

Coral record of reef-water pH across the central Great Barrier Reef, Australia: assessing the influence of river runoff on inshore reefs

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Abstract

The boron isotopic ($\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$) compositions of long-lived *Porites* coral are used to reconstruct reef-water pH across the central Great Barrier Reef (GBR) and assess the impact of river runoff on inshore reefs. For the period from 1940 to 2009, corals from both inner as well as mid-shelf sites exhibit the same overall decrease in $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ of $0.086 \pm 0.033\%$ per decade, equivalent to a decline in seawater pH (pH_{sw}) of $\sim 0.017 \pm 0.007$ pH units per decade. This decline is consistent with the long-term effects of ocean acidification based on estimates of CO_2 uptake by surface waters due to rising atmospheric levels. We also find that, compared to the mid-shelf corals, the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ compositions of inner shelf corals subject to river discharge events have higher and more variable values, and hence higher inferred pH_{sw} values. These higher $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ values of inner-shelf corals are particularly evident during wet years, despite river waters having lower pH. The main effect of river discharge on reef-water carbonate chemistry thus appears to be from reduced aragonite saturation state and higher nutrients driving increased phytoplankton productivity, resulting in the drawdown of pCO_2 and increase in pH_{sw} . Increased primary production therefore has the potential to counter the more transient effects of low pH river water (pH_{rw}) discharged into near-shore environments. Importantly, however, inshore reefs also show a consistent pattern of sharply declining coral

1 growth that coincides with periods of high river discharge. This occurs despite these reefs
2 having higher pH_{sw} , demonstrating the over-riding importance of local reef-water quality and
3 reduced aragonite saturation state on coral reef health.

4 5 **1 Introduction**

6 Coral reefs are under threat, not only from the global effects of CO_2 driven climate change
7 but also from direct local impacts, in particular disturbed river catchments and degraded
8 water quality (McCulloch et al., 2003; Brodie et al., 2010b). Changing land-use practices
9 since the arrival of European settlers to the central Queensland region has produced increased
10 discharge of terrestrial material from the Burdekin River into the Great Barrier Reef (GBR;
11 McCulloch et al., 2003; Lewis et al., 2007). The increase in discharge of terrestrial material
12 into the GBR has resulted in a decrease in inshore water quality, mainly through increased
13 nutrient loads and decreased water clarity (Brodie et al., 2010b; Fabricius et al., 2014). Known
14 impacts include the promotion of intense and extensive phytoplankton blooms and the
15 increase in abundance of macro-algae (Devlin and Brodie, 2005; Brodie et al., 2010b).
16 Changes in water quality within inner-shelf environments of the GBR have also been linked
17 to a decrease in coral calcification (D'Olivo et al., 2013), coral biodiversity (De'ath and
18 Fabricius, 2010), decreased coral cover (Sweatman et al., 2011), and crown-of-thorns starfish
19 outbreaks (Brodie et al., 2005).

20
21 Despite the mounting evidence for the negative impacts of increased terrestrial discharge into
22 the GBR, the effect of river flood plumes on the carbonate status of reef waters, a
23 fundamental property controlling calcification, remains largely unknown. It is commonly
24 assumed that, because both the salinity and pH of plume waters (pH_{pw}) are generally much
25 lower than ocean waters, a decrease in aragonite saturation state (Ω_{arag}) might be expected
26 (Salisbury et al., 2008), with consequent negative effects for coastal calcifying organisms
27 such as corals (e.g. Kleypas, 1999; Doney et al., 2009; McCulloch et al., 2012). The effect of
28 lower seawater pH (pH_{sw}) could however be offset by the input of nutrients associated with
29 river plumes, as in semi-isolated environments (e.g. enclosed lagoons) and/or highly
30 productive areas where biological processes actively modify the local seawater chemistry
31 (e.g. Hinga, 2002; Andersson et al., 2005; Bates et al., 2010; Drupp et al., 2011; Falter et al.,
32 2013; Duarte et al., 2013). For example, increased productivity during phytoplankton blooms

1 can cause pH_{sw} to rise significantly (Hinga, 2002). Nutrient-enhanced photosynthetic activity
2 has been shown to amplify the seasonal pH cycle by more than 0.5 pH units in experiments
3 within marine enclosures in Narragansett Bay, Rhode Island (Frithsen et al., 1985), and to
4 increase pH_{sw} by 0.7 units in the Peruvian coastal upwelling zone (Simpson and Zirino,
5 1980). In the GBR, it is not known to what extent terrestrial runoff and the associated
6 phytoplankton blooms influence pH_{sw} and hence coral calcification, partly due to the
7 sparseness of especially longer-term pH_{sw} and other seawater carbonate system records. To
8 overcome this, here we use the skeletons of long-lived massive *Porites* corals as archives of
9 changing environmental conditions. Temporal changes in the boron isotope ($\delta^{11}\text{B}$)
10 composition of the skeletons provide a time series of seawater pH, which together with
11 instrumental data, help deconvolve the competing impacts of climate, ocean acidification, and
12 water quality on coral calcification.

13

14 The $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ composition of biogenic carbonates ($\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$) is an established paleo-proxy for
15 pH_{sw} , first developed in corals by Vengosh et al. (1991) and Hemming and Hanson (1992)
16 and more recently refined by Trotter et al. (2011). The method relies on the preferential
17 incorporation of the isotopically lighter $\text{B}(\text{OH})_4^-$ over the $\text{B}(\text{OH})_3$ species into marine
18 carbonate skeletons, with the relative boron species concentration and isotopic compositions
19 being pH dependent (Vengosh et al., 1991; Hemming and Hanson, 1992; Hönlisch et al., 2004).
20 Its application to corals has been validated (Hönlisch et al., 2004; Reynaud et al., 2004; Trotter
21 et al., 2011) and used for long-term pH_{sw} reconstructions using massive *Porites* corals
22 (Pelejero et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2009; Wei et al., 2009; Shinjo et al., 2013). Although coral
23 $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ compositions closely parallel variations in pH_{sw} (Hönlisch et al., 2004; Krief et al.,
24 2010; Trotter et al., 2011; McCulloch et al., 2012) there is a consistent species-specific
25 positive offset of coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ compositions above the borate $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ value for ambient pH_{sw}
26 (Trotter et al., 2011; McCulloch et al., 2012). This elevation of pH was recently shown to be
27 consistent with the physiological up-regulation of pH at the site of calcification to promote
28 aragonite precipitation (Trotter et al., 2011; McCulloch et al., 2012). Trotter et al. (2011)
29 quantified this internal pH offset and consequently derived ambient seawater values based on
30 the systematic relationships they observed between the measured coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ composition
31 and pH_{sw} .

32

1 In this study we present annual resolution $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ data obtained from cores of massive
2 *Porites* heads collected from two inner-shelf and two mid-shelf reefs of the central GBR
3 (Figure 1). The $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ data is used to reconstruct the variability in surface pH_{sw} on annual
4 timescales for the period from 1940 to 2009. These results are then compared with
5 measurements of calcification rates (i.e. linear extension) obtained from the same cores,
6 together with a more extensive database from the central GBR (D'Olivo et al., 2013). This
7 sampling regime enables comparative analysis of the dynamic inner-shelf reef environments,
8 which are subject to terrestrial and anthropogenic influences, with the more stable conditions
9 of mid-shelf reefs that are less exposed to terrestrial runoff and pollutants (Lough,
10 2001; Furnas, 2003; Brodie et al., 2012). Collectively these coral records of $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ (this study)
11 and linear extension (D'Olivo et al., 2013) provide a unique dataset giving insight into the
12 long-term variability of pH_{sw} in a natural coastal system, and how these changes inter-relate
13 to other important environmental parameters (temperature, river discharge and nutrient flux)
14 and their overall influence on coral calcification.

