            |

Statistically significant values are in bold

505 densities under warm and acidified conditions (Edmunds  
 506 2011; Ferrier-Pagès et al. 2010; Houbrèque et al. 2015). The  
 507 combination of attenuated solar radiations and increased het-  
 508 erotrophy could be an explanation for how corals can main-  
 509 tain unchanged densities of symbionts despite developing  
 510 in extreme environmental conditions. Isotopic analyses in  
 511 both Symbiodiniaceae and tissues as well as measurements  
 512 of nutrients, dissolved and particulate organic carbon, and  
 513 different plankton populations are currently being carried  
 514 out in the Bouraké lagoon to confirm whether increased het-  
 515 erotrophy could indeed support both hosts and symbionts in  
 516 this extreme environment. A last specificity of the Bouraké  
 517 lagoon that could influence the chlorophyll and symbiont  
 518 content of corals is its high salinity, with daily fluctua-  
 519 tions in the summer ranging from normal values to 40 in  
 520 relation to the tide (Maggioni et al. 2021). Indeed, higher  
 521 thermotolerance and reduced sensitivity to bleaching were  
 522 found on *Aiptasia* from the hypersaline Red Sea, partially

explaining the strong heat tolerance of corals from the north-  
 ern Red Sea, and the Gulf of Aqaba (Gegner et al. 2017).  
 Although corals from the Bouraké lagoon are not constantly  
 exposed to high salinity as in the above-mentioned seas, they  
 experience extreme levels which are comparable, therefore  
 the same unknown mechanisms might have improved the  
 persistence of symbionts in the corals from Bouraké, an  
 interesting hypothesis that should be experimentally tested.  
 Lastly, previous studies showed no effect of acidification on  
 chlorophyll and symbiont contents in both short-time tank  
 experiments (Godinot et al. 2011; Schoepf et al. 2013) and  
 experiments using corals from volcanic CO<sub>2</sub> seeps (Noonan  
 et al. 2013; Biscéré et al. 2019), which suggests that acidity  
 is not a key factor in their determination.

Although this study mostly focused on the symbionts' responses to an extreme environment, the holobiont response as a whole was also investigated by characterizing the photosynthesis and day respiration of corals. By incubating corals from an extreme and a reference site under both future and present-day conditions, we obtained information on (1) the respiration and photosynthesis responses of corals to a short-term exposure to future conditions; (2) the endosymbiont specificities of corals originating from two contrasting environments. Photosynthesis and respiration rates measured during the incubations were in the same ranges as those measured in previous studies carried out in the Bouraké lagoon (Camp et al. 2017, 2020) and in other sites in New Caledonia (Biscéré et al. 2017, 2018). As hypothesized, a short-term exposure to future conditions (i.e. increased temperatures of 2 ± 0.2 °C, decreased pH<sub>T</sub> of 0.3 ± 0.03 and decreased DO of 1.3 ± 0.02 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) did not significantly modify corals' photosynthesis and respiration in comparison to present-day conditions. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that the effects of a short-term exposure to this trio of stressors is investigated. Previous studies that examined the effects of a short-term exposure to combined low pH and high temperature on corals' P and R rates have shown conflicting and non-linear results (e.g., Brown et al. 2019; Godinot et al. 2011; Hoadley et al. 2015). Overall, past results showed that temperature was the most impacting factor on corals' P and R rates, while the little effect of short-term exposure to acidified conditions was observed (e.g., Rodolfo-Metalpa et al. 2011; Comeau et al. 2017). The absence of detected effects on corals' P and R rates in this study could come from the length of the incubations used in this study, which was shorter than in the aforementioned studies (hour long vs. 10 days to a month in previous studies) and might not allow for plasticity or inhibition processes to occur. The unchanged P and R rates could also result from offsetting effects between increased T and decreased pH and DO. Longer exposure of adapted and non-adapted corals to low pH, DO and high T would allow to assess whether the absence of changes observed in this study is due to the



**Fig. 3** Photosynthesis and respiration rates of fragments from Bouraké ( $n=5-7$  depending on species) incubated either under present-day (green) or future conditions (grey). See Table 2 for seawater conditions. **A** Gross photosynthesis rates normalized by chl  $a$  content ( $P_{chl}$ ,  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ chl } a^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ); **B** gross photosynthesis rates normalized by surface ( $P_s$ ,  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ); **C** day respiration rates normal-

