- **1** Ocean acidification accelerates dissolution of experimental coral reef communities
- 2 Comeau S., Carpenter R. C., Lantz C. A., Edmunds P. J.
- 3 Department of Biology, California State University, 18111 Nordhoff Street, Northridge,
- 4 CA 91330-8303, USA.
- 5
- 6 Corresponding author: Steeve Comeau, Email: steve.comeau@csun.edu

7 Abstract

8 Ocean acidification (OA) poses a severe threat to tropical coral reefs, yet much of what is 9 know about these effects comes from individual corals and algae incubated in isolation 10 under high pCO₂. Studies of similar effects on coral reef communities are scarce. To 11 investigate the response of coral reef communities to OA, we used large outdoor flumes 12 in which communities composed of calcified algae, corals, and sediment were combined 13 to match the percentage cover of benthic communities in the shallow back reef of 14 Moorea, French Polynesia. Reef communities in the flumes were exposed to ambient (~ 15 400 μ atm) and high pCO₂ (~ 1300 μ atm) for 8 weeks, and calcification rates measured for 16 the constructed communities including the sediments. Community calcification was 17 reduced by 59% under high pCO₂, with sediment dissolution explaining \sim 50% of this 18 decrease; net calcification of corals and calcified algae remained positive, but was 19 reduced by 29% under elevated pCO₂. These results show that despite the capacity of 20 coral reef calcifiers to maintain positive net accretion of calcium carbonate under OA 21 conditions, reef communities might transition to net dissolution as pCO₂ increases, 22 particularly at night, due to enhanced sediment dissolution.

24 1 Introduction

25 The calcium carbonate framework produced by coral reefs hosts the highest 26 known marine biodiversity, and protects tropical shores from wave erosion (Ferrario et 27 al., 2014). However, in recent decades coral reefs have been impacted by a diversity of 28 disturbances, and now are threatened by an increase in seawater temperature and ocean 29 acidification (OA) (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007; Kleypas and Yates, 2009). OA is 30 caused by the dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ in seawater, which reduces pH, depresses 31 carbonate ion concentration, and increases bicarbonate ion concentration with no change 32 in total alkalinity (Feely et al., 2004). The net effects of OA on coral reefs remain unclear 33 as most studies show a decrease in organismic calcification under OA (Erez et al. 2011; 34 Chan and Connolly, 2012), while recent work describes species-specific responses with 35 some corals and calcifying algae resistant to decreasing pH (Comeau et al., 2013; 36 Takahashi and Kurihara, 2013). Critically, most of these studies have been performed on 37 individuals maintained in isolation in laboratory conditions. 38 The results from laboratory studies are valuable, but to examine the potential for 39 emergent properties of coral reefs exposed to OA effects, now it is necessary to scale up 40 from individual- to community-level experiments (Leclercq et al., 2002; Jokiel et al., 41 2008; Andersson et al., 2009; Dove et al., 2013; Edmunds et al., 2013). Generally there 42 are three complementary approaches to studying the responses of coral reef communities 43 to OA. First, *in situ* observations of communities living in naturally acidified water 44 (Fabricius et al., 2011) due to volcanic activities or local conditions (Shamberger et al., 45 2014). Second, carbonate chemistry can be manipulated directly in situ (Kline et al., 46 2012), although this approach is challenging technically and has yet to be used to study

intact communities. Third, reef communities can be created *ex situ* (Andersson et al.,
2009; Dove et al., 2013) to allow precise control of the physical parameters predicted
under future OA conditions. For our experiment, we chose to construct *ex situ*communities and used, for the first time, large outdoor flumes (after Atkinson and Bilger,
1992) to investigate the effects of OA on coral reef communities.