15

16 **2 Samples and Methods**

17 **2.1 Instrumental river discharge and sea surface temperature records**

18 Monthly records of river water discharge and pH (pH_{rw}) for both the Burdekin and Herbert
19 rivers were obtained from the State of Queensland, Department of Environment and Resource
20 Management (DERM; <http://watermonitoring.derm.qld.gov.au>, 2011). Annual rainfall data is
21 defined from October to September based on the rainfall seasonal pattern in Queensland, with
22 October marking the start of the warmer summer wet season (Lough, 2007, 2011). Monthly
23 sea surface temperature (SST) records were obtained from the Met Office Hadley Centre's
24 sea ice and sea surface temperature data set, (HadISST1) centred at 18° S and 147° E with a
25 spatial resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ (<http://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/hadisst/>, 2014). Inner-shelf
26 average monthly in situ SST data for the period from 1993 to 2008 were obtained from the
27 Australian Institute of Marine Science (AIMS, <http://data.aims.gov.au/>, 2011). The inner-
28 shelf SST data was derived by averaging temperature logger records at Pandora Reef,
29 Havannah Island, Cleveland Bay, Pioneer Bay, Cattle Bay, and Pelorous Island (AIMS,
30 <http://data.aims.gov.au/>, 2011).

1 **2.2 Water Samples**

2 Water samples were collected in order to characterize the $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ composition of the plume
3 waters ($\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$) present in the inner-shelf area during flood events, and hence facilitate the
4 interpretation of the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ coral signal. In February 2007, a total of 29 water samples were
5 collected (by Stephen Lewis, James Cook University) along a northward transect from the
6 mouth of the Burdekin River to Magnetic Island (Figure 1). In February 2009, a second suite
7 of water samples were collected (by J.P. D'Olivo) from the Burdekin River bridge, located
8 between the towns of Ayr and Home Hill, as well as seven seawater samples along a
9 northward transect from the mouth of the Burdekin River to Pandora Reef. The presence of
10 discolored water indicated that the river plume had reached all of the sampling sites. After
11 collection, 125 ml of each sample was filtered through a 0.45 μm Teflon membrane and then
12 acidified using 2-3 drops of ~ 7 M HNO_3 . Samples were then stored in acid-cleaned, low-
13 density polyethylene bottles in a cool room. Salinity data was provided by S. Lewis (2009).
14 Water samples were analyzed for B by solution quadrupole ICP-MS using a Varian 820 ICP-
15 MS at the Research School of Earth Sciences at the Australian National University (ANU).
16 ^{10}Be was used as an internal standard spiked at a concentration of 4 ppb. Water samples were
17 diluted according to their salinity by 1000 times with respect to a seawater salinity of 35.

18

19 **2.3 Sclerochronology and coral sampling for $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ analysis**

20 Five cores were drilled from massive *Porites* coral heads from four sites in the central GBR
21 (Figure 1): Pandora Reef (PAN02) and Havannah Island (HAV06A and HAV09_3) from the
22 inner-shelf, and Rib Reef (RIB09_3) and Reef 17-065 (1709_6) from the mid-outer shelf
23 reefs. All cores exhibit clear and regular annual growth banding. Subsamples representing
24 annual growth increments, from the beginning of each high density band (for mid-shelf
25 corals) or luminescent band (for inner-shelf corals), were milled along the axis of maximum
26 growth of 0.7 cm thick slabs from each core.

27

28 **2.4 Boron isotope methodology**

29 The boron isotopic compositions of water samples and annual coral subsamples of cores
30 HAV06A, PAN02 and RIB03 were analyzed at the ANU by positive thermal ionization mass

1 spectrometry (PTIMS) using a Thermo Finnigan TRITON. Annual coral subsamples of
2 cores HAV09_3 and 1709_6 were analyzed at the University of Western Australia (UWA) by
3 MC-ICPMS using a NU Plasma II. Prior to analysis, samples were cleaned in H₂O₂ (for
4 PTIMS) or in NaOCl (for MC-ICPMS) to remove organic material, then dissolved in HNO₃,
5 and the boron then purified using ion chromatography. The boron separation technique used
6 for the PTIMS is based on methodology by Wei et al. (2009) and refined by Trotter et al.
7 (2011). For MC-ICPMS, a combined cation/anion ion-exchange technique was employed as
8 described by McCulloch et al. (2014). In both methods, the boron is collected in relatively
9 large fractions ensuring 100% collection efficiency. The $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ composition of water samples
10 was analyzed by PTIMS following a simplified purification procedure (cf. coral samples) that
11 omitted the H₂O₂ cleaning step and employed a single AGW50-X8 cation column elution
12 followed by an IRA743 column elution (i.e. the final cation column was omitted). The
13 amount of water sample required to extract and purify 1 μg of B was estimated from the
14 relationship between the measured [B] and salinity (S) in the flood plume $B = 0.1299(S) +$
15 0.1188 and $B = 0.1302(S) - 0.0374$; 2007 and 2009, respectively (Figure 2). The amount of
16 water subjected to the boron extraction and purification procedure varied from 250 μl ($S =$
17 35) to 5,000 μl ($S = 0.7$), while 30,000 μl were processed for the river water sample ($S = 0$).

18

19 All boron isotopic ratios are expressed in the conventional delta notation (δ) relative to the
20 NBS951 boric acid international standard. Over the course of this study, PTIMS analysis of
21 the SRM951 standard yielded a mean value of $\delta^{11}\text{B} = +0.05$ ‰ relative to a reference value
22 for this standard of 4.054, with an external precision (2 SD) of ± 0.35 ‰ ($n = 43$) and an
23 internal precision of ± 0.07 ‰. Repeated analyses of the samples ($n = 46$) gave an average
24 reproducibility of ± 0.20 ‰ (2 SD). A modern coral from Papua New Guinea (NEP B) was
25 used as a secondary working standard. Repeated NEP B analyses gave an average value of
26 26.35 ± 0.44 ‰ (2 SD, $n = 33$) using PTIMS, and 25.96 ± 0.32 ‰ (2 SD, $n = 70$) using MC-
27 ICPMS. The $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ values of coral samples ($n = 8$) analyzed by PTIMS are consistently
28 offset by $+0.45$ ‰ relative to the MC-ICPMS data. To maintain consistency between the two
29 data sets a $+0.45$ ‰ correction was therefore applied to the data measured by MC-ICPMS.
30 Measurements of the international carbonate standards JcP-1 by MC-ICPMS gave a $\delta^{11}\text{B}$
31 value of 24.35 ± 0.34 ‰ (2 SD), identical to the 24.33 ± 0.11 ‰ (SE) reported by Foster et al.
32 (2013) and 24.22 ± 0.28 ‰ (2 SD) reported by Wang et al. (2010).

33

1 Conversion of $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ to pH of the calcifying fluid (pH_{cf}) values was undertaken using the
2 relationship:

$$3 \quad \text{pH}_{\text{cf}} = \text{pK}_{\text{B}} - \log \left[\frac{\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{sw}} - \delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}}{\alpha_{\text{B3-B4}} \delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}} - \delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{sw}} + 1000(\alpha_{\text{B3-B4}} - 1)} \right] \quad (1)$$

4 Where $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{sw}}$ is the B isotope composition of seawater ($\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{sw}} = 39.61\%$; Foster et al., 2010)
5 and the B isotope fractionation factor ($\alpha_{\text{B3-B4}}$) of 1.0272 is taken from Klochko et al. (2006).

6 The B dissociation constant (pK_{B}) was adjusted to the ambient temperature and salinity
7 (Trotter et al., 2011), the latter especially relevant for corals from the inner-shelf reef region,
8 which is diluted by fresh water during flood events. Seasonal variation in salinity was
9 estimated based on the linear relationship observed between the magnitude of past flood
10 events and corresponding salinity values reported by King et al. (2001) and Walker (1981)
11 for these reefs (Figure S1).

12

13 Average annual salinity values were estimated using the equation given in Figure S1. For
14 each year, a dilution factor derived from a two month period of maximum river discharge was
15 applied to an initial seawater value of 35.5. Despite limitations with this approach, as flood
16 events are spatially and temporally variable (King et al., 2001; Furnas, 2003), the effect after
17 correcting the pK_{B} for salinity and temperature on the estimated pH_{sw} value is small ($< \sim 0.01$
18 pH units).

19

20 The external pH_{sw} value was estimated following the method for *Porites* sp. as described by
21 Trotter et al. (2011):

$$22 \quad \text{pH}_{\text{sw}} = (\text{pH}_{\text{cf}} - 5.954)/0.32 \quad (2)$$

23 All measured and reconstructed pH_{sw} values are reported relative to the total pH scale.

24

1 **3 Results**

2 **3.1 Plume waters boron concentration, $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ ratios and pH during flood** 3 **events**

4 Measured [B] and $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ are plotted against salinity of the water samples collected during the
5 flood events of 2007 and 2009 (Figure 2). Salinity ranges from 0 at the river mouth, to 30 at
6 Havannah Island and 26.5 at Pandora Reef. Salinity and [B] concentration during the flood
7 events of 2007 and 2009 show a linear relationship ($r^2 = 0.9834$; $p < 0.0001$; $n = 10$ for 2007
8 and $r^2 = 0.9915$; $p < 0.0001$; $n = 8$ for 2009), consistent with conservative mixing of boron
9 between seawater and flood-waters.

