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22th January 2015

Dear Dr Gattuso,

Please find attached the revised manuscript entitled "*Evaluation of coral reef carbonate production models at a global scale*" (bg-2014-407). Thank you once again for your thorough and thoughtful comments on our paper. The following pages detail point-by-point how we have addressed the minor revisions requested, below which the marked up manuscript appears.

We look forward to seeing our paper in *Biogeosciences*.

Sincerely,

Nancy Jones

Comment 1 – CT and AT (C and A in italics, T as an upright subscript) are the preferred symbols of dissolved inorganic carbon and total alkalinity.

Agree and done.

Comment 2 – limit the use of acronyms. For example, CCA and OA could often be spelled out, improving the reading experience.

Agree and done.

Comment 3 – I already raised the issue of how the models are referred to but my comment was misunderstood. You use superscripts attached to the name of the first author or of a model, making a very awkward definition and cumbersome reading experience. I do not think that I came across something like this before. Most often, an

acronym is made using the author names. For example model of Berner et al. (1983) is referred to as BLAG (Berner, Lasaga and Garrels).

We have replaced the model names formed from first author with superscript acronym for dependant variables with: ReefHab, KAG, SILCCE and LOUGH. ReefHab is the name given to the model by Kleypas (1997); KAG is formed from the first initial of all authors (Kleypas et al., 2011); SILCCE is formed from the first two letter of the first author (Silverman) and the first letter of all subsequent authors (Silverman et al, 2009). The remaining model is from a single author (Lough, 2008) and so we have capitalised her full name (LOUGH). These changes are throughout the manuscript and also affect Fig. 4, 6 and 7.

Comment 4 – 143: G in italics

Done.

Comment 5 – 84: what do you mean by "sensu Erez"? I am not sure what is meant because this is a well established fact.

Agree.

Comment 6 – I think that it is a pity to forget about early papers. The alkalinity anomaly technique dates back from the 1970s and was first used in coral reef settings by Steve Smith. In this context, it is a little misleading to cite a paper published in 2013.

We agree and have added a sentence acknowledging this early work as well as a recent study (Steiner et al, 2014) that estimates basin-scale calcification using alkalinity anomaly (lines 80-83).

Comment 7 – 88: z is water depth

Done.

Comment 8 – 88 forward: it is worth pointing out that the AT technique is most often used to measure G of a portion of reef (reef flat) rather than the whole reef ecosystem.

Agree. In the description of the alkalinity anomaly technique we have now stated that G_{reef} is measured for a portion of a reef, e.g. reef flat or back reef (lines 76-77).

Comment 9 – 97: define E

Done.

Comment 10 – Superscript: inconsistency for irradiance which is referred to as E in the text (which is correct) and to Irr in the model definition.

No longer relevant because of new model names.

Comment 11 – 98: scaling up future changes in G also require changes in the community composition

We have added this to the introduction (lines 115-118) where we state that reef calcification rates vary greatly depending on the abundance of corals and coralline algae (i.e. community composition) citing Gattuso et al. (1998).

Comment 12 – 118: Biosphere 2

Done.

Comment 13 – 122: incorrect underlying assumptions

Done.

Comment 14 – 128: terms?

Done.

Comment 15 – 153: hyperbolic tangent

Done.

Comment 16 – 155: Ez is not the light penetration; it is the irradiance at the depth considered.

Agree.

Comment 17 – 157: the preferred unit for irradiance is $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$

Throughout the manuscript units for irradiance have been changed from $\mu\text{E m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ to $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$.

Comment 18 – 161: you need to explain what K490 is

Done.

Comment 19 – 159: E_c is not defined. Should it read E_k ?

The term E_c was used in the original application of the ReefHab model (Kleypas, 1997). It is, however, redundant here as it is only referred to once. We have removed the term E_c and altered the sentence to expand the explanation of limiting calcification to irradiances above this critical value (lines 164-165).

Comment 20 – What is the unit of G_{reef} ?

The units for G_{reef} in ReefHab ($\text{cm m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) have been added (lines 157, 165 and 174) and SILCCE ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) have been added (line 222). We have also added a sentence making the unit conversion used in SILCCE clearer (lines 235-236).

Comment 21 – 203: delete "relative"

Done.

Comment 22 – 213: what is the unit of G_{coral} ?

The units for G_{coral} ($\text{g CaCO}_3 \text{m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) have been added with an explanation of the division by 365 days, adapting the model to a daily timestep (lines 218-219).

Comment 23 – 215 using the alkalinity anomaly technique...

Done.

Comment 24 – 223 and 224: ' signs are different in the equation and text

Fixed.

Comment 25 – T_{opt} does not seem to be defined

T_{opt} is described on lines 232-235. We have expanded the explanation to make it clearer that T_{opt} is also the summer sea temperatures.

Comment 26 – 232 and elsewhere: always add a non-breakable space between a number and its unit

Done.

Comment 27 – 236: salinity is defined as the ratio of two conductivities and therefore unit-less

Done.

Comment 28 – 274: was the value of live coral cover really reported in all the studies that you considered?

No, it is not reported by all the studies. This has been corrected by adding a sentence stating that where coral cover was not reported the global average LCC was assumed (lines 285-286).

Comment 29 – 292 and elsewhere : there should be spaces before and after \pm (+-) signs

Done.

Comment 30 – 297: low CALCIUM carbonate

Done.

Comment 31 – 313: what do you mean by "equitable latitude"?

This sentence has been reworded to make it clear that we are comparing G_{coral} from two locations of the same latitude (lines 322-325).

Comment 32 – 362: which is almost half Smith's estimate

Done.

Comment 33 – 398: degree of LIGHT attenuation

Done.

Comment 34 – 470: genus rather than genera

Done.

Comment 35 – 480: Note that in my review published in 1999, I found that dissolution of individual corals has very rarely be reported and that the median ratio of light to dark calcification is 3.0.

We have added a sentence to this effect (lines 484-486).

Comment 36 – 517: irradiance rather than light intensity

Agree.

Comment 37 – 523: the increase in calcification as a function of increased temperature obviously stops at a certain threshold.

Agree.

Comment 38 – 557: mortality

Done.

Comment 39 – The quality of Fig. 7 does not seem to be very good. You should perhaps decrease the thickness of the lines.

Agree. We have replotted Fig. 7 with thinner lines.

We have also made the following modifications to the manuscript:

Line 260: We have added a description of the unit conversion for PAR (dW m^{-2} to $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) which was previously missing.

Table 3: A footnote has been added providing the source of the data for De'ath et al. (2009) and Cooper et al. (2012) citing the Australian Institute of Marine Science (AIMS); these have been added to the reference list. These citations, along with other references, have been added to the supplementary information spreadsheet.

Evaluation of Coral Reef Carbonate Production Models at a Global Scale

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Abstract

Calcification by coral reef communities is estimated to account for half of all carbonate produced in shallow water environments and more than 25 % of the total carbonate buried in marine sediments globally. Production of calcium carbonate by coral reefs is therefore an important component of the global carbon cycle; it is also threatened by future global warming and other global change pressures. Numerical models of reefal carbonate production are needed for understanding how carbonate deposition responds to environmental conditions including atmospheric CO₂ concentrations in the past and into the future. However, before any projections can be made, the basic test is to establish model skill in recreating present day calcification rates. Here we evaluate four published model descriptions of reef carbonate production in terms of their predictive power, at both local and global scales. We also compile available global data on reef calcification to produce an independent observation-based dataset for the model evaluation of carbonate budget outputs. The four calcification models are based on functions sensitive to combinations of light availability, aragonite saturation (Ω_a) and temperature and were implemented within a specifically-developed global framework, the Global Reef Accretion Model (GRAM). No model was able to reproduce independent rate estimates of whole reef calcification, and the output from the temperature-only based approach was the only model to significantly correlate with coral-calcification rate observations. The absence of any predictive power for whole reef systems, even when consistent at the scale of individual corals, points to the overriding importance of coral cover estimates in the calculations. Our work highlights the need for an ecosystem modeling approach, accounting for population dynamics in terms of mortality and recruitment and hence calcifier abundance, in estimating global reef carbonate budgets. In addition, validation of reef carbonate budgets is severely hampered by limited and inconsistent methodology in reef-scale observations.

1 Introduction

Coral reefs are the product of long-term CaCO_3 accretion by calcifying organisms of the reef community (e.g. Hatcher, 1997; Perry et al., 2008), principally scleractinian corals and crustose coralline algae (CCA; e.g. Chave et al., 1972; Barnes and Chalker, 1990; Kleypas and Langdon, 2006; Mallela, 2007; Vroom, 2011). Coral reefs persist where net CaCO_3 accretion is achieved, i.e. where calcification by reef organisms exceeds dissolution and bioerosion (reviewed by Kleypas and Langdon, 2006; Fig. 1; Perry, 2011). Globally, coral reef calcification accounts for $\sim 50\%$ of shallow water (neritic) CaCO_3 production (Milliman, 1993) with an estimated budget of 0.65–0.83 Pg of CaCO_3 each year (Vecsei, 2004). Most of this annual global carbonate production (G_{global}) is preserved and buried, and so coral reefs play an important role in global carbon cycling (Vecsei, 2004) and hence the control of atmospheric CO_2 .

Although the precise mechanisms by which calcification occurs in both corals and [CCA coralline algae](#) are still poorly understood (reviewed by Allemand et al., 2011), it is thought that the rate of calcification is environmentally modulated by some combination of seawater aragonite saturation state (Ω_a), temperature (~~SST~~) and light availability (~~E~~) (Buddemeier and Kinzie, 1976; Kleypas and Langdon, 2006; Tambutté et al., 2011). As a result, it is anticipated that calcification on coral reefs is sensitive to climate change and ocean acidification (e.g. Kleypas et al., 1999; Erez et al., 2011; Hoegh-Guldberg, 2011). In particular the reduction of Ω_a due to ocean acidification (~~OA~~) causing decreased calcification of individual corals (reviewed by Kleypas and Yates, 2009; Andersson and Gledhill, 2013) and [CCA coralline algae](#) (e.g. Anthony et al., 2008; Johnson and Carpenter, 2012; Johnson et al., 2014), and rising sea surface temperatures causing an increase in coral bleaching frequency due to heat stress (e.g. Donner et al., 2005; Baker et al., 2008; Frieler et al., 2013).

The global reef carbonate budget (i.e. G_{global}) is inherently difficult to evaluate because it is impossible to empirically measure this variable; instead it must be extrapolated from reef-scale observations. Vecsei (2004) synthesized census-based measurements to produce values of reef calcification rates (G_{reef} ; Fig. 1) – that varied both regionally and with depth – to estimate G_{global} (0.65–0.83 Pg yr^{-1}). In contrast, the earlier estimate of G_{global} (0.9 Pg yr^{-1}) from Milliman (1993) is calculated from two modal values for G_{reef} (reefs: 0.4 $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, lagoons: 0.08 $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). Opdyke and

Walker (1992) found a lower estimate of reefal CaCO_3 budget of 1.4 Pg yr^{-1} derived from published Holocene CaCO_3 accumulation rates. Census-based methods calculate G_{reef} by summing the calcification by each reef-calcifier, multiplied by its fractional cover of the reef substrate (Chave et al., 1972; Perry et al., 2008). The calcification by individual components of the reef community may be derived from linear extension rates or published values for representative species (Vecsei, 2004). Often it is only calcification by scleractinian corals (G_{coral}) and coralline algae (G_{algae}) that are considered, due to their dominance in CaCO_3 production (e.g. Stearn et al., 1977; Eakin, 1996; Harney and Fletcher, 2003). ~~G_{reef} values~~ Calcification rates for portions of a reef (e.g. reef flat or back reef) can also be calculated from the total alkalinity change (ΔTAA_T) of seawater (e.g. Silverman et al., 2007; Shamberger et al., 2011; Albright et al., 2013). This is because precipitation of CaCO_3 decreases the total alkalinity (TAA_T) of seawater whereas dissolution has the opposite effect (*sensu Erez*. This alkalinity anomaly technique was first used in a reef setting in the 1970s (Smith and Pesret, 1974; Smith and Kinsey, 1978) and has since been used to estimate basin-scale pelagic and coral reef calcification (Steiner et al., 2011). By 2014, G_{reef} is calculated by measuring the change in TAA_T over a discrete time interval (Δt), it is possible to calculate the; because the change in A_T includes dissolution the calcification measured is net ecosystem calcification (NEC) or net G_{reef} (Eq. 1; Albright et al., 2013):

$$G_{\text{reef}} = -0.5 \cdot p z \frac{\Delta \text{TAA}}{\Delta t} \frac{\Delta A_T}{\Delta t} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

where p is seawater density (kg m^{-3}) and z ~~is~~ is water depth (m). G_{reef} measured using ΔTAA_T accounts for inorganic precipitation (G_i ; Fig.1) and dissolution; however, unlike census-based methods for calculating G_{reef} , it is not possible to break down the contribution of individual calcifiers in the reef community (Perry, 2011). G_{coral} calculated from the width and density of annual bands within the colony skeleton is commonly used in census-based observations of G_{reef} (Fig. 1; Knutson et al., 1972).