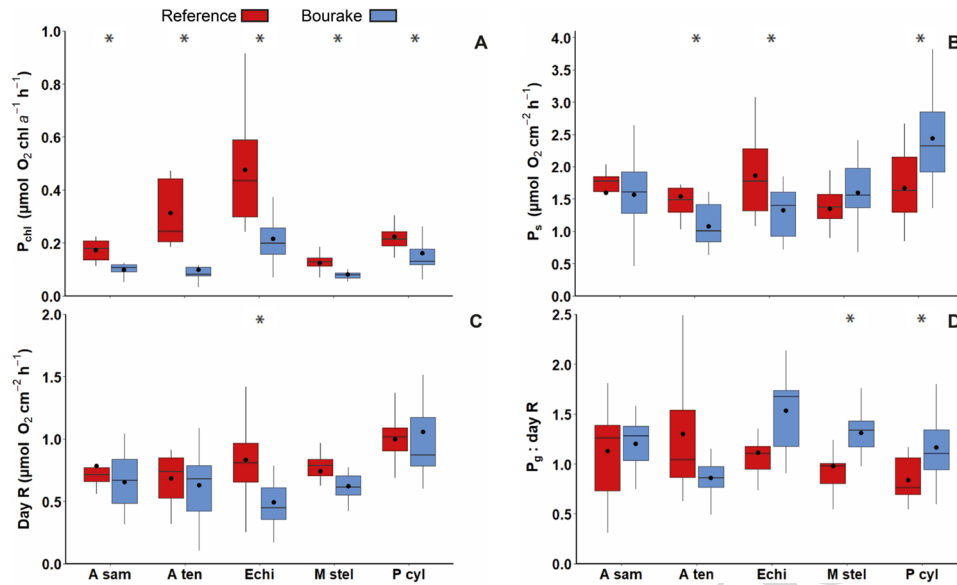
ized by surface (Day R,  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ), and **D** their  $P_g$ : day R ratios. Data are represented as median values (lines)  $\pm$  25th and 75th percentiles (box), minimum and maximum values (whiskers) and mean values (dots). No significant differences between incubation conditions were found (see Table 4)

**Table 4** Results of a two x two-way ANOVA testing the effect of colonies' origin (Bouraké and reference); seawater condition during incubations (HT: present-day and LT: future), and their interaction on

the gross photosynthesis rates per chlorophyllent ( $P_{chl}$ ), and per surface area ( $P_s$ ), day respiration (day R), and photosynthesis to day respiration ratio ( $P_g$ : day R) of colonies from five coral species