10

11 The flood events sampled in 2007 and 2009 show large differences in the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ composition
12 of the low salinity floodwaters collected close to the river mouth (Figure 2). The low $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$
13 (+14.13‰) measured during the larger 2009 flood event (29 Teraliters) contrasts with the less
14 variable and higher $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ (+42.8‰) of the smaller 2007 flood event (10 Teraliters). River
15 water collected from the Burdekin River Bridge (23 km upstream from the river mouth)
16 during the 2009 flood event had a $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ value of +28‰. Despite the large difference in the
17 $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ values of waters near the river mouth in the two flood events, $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ of samples taken
18 close to the inner-shelf reefs are very similar, with an average $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ value of 39.80 ± 0.34 ‰ (2
19 SD; $n = 2$). This value is identical to seawater samples from Lady Musgrave Island in the
20 southern GBR ($\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{sw}} = 40.09 \pm 0.37$ ‰; 2 SD.; $n = 2$), and is consistent with previously
21 reported seawater values (Foster et al., 2010).

22

23 **3.2 Coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ records**

24 **3.2.1 Interannual variability**

25 Coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ compositions for fives cores give average values that range from 23.6 ± 0.37 ‰
26 to 25.2 ± 0.57 ‰ over the common period of 1973 to 2002 (Table 2). These values are
27 consistent with previously reported values for *Porites* corals (Hönisch et al., 2004; Pelejero et
28 al., 2005; Wei et al., 2009; Krief et al., 2010). Using Eq. (1) and Eq. (2), these $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ values
29 translate to pH_{sw} values of 7.88 ± 0.07 to 8.19 ± 0.11 (Table 2). The mid-shelf corals have
30 slightly lower $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ (and pH) values that are less variable (± 0.37 to ± 0.44 ‰; 2 SD) than the

1 inner-shelf corals, (± 0.50 to $\pm 0.66\%$; 2 SD). Differences in $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ compositions between
2 coral cores are significant (Kruskal-Wallis one way ANOVA on ranks). Pairwise multiple
3 comparison procedures (Tukey Test; $p < 0.05$) indicate that these differences are significant
4 between the three inner-shelf cores and the mid-shelf core 1709_6; mid-shelf core RIB09_3
5 is only significantly different from inner-shelf core HAV06A. No significant correlation was
6 found between the different $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ coral records.

7

8 Linear regressions applied to the reconstructed annual pH_{sw} time-series for all five coral
9 records show a decrease in time over the full length of each coral record (Figure 3). The
10 decrease in pH_{sw} is equivalent to -0.017 ± 0.008 units per decade for the inner-shelf corals and
11 -0.018 ± 0.007 units per decade for the mid-shelf corals. These rates are consistent with global
12 estimates of 0.017 to 0.019 pH units decrease per decade from 1984 to 2011 based on
13 instrumental data (Dore et al., 2009; Santana-Casiano et al., 2007; Bates et al., 2012), but are
14 lower than the 0.041 ± 0.017 pH unit decrease per decade for the period of 1940 to 2004
15 shown by the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ coral record from Arlington Reef (mid-reef) in the Central GBR
16 previously reported by Wei et al. (2009). However, the Arlington Reef core exhibited a
17 marked decrease in $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ composition in association with the effects of the severe 1998
18 bleaching event.

19

20 Composite records for $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ were obtained for the inner-shelf and mid-shelf corals (Figure
21 4) for the periods of 1963 to 2005 and 1973 to 2009 respectively. These are the periods
22 common to more than one core for each region. The data from each core was first normalized
23 according to the following equation:

$$24 \quad z_t = x_t - \bar{x}_c \quad (3)$$

25 where x_t is a $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ value at a certain point in time, \bar{x}_c is the mean $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ value for a given
26 coral. The composite records were then obtained by calculating the average from the
27 normalized data at a certain point in time. To preserve the units, the composite records were
28 're-scaled' according to the equation:

$$29 \quad r_t = \bar{z}_t + \bar{x}_R \quad (4)$$

30 where \bar{z}_t is a composite $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ value at a certain point in time, \bar{x}_R is the average mean value
31 for all the cores from a specific region. The $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ annual composite for inner-shelf and

1 mid-shelf records are plotted relative to time and compared with annual discharge from the
2 Burdekin River, SST, from HadISST1, as well as coral linear extension rates from D’Olivo et
3 al. (2013; Figure 4). The composite $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ records for inner-shelf corals show significant
4 correlation with river discharge, SST, and coral extension rates (Table 3). The mid-shelf
5 record shows a weaker but still significant correlation with SST.

6

7 The 8 year low pass filter applied to the composite reconstructed pH_{sw} data derived from the
8 three inner-shelf $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ coral records reveals semi-decadal variation (Figure 5), which is not
9 observed in the mid-shelf $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ data. Similar variability is observed in inner-shelf coral
10 extension rates and calcification when periods of slower growth coincide with higher
11 terrestrial runoff (D’Olivo et al., 2013). It follows that for inner-shelf corals higher $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$
12 (higher pH) signals coincide with periods of increased river discharge and slower extension
13 rates.

14

15 **4 Discussion**

16 **4.1 Variations in river and seawater $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ during flood events**

17 The data from DERM (2011) show that the Burdekin River has an average pH_{rw} of 7.58 ± 0.46
18 (2 SD; Figure S2); this indicates that low pH fresh water, relative to pH_{sw} , is introduced into
19 the coastal area of the GBR during wet periods. The pH_{rw} shows no significant difference
20 between summer (7.56 ± 0.41 ; 2 SD) and winter (7.65 ± 0.35 ; 2 SD) values, with a decrease in
21 pH during some high discharge events, but there is no consistent seasonal pattern. The
22 variability in pH_{rw} indicates that factors other than the amount of discharge or rainfall
23 determine the pH_{rw} , and may reflect variability that is related to the nature of the material
24 being carried by the river and the catchment supplying the water. The $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ near the mouth
25 of the Burdekin River can vary significantly between different flood events (Figure 2). Given
26 that the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{rw}}$ is likely influenced by various factors, including both the type and amount of
27 terrigenous material carried by the river during flood events as well as the source of the river
28 runoff and nature of the catchment, more work is needed to characterize B dynamics and
29 isotope fractionation mechanisms during flood events. Although the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ values during
30 2007 and 2009 show a large variation close to the Burdekin River mouth, the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ values
31 near the inner-shelf reefs are typical of ocean waters (i.e. $\delta^{11}\text{B} \sim 40\text{‰}$).

1

2 **4.2 Origin of interannual $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ variability in corals**

3 The results shown in Figure 4 and corresponding correlations suggest a relationship between
4 coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ and both ambient seawater temperature and terrestrial runoff, particularly for
5 the inner-shelf region of the GBR. However, the interannual pH_{sw} variability of less than
6 ± 0.01 pH units, which is directly attributable to temperature and salinity changes due to river
7 run-off, contrasts with the interannual variability of more than ± 0.07 pH units reconstructed
8 from the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ compositions for the inner-shelf and mid-shelf corals. Possible explanations
9 for the interannual variability observed in $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ (reconstructed pH_{sw}) are examined below.

10

11 **4.2.1 Boron adsorption onto clays and sediments**

12 The interannual $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ variations for inner-shelf corals could be explained by the adsorption
13 of B onto sediments and clays that are delivered to the inner shelf region by rivers. Clays
14 preferentially remove the lighter isotope ^{10}B from seawater (Palmer et al., 1987; Barth, 1998).
15 This selective removal results in the respective depletion of ^{11}B in marine clays but
16 enrichment in seawater, and is the accepted explanation for the heavy isotopic composition of
17 seawater (e.g. $39.61 \pm 0.04\%$; Foster et al., 2010) relative to average continental crust
18 (Spivack and Edmond, 1986; Palmer et al., 1987; Barth, 1998). Given the large silt and clay
19 wash load transported from the Burdekin River (Belperio, 1979), fractionation of $\delta^{11}\text{B}$
20 between the dissolved and adsorbed B phases could have a significant effect on the $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ of
21 seawater. However, the conservative mixing of B along the transect (Figure 2) indicates that
22 boron is not being quantitatively removed from the plume waters by clays, and that the clay
23 material is already in equilibrium with the river water before entering the ocean. Similar
24 results have been reported by Barth (1998) and Xiao et al. (2007). Furthermore, the oceanic
25 $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{pw}}$ values near the reefs during flood events and the low B concentration of river waters
26 require that, at the reef sites, the $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ signal is dominated by seawater. Finally, large $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$
27 interannual variations occur on the mid-shelf reefs where there is no clay-dominated
28 terrestrial runoff.