Estimates of G_{global} alone tell us little about how reefs will be affected by climate change at a global scale. Instead, if coral calcification (G_{coral}) and reef community calcification rates (G_{reef}) can be numerically modeled as a function of the ambient physicochemical environment (e.g. irradiance (E_p), Ω_a and SSTtemperature), then the

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results could be scaled up to produce an estimate of G_{global} that could be re-calculated as global environmental conditions change. Examples of this approach (Table 1) include: (1) [ReefHab^{irr}](#); [Kleypas \(1997; 'ReefHab'\)](#), which is sensitive to E only and was initially developed to predict global reef calcification (G_{global}) and habitat area ([Kleypas, 1997](#)) and used to estimate changes in G_{global} since the ~~last glacial maximum (LGM)~~; Last Glacial Maximum; (2) [Kleypas^{irrΩ}](#); [Kleypas, Anthony and Gattuso \(2011; 'KAG'\)](#), which simulates G_{reef} as a function of E and Ω_a and was originally developed to simulate carbonate chemistry changes in seawater on a reef transect ([Kleypas et al., 2011](#)); (3) [Lough^{SST}](#) [Lough \(2008; 'LOUGH'\)](#) which simulates G_{coral} as a function of [sea surface temperature \(SST\)](#) and was derived from the strong relationship observed between SST and G_{coral} in massive *Porites* sp. colonies from the Great Barrier Reef (GBR), Arabian Gulf and Papua New Guinea ([Lough, 2008](#)); and (4) [Silverman^{SSTΩ}](#); and (4) [Silverman, Lazar, Cao, Caldeira and Erez \(2009; 'SILCCE'\)](#), which simulates G_{reef} as a function of SST and Ω_a and was used to simulate the effects of projected future SSTs and Ω_a at known reef locations globally ([Silverman et al., 2009](#)). Although further models exist describing G_{coral} as a function of carbonate ion concentration ($[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$; Suzuki et al., 1995; Nakamura and Nakamori, 2007) these are synonymous to the Ω_a function used in [Kleypas^{irrΩ}](#) and [Silverman^{SSTΩ}](#)-KAG and SILCCE. With the exception of Kleypas et al. (2011), which included classes non-calcifying substrate, the above models do not account for community composition. Reef calcification rates vary considerably depending on the abundance of corals and coralline algae (Gattuso et al., 1998). Therefore, successful up scaling of G_{reef} and G_{coral} to estimate G_{global} also requires, as a minimum, quantifying live coral coral (LCC).

To date it remains to be demonstrated that any of the published models reproduce present day reef calcification rates (i.e. G_{reef}). Despite this, simulations of the effects of future climate scenarios have been attempted using calcification rate models. For example, McNeil et al. (2004) incorporated [Lough^{SST}](#) LOUGH with the linear relationship observed between Ω_a and calcification in the BioSphere-2 project (Langdon et al., 2000), and predicted that G_{reef} will increase in the future. In contrast, a similar study by Silverman et al. (2009; [Silverman^{SSTΩ}](#) SILCCE) concluded that coral reefs will start to dissolve. Whilst McNeil's study was criticized for its [incorrect](#)

underlying assumptions (Kleypas et al., 2005), the contradictory predictions from these two models highlights the importance of comparing and fully evaluating reef calcification models, starting with their performance against present day observations.

Here we describe a novel model framework, the global reef accretion model (GRAM), and evaluate the four previously published calcification models (~~ReefHab^{IR}~~, ~~Kleypas^{IR}~~, ~~Lough^{SST}~~ ReefHab, KAG, LOUGH and ~~Silverman^{SST}~~ SILCCE) in ~~terms~~ of their skill in predicting G_{coral} and G_{reef} . The independent evaluation dataset comprises observations of G_{reef} from census-based methods and $\Delta\text{TA}_{\text{AT}}$ experiments as well as G_{coral} measured from coral cores. The individual model estimates of G_{global} are discussed in comparison with previous empirical estimates. We highlight where model development is required in order to accurately simulate the effects of past and future environmental conditions on calcification rates in coral reefs.

2 Methods

2.1 Model Description

Four calcification models were selected for evaluation in global scale simulations: (1) [ReefHab](#) (Kleypas, 1997), (2) [KAG](#) (Kleypas et al., 2011), (3) [LOUGH](#) (Lough, 2008) and (4) [SILCCE](#) (Silverman et al., 2009; Table 2). Previous applications for these models cover a hierarchy of spatial scales (colony, [LOUGH](#); reef, [KAG](#) and global, [ReefHab](#) and [SILCCE](#)) as well as representing different approaches for measuring G_{coral} (Fig. 1; [LOUGH](#)) and G_{reef} (Fig. 1; [ReefHab](#), [Kleypas](#), [ReefHab](#), [KAG](#) and [SILCCE](#)). Any modification of the models from the published form is described below, and these are only made where necessary to fit them into the same GRAM framework.

2.1.1 [ReefHab](#)

Kleypas (1997) developed ReefHab to predict changes in the global extent of reef habitat since the last Glacial Maximum (Kleypas, 1997). Like photosynthesis, calcification is light saturated (Allemand et al., 2011); as the rate of calcification increases toward a maximum value, it becomes light saturated after irradiance increases beyond a critical value. This curvilinear relationship can be described with various functions, however, hyperbolic-tangent and exponential functions have been found to best describe the relationship (Chalker, 1981). The ReefHab model calculates vertical accretion (G_{reef} in $\text{cm m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$) as a function of [light penetration irradiance at the depth of the seabed](#) (E_z) and maximum growth rate ($G_{\text{max}} = 1 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$). The hyperbolic-tangent function uses a fixed light saturation constant ($E_k = 250 \text{ } \mu\text{E } \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) to generate a scaling factor for G_{max} (Eq. 2):

$$G_{\text{reef}} = G_{\text{max}} \cdot \tanh\left(\frac{E_z}{E_k}\right) \cdot TF \quad E_z > E_c \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

where E_z is derived from the surface irradiance (E_{surf}) and the inverse exponent of the product of [the light attenuation coefficient](#) (K_{490}) and depth (z ; Eq. 3). [Following the methodology in Kleypas \(1997\), if](#) E_z is less than the [critical minimum](#) irradiance (E_c)

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necessary for calcification ($250 \mu\text{E}\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) $G_{\text{reef}} = 0 \text{ cm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. TF is the topography factor (Eq. 4), which reduces G_{reef} in areas of low topographic relief.

$$E_z = E_{\text{surf}} \cdot e^{-K_{490}z} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

$$TF = \frac{\ln(\alpha \cdot 100)}{5} \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

where α is calculated from a nine cell neighborhood (center index 2,2) by summing the inverse tangent of the difference between cell depths ($z_{i,j} - z_{2,2}$) divided by the distance between cell centers ($D_{i,j-2,2}$).

$$\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^3 \frac{\tan^{-1} z_{i,j} - z_{2,2}}{D_{i,j-2,2}} \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

Vertical accretion ($\text{cm m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) is converted to $\text{g} (\text{CaCO}_3\text{-mass}) \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ by multiplying average carbonate density (2.89 g cm^{-3}) and porosity (50 %) as defined by Kleypas (1997).

2.1.2 Kleypas¹⁹⁹² KAG

Anthony et al. (2011) performed laboratory flume incubations on *Acropora aspera* to parameterize the relationship between (day and night) calcification rates and Ω_a , determining the reaction order (n) and maximum calcification rates (k_{day} and k_{night}). The resultant model was then implemented by Kleypas et al. (2011), with the addition of an exponential light sensitive function that accounted for light enhanced calcification, to simulate seawater chemistry changes along a reef transect at Moorea, French Polynesia. The transect did not exceed 2 m in depth; therefore, it was appropriate to use the surface irradiance (E_{surf}) for the calculation of G_{reef} . In this study G_{reef} is calculated (Eq. 6) using E_z (Eq. 3) rather than E_{surf} because the maximum depth in the model domain is 100 m, greatly exceeding the depth of the original application.

$$G_{\text{reef}} = (G_{\text{max}}(1 - e^{-E_z/E_k})^n + G_{\text{dark}}) \cdot A_c A_c \quad (\text{Eq. 6})$$

where A_c is the fractional cover of live coral (i.e. $\text{LCC} \cdot 100\%$, $A_c = 1$) when coral cover is 100%). Here E_k is greater than in ReefHab²⁰⁰⁷ (400 $\mu\text{E}\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ versus 250 $\mu\text{E}\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) following the parameterization used by Kleypas et al.

(2011). G_{reef} is calculated here in $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ and is divided into day and night rates (G_{max} and G_{dark}) both are calculated as a function of Ω_a . For this study it was necessary to introduce day length (L_{day} ; hrs) to Eq. 7 and Eq. 8 because of the daily time step as opposed to the hourly timestep of the original model.

$$G_{\text{max}} = k_{\text{day}}(\Omega_a - 1)^n L_{\text{day}} \quad (\text{Eq. 7})$$

$$G_{\text{dark}} = k_{\text{dark}}(\Omega_a - 1)^n (24 - L_{\text{day}}) \quad (\text{Eq. 8})$$

L_{day} was calculated using the method described by Haxeltine and Prentice (1996), which uses Julian day (J_d) and latitude (lat) as follows:

$$L_{\text{day}} = 0 \quad u \leq v \quad (\text{Eq. 9})$$

$$L_{\text{day}} = 24 \cdot \frac{\cos^{-1}(-u/v)}{2\pi} \quad u > -v, u < v \quad (\text{Eq. 10})$$

$$L_{\text{day}} = 24 \quad u \geq v \quad (\text{Eq. 11})$$

where the variables u and v are calculated from lat and aa (a function of J_d ; Eq. 14).

$$u = \sin(lat) \cdot \sin(aa) \quad (\text{Eq. 12})$$

$$v = \cos(lat) \cdot \cos(aa) \quad (\text{Eq. 13})$$

$$aa = -23.4^\circ \cdot \cos\left(\frac{360(J_d+10)}{365}\right) \quad (\text{Eq. 14})$$

CaCO_3 production in $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ was converted to ~~mass, in grams, g~~ $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ using the ~~relative~~ molecular weight of CaCO_3 ($MR = 100$).

2.1.3 ~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH

~~ReefHab~~^{if} ReefHab and ~~Kleypas~~^{if} KAG were both derived from theoretical understanding of the process of calcification and parameterized by values observed in the literature or *in situ*. In contrast, ~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH was derived from the observed relationship between annual calcification rates of massive *Porites* sp. colonies and local SST (Lough, 2008). A linear relationship (Eq. 15) was fitted to data from 49 reef sites from the Great Barrier Reef (GBR; Lough and Barnes, 2000), Arabian Gulf and

Papua New Guinea (Lough, 2008), and accounted for 85% of the variance ($p < 0.001$).

$$G_{\text{coral}} = \frac{0.327 \cdot \text{SST} - 6.98}{365} \quad (\text{Eq. 15})$$

Division by 365 days is necessary here to adapt the original model to the daily timestep used in this study and results in G_{coral} in $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$.

2.1.4 Silverman^{SST Ω} SILCCE

Using ~~ATA methods~~, the alkalinity anomaly technique (ΔA_T), Silverman et al. (2007) found a correlation between rates of inorganic precipitation (G_i) and net G_{reef} ($\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$). Silverman et al. (2009) fitted observations to Eq. 16 to calculate G_i as a function of Ω_a and SST (Eq. 17):

$$G_i = k_{\text{SST}}(\Omega_a - 1)^{n_{\text{SST}}} \quad (\text{Eq. 16})$$

$$G_i = \frac{24}{1000} (-0.0177 \cdot \text{SST}^2 + 1.4697 \cdot \text{SST} + 14.893)(\Omega_a - 1)^{(0.0628 \cdot \text{SST} + 0.0985)} \quad (\text{Eq. 17})$$

Incorporating Eq. 17 with SST and Ω_a sensitivity of coral calcification gives G_{reef} (Eq. 18):

$$G_{\text{reef}} = k'_r \cdot G_i \cdot e^{-(k'_p(\text{SST} - T_{\text{opt}})/\Omega_a^2)^2} \cdot A_c \quad (\text{Eq. 18})$$

where k'_r ($38 \text{ m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$) and k'_p ($1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$) are coefficients controlling the amplitude and width of the calcification curve. T_{opt} is the optimal temperature of calcification and is derived from summer temperatures in the WOA 2009 monthly average SST (Locarnini et al., 2010) ~~for~~ June (in the Northern Hemisphere) and December (in the Southern Hemisphere). Again, CaCO_3 production in $\text{mmol m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ was converted to $\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ using the molecular weight of CaCO_3 ($MR = 100$).