| Species                | Factor        | Pchl |       |       |              | Ps |        |       |              | day R |       |      |              | Ps: day R |        |       |              |
|------------------------|---------------|------|-------|-------|--------------|----|--------|-------|--------------|-------|-------|------|--------------|-----------|--------|-------|--------------|
|                        |               | df   | SS    | F     | P            | df | SS     | F     | P            | df    | SS    | F    | P            | df        | SS     | F     | P            |
| <i>A. samoensis</i>    | Origin        | 1    | 0.035 | 26.38 | <b>0.000</b> | 1  | 0.005  | 0.02  | 0.898        | 1     | 0.109 | 1.52 | 0.230        | 1         | 0.035  | 0.257 | 0.617        |
|                        | Condition     | 1    | 0     | 0.33  | 0.568        | 1  | 0.126  | 0.40  | 0.535        | 1     | 0.001 | 0.02 | 0.887        | 1         | 0.201  | 1.49  | 0.235        |
|                        | Origin x cond | 1    | 0     | 0     | 0.983        | 1  | 0.006  | 0.02  | 0.889        | 1     | 0.002 | 0.03 | 0.853        | 1         | 0.005  | 0.03  | 0.856        |
|                        | Error         | 22   | 0.029 |       |              | 22 | 6.979  |       |              | 22    | 1.584 |      |              | 19        | 2.966  |       |              |
| <i>A. tenuis</i>       | Origin        | 1    | 0.471 | 14.70 | <b>0.001</b> | 1  | 1.107  | 6.90  | <b>0.017</b> | 1     | 0.013 | 0.24 | 0.631        | 1         | 0.229  | 0.38  | 0.544        |
|                        | Condition     | 1    | 0.011 | 0.35  | 0.563        | 1  | 0.007  | 0.04  | 0.838        | 1     | 0.184 | 3.26 | 0.088        | 1         | 1.982  | 3.31  | 0.085        |
|                        | Origin x cond | 1    | 0.021 | 0.66  | 0.426        | 1  | 0.107  | 0.66  | 0.425        | 1     | 0.105 | 1.87 | 0.188        | 1         | 0.319  | 0.53  | 0.475        |
|                        | Error         | 18   | 0.577 |       |              | 18 | 2.892  |       |              | 18    | 1.014 |      |              | 18        | 10.768 |       |              |
| <i>Echinopora</i> spp. | Origin        | 1    | 0.439 | 13.33 | <b>0.001</b> | 1  | 1.892  | 5.70  | <b>0.026</b> | 1     | 0.760 | 8.71 | <b>0.007</b> | 1         | 0.622  | 3.04  | 0.095        |
|                        | Condition     | 1    | 0.006 | 0.18  | 0.674        | 1  | 0.186  | 0.56  | 0.462        | 1     | 0.091 | 1.04 | 0.318        | 1         | 0.161  | 0.78  | 0.385        |
|                        | Origin x cond | 1    | 0.002 | 0.06  | 0.808        | 1  | 0.001  | 0.002 | 0.965        | 1     | 0.002 | 0.02 | 0.886        | 1         | 0.012  | 0.06  | 0.809        |
|                        | Error         | 22   | 0.724 |       |              | 22 | 7.298  |       |              | 22    | 1.919 |      |              | 22        | 4.502  |       |              |
| <i>M. stellata</i>     | Origin        | 1    | 0.012 | 10.39 | <b>0.004</b> | 1  | 0.378  | 1.97  | 0.175        | 1     | 0.092 | 2.53 | 0.126        | 1         | 0.714  | 9.45  | <b>0.006</b> |
|                        | Condition     | 1    | 0     | 0.35  | 0.557        | 1  | 0.077  | 0.40  | 0.532        | 1     | 0.001 | 0.03 | 0.853        | 1         | 0.003  | 0.04  | 0.843        |
|                        | Origin x cond | 1    | 0.001 | 0.58  | 0.455        | 1  | 0.025  | 0.13  | 0.723        | 1     | 0.010 | 0.26 | 0.612        | 1         | 0.020  | 0.27  | 0.610        |
|                        | Error         | 22   | 0.025 |       |              | 22 | 4.223  |       |              | 22    | 0.805 |      |              | 22        | 1.663  |       |              |
| <i>P. cylindrica</i>   | Origin        | 1    | 0.030 | 6.36  | <b>0.018</b> | 1  | 4.399  | 9.25  | <b>0.005</b> | 1     | 0.123 | 0.88 | 0.357        | 1         | 0.796  | 10.02 | <b>0.004</b> |
|                        | Condition     | 1    | 0     | 0.10  | 0.759        | 1  | 0.413  | 0.87  | 0.359        | 1     | 0.057 | 0.40 | 0.531        | 1         | 0.001  | 0.02  | 0.880        |
|                        | Origin x cond | 1    | 0.010 | 2.08  | 0.161        | 1  | 1.249  | 2.63  | 0.117        | 1     | 0.195 | 1.39 | 0.250        | 1         | 0.025  | 0.31  | 0.583        |
|                        | Error         | 26   | 0.121 |       |              | 26 | 12.358 |       |              | 26    | 3.651 |      |              | 26        | 2.066  |       |              |

Significant values are in bold



**Fig. 4** Photosynthesis and respiration rates of fragments from the reference and the Bouraké site pooled between incubation conditions ( $n=5-7$  depending on species). **A** Gross photosynthesis rates normalized by chl  $a$  content ( $P_{chl}$ ,  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ chl } a^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ); **B** gross photosynthesis rates normalized by surface ( $P_S$ ,  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ); **C** day

respiration rates normalized by surface (Day R,  $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ), and **D**  $P_g$ : day R ratios. Data are represented as median values (lines)  $\pm$  25th and 75th percentiles (box), minimum and maximum values (whiskers) and mean values (dots). Asterisks indicate statistical differences between sites of origin (see Table 4)

576 incubation length used or to compensating effects between  
577 the three stressors.