29

1 4.2.2 Effect of nutrient enrichment and biological productivity on pH_{sw}

2 River discharge is an important source of particulate and dissolved nutrients as well as
3 sediments to the inner-shelf area of the GBR (King et al., 2002; Devlin and Brodie, 2005),
4 being responsible for ~90% of the particulate and dissolved nutrients introduced during flood
5 events (Mitchell and Bramley, 1997; Furnas, 2003). Most particulate matter and sediments are
6 deposited within a few kilometers (~10 km) of river mouths where salinity is <10 (Wolanski
7 and Jones, 1981), whereas dissolved nutrients are carried greater distances of up to ~200 km
8 along the coast (Devlin and Brodie, 2005). Once the turbidity decreases and low light levels
9 are no longer limiting, dissolved nutrients are rapidly taken up by primary producers resulting
10 in phytoplankton blooms (Furnas, 2003; Devlin and Brodie, 2005; Brodie et al., 2010b). These
11 blooms do not usually develop until the salinity reaches ~25, typically between 50 and 200
12 km from the river mouth (Devlin and Brodie, 2005) which is where the inner-shelf coral reefs
13 of this study are located.

14

15 Considering NO_3^- as the main form of nitrogen sourced from the Burdekin River into the
16 inner-shelf area of the GBR (Furnas, 2003), plankton productivity will result in the decrease
17 of seawater CO_2 , increase in alkalinity, and uptake of H^+ (Gattuso et al., 1999). The strong
18 coupling between CO_2 dynamics and large phytoplankton bloom events observed at
19 Kane'ohe Bay, Hawaii, changes the reef system from being a source of CO_2 to a sink of CO_2
20 (Drupp et al., 2011). At Kane'ohe Bay, bloom events are fueled by nutrient inputs following
21 rainfall and terrestrial runoff events. The enhanced productivity is reflected by increased
22 phytoplankton biomass from ~2 to ~6 $\mu g\ l^{-1}$ Chl-a, which draws down pCO_2 by ~100 ppm
23 (Drupp et al., 2011). Similar large nutrient-fueled changes in phytoplankton biomass occur in
24 the central GBR, where Chl-a increases from between 0.3 and 0.7 $\mu g\ l^{-1}$ Chl-a (Brodie et al.,
25 2007) to up 1 to 20 $\mu g\ l^{-1}$ Chl-a within flood plumes (Devlin and Brodie, 2005; Brodie et al.,
26 2010a). For rivers in the central GBR, including the Burdekin, typical DIN (chiefly NO_3^-)
27 concentrations during flood conditions vary between 20 and 70 μM , while DIP varies
28 between 0.15 and 1.3 μM (Furnas, 2003). These are much higher than typical seawater
29 concentrations of 0.02 μM for DIP and 0.03 μM for NO_3^- during non-flood periods in the
30 inshore region of the central GBR (Furnas et al., 2011).

31

1 The uptake of CO₂ from nutrient-enhanced productivity and the associated changes to the
2 carbonate parameters during flood events in the central GBR were estimated using Redfield
3 ratios and river flood plume nutrient loads (Figure 6). For these calculations we assumed a
4 conservative dilution process (Wooldridge et al., 2006). Three scenarios are included: in the
5 first scenario only the changes due to the mixing of plume waters with seawater are
6 considered (Figure 6a). In the second scenario the input of nutrients from plume waters is
7 included, with N assumed as the limiting nutrient (Figure 6b). This scenario is consistent with
8 observations in the GBR where N appears to be the dominant control for new phytoplankton
9 biomass formation (Furnas et al., 2005). For the final scenario P is considered the limiting
10 nutrient (Figure 6c). When the effect of nutrient-enhanced productivity is not included
11 (Figure 6a) there is a small increase in pH_{sw} of up to 0.03 units under the most extreme flood
12 conditions (e.g. salinity 24 near the reef). The scenarios with nutrient input from floodwaters
13 in figures 6b and 6c result in a more marked increase in pH_{sw} due to the drawdown of pCO₂
14 associated with nutrient-enhanced productivity. In the case of the scenario with a salinity of
15 24 and DIN concentration of 23 μM there is a drawdown of pCO₂ of up to 300 ppm and a
16 corresponding increase in pH_{sw} of ~0.33 units (Figure 6b). It follows that the higher δ¹¹B_{carb}
17 (and reconstructed pH_{sw}) values from the inner shelf reefs during periods of high river
18 discharge and high nutrient input are consistent with decreased pCO₂ and increased pH_{sw} due
19 to the stimulation of phytoplankton production.

20

21 In addition to the changes in pH_{sw} there is a decrease in Ω_{arag}, under the flood scenario with no
22 nutrient input (Figure 6a), which is associated with the low TA and DIC content of the
23 floodwaters. The decrease in Ω_{arag} can be of up to one unit under extreme flood conditions
24 (e.g. salinity 24). When nutrient-enhanced productivity is included, the negative effect from
25 the plume waters on the Ω_{arag} is reduced (compare figures 6a with 6b and 6c) as the CO₂
26 uptake by the phytoplankton results in an increase in CO₃²⁻. Under the scenario with the
27 highest DIN concentration (23 μM), the effect from the enhanced productive is sufficient to
28 counteract the dilution effect in Ω_{arag} resulting in a net increase of up to 0.6 units (Figure b).
29 However, the reduction in Ω_{arag} that is expected under most flood conditions is likely to
30 negatively affect coral calcification (McCulloch et al., 2012). One limitation for the present
31 model is that it does not allow for air-sea equilibration, which is likely to reduce the effects
32 from the enhanced productivity on the carbonate parameters.

1

2 4.2.3 Cross-shelf differences in coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ and reconstructed pH_{sw}

3 A systematic cross-shelf pattern is observed in $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ (and reconstructed pH_{sw}) with both
4 average values and interannual variability being greater for inner-shelf corals compared to
5 mid-shelf corals (Table 2). This cross-shelf pattern is consistent with the available, yet
6 limited, pH_{sw} data that comprises summer (2007) values of 8.14 ± 0.003 (Gagliano et al.,
7 2010) measured at Magnetic Island in the inner-shelf area, and summer 2012 values of 8.03
8 ± 0.03 measured at Davies Reef (Albright et al., 2013).

9

10 It is not surprising to find differences in reconstructed pH_{sw} values between reefs given that
11 the GBR is characterized by significant spatial gradients in seawater parameters (e.g.
12 temperature and water quality), especially across different shelfal environments (D'Olivo et
13 al., 2013; Cantin and Lough, 2014; Fabricius et al., 2014). These spatial differences could, for
14 example, account for the lower interannual variation of the coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ records from the
15 mid-shelf reefs compared to inner-shelf reefs, through the decreased influence of river runoff
16 on mid-shelf reefs as previously suggested by Wei et al. (2009).

17

18 The reason for the lack of correlation between the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ records at nearby reefs, specifically
19 between Pandora and Havannah Island, is unclear. Differences in biological driven effects
20 (e.g. species or gender related) or local variability in environmental parameters (e.g. light
21 regime) are possible explanations. Nevertheless, the overall good agreement between the
22 composite $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ coral record and the terrestrial runoff indices is encouraging, suggesting
23 that multi-core replication (Lough, 2004; Jones et al., 2009) and consideration of ambient
24 environmental conditions are essential when interpreting $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ records. Further analyses of
25 additional records from the same area should help clarify the uncertainties and improve our
26 understanding of the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ seawater proxy in dynamic reefal systems that characterise
27 inshore environments. A multi-proxy approach should also prove helpful to confirm the
28 results from this study, but also to determine the response of corals to specific environmental
29 parameters such as SST, nutrients, sediment or pH_{sw} .