2.1.5 Global Reef Accretion Model (GRAM) framework

The calcification production models above were implemented within our global reef accretion model (GRAM) framework. In this study, GRAM was implemented on a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ global grid. Vertically, the model domain was resolved with 10 depth

levels at equal ~~10m~~10 m intervals with the fraction, by area, of a model cell (quasi-seabed) within each ~~10m~~10 m layer recorded for calculating total ~~carbonate~~CaCO₃ production (Fig. 2). ~~An environmental~~A physicochemical mask was imposed to limit CaCO₃ production to shallow-water tropical and sub-tropical areas. This mask was defined following Kleypas (1997; Kleypas *et al.*, 1999b): SST (>18 °C), salinity (23.3-41.8‰) and depth (≤100m 100 m). Calcification was calculated on a daily basis over the course of one full calendar year and according to the environmental conditions at each grid cell (described below).

2.2 Input Data Description

Table 1 lists the data used to force GRAM. Ocean bathymetry was calculated from GEBCO One Minute dataset (https://www.bodc.ac.uk/data/online_delivery/gebco/) and mapped to the model grid. Monthly values for SST (Locarnini *et al.*, 2010) and salinity (Antonov *et al.*, 2010) were obtained from the World Ocean Atlas (WOA) 2009. These climatologies are reanalysis products of observations collected 1955-2009. The WOA data have a scaled vertical resolution with 24 layers, with a maximum depth of 1400 m; however, only surface values were used in this study. Daily photosynthetically available radiation (PAR), for the period 1991-1993, were obtained from the Bishop's High-resolution (DX) surface solar irradiance data (Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, 2000) derived from the International —Satellite Cloud —Climatology —Project (ISCCP) data (Bishop and Rossow, 1991; Bishop *et al.*, 1997). Following Kleypas (1997), units of dW m^{-2} were converted to $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ by multiplying by a factor of 0.46. Monthly diffuse light attenuation coefficient of 490 nm light (K_{490}) was obtained from the Level-3 binned MODIS-Aqua products in the OceanColor database (available at <http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov>). Surface Ω_a was derived from the University of Victoria's Earth System Climate Model (Schmittner *et al.*, 2009; Turley *et al.*, 2010) for the decade 1990-2000. All input data were converted, without interpolating, to the same resolution as the model by recording the closest data point to the coordinates of the model grid cell's center. Missing values were extrapolated as an unweighted mean from the nearest values in the dataset found in the model cell's neighborhood (including diagonals) in an area up to 1° from the missing data point.

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2.3 Evaluation dataset and methodology

An independent dataset of *in situ* measured calcification rates (G_{reef} and G_{coral}) was collated from the literature to evaluate model performance. In total, data from 11 coral core studies (Table 3; *Montastrea* and *Porites* sp.), 8 census-based and 12 $\Delta\text{TA}_{4\text{T}}$ studies (Table 4) were assembled. This dataset is not comprehensive of all studies that have measured G_{reef} and G_{coral} ; many older studies were excluded (e.g. Sadd, 1984) due to errors in calculation of G_{reef} that were resolved by Hubbard et al. (1990). The studies sampled cover a representative range of SST and Ω_{a} conditions in which present day reefs are found (Fig. 3). The positions of the *in situ* measurements were used to extract the equivalent data points from the gridded model output. Where location coordinates were not reported, Google Earth (available at <http://earth.google.com>) was used to establish the longitude and latitude, accurate to the model resolution of 0.25° . For uniformity, reported units of measurement were converted to $\text{g}(\text{CaCO}_3) \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. The values of live coral cover (LCC) reported in the census-based and $\Delta\text{TA}_{4\text{T}}$ studies were used to convert model G_{coral} to G_{reef} . [A global average of 30 % \(Hodgson and Liebler, 2002\) was used where live coral cover was not reported \(Table 4\).](#)

Model skill in reproducing the observed data was assessed using simple linear regression analysis performed on observed calcification rates paired with their equivalent model value. When testing [Lough^{SST} LOUGH](#) against coral core data, values that were used in the original formulation of the model (Lough, 2008) were excluded so as to preserve the independence of the data. Similarly, when correlating [Silverman^{SSTO} SILCCE](#) with $\Delta\text{TA}_{4\text{T}}$ data, the Silverman et al. (2007) datum was excluded. A global average [LCClive coral cover](#) of 30_% (Hodgson and Liebler, 2002) was applied to model CaCO_3 production in model comparisons with census-based and $\Delta\text{TA}_{4\text{T}}$ G_{reef} at a global scale. Global mean G_{reef} and G_{global} were calculated by applying a further 10_% reefal area to model CaCO_3 production; this follows the assumption in Kleypas (1997) that 90_% of the seabed is composed of unsuitable substrate for reef colonization and growth. Global and regional values are compared directly to the most recent estimates by Vecsei (2004), although other global estimates are also considered.

3 Results

3.1 Model carbonate production rates

Globally averaged values of G_{reef} (summarized in Table 5) vary little between [ReefHab^{irr}ReefHab](#) ($0.65 \pm 0.35 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), [Kleypas^{irr}KAG](#) ($0.51 \pm 0.21 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and [Lough^{SST}LOUGH](#) ($0.72 \pm 0.35 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), with [Silverman^{SST}SILCCE](#) producing a somewhat smaller value ($0.21 \pm 0.11 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). A consistent feature across all models is the high carbonate production in the southern Red Sea along the coast of Saudi Arabia and Yemen and, in [Kleypas^{irr}KAG](#) and [Lough^{SST}LOUGH](#), the East African coast (Fig. 4). In all models, there was very low [calcium](#) carbonate production in the northern Red Sea compared to the south. There is higher [calcium](#) carbonate production in the western Pacific than in the east, and along the Central American and northern South American coastline, and this is more pronounced in [Kleypas^{irr}KAG](#) and [Lough^{SST}LOUGH](#) than [ReefHab^{irr}ReefHab](#). In scaling up to the global scale, estimates of G_{global} based on the models [ReefHab^{irr}ReefHab](#) (1.40 Pg yr^{-1}) and [Silverman^{SST}SILCCE](#) (1.1 Pg yr^{-1}) were substantially lower than for the other model setups (3.06 Pg yr^{-1} for [Kleypas^{irr}KAG](#) and 4.32 Pg yr^{-1} for [Lough^{SST}LOUGH](#)).

3.2 Observed carbonate production rates

Figure 5 shows the location and magnitude of the calcification observations. Coral core (G_{coral}) values are higher ($0.5\text{-}2.8 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; full dataset in online supplementary material) than G_{reef} measurements from either census-based ($0.1\text{-}0.9 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) or [ΔTA₄T](#) ($0.003\text{-}0.7 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Table 4) methods. In general, coral core data show decreasing G_{coral} with increasing latitude that is most pronounced in Hawaii and along both east and west Australian coastlines (Fig. 5). However, G_{coral} is not always smaller at higher latitudes, ~~particularly in~~. For example, the Arabian Gulf is toward the upper end of all G_{coral} observations ($1.44 \pm 0.57 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; full dataset in online supplementary material) ~~where it is toward the upper end of the observed range in G_{coral} . Despite its equitable latitude whereas~~ G_{coral} in the Gulf of Aqaba is twofold smaller ($0.78 \pm 0.28 \text{ g cm}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$). ~~despite the similar latitude of the two locations.~~ This result cannot be corroborated by [ΔTA₄T](#) or census data as there is ~~not~~no observation for the Arabian Gulf, however, there is agreement that calcification in the

Gulf of Aqaba is toward to lower end of the observed range for ΔTAA_T measured G_{reef} ($0.18 \pm 0.09 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and G_{coral} measured from coral cores. In contrast, the census-based and ΔTAA_T measurements show no latitudinal trends.

3.3 Model evaluation

Fig. 6 shows the correlation of corresponding model and observed calcification rates. With a slope of 0.97, the only significant correlation was that between $Lough^{SST}$ LOUGH and independent coral core data ($R^2 = 0.66$, $p < 0.0001$). The G_{reef} measured by Perry et al. (2013) in the Caribbean also fell close to a 1:1 line with $Lough^{SST}$ LOUGH, but the positive trend was not significant, either when considering just this data sub-set ($R^2 = 0.74$, $p = 0.14$, $n = 4$), or all ΔTAA_T measured G_{reef} ($R^2 = 0.57$, $p = 0.14$, $n = 11$). The average regional G_{reef} estimated by all models showed little geographic difference (Fig. 7), which is in conflict with the conclusions of Vecsei (2004) who found the Atlantic, including Caribbean reefs, had the highest G_{reef} of all regions, followed by the Pacific and GBR (Table 5).

The Silverman^{SSTO} SILCCE model produced a global average G_{reef} ($0.21 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) that falls within Vecsei's (2004) estimated range ($0.09\text{--}0.27 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) but all other models were in excess of this (Table 5). Similarly, all model estimates of G_{global} ($1.10\text{--}4.32 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$; Table 5) exceed estimates by Vecsei (2004; $0.65\text{--}0.83 \text{ Pg yr}^{-1}$). This difference was greatest for Kleypas^{frfQ} KAG and $Lough^{SST}$ LOUGH (3.06 and 4.32 Pg yr^{-1} respectively). Global reef area (the area sum of all model cells where $G_{\text{coral}} > 0 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and with the 10_% reefal area applied) varies significantly between models (Table 5). ReefHab^{frf} ReefHab designates $195 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ as global reef area, which is less than that reported by Vecsei (2004; $304\text{--}345 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$), however, the other model setups estimate almost double this ($500\text{--}592 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$).

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4 Discussion

Four coral reef carbonate production models, contrasting in terms of dependent environmental controls, were evaluated at local, regional and global scales. The results show that only the model using SST alone ([Lough^{SST} LOUGH](#)) is able to predict G_{coral} , and to a degree G_{reef} , with any statistical skill (Fig. 6). At the global scale, there is a large offset between the empirical and model estimates of G_{global} (Table 5), with the [Lough^{SST} LOUGH](#) G_{global} estimate approximately a factor of five greater than previous estimates by Milliman (1993) and Vecsei (2004). Although G_{global} values from [ReefHab^{1fr} ReefHab](#) and [Silverman^{SSTQ} SILCCE](#) (1.4 Pg yr^{-1} and 1.1 Pg yr^{-1}) are significantly closer to the empirical estimates of G_{global} than the other models, their poor performance at the local reef scale (measured by G_{reef} and G_{coral}) undermines confidence in their predictive power at G_{global} scale. Since empirical estimates of G_{global} cannot themselves be evaluated, it is necessary to examine the factors involved in the estimation of G_{global} , and what role they play in terms of the disparity with the various model values.

Global reef area is used in extrapolating G_{reef} to G_{global} and so may have a significant effect on both model and empirical estimates of G_{global} . The [Lough^{SST} LOUGH](#) model achieves a global reef area of $567 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, comparable to the reef area used by Milliman (1993) and Opdyke and Walker (1992) of $617 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ taken directly from Smith (1978). Whereas Vecsei (2004) used a revised reef area of $304\text{--}345 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ (Spalding and Grenfell, 1997) which is almost half the size of Smith's estimate. Despite this difference in global reef area, Milliman (1993) and Vecsei (2004) estimate comparable values of G_{global} , further confounding evaluation of modeled G_{global} . The question of where to draw the line in terms of establishing reef boundaries is highly pertinent to modeling G_{global} as it dictates the area considered to be 'coral reef'. In our analysis, all grid cells with positive CaCO_3 production (i.e. $G > 0 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) are considered to contain coral reef, even those that may be close to $0 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. Recently formed (immature) reefs with coral communities that have positive G_{reef} but where little or no CaCO_3 framework is present do exist (Spalding et al., 2001) and are accounted for by all four models. However, these coral communities are not included in reef area reported by Spalding and Grenfell (1997) and further information about their production rates and global abundance is needed to accurately

quantify their significance in estimating G_{global} empirically. The presence of these coral communities has been correlated with marginal environmental conditions where low (highly variable) temperatures and high nutrient concentrations are seen (Couce et al., 2012). It logically follows that excluding these marginal reefs by tightening the physicochemical mask for SST to $> 20^{\circ}\text{C}$, as derived by Couce et al. (2012), would reduce global reef area and close the gap between empirical and model estimates of G_{global} . Further to this is the assumption within GRAM that the area between reef patches in a ‘reef’ cell (i.e. a cell with $G > 0 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) accounts for 90% of the cell’s area, with only 10% assumed to be composed of suitable substrate for reef formation and coral recruitment. The availability of suitable substrate has the greatest impact on the biogeography of coral reefs (Montaggioni, 2005) and so clearly needs to be evaluated to improve G_{global} estimates.