578 Conversely, corals' origin had a significant and species-  
579 specific effect on respiration and photosynthetic rates. While  
580 the incubation conditions were identical for both groups of  
581 corals, the rate of  $P_{chl}$  was significantly lower for all species  
582 from the Bouraké site. This could result from the higher  
583 density of chl  $a$  in Bouraké corals, which can lead to self-  
584 shading and lower the absorption efficiency of pigments  
585 (Enríquez et al. 2005). Symbionts from Bouraké could also  
586 have adapted to the lower light intensity in the lagoon by  
587 displaying lower light intensity saturation points, leading to  
588 lower productivity compared to reference symbionts. The  
589 differences in the measured  $P_{chl}$  rates could also be caused  
590 by a change in symbiont types between Bouraké and the  
591 reference site, which has been shown to be a common adap-  
592 tive feature in extreme environments (Howells et al. 2016).  
593 Camp et al. (2020) found differences in symbiont types  
594 between Bouraké corals and nearby reference corals. These  
595 changes were species-specific, which is consistent with the  
596 species-specific results found for  $P_{chl}$  rates. Adaptation of  
597 symbionts to acidified environments could for example take  
598 the form of the ability to enhance  $P$  rates by taking advan-  
599 tage of increased  $p\text{CO}_2$ . This adaptation has been shown to  
600 occur for some, but not all, host + symbiont assemblages  
601 (Biscéré et al. 2019; Inoue et al. 2013; Langdon and Atkin-  
602 son 2005). However, the decrease in photosynthetic rates per  
603 chl  $a$  of Bouraké corals was counterbalanced by the increase  
604 in the chl  $a$  content of these corals per surface area. These

two compensating factors resulted in  $P$  rates per surface  
605 area ( $P_S$ ) lower for *A. tenuis* and *Echinopora* spp., higher  
606 for *P. cylindrica* and comparable for the two other species  
607 at the Bouraké site. Furthermore, the differences observed  
608 between sites in the  $P_S$  rates were less pronounced than  
609 those observed for  $P_{chl}$ . In previous studies conducted at  
610 the Bouraké site, Camp et al. (2017) found no changes in  
611  $P_S$  rates for fragments of *A. pulchra*, *A. muricata* and *P.*  
612 *lutea*. Collectively, these results suggest that  $P_S$  rates of the  
613 Bouraké corals are either comparable or slightly lower than  
614 those of corals from adjacent reference reefs.  
615

616 Corals' origin also had a significant effect on respiration  
617 rates, which were lower for two out of five species from  
618 the Bouraké site. It is established that water acidification  
619 increases energy demands to maintain calcification rates,  
620 although marginally (McCulloch et al. 2012). In an acidified  
621 environment like the Bouraké lagoon, unchanged or lower  
622  $R$  rates of corals as observed in this study suggest either  
623 lower growth rates or reallocation of the energy budget. The  
624 former outcome seems likely, as Camp et al. (2017) reported  
625 lower calcification rates of Bouraké corals compared to ref-  
626 erence corals. A study conducted at another mangrove site  
627 in Sulawesi, Indonesia also found that corals did not increase  
628 their  $R$  rates compared to control fragments (Camp et al.  
629 2016). Low  $p\text{O}_2$  characteristic of mangrove habitats (Kris-  
630 tensen et al. 2008) could be a limiting factor in the ability of  
631 corals to increase their day  $R$  rates, especially at night when  
632  $\text{O}_2$  is not being produced by symbionts. It is to be noted that  
633 previous studies carried out in Bouraké found that day  $R$

634 rates of Bouraké corals were higher than those of reference  
635 corals (Camp et al. 2017, 2020). The discrepancy in results  
636 could come from the differences in experimental design, as  
637 well as differences in the species studied. Indeed, these pre-  
638 vious studies incubated Bouraké and reference corals using  
639 seawater from their respective sites, while we compared P  
640 and R rates of both groups using seawater collected only in  
641 Bouraké.

642 Altogether, our results show that corals that have been  
643 chronically exposed to extreme conditions display different  
644 P and R rates than corals from an adjacent reference site.  
645 These differences persisted even when corals were exposed  
646 during short-term periods to contrasting incubation condi-  
647 tions, suggesting that they originate from intrinsic traits  
648 rather than differing environmental conditions. This study  
649 does not allow to discriminate the role played by acclima-  
650 tization (resulting from corals' plasticity) and adaptation  
651 (resulting from genetic modifications) in the differences  
652 observed between both sites. As acclimation occurs at a  
653 faster rate than adaptation, knowing which process is preva-  
654 lent is important to assess if corals' have the potential to  
655 keep up with climate change (Palumbi et al. 2014). Trans-  
656 plantation experiments and metatranscriptomic approaches  
657 would be necessary to assess the respective roles of adapta-  
658 tion and acclimation, which have never been carried out yet  
659 in an environment combining this trio of stressors.