52 In addition to corals and macroalgae, it is important to incorporate sediments in 53 OA experiments, as this component of reef ecosystems may be sensitive to decreasing pH 54 (Cyronak et al. 2013a, b; Andersson et al., 2009). Dissolution occurs on coral reefs in 55 sediment pore-waters, or in particular microenvironments where pCO₂ is elevated due to 56 biological activity (Andersson and Gledhill, 2013). Observations in Bermuda have shown 57 that the dissolution of Mg-calcite sediments occurs in a location with seawater pCO_2 58 naturally elevated to values expected by the end of the century (Andersson et al., 2007). 59 Further, *in situ* manipulations show that elevated pCO₂ (~ 800 µatm) can transition the 60 calcification budget of coral reef sediments from net precipitation to net dissolution 61 (Cyronak et al., 2013a). Increasing pCO_2 likely will lead to increasing dissolution and 62 decreased precipitation of calcium carbonate, resulting in coral reef community 63 calcification changing from net precipitation to net dissolution (Yates and Halley, 2006; 64 Silvermann et al., 2009; Andersson et al., 2009). Given the aforementioned results that 65 highlight the importance of sediments in the community calcification of entire coral reefs, 66 we included sediment chambers in our flumes (Fig. 1) to integrate reef carbonate 67 sediments into the analysis of OA effects on communities under ecologically relevant 68 conditions.

69	Our experiment investigated the response to OA of constructed reef communities					
70	representative of present day back reef communities of Moorea. Communities were					
71	incubated for 8 weeks in two flumes at ambient seawater pCO_2 (~ 400 $\mu atm)$ and two					
72	flumes at an elevated pCO ₂ (~1300 μ atm) under natural lighting, controlled temperature,					
73	and water flow similar to those experienced on a shallow reef flat (Atkinson and Bilger,					
74	1992; Carpenter and Williams, 2007). Calcification was measured at three levels of					
75	biological function using the alkalinity anomaly technique: whole community, sediments,					
76	and macro-calcifiers (i.e., corals and calcified algae as determined by subtraction).					
77						
78	2 Materials and methods					
79	2.1 Collection and sample preparation					
80	This study was carried out in August-October 2013 in Moorea, French Polynesia,					
81	using organisms collected from the back reef of the north shore at $\sim 1-2$ m depth. The					
82	organisms used to construct communities in outdoor flumes were assembled to match the					
83	contemporary (in 2013) mean cover of a back reef in Moorea (Carpenter, 2014;					
84	Edmunds, 2014). Coral communities were built from the four dominant coral taxa found					
85	on the back reefs of Moorea: massive Porites spp. (11% cover in 2013), Porites rus (6%),					
86	Montipora spp. (3%), and Pocillopora spp. (2%), that together accounted for 98% of the					
87	coral cover in this habitat in 2013. In addition to corals, 6% of the surface was covered by					
88	crustose coralline algae (66% Porolithon onkodes and 33% Lithophyllum flavescens), and					
89	5% by rubble (dead coral skeletons). After collection of corals and algae (all $\sim 10 \times 10$					

91 plastic supports using epoxy glue. Following preparation, samples were left to recover in
92 a seawater table for 3 d.

93 Sediments were collected from the lagoon on the north shore, ~ 200 m from the 94 reef crest, at 2-m depth using 24 custom made boxes $(0.4 \times 0.3 \times 0.3 \text{ m})$. Sediment boxes 95 were inserted into the sediment and left in situ for 4 d to allow chemical stratification in 96 the sediment to re-establish before transferring the boxes to the flumes. It was not 97 possible to subsample these boxes to quantify the stratification of the sediment, and 98 therefore we assume that 4 d was adequate for stratification to be re-established. 99 The four outdoor flumes consisted of a working section measuring $5.0 \times 0.3 \times 0.3$ m. Water was re-circulated using water pumps (W. Lim Wave II 373 J s⁻¹) to obtain a 10 100 cm s⁻¹ flow. Flow was measured across the working section of the flume using a Nortek 101 102 Vectrino Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter. At each end of the flume seawater passed 103 through an 88-cm long transition section (circular to rectangular) that housed 20-cm 104 (length) flow straighteners made of stacked, 3-cm diameter PVC pipe, and then into a 105 12.5-cm (diameter) return section. Fresh sand-filtered seawater, pumped from Cook's Bay at 12-m depth, was dispensed continuously into the flume at 5 L min⁻¹. Flumes 106 107 experienced natural sunlight that was attenuated using fiberglass screens to maintain 108 irradiances similar to ambient irradiances in the back reefs of Moorea (daily maximum of ~ 1500 µmol photons m⁻² cm⁻¹ over the incubation period determined with a 4π quantum 109 110 sensor LI-193 and a LiCor LI-1400 meter). Temperature in the flumes was maintained at 111 ~ 27 °C to match the ambient temperature in the back reef of Moorea in September-112 October.