Reef area does not account for all of the disparity between estimates of G_{global} ; attenuation of G_{reef} with depth may also be a causal factor. In both Atlantic and Indo-Pacific reefs, there was an exponential trend, decreasing with depth ($\leq 60 \text{ m}$), in G_{reef} data collated by Vecsei (2001). Modeled G_{reef} estimates should, therefore, also vary as a function of depth. In its published form, $\text{Lough}^{\text{SST}}\text{LOUGH}$ produces the same value for G_{reef} throughout the water column; however, we can account for this model limitation by imposing a light-sensitive correction in the form of an exponential function to the output from $\text{Lough}^{\text{SST}}\text{LOUGH}$ so that G_{reef} is a function of surface G_{reef} (G_{surf}) and depth (z ; Eq. 19):

$$G_{\text{reef}} = G_{\text{surf}} \cdot e^{-k_g z} \quad (\text{Eq. 19})$$

where k_g is a constant controlling the degree of light attenuation with depth, in this estimate K_{490} was used. Equation 19 has the same form as that for calculating light availability (Eq. 3) used in both $\text{ReefHab}^{\text{irr}}\text{ReefHab}$ and $\text{Kleypas}^{\text{irr}\Omega}\text{KAG}$. Following this adjustment, the $\text{Lough}^{\text{SST}}\text{LOUGH}$ G_{global} estimate is reduced to 2.56 Pg yr^{-1} , which is closer to empirical estimates. However, where light availability has been incorporated into other models no significant skill in predicting G_{coral} or G_{reef} was observed ($\text{ReefHab}^{\text{irr}}\text{ReefHab}$ and $\text{Kleypas}^{\text{irr}\Omega}\text{KAG}$ in Fig. 6).

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428 A further factor that strongly affects G_{reef} and G_{global} estimates is the percentage of the
 429 reef covered by calcifying organisms (generally abridged as the term ‘live coral
 430 cover’, or LCC, although implicitly including other calcifiers). Applying the global
 431 average LCC of 30_% clearly does not account for the large spatial and temporal
 432 variation in ~~LCC~~ LCC (~~coral cover~~ coral cover (< 1–43_% in the dataset collated here; Table 4).
 433 Indeed, only a very limited number of Pacific islands (4/46) were found to have ≥ 30
 434 % LCC between 2000 and 2009 in the compilation of Vroom (2011). The global
 435 average of 30_% was calculated from surveys of 1107 reefs between 1997 and 2001
 436 (Hodgson and Liebler, 2002) and represents total hard coral cover (LCC plus
 437 recently killed coral), so is an overestimate of LCC. ~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH has significant
 438 skill in replicating observed G_{coral} and has some skill in predicting G_{reef} values
 439 observed by a standardized census method (ReefBudget; Perry et al., 2012), but only
 440 when the local observed LCC is applied. If however, the global average LCC is
 441 applied to ~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH the correlation with G_{reef} is lost. In addition, the global
 442 average ~~LCC~~ LCC coral cover may also account for the uniformity of regional G_{reef} values
 443 (Fig. 7), in contrast to the significant differences between regions identified by Vecsei
 444 (2004). For example, the Atlantic reefs (including the Caribbean) having the greatest
 445 G_{reef} ($0.8 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and reefs in the Indian Ocean the smallest G_{reef} ($0.36 \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$;
 446 Vecsei, 2004; Table 5). The pattern is reversed in terms of ~~LCC~~ LCC coral cover, with
 447 Indo-Pacific reefs having ~ 35 _% hard coral cover compared to ~ 23 _% on Atlantic
 448 reefs (Hodgson and Liebler, 2002). Further studies have shown that Caribbean reefs
 449 have greater G_{reef} and vertical accumulation rates than Indo-Pacific reefs, possibly due
 450 to increased competition for space on the later (Perry et al., 2008). These issues
 451 highlight the need for ~~LCC~~ LCC coral cover to vary dynamically within models, allowing
 452 ~~LCC~~ LCC it to change spatially and temporally according to coral population demographics
 453 (mortality, growth and recruitment).

454 A specific example of unrealistic G_{reef} is seen for the Gulf of Carpentaria, where there
 455 are no known currently-accreting reefs (Harris et al., 2004) but projections of
 456 carbonate production according to output from the ~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH model are
 457 particularly high (Fig. 4). At least seven submerged reefs have been discovered in the
 458 Gulf of Carpentaria and a further 50 may exist, but these reefs ceased growth ~ 7 kyr
 459 BP when they were unable to keep-up with sea level rise (Harris et al., 2008). Failure

to repopulate may be due to a combination of factors including very low larval connectivity in the Gulf of Carpentaria (Wood et al., 2014) and high turbidity, due to re-suspension of bottom sediments and particulate input from rivers (Harris et al., 2008). ~~ReefHab~~^{lrr}ReefHab is the only model to predict an absence of reef accretion in the majority of the Gulf of Carpentaria (Fig. 4) indicating that model sensitivity to light attenuation is essential. This example also raises two further points: firstly, that there are certainly undiscovered reefs that are not accounted for in empirical estimates of G_{global} and, secondly, that larval connectivity should be considered in simulations of G_{reef} because of its role in regulating LCCcoral abundance after disturbance (Almany et al., 2009; Jones et al., 2009).

In addition to static LCCcoral cover, growth parameters (G_{max} , Eq. 2; E_k , Eq. 2 and 6; k_{day} , Eq. 7; k_{dark} , Eq. 8; k'_r and k'_p , Eq. 18) did not vary geographically, having the same value in all model grid cells. This potentially affected the skill of ~~Kleypas~~^{lrr}KAG in reproducing G_{coral} and G_{reef} since in the original application of the model (Kleypas et al., 2011) parameters (k_{day} , k_{dark} and E_k) were determined for observations at the location of the reef transect that was simulated. However, when looking at the correlation of model to data it is important to acknowledge the observational variability and error. The standard deviation, where reported, for census-based and ΔTA_{41} measured G_{reef} is $\leq 100\%$ of the mean (Table 4). In addition to this variability, observational error is greater in census-based measurements of G_{reef} than ΔTA_{41} measurements (Vecsei, 2004). In a review of reef metabolism, G_{reef} was shown to vary considerably ($0.05\text{--}1.26\text{ g cm}^{-2}\text{ yr}^{-1}$) depending on the ~~LCC and CCA~~ abundance of coral and coralline algae (Gattuso et al., 1998). G_{reef} (measured by ΔTA_{41}) appears to vary little across Pacific coral reefs (Smith and Kinsey, 1976) but Gattuso et al. (1998) attribute this to the similarity of these reefs in terms of community structure and composition, as well as LCCcoral cover. The apparent agreement between ~~Lough~~^{SST}LOUGH and Caribbean G_{reef} (as reported by Perry et al. (2013) ~~indicates~~^{suggests}) that a standardized experimental methodology for measuring G_{reef} is needed and implementing this would also provide a consistent dataset that would be invaluable for model evaluation. Unexpectedly, this result also suggests that ~~Lough~~^{SST}LOUGH may have skill in predicting G_{reef} in the Atlantic Ocean despite the absence of massive *Porites* sp. on which the ~~Lough~~^{SST}LOUGH

model is built. *Porites* is a particularly resilient ~~genera~~genus (e.g. Barnes et al., 1970; Coles and Jokiel, 1992; Loya et al., 2001; Hendy et al., 2003; Fabricius et al., 2011) and so applicability to other reef settings, coral genera and calcifiers as a whole is surprising. G_{coral} of a single species has been used in some census-based studies to calculate the G_{coral} of all scleractinian corals present (Bates et al., 2010) and the ~~Lough^{SS+}~~LOUGH results suggest this generalization may be appropriate.

Unlike census-based and $\Delta\text{TA}_{\text{AT}}$ methodologies, G_{coral} measured from coral cores span multiple centuries (Lough and Barnes, 2000) and so smoothes the stochastic nature of coral growth and variations in reef accretion. G_{coral} and G_{reef} do vary a great deal temporally. For example, diurnal fluctuations may be up to five fold and result in net dissolution at night (e.g. Barnes, 1970; Chalker, 1976; Barnes and Crossland, 1980; Gladfelter, 1984; Constantz, 1986; McMahon et al., 2013). The median ratio of light to dark calcification rates is 3.0, however, measurements of dissolution in individual corals are rarely reported (Gattuso et al., 1999). At intermediate time scales (weekly–monthly) G_{coral} may vary by a factor of three, with a degree of seasonal chronology (Crossland, 1984; Dar and Mohammed, 2009; Albright et al., 2013). Over longer time scales (≥ 1 yr), G_{coral} is less variable (Buddemeier and Kinzie, 1976) and both Hatcher (1997) and Perry et al. (2008) describe reef processes hierarchically according to temporal and spatial scales, finding that time spans of a year or more are required to study processes of reef accretion. The numerous observations of G_{coral} measured from coral cores is a further advantage over the sparse census and $\Delta\text{TA}_{\text{AT}}$ determinations of G_{reef} which are generally more costly and labor-intensive. More observations of G_{reef} are, however, essential to improve statistical power and evaluation of model outputs. G_{reef} is also invaluable from a monitoring perspective (reviewed by Baker et al., 2008; e.g. Ateweberhan and McClanahan, 2010) by providing an effective measure of reef health that encompasses the whole reef community and accounting for different relative compositions of corals and algae (Vroom, 2011; Bruno et al., 2014). These benefits provide impetus for future measurements of G_{reef} , but our results demonstrate that a standardization of the methodology (as demonstrated in Perry et al., 2013) must be applied.

The four models used in this study all simplify the physiological mechanisms of calcification to predict G_{coral} and G_{reef} as a function of one or two external

524 environmental variables. Calcification is principally a biologically controlled process
 525 in corals (e.g. Puverel et al., 2005); occurring at the interface between the polyp's
 526 aboral layer and the skeleton, which is separated from seawater by the coelenteron
 527 and oral layer (Gattuso et al., 1999). This compartmentalization means that the
 528 reagents for calcification (Ca^{2+} and inorganic carbon species) must be transported
 529 from the seawater through the tissue of the coral polyp to the site of calcification
 530 (reviewed in Allemand et al., 2011). Active transport of Ca^{2+} , bicarbonate ions
 531 (HCO_3^-) to the site of calcification and removal of protons (H^+) regulates the pH and
 532 Ω_a of the calcifying fluid (found between aboral ectoderm and skeleton) and requires
 533 energy (reviewed in Tambutté et al., 2011). Although the precise mechanism is
 534 unknown it is thought that in light zooxanthellate corals derive this energy from the
 535 photosynthetic products (principally oxygen and glycerol) of their symbionts, which
 536 is thought to partially explain the phenomenon of light enhanced calcification (~~LEE~~)
 537 (reviewed in Gattuso et al., 1999; Allemand et al., 2011; Tambutté et al., 2011). Both
 538 the ~~ReefHab~~^{IR} ReefHab and ~~Kleypas~~^{IR} KAG models use this relationship with light to
 539 determine G_{coral} . However, corals that have lost their symbionts by 'bleaching'
 540 continue to show ~~show~~-enhanced calcification in the light (Colombo-Pallotta et al.,
 541 2010). As such, ~~light intensity~~irradiance alone cannot account for changes in G_{coral} .
 542 Precipitation of aragonite from the calcifying fluid has been assumed to follow the
 543 same reaction kinetics as inorganic calcification with respect to Ω_a (Hohn and Merico,
 544 2012), i.e. $k_p \cdot (\Omega - 1)^m (\Omega_a - 1)^n$ (following Burton and Walter, 1987).
 545 ~~Kleypas~~^{IR} KAG and ~~Silverman~~^{SST} SILCCE both use this function of seawater Ω_a in
 546 calculating calcification; however, despite the logical connection between Ω_a and
 547 G_{coral} neither model could reproduce observed G_{coral} values. Inorganic precipitation of
 548 aragonite increases linearly with temperature (Burton and Walter, 1987) as does
 549 respiration in corals when oxygen is not limited (Colombo-Pallotta et al., 2010). This
 550 temperature dependence may explain the strong correlation found by Lough (2008)
 551 between *Porites* growth and SST and the skill ~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH has shown in this
 552 study at reproducing G_{coral} observed values.

553 This study has shown that it is possible to predict global variations in coral carbonate
 554 production rates (G_{coral}) across an environmental gradient with significant skill simply
 555 as a function SST (~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH). However, the ~~Lough~~^{SST} LOUGH model

assumes a linear relationship between SST and coral calcification (G_{coral}) whereas ~~at the extremes this is clearly not the case~~ the increase in calcification as a function of increased temperature obviously stops at a certain threshold. For example, there is substantive evidence of declining coral calcification rates in recent decades coinciding with increasing temperatures (e.g. Cooper et al., 2008; De'ath et al., 2009; Cantin et al., 2010; Manzello, 2010; De'ath et al., 2013; Tanzil et al., 2013). Further laboratory experiments have found a Gaussian or bell-shaped response to increasing temperature with optima between 25 °C and 27 °C (e.g. Clausen and Roth, 1975; Jokiel and Coles, 1977; Reynaud-Vaganay et al., 1999; Marshall and Clode, 2004). In contrast to the linear SST-relationship in Lough^{SST} LOUGH, Silverman et al. (2009; Silverman^{SSTQ} SILCCE) use the Gaussian relationship found by Marshall and Clode (2004) to modulate the rate of calcification derived from inorganic calcification (G_i) calculated from Ω_a . But, the output from Silverman^{SSTQ} SILCCE is shown to be a poor predictor of G_{coral} or G_{reef} in this study. While using the Lough^{SST} LOUGH model alone is clearly not appropriate when applied to future temperature simulations, environmental gradients in G_{coral} established using Lough^{SST} LOUGH could be modulated to account for the physiological effect for heat-stress using degree-heating-months (e.g. Donner et al., 2005; McClanahan et al., 2007) or summer SST anomaly (e.g. McWilliams et al., 2005). This approach would then account for the evidence that corals exhibit widely differing temperature optima depending on their temperature history or climatological-average temperature (Clausen and Roth, 1975).