660 The Bouraké site is the first site displaying multiple and  
661 fluctuating stressors where corals' endosymbiont functions,  
662 photosynthesis and respiration have been investigated. This  
663 study consolidates previous results from single-stressor sites,  
664 such as CO<sub>2</sub> seeps, showing that corals' responses to extreme  
665 conditions are largely species-specific. Indeed, variations of  
666 P and day R rates between Bouraké and reference corals  
667 were heterogeneous among species, and both increases and  
668 decreases in these values were observed. This is consistent  
669 with findings from coral communities developing around  
670 volcanic CO<sub>2</sub> seeps in Papua New Guinea (Biscéré et al.  
671 2019; Strahl et al. 2015), which showed species-specific  
672 rather than stereotyped responses of P and R rates to their  
673 acidified environment. While Strahl et al. (2015) found no  
674 effect of pCO<sub>2</sub> on R rates and heterogeneous effects on P<sub>g</sub>  
675 rates, Biscéré et al. (2019) found increased P<sub>g</sub>, day R and P<sub>g</sub>:  
676 day R under elevated pCO<sub>2</sub>. This suggests that corals' adjust-  
677 ments to extreme environments can take diverse forms and  
678 that responses are species- and site-dependent rather than  
679 stereotyped (Hoadley et al. 2015). This study also highlights  
680 that some coral species might have more limited abilities to  
681 adjust to unfavorable conditions. For example, we found that  
682 the two Acroporidae species (*A. tenuis* and *A. samoensis*)  
683 displayed the lowest P<sub>g</sub>: day R rates and were the only spe-  
684 cies for which this value was not higher than that of the re-  
685 ference colonies. Increased P rates and P<sub>g</sub>: day R ratios have  
686 been linked to higher productivity, which is thought to play

an important role in corals' tolerance to acidified conditions  
(Fabricius et al. 2011). This suggests that Acroporidae spe-  
cies are undergoing higher energetic stress, and could thus  
be more vulnerable to any additional stressor occurring in  
the Bouraké lagoon. Past studies have also evidenced a lower  
resistance of Acroporidae to extreme conditions, suggesting  
they could be potential losers in our world's future oceans  
(Loya et al. 2001; Schoepf et al. 2013). The vulnerability of  
Acroporidae could be further exacerbated by their typically  
low heterotrophic intakes and low heterotrophic plasticity  
compared to other genera such as Montiporidae or Pocil-  
loporidae (Palardy et al. 2008; Conti-Jerpe et al. 2020; Sang-  
manee et al. 2020). However, comparison of results between  
species is limited because tissue extraction and wax surface  
measurement is known to vary depending on each species'  
structure and geometry (Edmunds and Gates 2002), leading  
to a species bias for chlorophyll contents, symbiont contents  
and surface area. As our results for photosynthesis and respi-  
ration rates were normalized by chlorophyll and area values,  
species comparison for any of our studied variables is to  
be considered cautiously, which is why it was not further  
developed in this study.

The persistence of knowledge gaps on how single envi-  
ronmental stressors affect corals' metabolism obscures the  
interpretation of how these stressors could affect photosyn-  
thesis and respiration when combined. While the effects of  
acidification and warming have been largely investigated,  
at least separately and on non-adapted corals, the effects  
of low DO on corals' physiology are poorly understood.  
Deoxygenation is predicted to increasingly affect marine  
ecosystems as a result of global warming and eutrophica-  
tion (Hughes et al. 2020). The few studies conducted on  
coral reefs (Altieri et al. 2017; Haas et al. 2014; Hughes  
et al. 2020) reported hypoxic thresholds around 3–4.0 mg  
L<sup>-1</sup>, although this value is likely to vary according to spe-  
cies and site. As DO reach a minimum of 2.28 mg L<sup>-1</sup> in  
the Bouraké lagoon, it likely acts as a stressor on corals'  
metabolism. Additionally, as low DO limits aerobic metabo-  
lism, it is thought to be even more harmful when combined  
with other stressors such as high temperatures or acidifi-  
cation, which tend to increase the energy requirements of  
marine organisms (Breitburg et al. 2018). While hyposalini-  
ty has been shown to be detrimental to corals' metabolism  
(Moberg et al. 1997; Ferrier-Pages et al. 1999; Alutoin et al.  
2001; Gardner et al. 2016), the effects of high salinity have  
received little attention, although some evidence suggests it  
could convey thermotolerance to coral species (Gegner et al.,  
2017). The numerous and concomitant stressors occurring in  
the Bouraké lagoon are thus both what make it a unique and  
valuable natural laboratory and what limit the interpretation  
of our results.