30

1 4.2.4 Relationship between $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ (reconstructed pH_{sw}) and coral growth rates

2 Calcification and linear extension rates of inner-shelf corals from the GBR show a long-term
3 decrease from the period of 1930 to 2008 (Lough, 2008;D’Olivo et al., 2013). The decrease
4 in coral growth has been attributed to factors ranging from thermal stress, bleaching,
5 eutrophication, and ocean acidification (Cooper et al., 2008;Lough, 2008;De’ath et al.,
6 2009;D’Olivo et al., 2013). The present study reveals that decadal-scale wet periods with
7 increased terrestrial runoff in the central GBR coincide with periods of reduced inner-shelf
8 coral growth (Figure 5). The decrease in coral growth occurs despite higher ambient pH_{sw} , as
9 determined from $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$. Given the apparently more favorable pH_{sw} for coral growth during
10 wet periods, other factors such as degraded water quality or reduced Ω_{arag} must clearly be
11 responsible for the decline in extension rates observed during wet periods. For example,
12 nutrient-fueled increase in phytoplankton biomass has been a longstanding explanation for
13 the drowning of coral reefs throughout the geological record (Hallock and Schlager, 1986).
14 More in situ monitoring of seawater carbonate system parameters (e.g. Uthicke et al., 2014),
15 especially during wet periods, would greatly help understand the response of the complex
16 inner-shelf systems to changes in water quality.

17

18 4.2.5 Physiological controls on coral calcification

19 The coral pH_{cf} values calculated from the measured $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ compositions (Table 2) indicate
20 that corals elevate the pH at the site of calcification, in agreement with previous studies (Al-
21 Horani et al., 2003;Venn et al., 2011;McCulloch et al., 2012). This elevation of pH_{cf} for
22 massive *Porites* grown in the natural environment is estimated to be 0.41 ± 0.02 for the inner-
23 shelf corals and 0.43 ± 0.03 for the mid-shelf corals. The latter values were estimated using
24 the coral pH_{cf} values in Table 2 and the directly measured pH_{sw} summer value of 8.14 from
25 Gagliano et al. (2010) as an independent reference value for the inner-shelf region, and an
26 average pH_{sw} annual value of 8.06 from Albright et al. (2013) for the mid-shelf region.

27

28 Aside from pH up-regulation at the calcification site (McCulloch et al., 2012), other
29 processes involved in promoting aragonite precipitation include the transport of ions to the
30 mineralization site and the synthesis of an organic matrix (Allemand et al., 2004;Venn et al.,
31 2011). Inhibition or reduced activity of these processes has been associated with significant
32 reduction of calcification in other studies (Tambutte et al., 1996;Allemand et al., 1998;Al-

1 Horani et al., 2003;Allemand et al., 2004). The reduction in growth of inner-shelf coral may
2 thus be explained by the effects of river discharge that likely include a decrease in Ω_{arag} that
3 is accompanied by an increase in shading, turbidity, sedimentation, or competition for carbon
4 from the photosynthetic activity of zooxanthellae. These factors can affect the availability of
5 DIC, enzyme activity or synthesis of the organic matrix involved in the calcification process
6 (Tambutte et al., 1996;Allemand et al., 1998;Al-Horani et al., 2003;Allemand et al., 2004),
7 because energy and DIC required by these processes is reallocated into cleaning or mucus
8 production (Riegl and Branch, 1995;Telesnicki and Goldberg, 1995;Philipp and Fabricius,
9 2003). Therefore, it should not be surprising to find reduced growth during wet periods and
10 hence degraded water quality despite conditions of higher pH. Critically, this demonstrates
11 the over-riding importance of local reef water quality relative to the sub-ordinate longer-term
12 effects of ocean acidification.

13

14 In contrast to the inner-shelf reefs, the $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ record of the mid-shelf corals shows no
15 significant relationship to river discharge, consistent with the reduced effects of river flood
16 plumes. Extreme flood events can however occasionally reach the mid-shelf reefs, especially
17 when offshore winds occur (King et al., 2002). The presence of subdued luminescent bands
18 in coral records from Rib Reef that coincide with some large river discharge events, confirm
19 the minor effect of flood events in the mid-shelf region. Nevertheless, coral linear extension
20 and calcification at both mid-shelf and outer-shelf reef locations increase over the last ~50
21 years, coincident with the rise in temperature over this period (D'Olivo et al., 2013). This
22 observed increase in coral calcification, despite the decrease in the reconstructed pH_{sw} ,
23 indicates that ocean acidification has so far played a secondary role in impacting coral
24 calcification in the mid-shelf region.

25

26 **5 Summary and conclusions**

27 Coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ values show cross-shelf variability with higher average and amplitude values
28 characteristic of the corals closer to the coast. The reconstructed pH_{sw} values calculated from
29 the coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ indicate that, in their natural environment, massive *Porites* up-regulate pH_{cf}
30 by ~0.4 units. Variability in coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ show an interannual range in reconstructed pH_{sw}
31 from ~0.07 pH units in mid-shelf corals to ~0.11 pH units in inner-shelf corals, compared to a
32 much smaller long term (1940 to 2009) trend of ~0.017 pH unit decrease per decade. This

1 rate of change is consistent with previous estimates of decreasing surface pH_{sw} from pCO_2
2 driven ocean acidification. Results from $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ and coral growth indicate that terrestrial
3 runoff has a significant effect on inner-shelf reef environments. We propose that
4 phytoplankton blooms, fueled by increased nutrient inputs from river plume waters, drive the
5 drawdown of dissolved CO_2 and thus increase the pH in surface seawaters. Consequently, on
6 a local-scale the inner-shelf reefs of the GBR exhibit high rates of nutrient driven production,
7 and following river discharge events temporarily counter the effects of ocean acidification.
8 Despite the higher pH_{sw} we observe an associated decrease in coral linear extension and
9 calcification (D'Olivo et al., 2013), consistent with expectations where coral calcification
10 decreases with decreasing Ω_{arag} (McCulloch et al., 2012). The incompatible relationship of
11 higher pH_{sw} and decreased coral growth suggests that the effects of large flood events on
12 lowering Ω_{arag} and degrading water quality (e.g. increased shading, turbidity, sedimentation,
13 or competition for carbon by up-regulated photosynthetic activity of zooxanthellae) are the
14 dominant cause of reduced coral growth. This study demonstrates the value of coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}$ as a
15 paleo-proxy for reconstructing past pH_{sw} changes, as well as the importance of disentangling
16 the effects of changing local water quality from ocean acidification and global warming,
17 which is not only relevant to the inner-shelf region of the GBR but other coral systems
18 worldwide.

19

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32

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- 21

1 Table 1. Periods covered by coral core samples analysed.

Region	Reef	Core	Years
Inner-shelf	Havannah Is.	HAV06A	1966-2005
		HAV09_3	1940-2009
	Pandora	PAN02	1963-2002
Mid-shelf	Rib	RIB09_3	1964-2009
	17-065	1709_6	1973-2009

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3

1 Table 2. Average values and variability (2 SD) for coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$, pH_{cf} , and reconstructed
 2 pH_{sw} calculated over the common period of 1973-2002. The reconstructed pH_{sw} values were
 3 estimated using Eq. (2) to correct for the pH offset at the site of calcification. Slopes were
 4 obtained from the linear regression of the full length of each core (see Table 1) and are used
 5 to indicate the annual rate of change for the reconstructed pH_{sw} records. The uncertainty for
 6 the slopes is based on the external reproducibility for the standard.