2. 2 Carbonate chemistry control and measurements

116	As the pCO_2 level in the back reef of Moorea is close to open-ocean and current						
117	atmospheric values (e.g., Comeau et al. 2014a), pCO2 levels for the incubations were						
118	chosen to match ambient pCO ₂ (~ 400 μ atm) and the pCO ₂ expected in the atmosphere by						
119	the end of the present century under a pessimistic scenario (Representative Concentration						
120	Pathway 8.5, ~1300 μ atm, Moss et al., 2010). pCO ₂ in the flumes was controlled using a						
121	pH-stat (Aquacontroller, Neptune systems, USA) that actuated the bubbling of either pure						
122	CO ₂ or CO ₂ -free air into the seawater. To match the natural diel variation in pH in the						
123	back reef of Moorea (Hofmann et al., 2011; Comeau et al., 2014a) pH was maintained 0.1						
124	unit lower at night (from 18:00 to 6:00) than during the day.						
125	pH was measured daily using a portable pH meter (Orion 3-stars, Thermo-						
126	Scientific, USA) fitted with a DG 115-SC pH probe (Mettler Toledo, Switzerland)						
127	calibrated every other day with Tris/HCl buffers (Dickson et al., 2007). pH also was						
128	measured spectrophotometrically using m-cresol dye (Dickson et al., 2007) at regular						
129	intervals. pH measured spectrophotometrically or using a pH electrode provided similar						
130	results with means differing < 0.01 pH unit. Measurement of total alkalinity (A_T) was						
131	made using open-cell potentiometric titrations (Dickson et al., 2007) using 50-mL						
132	samples of seawater collected every 2-3 d. Titrations of certified reference materials						
133	provided by A. G. Dickson (batch 122) yielded $A_{\rm T}$ values within 3.5 µmol kg ⁻¹ of the						
134	nominal value (SE = 3.1 μ mol kg ⁻¹ ; n = 14). Parameters of the carbonate system in						
135	seawater were calculated using the R package seacarb (Lavigne and Gattuso, 2013).						
136							

138 **2.3 Calcification measurements and sediment analysis**

139 Calcification rates were measured using the total alkalinity anomaly method 140 (Chisholm and Gattuso, 1991). Calcification measurements were made every 7 d on the 141 constructed community, and in the analysis of sediments alone, after 7, 30, and 56 d of 142 treatments. During incubations, the addition of seawater was stopped so that each flume 143 operated in a closed loop; seawater samples for $A_{\rm T}$ then were taken every 3 h during the 144 day and every 6 h at night. To maintain $A_{\rm T}$ and nutrients close to ambient levels, water in 145 the flumes was refreshed every 3-6 h for 30 min. Regular refreshing limited changes in alkalinity during incubations to $< 50-100 \mu$ mol kg⁻¹, which corresponded to variations in 146 147 aragonite saturation state (Ω) of < 0.1-0.2. Nutrient changes in the flumes were monitored 148 during four incubations and the changes in nitrate and ammonium during incubations were $< 2 \mu mol L^{-1}$. To conduct incubations with sediments alone, corals and coralline 149 150 algae were removed from the flumes for 24 h and held in a separate tank where 151 conditions were identical to those in the flumes. Corals and coralline algal calcification 152 was calculated by subtracting the mean light and dark net calcification of the sediments 153 from the community calcification. For both corals and algae, buoyant weight (Davies, 154 1989) was recorded before and after the 8-week treatments and converted to dry weight 155 to quantify the contribution of each functional group to the calcification budget. Sediment 156 grain size of each flume was analyzed in triplicate using sediment sieves. Three vertical 157 cross sections of sand (~ 600 g) were collected from each flume sediment chamber and 158 dried at 60 °C to remove moisture. Sand then was sieved through five separate sediment 159 sieves (149 µm, 420 µm, 840 µm, 3360 µm) yielding six size class fractions for each 160 flume (n = 3).