We recognise that our experimental approach has limita-  
tions and that several caveats might interfere with our results

740 reporting low metabolic “stress” in corals that have devel-  
 741 oped in the extreme conditions of the lagoon of Bouraké.  
 742 First of all, we compared only two sites: one within the  
 743 Bouraké lagoon and one adjacent reference fringing reef,  
 744 which does not allow us to investigate whether spatial vari-  
 745 ations occur in our studied system. Although environmen-  
 746 tal conditions are quite homogeneous within the Bouraké  
 747 lagoon, which is why we based our experiment on a single  
 748 site, we would recommend future studies to sample corals  
 749 from several sites both within the lagoon of Bouraké and  
 750 in adjacent fringing reefs. Furthermore, this experiment  
 751 measured the photosynthesis and respiration of corals dur-  
 752 ing the morning low tide and during the afternoon high tide.  
 753 This could introduce a bias in the comparison of photosyn-  
 754 thesis and respiration under low tide and high tide condi-  
 755 tions because metabolism is known to change in relation to  
 756 the time of the day. Ideally, our experiment should also be  
 757 repeated during the night to test both low and high tide con-  
 758 ditions on corals fully dark adapted, although such an experi-  
 759 ment would come with logistic and security constraints on a  
 760 research vessel.

761 Although some limitations exist, corals from naturally  
 762 extreme environments are an invaluable tool to understand  
 763 the mechanisms supporting higher tolerance to future cli-  
 764 matic conditions. This study showed that corals that have  
 765 been exposed their whole life, and possibly across genera-  
 766 tions, to extreme and fluctuating T, pH and DO, are able to  
 767 maintain unaltered levels of symbionts and chlorophylls, as  
 768 well as sustained photosynthesis and respiration rates. As  
 769 such, the lagoon of Bouraké provides evidence that corals  
 770 are able to maintain their autotrophic source of energy even  
 771 under the combined effects of warming, acidification and  
 772 deoxygenation, which have been feared to impair the physio-  
 773 logical mechanisms necessary for corals’ survival (Breitburg  
 774 et al. 2018; Hughes et al. 2020). The variability of T, pH and  
 775 DO occurring in the Bouraké lagoon could play a significant  
 776 role in the ability of corals to cope with extreme conditions.  
 777 Although research on the role of environmental variability is  
 778 in its prime, it has been suggested to enhance corals’ plastic-  
 779 ity and possibly their tolerance to future projected conditions  
 780 (Oliver and Palumbi 2011; Rivest et al. 2017; Schoepf et al.  
 781 2015). Undergoing chronic varying conditions could have  
 782 helped the Bouraké corals to survive the 2016 bleaching  
 783 episode that impacted most reefs of New Caledonia (Ben-  
 784 zoni et al. 2017; Camp et al. 2017). Other specificities of the  
 785 Bouraké lagoon, such as higher turbidity levels and poten-  
 786 tially higher nutrient concentrations, could also play a role  
 787 in the survival of the documented coral species by counter-  
 788 balancing the negative effects of local stressors. The com-  
 789 bination of these specificities could explain why the lagoon  
 790 of Bouraké is one of the only sites where corals developing  
 791 under warm, acidified and deoxygenated conditions have  
 792 been observed. While providing evidence for the ability of

corals to develop under such stressors, it does not ensure that  
 this ability could be generalized to other sites displaying a  
 different set of unique environmental conditions and that this  
 ability will be maintained in a warmer future (Grottoli et al.  
 2014; Schoepf et al. 2015; Nohaïc et al. 2017).

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**Availability of data** The datasets generated and analysed during the  
 current study are available from the corresponding author on reason-  
 able request

**Code availability** Not applicable.

**Declarations**

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no competing  
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**Ethics approval** All corals were collected under permits issued by the  
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