		$\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$	pH_{cf}	pH_{sw}	
Core		Average	Average	Average	Slope (pH unit yr⁻¹)
Inner-shelf	HAV06A	25.17±0.57	8.58±0.04	8.19±0.11	-0.0020±0.0030
	HAV09_3	24.15±0.50	8.54±0.03	8.08±0.10	-0.0023±0.0011
	PAN02	24.54±0.66	8.54±0.04	8.07±0.13	-0.0008±0.0038
Mid-shelf	RIB09_3	24.20±0.44	8.51±0.03	8.00±0.09	-0.0023±0.0020
	1709_6	23.60±0.37	8.48±0.02	7.88±0.07	-0.0013±0.0021

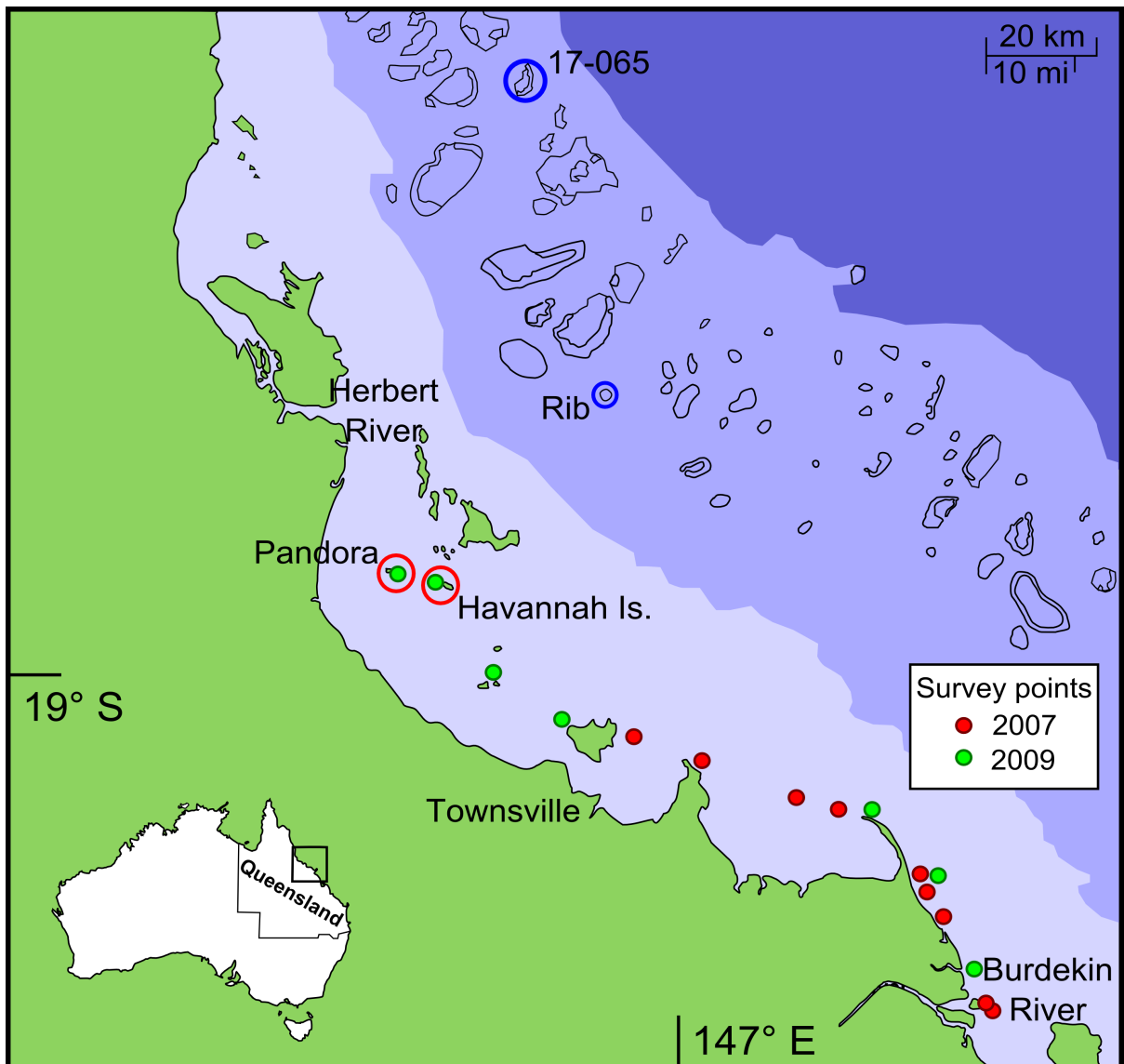
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1 Table 3. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) and corresponding p-values for correlations of
 2 annual composite coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ records from the inner-shelf (1964 to 2005) and mid-shelf
 3 (1973 to 2009) with Burdekin River runoff, SST from HadISST1, and coral linear extension
 4 rates for the corresponding region taken from D’Olivo et al. (2013).

	River runoff (log ML)		SST (°C)		Lin ext (cm yr ⁻¹)	
	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value
$\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ inner-shelf (n=42)	0.565	0.0001	-0.387	0.0103	-0.418	0.0053
$\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ mid-shelf (n=37)	0.147	0.3860	-0.420	0.0096	-0.302	0.0733

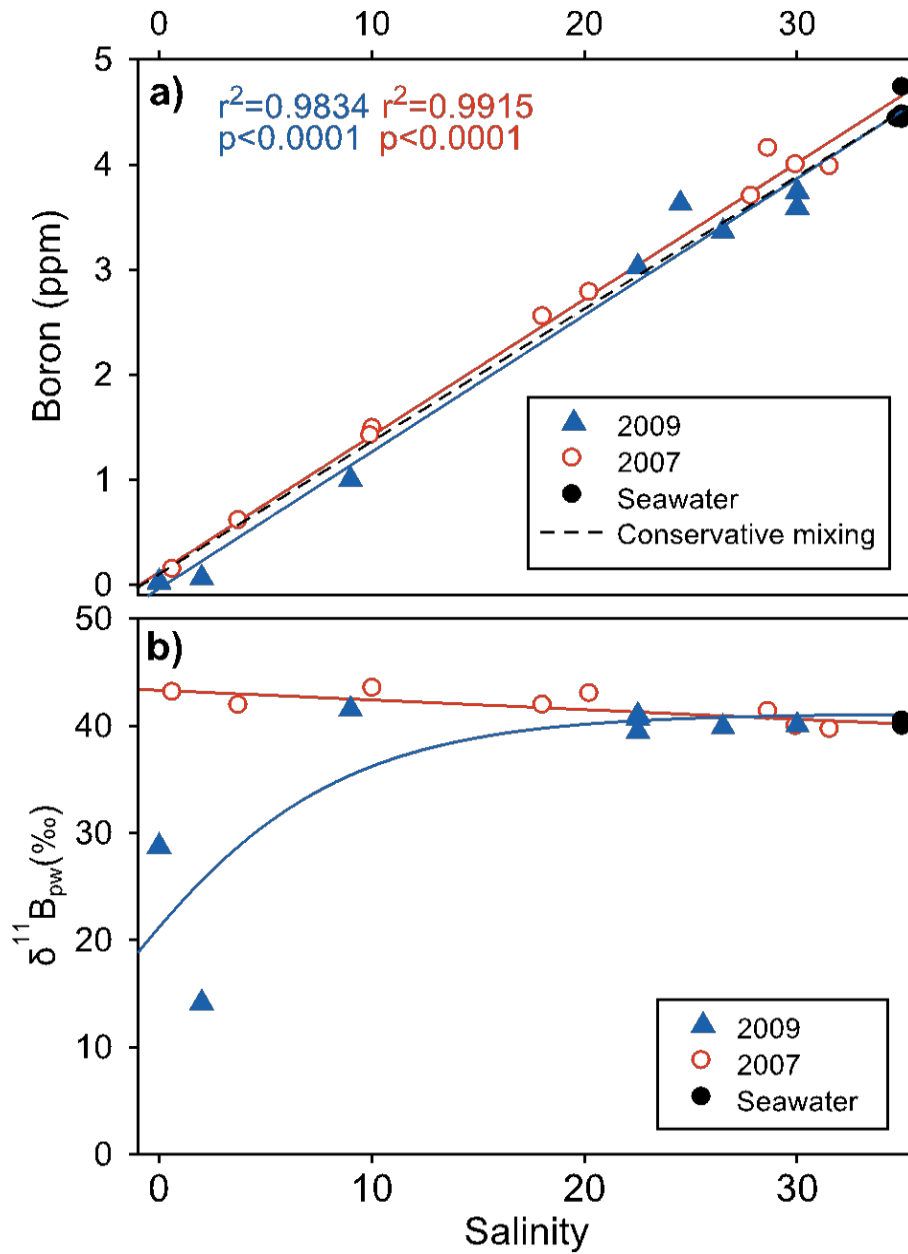
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4 Figure 1. Map of the central area of the GBR showing locations of water sample and coral
5 core collection sites: Pandora Reef and Havannah Island in the inner-shelf; Rib Reef and 17-
6 065 Reef in the mid-shelf region; water sample collection sites during the flood events of
7 2007 and 2009.