2.4 Statistical analysis

162	All analyses were performed using R software (R Foundation for Statistical
163	Computing), and assumptions of normality and equality of variance were evaluated
164	through graphical analyses of residuals. Calcification rates were analyzed using a
165	repeated measure ANOVA in which the within subject factor was time (week), pCO ₂ was
166	a fixed effect, and duplicate flumes was a nested effect.
167	
168	3 Results
169	3.1 Carbonate chemistry and organism condition
170	Mean pCO ₂ in the four flumes during the 8-week incubation was $456 \pm 21 \ \mu atm$
171	and 451 ± 21 µatm in the ambient treatments, and 1329 ± 28 µatm and 1306 ± 41 µatm in
172	the high pCO ₂ treatments (\pm SE, n = 42). pCO ₂ differed between treatments (repeated
173	measure ANOVA, $F_{1,232} = 734.38$, $p < 0.001$), but there was no difference within
174	treatments ($F_{2,232} = 0.16$, $p = 0.852$). Communities were maintained in conditions within
175	the flumes that were super-saturated with respect to aragonite, as $\Omega_{arag} \sim 3.5$ under
176	ambient conditions, and ~ 1.6 in the high pCO ₂ treatment.
177	No Pocillopora spp. and Montipora spp. colonies died during the 8-week
178	treatments, but 10% of the Porites pooled across flumes died by the end of the
179	experiment, regardless of treatment, because of an outbreak of corallivorous nudibranchs
180	feeding on this taxon (<i>Phestilla</i> spp.). Coralline algae (~ 70%) died at the end of the
181	incubation, which was likely due to sediment abrasion. No difference in mortality or
182	bleaching was observed between treatments for corals and calcified algae.

3.2 Community

185 Net calcification was higher at ambient versus high pCO₂ (Fig. 2A), both during the day and night (repeated measures ANOVA, $F_{1,2} = 84.9$, p = 0.012 and $F_{1,2} = 44.9$, 186 187 0.022, respectively); there were no differences between flumes within each treatment so 188 the nested factor was removed from the final analysis. At night, treatment effects were 189 more striking than during the day, as calcium carbonate dissolution exceeded precipitation at high pCO₂ (-1.6 \pm 0.9 gCaCO₃ m⁻² d⁻¹), whereas net calcification 190 remained positive at ambient pCO₂ $(2.7 \pm 0.6 \text{ gCaCO}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ (both means \pm SE, n = 191 16). Calcification integrated over 24 h highlighted the difference between treatments ($F_{1,2}$ 192 193 = 869.2, p = 0.001), with calcification 59% lower at high pCO₂ than at ambient pCO₂. 194 195 **3.3 Sediments** 196 Sediment grain sizes in the flumes were similar between flumes and fractionated (by weight) to $5.3 \pm 0.5\% < 149 \,\mu m$ grain size, $56.5 \pm 1.4\% > 149 \,\mu m$ and $< 420 \,\mu m$, 197 198 $25.9 \pm 0.4 \% > 420 \mu m < 840 \mu m$, $10.1 \pm 0.5\% > 840 \mu m$ and $< 3360 \mu m$, and $2.2 \pm 0.9\%$ 199 > 3360 μ m. Net calcification of the sediments alone differed between treatments, during 200 the day and night ($F_{1,2} = 344.2$, p = 0.003 and $F_{1,2} = 282.6$, p = 0.003, respectively) (Fig. 201 2B), but there were no differences between flumes within each treatment, hence the 202 nested factor was removed from the final analysis. Net calcification pooled among treatments was negative during the day $(-1.0 \pm 1.3 \text{ gCaCO}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ and night $(-3.72 \pm 0.6 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1})$ 203 204 $gCaCO_3 m^{-2} d^{-1}$) at high pCO₂, whereas net calcification was positive during the day (1.4) ± 1.1 gCaCO₃ m⁻² d⁻¹) and negative at night (-1.0 ± 0.8 gCaCO₃ m⁻² d⁻¹) in the ambient 205 206 treatment. When calcification was integrated over 24 h, pCO_2 effects were significant (F₁, 207 $_2 = 886.5, p = 0.001$), with dissolution exceeding precipitation at high pCO₂ (-2.3 ± 1.1 208 gCaCO₃ m⁻² d⁻¹), and a nearly balanced calcification budget under ambient pCO₂ (0.2 ± 209 0.9 gCaCO₃ m⁻² d⁻¹).

