

1 The K_D Sr/Ca in cultured massive *Porites* spp. corals are reduced at low seawater pCO₂

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12 13 **Abstract**

14 Coral skeletal Sr/Ca has valuable potential as a proxy of sea surface temperatures (SSTs). However
15 seawater pCO₂ can influence skeletal Sr incorporation and Sr/Ca-SST calibrations derived from present
16 day corals may not be applicable to ancient specimens or older sections of modern corals deposited
17 under lower seawater pCO₂ than the present day. In this study we analysed skeletal Sr/Ca in multiple
18 genotypes of massive *Porites* spp. cultured over a range of seawater pCO₂ (from 180 to 750 µatm) and
19 temperature (25°C and 28°C). Multiple linear regression analysis indicates that the Sr/Ca aragonite
20 partition coefficient, K_D Sr/Ca is inversely related to seawater temperature and positively related to
21 seawater pCO₂ (equivalent to changes in skeletal Sr/Ca of 0.046 mmol mol⁻¹ °C⁻¹ and
22 0.0002 mmol mol⁻¹ µatm⁻¹ respectively). Applying present day Sr/Ca-SST equations to older coral
23 skeletons growing at lower pCO₂ could underestimate seawater temperatures. However K_D Sr/Ca vary
24 significantly between some coral genotypes cultured at the same seawater pCO₂ indicating that other
25 unidentified processes also influence skeletal Sr/Ca and it is unknown how these processes varied when
26 ancient corals were deposited. We do not observe a significant relationship between K_D Sr/Ca and coral
27 calcification rate after combining all coral genotypes to allow identification of the correct K_D Sr/Ca to
28 apply to coral records.
29

30 **1. Introduction**

31 The skeletal Sr/Ca of massive *Porites* spp. corals is a widely used proxy for sea surface temperatures,
32 SST (D'Olivo et al., 2018). Massive *Porites* spp. are widespread in tropical and sub-tropical Indo
33 Pacific reefs (Veron 1993) and produce aragonite skeletons which are well preserved in modern and
34 ancient environments (Montaggioni and Braithwaite, 2009). Coral skeletons accrete rapidly and high
35 temporal resolution (sub annual) Sr/Ca-SST records can indicate the frequency and magnitude of
36 climate events e.g. El Nino Southern Oscillation (Gagan et al., 2004), Pacific Decadal Variability
37 (Calvo et al., 2007) and interdecadal change (Kawakubo et al., 2017). Most coral records cover the
38 last 3-4 centuries (Kawakubo et al., 2017) but older specimens have also been analysed e.g. 9.5 ka
39 (DeLong et al., 2010), 350 ka (Kilbourne et al., 2004).

40 Sr/Ca-SST calibrations are typically produced by linear regression of SST and skeletal Sr/Ca in
41 modern coral specimens, typically collected after 1980 e.g. (Beck et al. 1992). Recent work shows that
42 seawater pCO₂ can significantly affect coral skeletal Sr/Ca (Cole et al., 2016; Tanaka et al., 2015)
43 although this effect is not observed in all corals (Cole et al., 2016; Kuffner et al., 2012). Atmospheric
44 CO₂ oscillated from ~ 180 ppm during glacial periods to 260-280 ppm during the interglacials (Luthi et
45 al., 2008) from the middle Pleistocene (~800 ka) to the pre-industrial (~1760). Thereafter atmospheric
46 CO₂ increased and currently exceeds 400 ppm (IPCC, 2019). Applying Sr/Ca-SST calibrations derived
47 from present day corals to skeletons that were deposited under lower seawater pCO₂ may produce
48 inaccurate SST estimates. This could explain why Sr/Ca based seawater temperatures derived from
49 glacial-age coral skeletons can be significantly cooler than from other marine carbonate proxies see
50 (Gagan et al., 2012).

51 Seawater pCO₂ may influence skeletal Sr/Ca by directly affecting Sr incorporation in aragonite at the
52 site of crystallisation or by altering biological processes in the overlying coral tissues that subsequently
53 affect skeletal Sr/Ca. Coral skeleton formation is presumed to occur from an extracellular calcifying
54 medium (ECM) that is semi-isolated from seawater between the base of the coral tissues and the
55 underlying skeleton (Allemand et al., 2011). The Sr/Ca of this ECM (Sr/Ca_{ECM}) reflects the relative
56 transport rates of Ca²⁺ and Sr²⁺ across the coral tissue (Allison et al., 2011) and the proportion of the
57 ECM reservoir used for calcification i.e. Rayleigh fractionation (Elderfield et al., 1996). Furthermore
58 aragonite precipitation rate influences Sr/Ca incorporation in synthetic aragonites (Alkhatib and
59 Eisenhauer, 2017). Coral skeletal Sr/Ca can vary significantly between individual corals (equivalent to
60 errors in estimated SST of up to several °C, Alpert et al. 2016, Kuffner et al., 2017). Skeletal Sr/Ca has
61 been inversely correlated with skeletal growth rate measured as skeletal linear extension (De Villiers et
62 al., 1994) and calcification rate (Ferrier-Pages et al., 2002; Kuffner et al., 2012), which is consistent with
63 Rayleigh fractionation and/or mineral precipitation rate exerting significant control. However these
64 relationships are not observed in all corals indicating that our understanding of the processes involved
65 is incomplete (Cole et al., 2016; Hayashi et al., 2013).