Since none of the models evaluated in this study showed significant skill in capturing global patterns of G_{reef} , none of the models provide a reliable estimate of G_{global} . Successful up-scaling of carbonate production to the reef (G_{reef}) and global domain (G_{global}) will require accounting for both depth attenuation (e.g. light sensitivity) and inclusion of population demographics affecting calcifier abundance. An ecosystem modeling approach that captures demographic processes such as ~~mortality~~ mortality and recruitment, together with growth, would result in a dynamically and spatially varying estimate of LCC-live coral cover. It is also clear that a standardized methodology for census-based measurements is required, as evident from the improved model–data fit in a subset of data collected using the ReefBudget methodology (Perry et al., 2012). Coral calcification rates have slowed by an

588 | estimated 30_% in the last three decades (e.g. Bruno and Selig, 2007; Cantin et al.,
589 2010; De'ath et al., 2013; Tanzil et al., 2013) reinforcing the pessimistic prognosis for
590 reefs into the future under climate change (e.g. Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007; Couce et
591 al., 2013; Frieler et al., 2013); numerical modeling is an essential tool for validating
592 and quantifying the severity of these trends.

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976 **Tables**

977 **Table 1** Summary of calcification models implemented in the global reef accretion
978 model (GRAM) framework.

Model	ReefHab^{1a} ReefHab	Kleypas^{1a} KAG	Lough^{SST} LOUGH	Silverman^{SST} SILCCE
Source	Kleypas (1997)	Kleypas et al. (2011)	Lough (2008)	Silverman et al. (2009)
Application or Formulation	Predicting changes to reef habitat extent, globally, since last glacial maximum.	Seawater carbonate chemistry changes on a transect in Moorea, French Polynesia ^{1a} ; Polynes	Derived from coral core (<i>Porites</i> sp.) measurements and temperature from the HadISST dataset (Rayner et al., 2003).	Future climate simulations at reef locations provided by ReefBase^{1b} ; ReefBas
Scale applied	Global	Reef	Colony	Reef/Global
E_{surf}	✓	✓	-	-
Ω_a	-	✓	-	✓
SST	-	-	✓	✓
Units	mm m ⁻² yr ⁻¹	mmol m ⁻² hr ⁻¹	g cm ⁻² yr ⁻¹	mmol m ⁻² yr ⁻¹

979 ^{1a} Model output was compared to alkalinity changes measured *in situ* at Moorea by
980 Gattuso et al. (1993), Gattuso et al. (1996), Gattuso et al. (1997); Boucher et al.
981 (1998).

982 ^{1b} ReefBase: A Global Information System for Coral Reefs
983 (<http://www.reefbase.org>).

Table 2 Environmental data description (variable name, units, temporal and spatial resolution), and their sources, used to produce the physico-chemical domain mask (ranges shown) and force the calcification models (ReefHab^{IR}, Kleypas^{IR,Ω}, Lough^{SST} and Silverman^{SST,Ω} ReefHab, KAG, LOUGH and SILCCE) in the global reef accretion model (GRAM) framework.

Variable	Unit	Temporal	Spatial	Mask Range	<u>ReefHab^{IR}</u>	<u>Kleypas^{IR,Ω}</u>	<u>Lough^{SST}</u>	<u>Silverman^{SST,Ω}</u>	Source
SST	°C	Monthly	1°	18.0 – 34.4	-	-	✓	✓	WOA 2009 (Locarnini et al., 2010) http://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/WOA09/netcdf_data.html
Salinity	‰	Annual	1°	23.3 – 41.8	-	-	-	-	WOA 2009 (Antonov et al., 2010) http://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/WOA09/netcdf_data.html
Bathymetry	m	—	1/60°	≤100	✓	✓	-	-	GEBCO One Minute Grid https://www.bodc.ac.uk/data/online_delivery/gebco/
PAR	μW m ⁻²	Daily	0.5°	—	✓	✓	-	-	Bishop's High-Resolution (DX) Surface Solar irradiance (Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, 2000) http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds741.1/
<u>k₄₉₀</u>	m ⁻¹	Annual	1/12°	—	✓	✓	-	-	OceanColor (2013) http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/
Ω _a UVic	—	Decadal	3.6°×1.8°	—	-	✓	-	✓	University of Victoria's Earth System mate Model (Weaver et al., 2001; Schmittner et al., 2009; Turley et al., 2010)

SST – sea surface temperature; WOA – World Ocean Atlas; GEBCO – general bathymetric chart of the Oceans; BODC – British Oceanographic Data Centre; PAR – surface photosynthetically available radiation; k₄₉₀ – 490nm light attenuation coefficient; Ω_a – aragonite saturation.

Table 3 Details of studies used for evaluating model calcification rates; observed coral calcification rates (G_{coral}) derived from annual density banding in coral cores; ‘—’ indicates fields that were not reported. Full data, including values of G_{coral} , are supplied in online supplementary material. Studies are listed alphabetically by their ID.

ID Source	Sea/Region	Genus	No. Sites	Period Observed	Latitude °N	Longitude °E
Ca Carricart-Ganivet and Merino (2001)	Gulf of Mexico	Montastrea	6	1968 – 1991	19.08 to 22.53	264.15 to 270.35
Ch Chen et al. (2011)	South China Sea	Porites	1	—	22.45	114.69
Co Cooper et al. (2012) ^a	Western Australia	Porites	6	1900 – 2010	-28.47 to -17.27	113.77 to 119.37
De De'ath et al. (2009) ^a	GBR	Porites	69	1900 – 2005	-23.55 to -9.58	142.17 to 152.75
Ed Edinger et al. (2000)	Java Sea	Porites	5	1986 – 1996	-6.58 to -5.82	110.38 to 110.71
Fa Fabricius et al. (2011)	Papua New Guinea	Porites	3	—	-9.83 to -9.74	150.82 to 150.88
Gr Grigg (1982)	Hawaii	Porites	14	—	19.50 to 28.39	181.70 to 204.05
He Heiss (1995)	Gulf of Aqaba	Porites	1	—	29.26	34.94
Po Poulsen et al. (2006)	Arabian Gulf	Porites	4	1968 – 2002	27.20 to 28.35	48.90 to 49.96
Sc Scoffin et al. (1992)	Thailand	Porites	11	1984 – 1986	7.61 to 8.67	97.65 to 98.78
Sh Shi et al. (2012)	South China Sea	Porites	1	1710 – 2012	9.90	115.54

^a Data were sourced from the Australian Institute of Marine Science (AIMS): AIMS (2014a) provides access to ‘De’ data and AIMS (2014b) provides access to ‘Co’ data. De data were used in the formulation of LOUGH (Lough, 2008) but subsequently published following further study (De’ath et al., 2009).

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Table 4 Details of studies used for evaluating model calcification rates; observed calcification rates are for the reef community (G_{reef}) and are derived from census-based methods or alkalinity reduction experiments (ΔTA); ‘—’ indicates fields that were not reported. Studies are listed alphabetically by their ID.

Measurement Method	ID	Source	Region	Genus or Groups	$G_{\text{reef}} \pm \text{SD}$	Cover $\pm \text{SD}$ (%)		No. Sites	Period Observed	Latitude Longitude	
					($\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)	Coral	CCA			$^{\circ}\text{N}$	$^{\circ}\text{E}$
CENSUS-BASED	Ea	Eakin (1996)	Panama	Pocillopora & CCA	0.37 ± 0.08	30 ± 30	$63 \pm 32^{\dagger}$ $\pm 32^{\text{a}}$	—	1986 – 1995	7.82	278.24
	Gl	Glynn et al. (1979)	Galapagos	Pocillopora & CCA *CCA ^b	0.58	26–43		2	1975 – 1976	-1.22	269.56
	Hy	Harney and Fletcher (2003)	Hawaii	Porites, Montipora & CCA	0.12 ± 0.04	32 ± 27	44 ± 29	60	—	21.41	202.27
	Ht	Hart and Kench (2007)	Torres Strait	Corals, CCA, Halimeda, foraminifera, molluscs	0.17 ± 0.18	43	47	—	—	-10.21	142.82
	Hu	Hubbard et al. (1990)	St Croix	Montastrea, Agaricia, Porites & CCA *CCA ^b	0.12	16	59	4	—	17.78	295.19
	La	Land (1979)	Jamaica	Acropora, Montastrea, Agaricia & red/green algae ^{a, b}	0.52	30 ± 16	—	—	—	18.55	282.60
	P1		Bonaire		0.54 ± 0.54	19 ± 12	—	30		12.09	291.79
	P2	Perry et al. (2013)	Belize	Montastrea, Agaricia, Diploria, Millepora & CCA	0.30 ± 0.21	16 ± 7	—	36	2010 – 2012	16.66	272.00
	P3		Grand Cayman		0.30 ± 0.20	12 ± 6	—	26		19.30	278.92
	P4		Bahamas		0.16 ± 0.05	7 ± 3	—	9		25.41	283.28
ΔTA	St	Stearn et al. (1977)	Barbados	7 coral genera & CCA	0.90	37 ± 22	41 ± 14	6	1969–1974	13.20	300.36
	Al	Albright et	GBR	NEC	$0.48 \pm$	9 ± 2	$8.5 \pm$	1	Aug &	-18.33	147.65

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		al. (2013)			± 0.48	± 3.5		Dec 2012		
G1	Gattuso et al. (1993)	French Polynesia	NEC	0.09	$16^{+16^c}_{(1-31)}$	—	2	Nov & Dec 1991	-17.48	210.00
G2	Gattuso et al. (1996)	French Polynesia	NEC	0.68	16^{+16^d}	4-21	2	July & Aug 1992	-17.48	210.00
		GBR	NEC	0.92	30	—	2	Dec 1993	-14.58	145.62
G3	Gattuso et al. (1997)	French Polynesia	NEC	$0.003 \pm \pm 0.002$	~ 1	~ 3	1	Jul 1992	-17.48	210.00
Ka	Kayanne et al. (1995)	Japan	NEC	0.37	19^{+19^e}	$< 4^{+1^e}$	1	Mar 1993 & 1994	24.37	124.25
La	Lantz et al. (2014)	Hawaii	NEC	$0.60 \pm \pm 0.15$	14	5	2	Apr 2010 – May 2011	21.38	202.26
Na	Nakamura and Nakamori (2009)	Japan	NEC	$0.16 \pm \pm 0.27$	$20 \pm \pm 19$	—	10	Aug 2004, Jun–Aug 2006 & Jul/Aug 2007	24.37	124.25
Oh	Ohde and van Woesik (1999)	Japan	NEC	0.79	22	2	2	Oct 1993 – Oct 1995	26.17	127.50
Sh	Shamberger et al. (2011)	Hawaii	NEC	$0.72 \pm \pm 0.36$	30	—	2	Jun 2008, Aug 2009 & Jan/Feb 2010	21.47	202.19
Si	Silverman et al. (2007)	Gulf of Aqaba	NEC	$0.18 \pm \pm 0.09$	$35^{+35^c}_{(30-40)}$	—	4	2000 – 2002	29.51	34.92
Sm	Smith and Harrison (1977)	Marshall Islands	Acropora, Montipora & CCA	$0.44 \pm \pm 0.66$	$14 \pm \pm 10$	$58 \pm \pm 30$	—	—	11.45	162.37
SP	Smith and Pesret (1974)	Line Islands	NEC	0.1	30	—	100	Jul/Aug 1972	4.00	201.00

1006 CCA – crustose coralline algae; NEC – net ecosystem calcification.

1007 ^{†a} The value for CCA cover is the average of the % framework reported by Eakin
1008 (1996) that is defined as the area of dead coral upon which CCA grows.

1009 ^{†b} Authors note that the underlying assumptions for calculating calcification by algae
1010 may be unrealistic but make best use of the available data at the time of the study.

1011 ^{†c} Median LCC values of the reported ranges were applied to model ~~output~~output for
1012 the regression analysis.

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1013 | ^{***d} The LCC range reported by Gattuso et al. (1993) was assumed to be the same as in
1014 | the subsequent study at Moorea (Gattuso et al., 1996).

1015 | ^{***e} Values reported in Suzuki et al. (1995) for study conducted in 1991 (Nakamori et
1016 | al., 1992) at the same location.

Table 5 Average regional and global reef calcification rates (G_{reef}) and global CaCO_3 budgets (G_{global}) and reef areas derived from the four model setups ($\leq 40\text{m } 40\text{ m}$) and Vecsei (2004). Model G_{reef} is calculated as the total CaCO_3 production multiplied by global average live coral cover (LCC) of 30 % (Hodgson and Liebeler, 2002) and 10 % seabed reefal area with the exception of ReefHab^{tr}ReefHab, which uses a function of seabed topographic relief to modify total CaCO_3 production to give G_{reef} . Global reef area is 10 % of the total area accounting for inter-reefal area.