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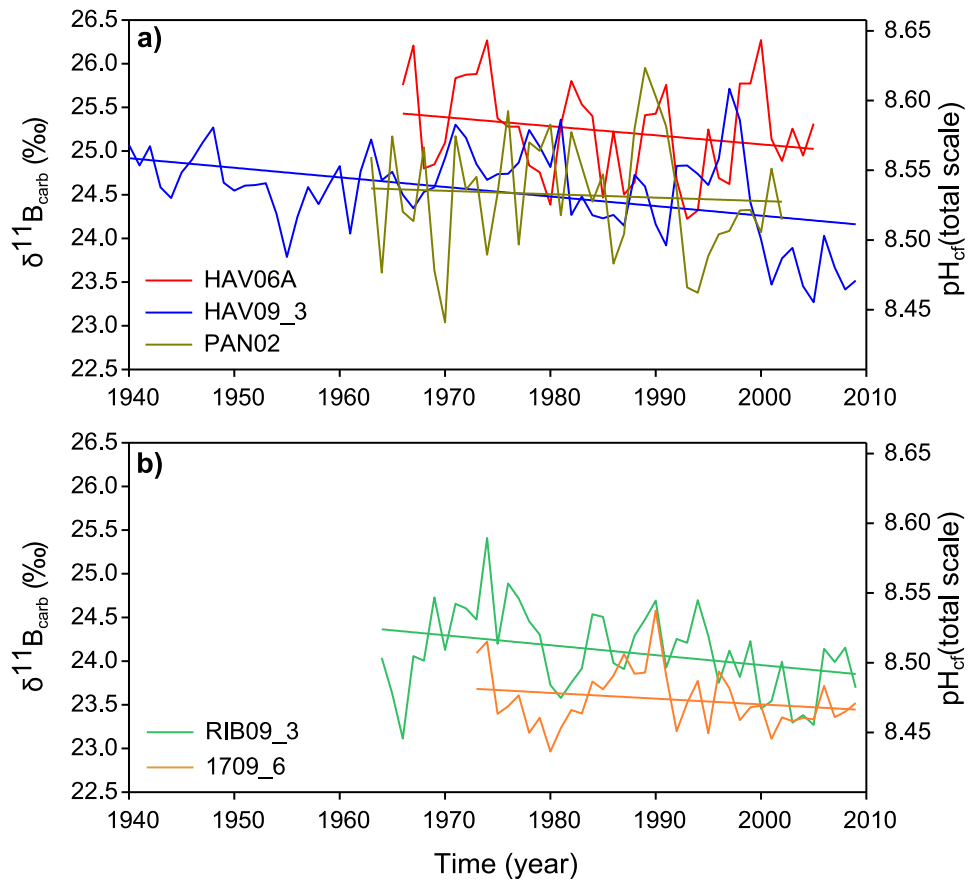


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2 Figure 2. (a) Boron concentration plotted against salinity of waters from the flood events of
 3 2007 and 2009. A linear regression through the data is compared to the theoretical
 4 conservative mixing relationship based on a seawater end-member with 4.52 mg B/l at S =
 5 35. (b) Boron isotope composition of waters along salinity transects from the 2007 and 2009
 6 flood events.

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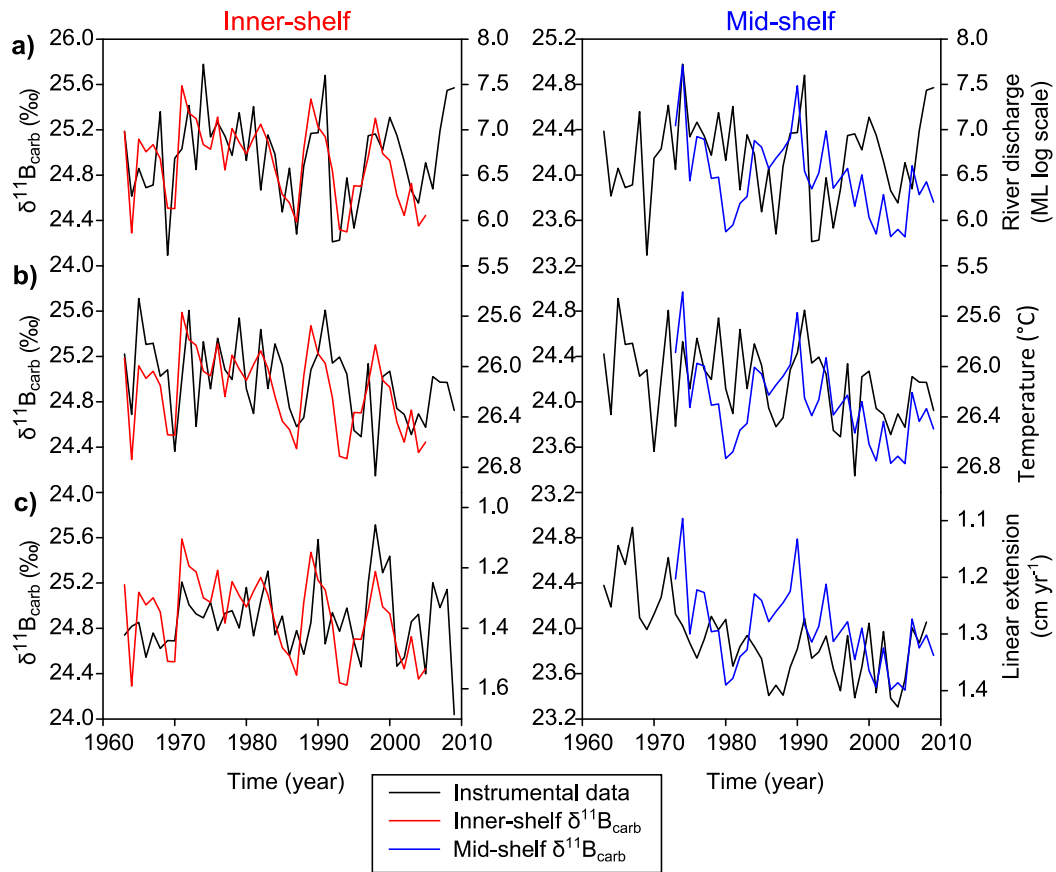
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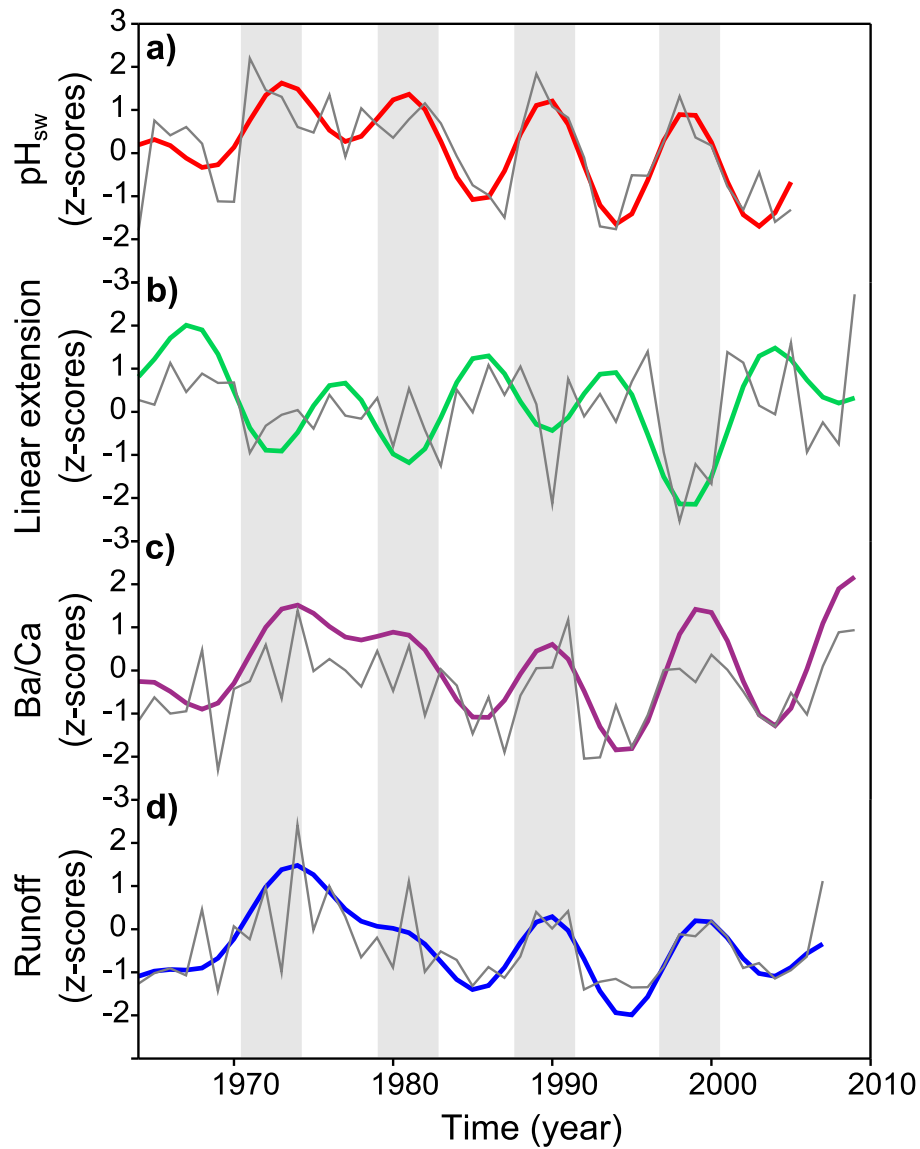
Figure 3. Annual time-series and linear regressions for $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ values and corresponding pH_{cf} of coral cores from (a) the inner-shelf reefs of Havannah Island and Pandora Reef, and (b) the mid-shelf reefs of Rib Reef and 17-065.