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211 **3.4 Corals and calcifying algae**

212 The total net calcification of corals and calcifying algae was estimated by 213 subtracting the mean sediment calcification rates from the total community calcification 214 in each flume. Net calcification of the corals and calcifying algae differed between 215 treatments during the day ($F_{1,2} = 32.3$, p = 0.030) and night ($F_{1,2} = 22.9$, p = 0.041) (Fig. 216 2C). In contrast to the whole community and the sediments alone, net calcification of corals and calcifying algae was positive at night at high pCO₂ $(1.1 \pm 0.5 \text{ gCaCO}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ in})$ 217 218 12 h), but was 24% and 44% lower at high pCO₂ compared to ambient pCO₂ during the 219 day and night, respectively. Net calcification integrated over 24 h also differed between treatments ($F_{1,2} = 2569, p < 0.001$) with calcification at ambient pCO₂ 29% higher than at 220 221 high pCO₂.

222 Calcification of the constructed reef communities was driven principally by 223 corals, since their contribution to the calcification budget, based on dry weight calculated 224 from the changes in buoyant weight, was ~ 98% of the total (Fig. 3). Massive Porites spp. was the main contributor among the corals, with an increased contribution to the 225 226 calcification budget at high pCO₂ (40% at ambient pCO₂, and 48.5% at high pCO₂, Fig. 227 3). In contrast, the importance of *P. rus*, *Montipora* spp., and *Pocillopora* spp. was 228 reduced at high pCO₂. The small contribution of coralline algae to the calcification 229 budget was due to high mortality perhaps leading to potential dissolution during the last

weeks of the incubation. Furthermore, while the ratio of planar area to surface area for
crustose coralline algae is close to one, corals have a disproportionately large surface area
to planar area ratio due to their three-dimensional structure. With such a large actual
surface area, the corals made a large contribution to the calcification budget of the
communities assembled in the flumes.

235

236 4 Discussion

237 Using outdoor flumes, we show that the effects of OA on coral reef communities 238 are greater than estimates obtained by summing results obtained by incubating organisms 239 in isolation under similar conditions and assuming their contribution to community 240 calcification is proportional to their planar cover. Indeed, at the community level, the 241 reduction in net calcification attributed to high pCO₂ was greater than the mean reduction 242 of 26% calculated in a recent meta-analysis of the effects of future conditions (~1300 243 μ atm pCO₂) based on the consequences of high pCO₂ on organismic calcification (Chan 244 and Connolly, 2013). This discrepancy likely is not caused by experimental bias, as rates 245 of net community calcification in the flumes in the ambient treatment were similar to 246 rates measured for back reef communities on the north shore of Moorea. For instance, in 247 2012 and 2013 we measured calcification rates during the day that ranged from 5 to 25 $gCaCO_3 m^{-2} d^{-1}$ (R.C. Carpenter, unpublished data), which spans the rates measured in 248 flumes during the present study (i.e., 13.9 gCaCO₃ $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ in the light, Fig. 2A). Net 249 community calcification for the back reef of Moorea in 1991 (~ 19–25 gCaCO₃ m⁻² d⁻¹; 250 251 Gattuso et al., 1996) also was similar to the rates measured in the flumes (this study) and 252 in the field as described above. Rates of calcification in the present study under ambient

253	conditions also are similar to the 7.9 gCaCO ₃ $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ reported by Andersson et al. (2009)
254	for a reef community from Kaneohe Bay (Hawaii) that was assembled and incubated in
255	mesocosms. However, while community calcification was still positive under high pCO_2
256	in the present study, Andersson et al. (2009) measured negative calcification (i.e., net
257	dissolution) in their coral reef communities incubated at a pCO ₂ twice that of current
258	ambient values. The differences between the present study and that of Andersson et al.
259	(2009) may be due to methodological effects. Andersson et al. (2009) manipulated pH
260	through acid additions (we used CO ₂ bubbling), and also used a different assemblage of
261	species and sediments in dissimilar proportions compared to the present study.
262	The discrepancy in the evaluation of the effects of high pCO ₂ at the community
263	level (the present study) versus organismic level (previous studies) was the result of
264	dissolution of sediments that represented up to 50% of the decrease in calcification at
265	high pCO ₂ . Increased dissolution of sediments at high pCO ₂ likely was caused by the
266	reduction of the seawater saturation state in the flumes, as we did not detect any
267	difference in respiration and photosynthesis under elevated pCO ₂ (results not shown) that
268	could also affect sediment dissolution (Andersson and Gledhill, 2013). Our results reveal
269	the sensitivity of carbonate sediments to dissolution at elevated pCO ₂ , and they are in
270	agreement with a recent manipulative experiment conducted on Heron Island, where
271	dissolution of in situ areas of sand (1.7 m depth) exceeded precipitation at $pCO_2 > 500$
272	µatm (Cyronak et al., 2013a). During a mesocosm experiment, Dove et al. (2013) also
273	demonstrated that a pH of 7.7 caused a change in sediment granularity to favor small-
274	grained (i.e., ≤ 1 mm) sediments as a result of dissolution or increased bioerosion of
275	larger grains. In this case, bioerosion was more likely than dissolution, as dissolution