Ocean Region	$G_{\text{reef}} \pm \text{SD } (\leq 40\text{m } 40\text{ m}; \text{ g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1})$				
	ReefHab ^{tr} ReefHab	Kleypas ^{tr} KAG	Lough ^{SS+L} LOU GH	Silverman ^{SS+L} S ILCCCE	Vecsei (2004)
Caribbean Sea	0.86 ± 0.32	0.61 ± 0.07	0.82 ± 0.09	0.23 ± 0.05	
North Atlantic Ocean	0.74 ± 0.40	0.44 ± 0.22	0.59 ± 0.21	0.17 ± 0.10	0.80 & 0.01 ± 0.01^a
South Atlantic Ocean	0.51 ± 0.35	0.40 ± 0.27	0.57 ± 0.25	0.16 ± 0.10	
Indian Ocean	0.65 ± 0.36	0.54 ± 0.17	0.82 ± 0.17	0.22 ± 0.08	0.36
North Pacific Ocean	0.67 ± 0.35	0.49 ± 0.22	0.70 ± 0.22	0.20 ± 0.11	
South Pacific Ocean	0.67 ± 0.30	0.61 ± 0.20	0.93 ± 0.21	0.29 ± 0.12	0.65
GBR	0.66 ± 0.31	0.67 ± 0.05	0.76 ± 0.04	0.25 ± 0.04	0.45
Global Metrics ($\leq 40\text{m } 40\text{ m}$)					
G_{global} (Pg yr ⁻¹)	1.40	3.06	4.32	1.10	0.65–0.83
Reef area ($\times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$)	195	592	567	500	303–345
$G_{\text{reef}} \pm \text{SD}$ ($\text{g cm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$)	0.65 ± 0.35	0.51 ± 0.21	0.72 ± 0.35	0.21 ± 0.11	0.09–0.27 ^a

^a Values of G_{reef} for Atlantic/Caribbean framework and biodetriral reef respectively.

Figures

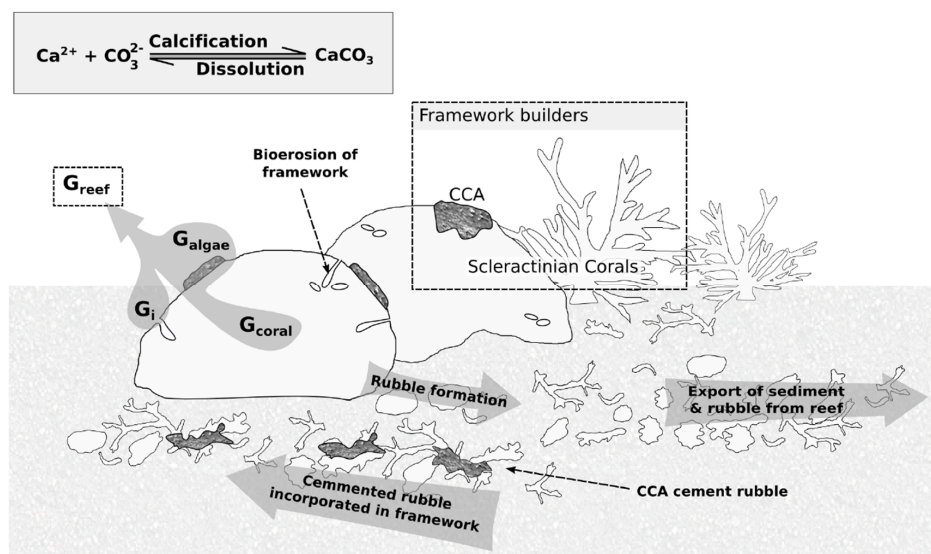
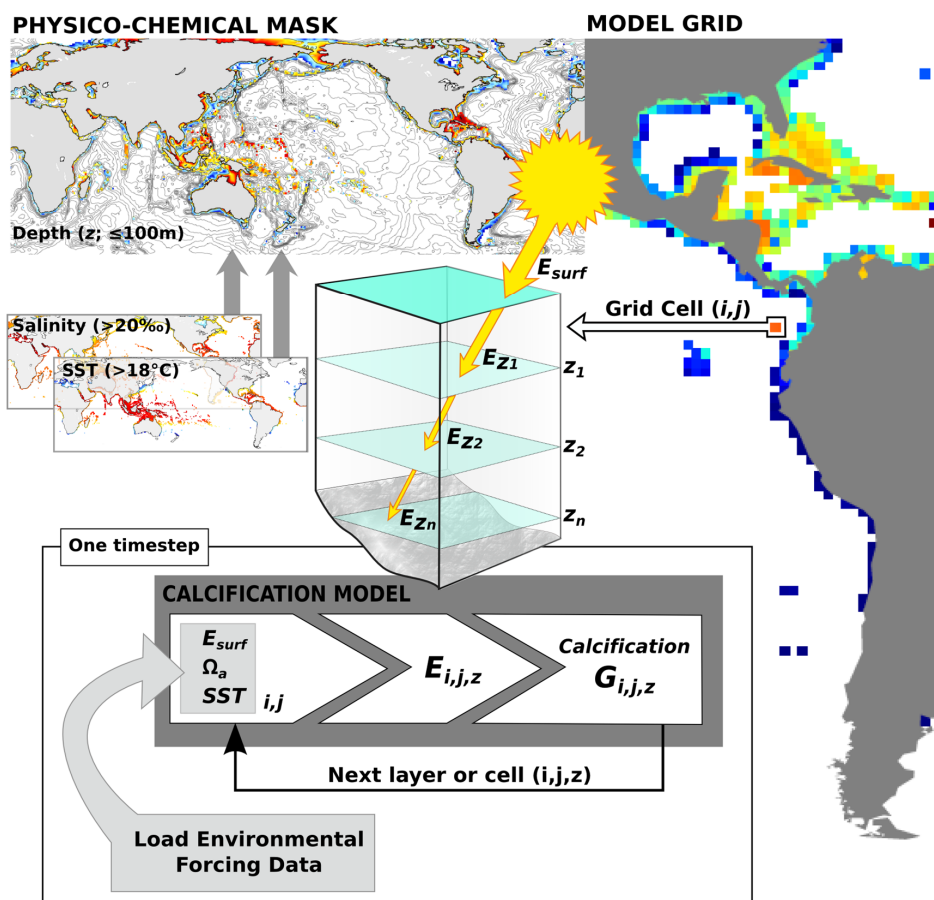


Fig. 1 Schematic illustrating the coral reef carbonate budget and the modeled parameters (G_{reef} and G_{coral}) used to quantify carbonate production. Carbonate framework is principally produced by scleractinian corals (G_{coral}) and crustose coralline algae (CCA; G_{algae}); the abiotic (inorganic) precipitation of carbonate cements (G_i) also occurs. Bioeroders breakdown the reef framework internally (e.g. worms, sponges) and externally (e.g. parrot fish, crown-of-thorns starfish). The rubble produced is incorporated back in to the framework, by cementation or burial, or exported from the reef. The observational data available to test models of carbonate budget include G_{coral} measured from coral cores, and G_{reef} calculated from a reef community census or the total alkalinity of surrounding seawater.



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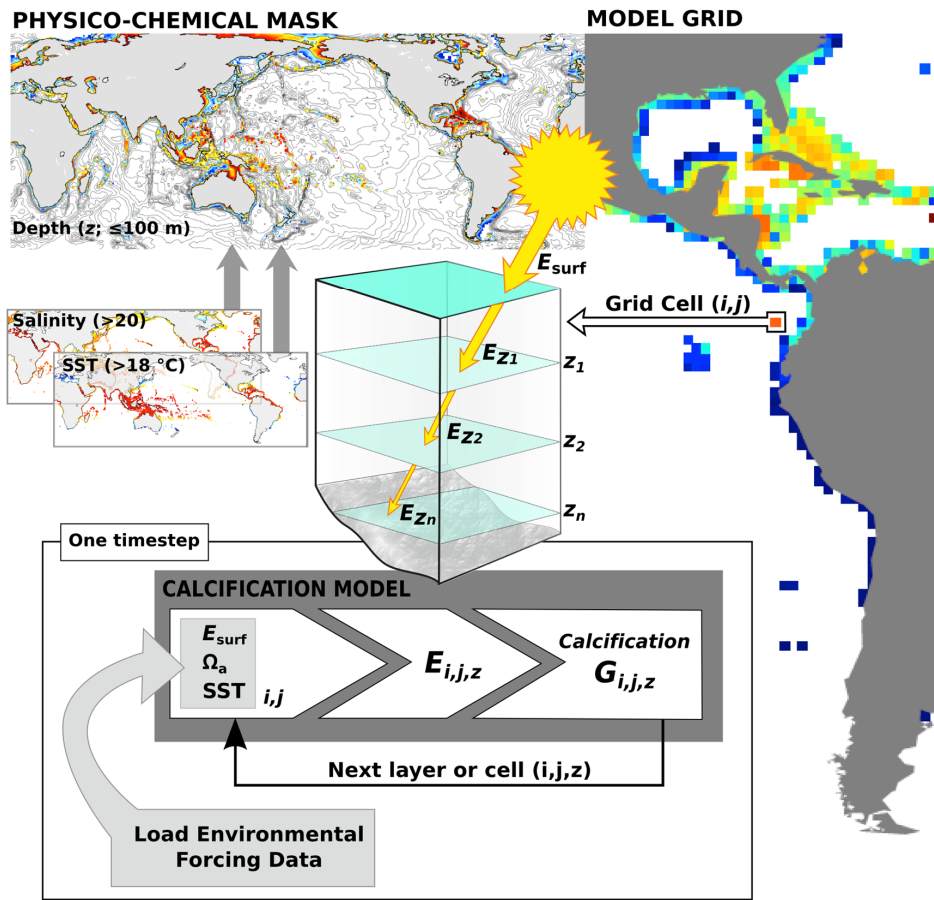
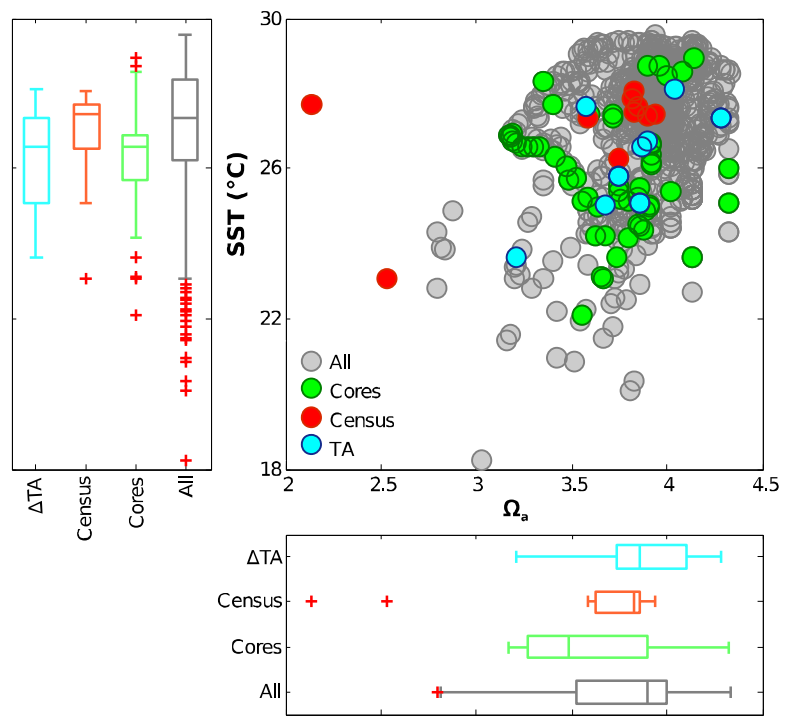


Fig. 2 Schematic of logical steps at each timestep within GRAM. GRAM's domain is defined by a bathymetric and physicochemical mask within which calcification is calculated, at each timestep and in every domain grid cell, according to the calcification model used. Where calcification is modeled as a function of light, the availability of light at depth (E_z) is calculated for each model layer (z_i).