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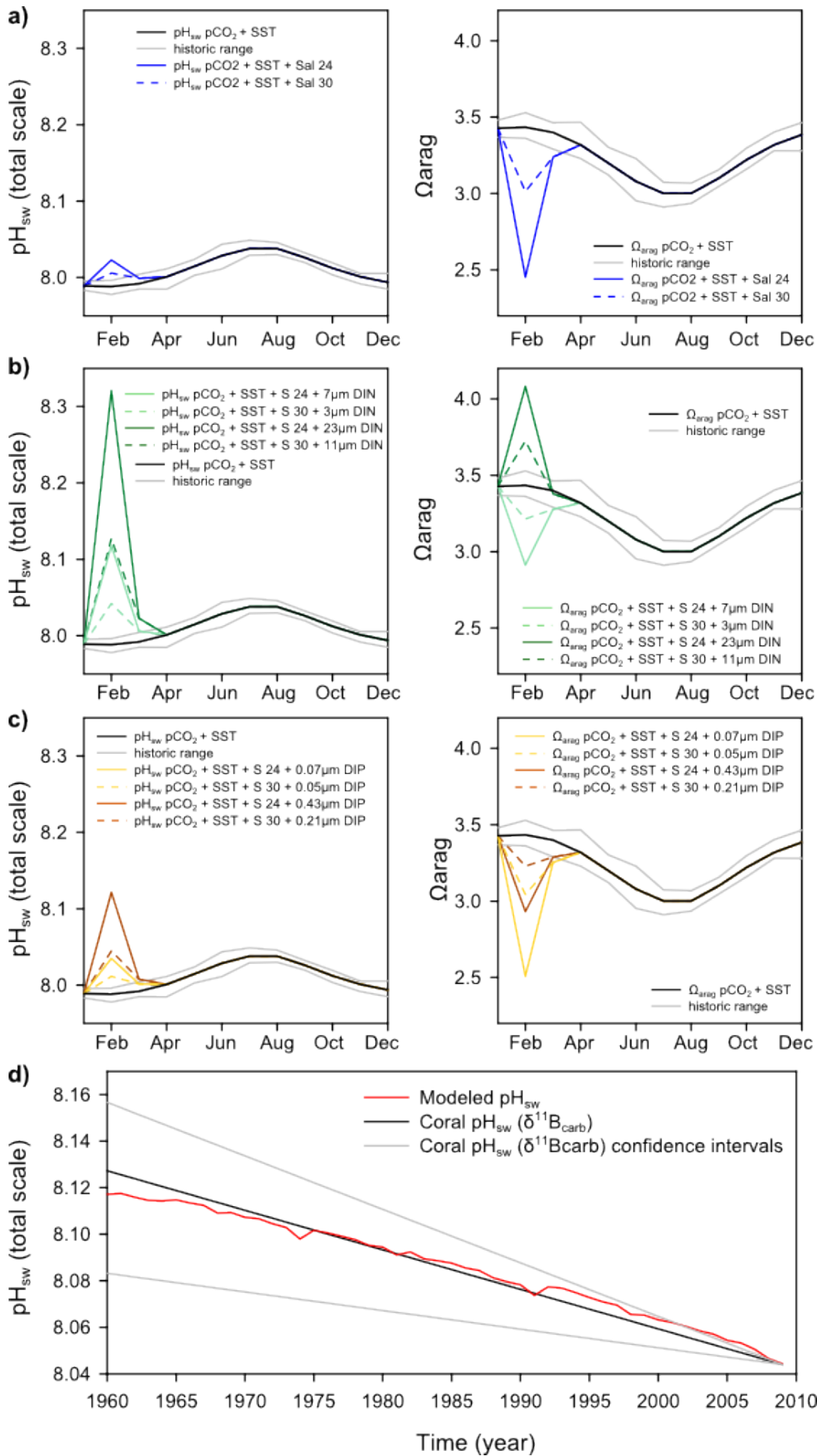
2 Figure 4. Annual composite $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ records for the inner-shelf corals and mid-shelf corals
 3 compared to annual discharge from the Burdekin River (panel a), SST from HadISST1 (panel
 4 b), and coral linear extension rates from D'Olivo et al. (2013) for the corresponding inner-
 5 shelf or mid-shelf regions (panel c). Note that the temperature and linear extension axis has
 6 been reversed to facilitate comparisons.

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Figure 5. Normalized annual (grey) and smoothed (coloured 8-year low band pass filter) time-series for (a) the inner-shelf composite reconstructed pH_{sw} obtained from $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ coral records, (b) averaged linear extension of inner-shelf in the central GBR (D’Olivo et al., 2013), terrestrial influx indicated by (c) discharge from the Burdekin River, and (d) coral Ba/Ca data from Pandora and Havannah Is (McCulloch et al., 2003).



1 Figure 6. (a) Estimated seasonal pH_{sw} and Ω_{arag} changes based on in situ SST (AIMS;
2 2011) with an average pCO_2 of 431 ppm and a seasonal variation of 60 ppm (Uthicke et
3 al., 2014). Seawater pH values were estimated considering a seawater end-member
4 with summer TA of $2270 \text{ mmol kgsw}^{-1}$ and winter TA of $2256 \text{ mmol kgsw}^{-1}$ (Uthicke.,
5 2014), DIC changes were estimated from TA and pCO_2 . The grey lines define the range
6 of historic maximum and minimum SST values for any given month. Changes in pH_{sw}
7 and Ω_{arag} resulting from a hypothetical flood events characterized by a decrease in
8 salinity from 35 to values of 30 and 24 in February, and increasing to 33 in March are
9 shown. For flood conditions the river water end-member was estimated considering TA
10 of $787.7 \text{ mmol kgsw}^{-1}$ and DIC of $811.1 \text{ mmol kgsw}^{-1}$ (DERM; 2014). (b) Estimated
11 seasonal pH_{sw} and Ω_{arag} changes as in (a), including DIC changes associated to the CO_2
12 drawdown due to enhanced phytoplankton production during flood events based on
13 DIN river inputs of 20 and $70 \mu\text{M}$ in February and assuming conservative dilution.
14 Nutrient inputs are estimated to reduce by half in March and back to seawater levels by
15 April. (c) Estimated seasonal pH_{sw} and Ω_{arag} changes as in (b) considering DIP river
16 inputs of 0.15 and $1.3 \mu\text{M}$ in February and assuming conservative dilution. (d)
17 Estimated annual pH_{sw} changes with time based on reconstructed SST (HadISST1),
18 changes in atmospheric CO_2 (NOAA), and salinity changes associated with flood
19 events obtained from the equation in Figure S1. A comparison based on the average
20 pH_{sw} slope obtained from all the coral $\delta^{11}\text{B}_{\text{carb}}$ data in Table 2 is included. The
21 minimum and maximum slopes obtained for the corals in Table 2 are included as
22 confidence intervals. Calculations were made using CO_2SYS with carbonate constants
23 K1 and K2 from the Merzbach et al. (1973) refit by Dickson and Millero (1987), and
24 for sulfate from Dickson (1990) with 0 dbar pressure.