276 would favor a loss of the smallest grains as a result of their higher surface area to volume 277 ratio. Size-frequency distribution of sediment grain was not different between treatments 278 at the end of our incubations and therefore is unlikely to have affected the treatment 279 effects we detected. Sensitivity of coral reef communities to dissolution has been shown 280 previously for communities constructed in mesocosms in Hawaii, where dissolution (-3.6 mmol CaCO₃ m⁻² h⁻¹) was detected at night under conditions of double ambient pCO_2 281 282 (Andersson et al., 2009). In this case, dissolution was attributed to the thin layer of 283 sediment that accumulated at the bottom of the mesocosms (Andersson et al., 2009). 284 In addition to chemical dissolution occurring in the communities constructed in 285 the present study, we cannot exclude the possibility that at least some of the apparent 286 community dissolution was caused by enhanced bioerosion, which for example 287 previously has been show to occur when blocks of Porites lobata are incubated under 750 288 μ atm pCO₂ for 3-month (Tribollet et al. 2009). In future work it will be important to 289 census the fragments of coral and rock to quantify the presence of bioeroders and their 290 relative contribution to dissolution under ambient and OA conditions. 291 When the effect of sediment dissolution was subtracted from the overall net 292 calcification rate for the communities assembled in our flumes, corals and coralline algae alone exhibited a decrease in net calcification of 29% over 24 h at elevated pCO₂ versus 293 294 ambient pCO₂. Such a decrease falls within the range of values we have previously 295 reported for organismic effects of high pCO_2 , in which the calcification rates of 16 296 calcifiers in Moorea declined 0-40% at 1300 µatm pCO₂ compared to ambient pCO₂ 297 (Comeau et al., 2013; Comeau et al., 2014b). It is also within the range of the predicted 298 changes for calcification of corals under a tripling of pCO₂ (relative to present values)

299 estimated by meta-analysis (i.e., $a \sim 26\%$ reduction; Chan and Connolly, 2012). As the 300 decrease in calcification recorded in the present study for corals and coralline algae alone 301 was within the range of previous studies, this supports our assumptions that calcification 302 of macro-calcifiers is equal to the difference between net sediment calcification and net 303 community calcification. This "subtraction method" for calculating the calcification rate 304 of corals and coralline algae included in community experiments has some limitations, as 305 it assumes that the calcification of the sediments and the macro-calcifiers are 306 independent. Such interactions might occur, for example, if dissolution of the sediment 307 would locally enhance total alkalinity that would, in turn, favor calcification by macro-308 calcifiers. Testing for such feedback mechanisms among the different compartments of 309 the communities we built was beyond the scope of the present study, but it will be 310 important to consider such effects in future experiments.

311 Our results demonstrate the utility of large outdoor flumes for investigating the 312 responses of coral reef communities to OA. Similar rates of calcification in the field and 313 in the flumes suggest that the communities assembled in the flumes effectively mimicked 314 both the biological communities and the physical and chemical conditions characterizing 315 the back reef of Moorea. The ability to create ecologically relevant flow conditions in the 316 flumes is likely to be especially important for establishing ecological relevance, as flow is 317 critical in modulating mass transfer and metabolism of coral reef organisms (Atkinson 318 and Gilmer, 1992; Carpenter and Williams, 2007, Comeau et al. 2014c). In the case of 319 stony corals, for example, high flow speeds are suspected to enhance coral calcification 320 by favoring proton export from coral tissue through boundary layers (Jokiel, 2011; Jokiel 321 et al., 2014), and for coralline algae, might increase sensitivity to OA by reducing the

322 capacity to maintain high pH in the diffusion boundary layer adjacent to the algal thallus323 (Cornwall et al., 2013, 2014).