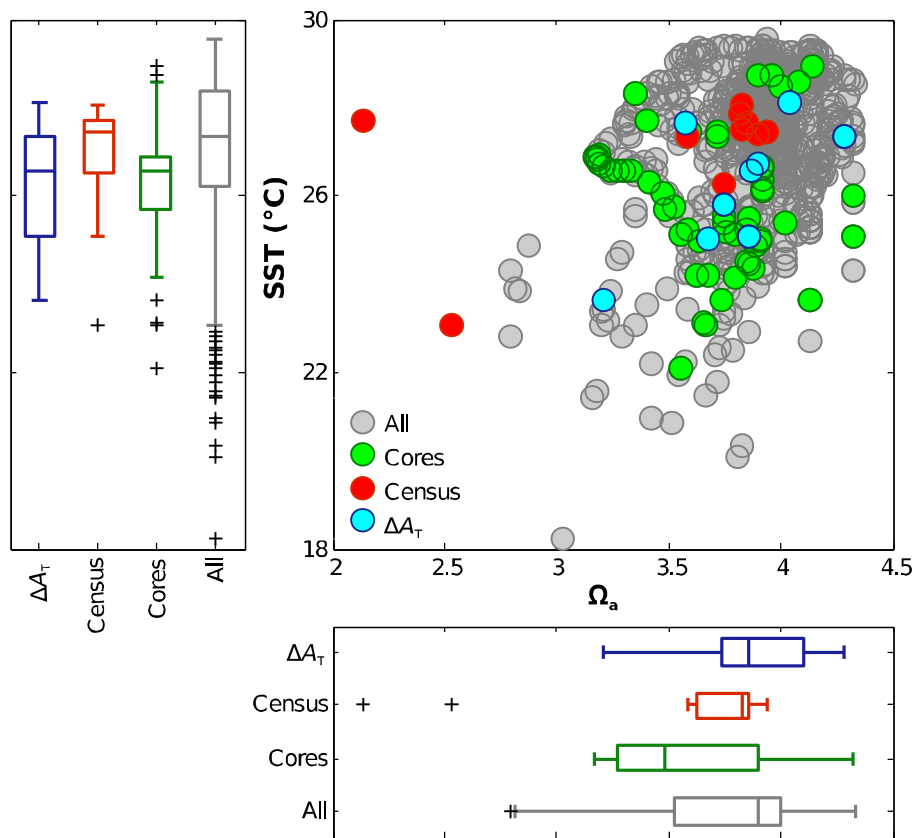
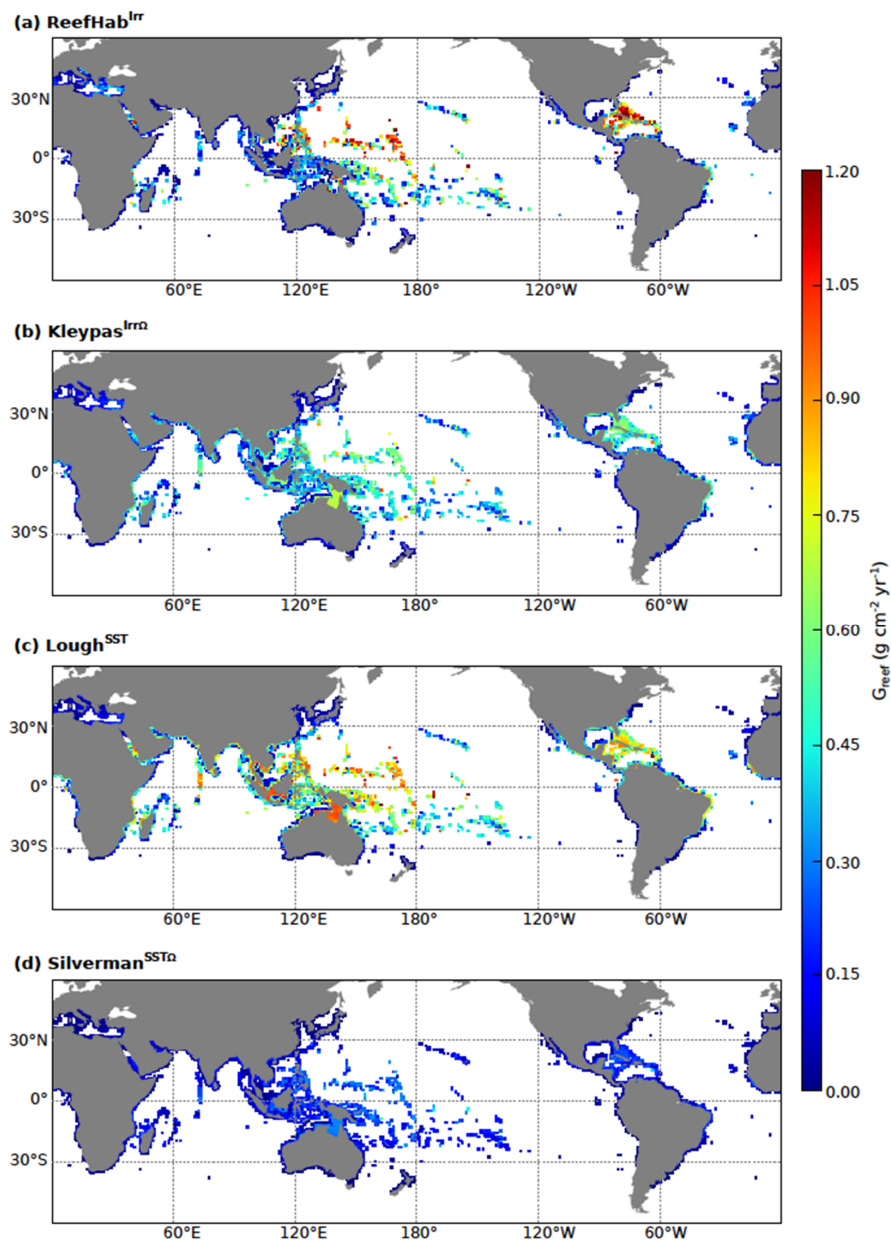


Fig. 3 Distribution of sea surface temperatures (SST) and aragonite saturation (Ω_a) at: (All) reef locations (ReefBase: A Global Information System for Coral Reefs. April, 2014. <http://www.reefbase.org>); (Cores) coral core data locations; (Census) census-based [study](#) and (ΔA_T) [alkalinity anomaly](#) study locations. SST values are taken from WOA 2009 annual average values (Locarnini et al., 2010) and Ω_a values are derived from UVic model (Weaver et al., 2001; Schmittner et al., 2009; Turley et al., 2010) output. The range, 25th and 75th percentiles, median lines and outliers of SST and Ω_a are displayed in the box and whisker plots.



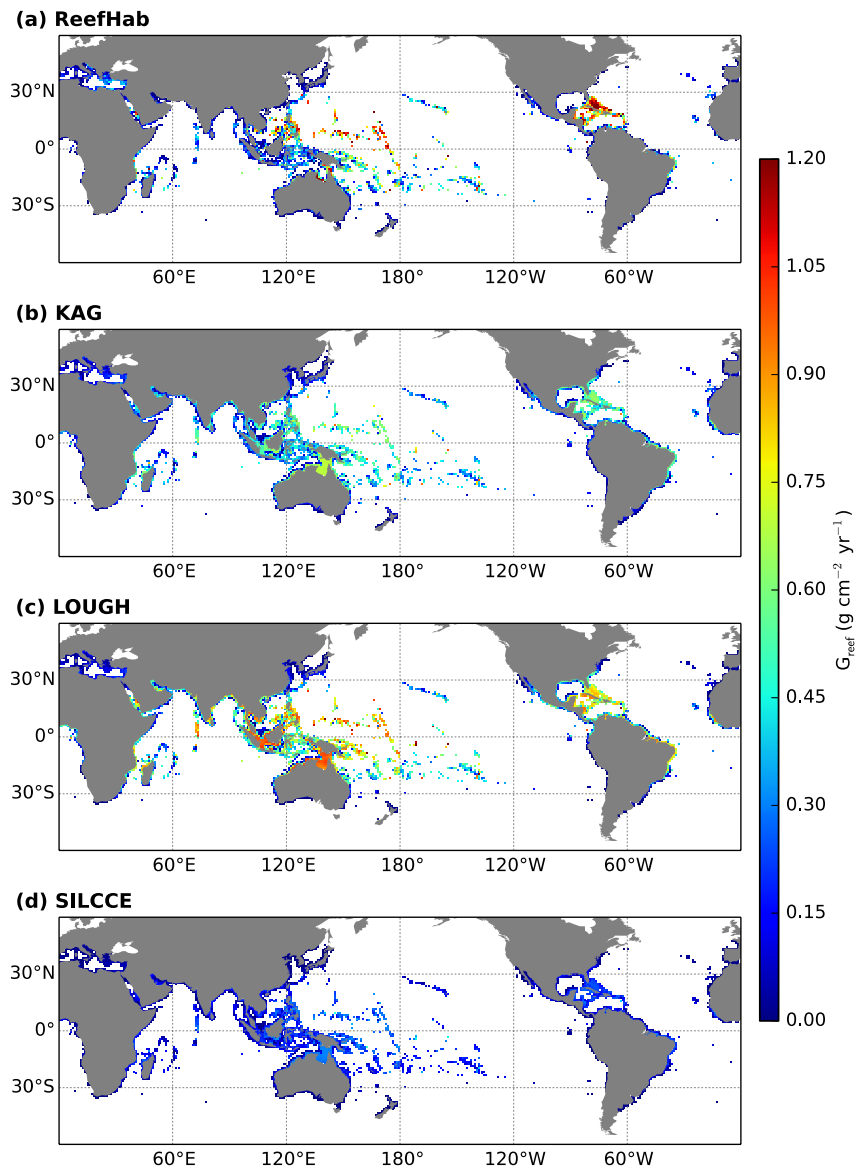
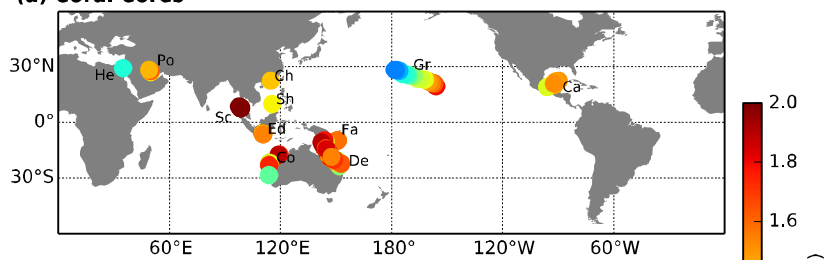
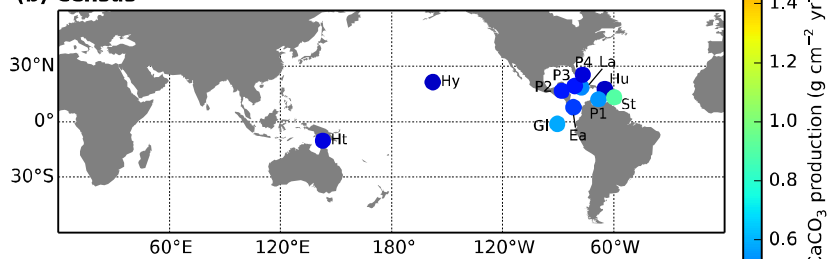


Fig. 4 Model outputs of reef carbonate production. Depth integrated (≤ 40 m) CaCO_3 production, with 30 % live coral cover (LCC) and 10 % seabed reefal area (G_{reef}) for: (a) [ReefHab^{4ff}](#) ReefHab, (b) [Kleypas^{4ff}](#) KAG, (c) [Lough^{SST}](#) LOUGH and (d) [Silverman^{SSTQ}](#) SILCCE. G_{reef} values displayed are aggregated from the model resolution (0.25°) to a 1° grid to facilitate visualization.