66 We have previously cultured massive *Porites* spp. corals over a range of seawater pCO₂ and at two
67 temperatures (Cole et al., 2018). Here we present Sr/Ca analyses of these coral skeletons to explore
68 the impact of seawater pCO₂ on skeletal Sr/Ca. Individual corals can exhibit varying responses to
69 environmental change (Cole et al., 2016; Tanaka et al., 2015) so we imported large heads from
70 several spatially separate *Porites* spp. colonies (assumed to be different genotypes), splitting each
71 head into multiple pieces to determine the response of each genotype to variations in seawater pCO₂
72 and temperature.

73

74 **2. Methods**

75 **2.1 Culture System**

76 Multiple heads of massive *Porites* spp. were collected from Fiji, imported into the UK and cultured at
77 two temperatures (25 and 28°C) and at seawater pCO₂ of ~180, 260, 400 and 750 µatm (simulating
78 conditions in the Last Glacial Maximum, the pre-industrial age, the present day and a potential future
79 CO₂ scenario, Barry et al., 2011). Coral heads were assumed to represent different genotypes when

80 they were collected from spatially separate (non-adjointing) colonies. Heads were sawn into multiple
81 pieces (each ~12 cm in diameter) so that at least one piece of each genotype was cultured in each
82 seawater pCO₂ treatment. Corals were identified to represent two species (*P. lutea* and *P. murrayensis*)
83 based on corallite morphology (Veron, 1993) and genotypes exhibited a wide range of calcification rates
84 over all the pCO₂ conditions (2-38 μmol CaCO₃ cm⁻² day⁻¹, Cole et al., 2018).

85 Full details on the experimental set-up are included in Cole et al., 2018 (as experiment 2). In brief, corals
86 were housed in a large-volume purpose-built aquarium system constructed of low CO₂ permeability
87 materials (Cole et al., 2016), filled with a mixture of natural and artificial seawater and bubbled with
88 different CO₂ atmospheres (Cole et al., 2018). The same coral colonies were cultured at both 25°C and
89 28°C for temporally separate periods to explore the effect of temperature. After import, corals were
90 maintained at ambient seawater pCO₂ conditions for 2 months, then adjusted to 28°C and altered pCO₂
91 conditions over a period of 1 month, and then acclimated at the final seawater pCO₂ treatment conditions
92 for a further 4 months. Skeletal material accreted over a further 5 weeks was identified by incubating
93 corals in 10 mg l⁻¹ alizarin red for 8 hours at the start and end of this 'experimental period' to create two
94 stain lines in the skeleton. Following this, temperature was adjusted to 25°C (with no changes to pCO₂)
95 over a period of 1 month for the second study period. Corals were maintained at these conditions for a
96 further 1 month before incubating with alizarin red, as before, to create a third stain line in the skeleton
97 to identify skeletal material deposited in the subsequent 5 weeks at 25°C (Figure 1a). At the end of this
98 second experimental period the corals were sacrificed and the tissue removed by submerging the
99 colonies in 3-4% sodium hypochlorite for ≥24 h with intermittent agitation. This treatment is effective at
100 removing organic contamination without dissolution of the skeletal structure (Clode and Marshall, 2003).

101 Seawater nutrients, [NO₃⁻+NO₂⁻] and [PO₄⁻], fell to low levels (Table 1) in the first week of the 5 week
102 experimental period in the 400 μatm pCO₂ treatment at 28°C and the polyps of these corals appeared
103 retracted. The seawater in this reservoir was discarded and replaced with seawater sourced from the
104 remaining 3 reservoirs bubbled to bring it to seawater pCO₂ of 400 μatm before use. The geochemistry
105 of these specimens was only analysed in the skeleton deposited at 25°C. Nutrient levels in the other
106 coral treatments were comparable to natural reef sites (Szmant 2002) and did not vary significantly
107 between treatments.

108

109 **2.2 Monitoring Seawater Composition**

110 Details of seawater temperature, salinity, dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) parameters (Cole et al.,
111 2018), dissolved nutrients and seawater [Ca²⁺] and Sr/Ca are summarised in Table 1. Seawater samples
112 were collected weekly during the experimental period for Sr and Ca analysis by quadrupole ICP-MS
113 (Thermo Scientific X Series) at the National Oceanography Centre, Southampton. Samples were diluted
114 1000-fold in 5% HNO₃ (with 5 ppb In as an internal standard) and calibrated against matrix-matched
115 synthetic standards prepared from 1000 μg ml⁻¹ single-element stock solutions (Inorganic Ventures) in
116 5% HNO₃. Seawater Sr/Ca was normalised to IAPSO standard seawater (Sr/Ca = 8.77 mmol mol⁻¹).
117 Replicate analyses of this standard (n = 4) yield a Sr/Ca standard deviation of ±0.18% (1σ). Dissolved
118 nutrients were measured in filtered samples from each reservoir using a flow cell spectrophotometer
119 (Lachat 8000) at the Scottish Association of Marine Science, UK.