324

325 **5** Conclusion

326 The present results suggest that, despite a reduction in calcification, calcifying reef 327 organisms may maintain net positive calcification under pCO_2 as high as 1300 µatm. 328 However, at the scale of coral reef communities in back reef habitats, community net 329 calcification will be affected strongly and negatively, at least for reefs similar in 330 community structure to those in Moorea in 2013. The present experiments demonstrate 331 the importance of living organisms on benthic surfaces in maintaining a positive balance 332 between precipitation and dissolution of calcium carbonate. Whereas several reefs around 333 the world are already at the threshold between precipitation and dissolution of calcium 334 carbonate (Silverman et al., 2009, 2014), the susceptibility of coral reefs to net 335 dissolution in the future likely will be linked directly to the proportion of the reef covered 336 by macro-calcifiers and sediments. In addition to dissolution, it also is possible that coral 337 reefs will be exposed to increased bioerosion at high pCO₂ (Wisshak et al., 2012; Crook 338 et al., 2013) that will decrease the integrity of the carbonate framework. Our results 339 suggest that under OA conditions anticipated by the end of the current century, at least 340 some tropical corals and calcifying algae will persist, but the function of the coral reef 341 community as a net precipitator of calcium carbonate and as a physical structure to 342 protect coasts against erosion (Ferrario et al., 2014) will be challenged.

343	Authors contributions: S.C. designed and performed experiments, analyzed data and					
344	wrote the paper; C.L. performed experiments and wrote the paper; B.C. and P.E.					
345	designed experiments, analyzed data and wrote the paper.					
346						
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494 **Table 1.** Mean carbonate chemistry in the four flumes (F1-4) during the 8-week incubation. The partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂), the 495 aragonite saturation state (Ω_{arag}) and the calcite saturation state (Ω_{calc}) were calculated from pH_T, total alkalinity (A_T), temperature and 496 salinity. The values presented are mean ± SE (n = 56). SE for salinity was < 0.1.

497

Flume	Treatment	рН _т	A_{T}	pCO ₂	$\Omega_{ m arag}$	$\Omega_{ m calc}$	Temperature	Salinity
			(µmol. kg ⁻¹)	(µatm)			(°C)	
F1	High pCO ₂	7.603 ± 0.008	2343 ± 1	1329 ± 28	1.60 ± 0.03	2.41 ± 0.04	27.0 ± 0.1	35.9
F2	Ambient	8.010 ± 0.012	2339 ± 1	456 ± 19	3.49 ± 0.07	5.26 ± 0.11	26.8 ± 0.1	35.9
F3	High pCO ₂	7.617 ± 0.014	2345 ± 1	1306 ± 42	1.68 ± 0.05	2.53 ± 0.08	27.1 ± 0.1	35.9
F4	Ambient	8.015 ± 0.013	2339 ± 1	451 ± 18	3.53 ± 0.07	5.32 ± 0.11	26.9 ± 0.1	35.9

Figure 1. Photographs of the outdoor flumes. a) The flumes consisted of a $5.00 \times 0.30 \times 0.30$ m working section, and a lower sediment chamber ($2.50 \times 0.30 \times 0.25$ m) in which sediments were maintained, and together contained ~ 600 L of seawater. b) Communities matching the average composition (in 2013) of the back reef in Moorea were constructed in the flumes.

508

509 Figure 2. Calcification in the light, dark, and integrated over 24 h for intact communities

510 (A), sediment (B), and corals and coralline algae (C) maintained under ambient and high

511 pCO_2 (~ 1300 µatm). The grey bars represent the calcification measured in the ambient

512 conditions and the black bars are calcification in the elevated pCO₂ treatment.

513

514 Figure 3. Relative contribution of each functional group of corals and calcifying algae to 515 the calcification budget of communities as a function of their contribution to the planar 516 surface area of calcifiers in the flumes. Contribution to the calcification budget was 517 derived from the buoyant weight measurements made on each individual at the beginning 518 and end of the 8-week incubation. The grey (ambient condition) and black (high pCO₂) 519 squares correspond to the mean \pm SD specific contributions of massive *Porites* (mP), 520 Porites rus (Pr), Pocillopora spp. (Po), Montipora spp. (Mo), Porolithon onkodes (Ph), 521 and *Lithophyllum flavescens* (Lf). The dashed line corresponds to a contribution to the 522 calcification budget equivalent to the planar surface areas of calcifier in the flumes.





Flume