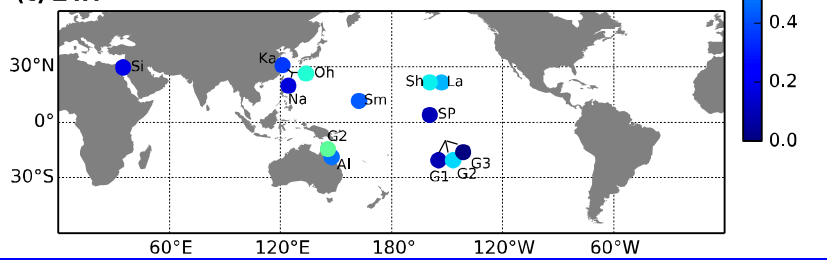
(a) Coral Cores



(b) Census



(c) ΔTA



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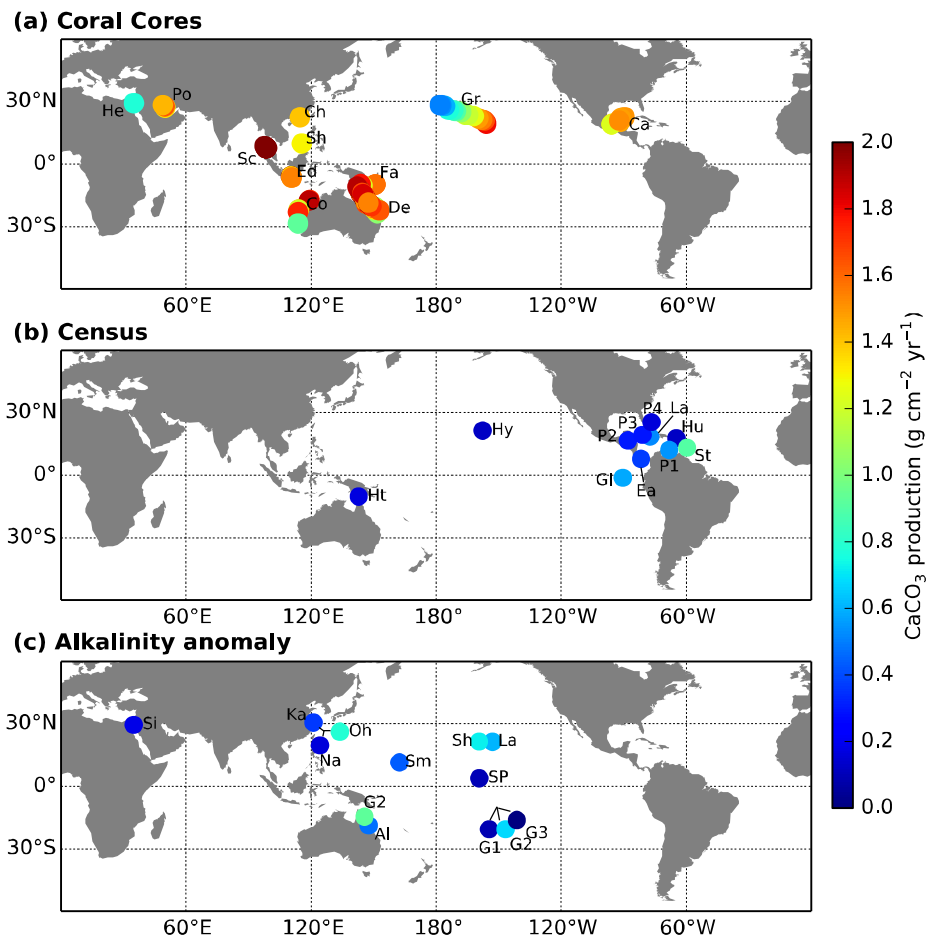
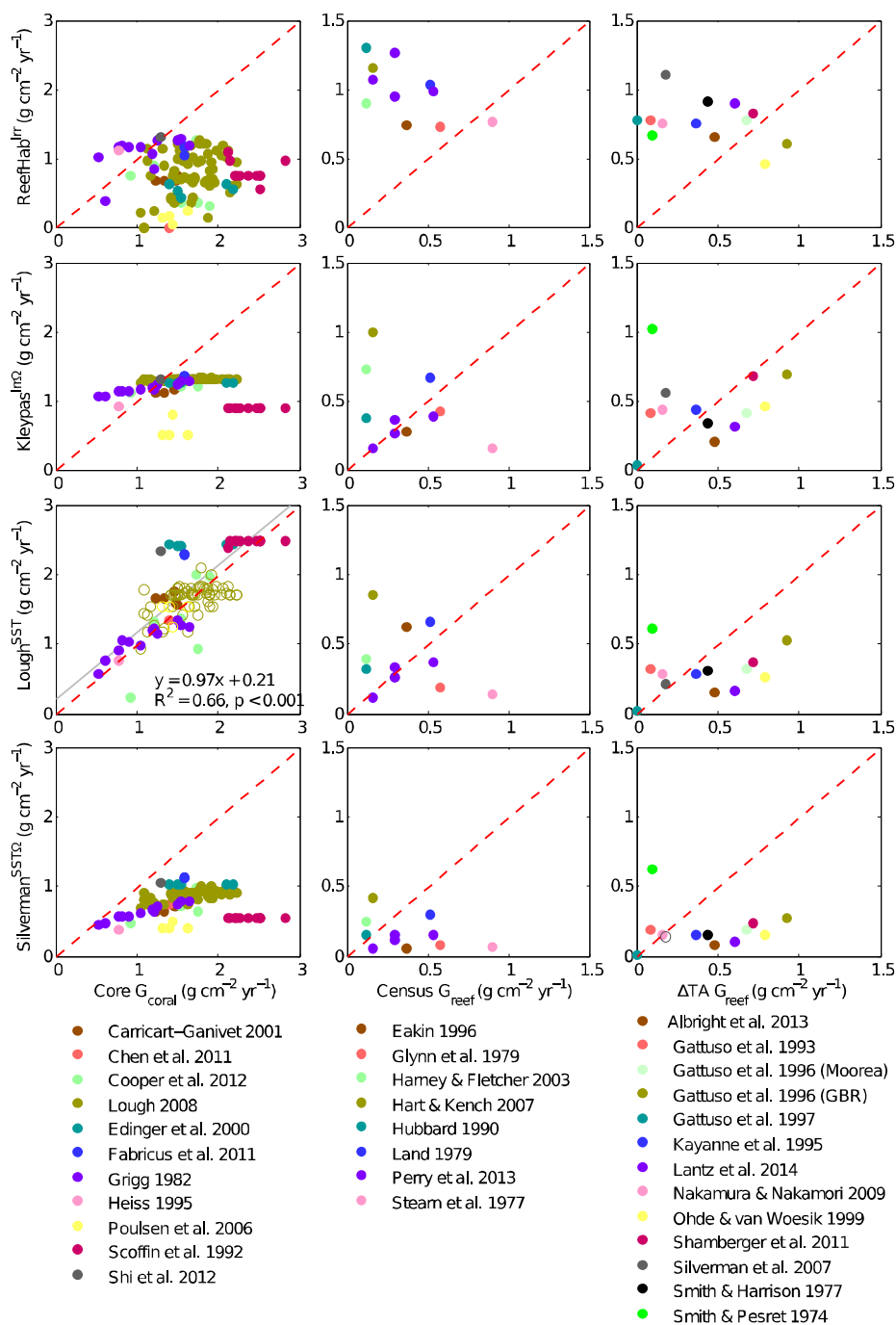


Fig. 5 Compilation of published reef carbonate production measurements. Location and magnitude of: (a) coral calcification (G_{coral}) observed in coral cores and, reef community calcification (G_{reef}) measured in (b) census-based and (c) [ATA alkalinity anomaly](#) studies (See Tables 4 and 5 for study ID keys).



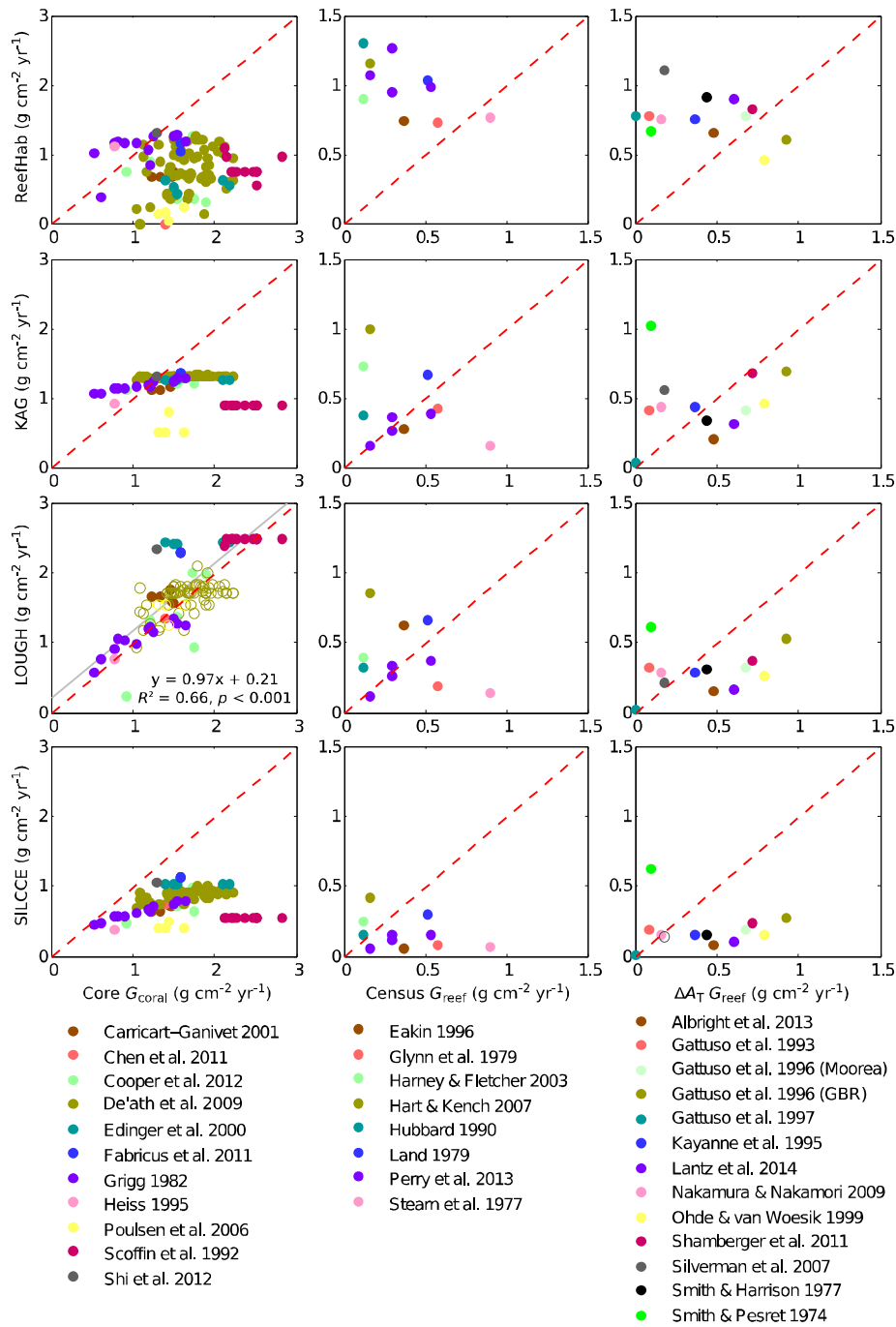
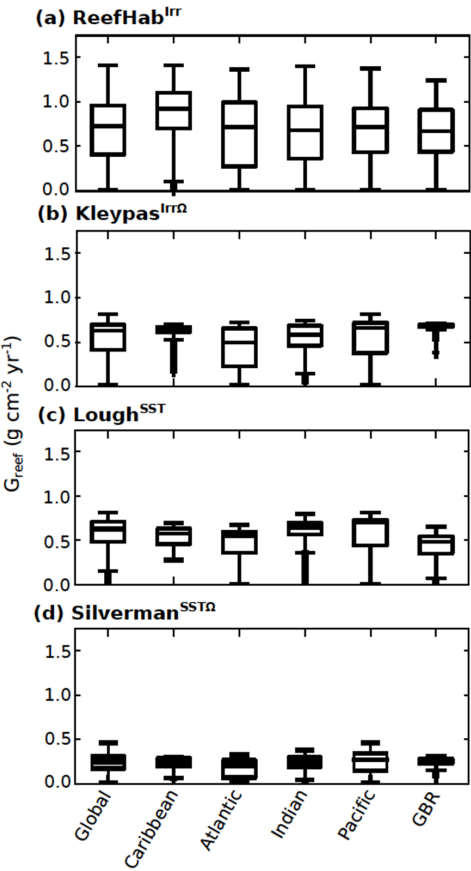


Fig. 6 Correlation of observed coral calcification (G_{coral}) and reef community calcification (G_{reef}) to model predictions [for coral core, census-based and alkalinity anomaly \(\$\Delta A_T\$ \) data](#) (1:1 relationship shown as red dashed line). All model estimates

1072 are multiplied by the live coral cover (LCC) reported in the observation studies to
1073 | give G_{reef} , except ~~ReefHab~~⁴[ReefHab](#) in which G_{reef} is calculated using a function of
1074 topographic relief (TF). The use of TF follows the method of Kleypas (1997); it was
1075 derived from empirical observation of reef growth and was a means to scale potential
1076 calcification (G_{coral}) to produce G_{reef} in the absence of global data for LCC. All
1077 significant linear regressions are plotted ($p < 0.05$; grey solid line) with equation and
1078 regression coefficient (R^2). Data used to develop a model are also plotted (open
1079 circles) but were excluded from the regression analysis to preserve data
1080 independence.



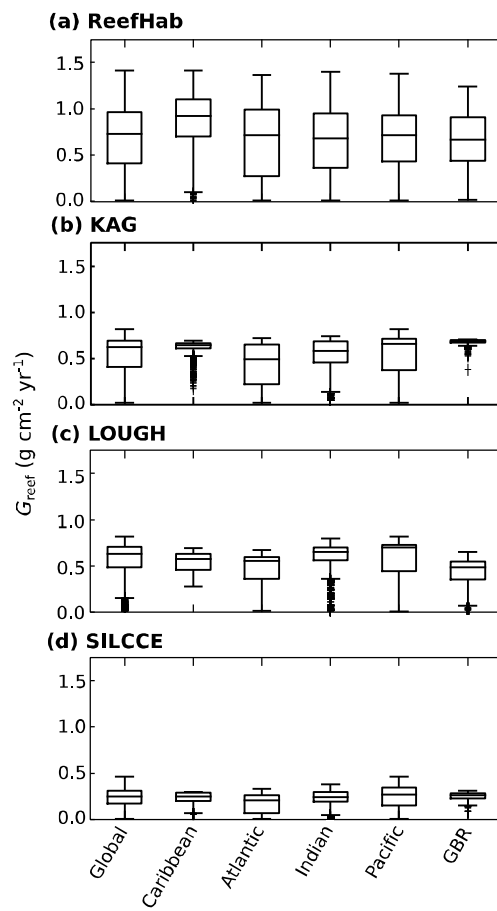


Fig. 7 Box and whisker plots of model estimates for global and regional CaCO_3 production. A live coral cover (LCC) of 30% is applied. Range (whiskers), 25th and 75th percentiles (boxes), median (red line), and data outliers (+) are plotted.