120 **Table 1.** Physical and chemical characteristics of the seawater and coral skeletons in each treatment,
 121 measured over the 5-week experimental period. Seawater values are mean \pm standard deviation (1σ).
 122 Skeletal Sr/Ca is mean \pm 95% confidence limits (number of analyses, n, in parentheses). na = not
 123 analysed. Seawater pH (total scale) is estimated from measured dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and
 124 pCO₂ measurements using CO₂sys MATLAB (version 1.1), equilibrium constants for carbonic acid from
 125 (Mehrback et al., 1973), refit by (Dickson and Millero, 1987) and for KHSO₄ from (Dickson, 1990).
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	Seawater pCO ₂			
	180 μ atm	260 μ atm	400 μ atm	750 μ atm
25°C experiment				
Temperature (°C)	25.0 \pm 0.10	25.0 \pm 0.16	25.2 \pm 0.25	25.0 \pm 0.21
Salinity	35.1 \pm 0.1	35.2 \pm 0.0	35.1 \pm 0.1	35.1 \pm 0.0
Estimated seawater pH	8.32	8.20	8.04	7.81
Seawater pCO ₂ μ atm	178 \pm 2	260 \pm 3	405 \pm 6	751 \pm 9
Seawater [DIC] μ mol kg ⁻¹	1862 \pm 7	1947 \pm 17	2025 \pm 30	2129 \pm 20
Estimated $\Omega_{\text{aragonite}}$	5.49	4.51	3.44	2.21
Seawater nutrients				
NH ₄ ⁺ μ M	0.54 \pm 0.00	0.57 \pm 0.05	0.12 \pm 0.18	0.44 \pm 0.22
PO ₄ ³⁻ μ M	0.05 \pm 0.04	0.02 \pm 0.03	0.05 \pm 0.02	0.02 \pm 0.02
Si(OH) ₄ μ M	2.74 \pm 1.65	0.97 \pm 0.31	2.44 \pm 0.25	1.15 \pm 0.46
NO ₃ ⁻ +NO ₂ ⁻ μ M	2.59 \pm 0.06	1.54 \pm 0.31	2.32 \pm 0.34	1.38 \pm 0.09
Seawater Sr/Ca	12.38 \pm 0.02	12.41 \pm 0.03	12.40 \pm 0.00	12.43 \pm 0.02
[Ca ²⁺] mM	10.3 \pm 0.1	10.6 \pm 0.1	10.4 \pm 0.5	10.7 \pm 0.1
Mean skeleton Sr/Ca				
Genotype 4 (<i>P. murrayensis</i>)	12.31 \pm 0.11 (20)	12.64 \pm 0.09 (20)	12.37 \pm 0.16 (15)	12.61 \pm 0.09 (20)
Genotype 5 (<i>P. lutea</i>)	12.28 \pm 0.07 (21)	12.60 \pm 0.15 (24)	na	12.70 \pm 0.11 (21)
Genotype 6 (<i>P. murrayensis</i>)	12.53 \pm 0.08 (54)	12.67 \pm 0.09 (52)	12.64 \pm 0.48 (6)	12.93 \pm 0.09 (47)
Genotype 7 (<i>P. lutea</i>)	12.28 \pm 0.05 (48)	12.57 \pm 0.05 (59)	12.16 \pm 0.09 (21)	12.72 \pm 0.07 (53)
28°C experiment				
Temperature (°C)	28.0 \pm 0.09	28.0 \pm 0.18	28.0 \pm 0.22	28.0 \pm 0.09
Salinity	35.1 \pm 0.05	35.1 \pm 0.07	35.1 \pm 0.09	35.1 \pm 0.09
Estimated seawater pH	8.30	8.19	8.04	7.81
Seawater pCO ₂ μ atm	178 \pm 2	259 \pm 3	402 \pm 3	752 \pm 6
Seawater [DIC] μ mol kg ⁻¹	1757 \pm 39	1910 \pm 11	1999 \pm 14	2113 \pm 23
Estimated $\Omega_{\text{aragonite}}$	5.50	4.86	3.76	2.46
Seawater nutrients				
NH ₄ ⁺ μ M	0.14 \pm 0.03	0.08 \pm 0.02	0.07 \pm 0.07	0.11 \pm 0.09
PO ₄ ³⁻ μ M	0.01 \pm 0.02	0.01 \pm 0.02	0.00 \pm 0.03	0.02 \pm 0.03
Si(OH) ₄ μ M	2.59 \pm 1.39	2.48 \pm 2.64	1.60 \pm 0.81	0.91 \pm 0.66
NO ₃ ⁻ +NO ₂ ⁻ μ M	2.05 \pm 2.69	0.72 \pm 0.92	0.44 \pm 0.65	0.83 \pm 1.06
Seawater Sr/Ca	12.29 \pm 0.06	12.44 \pm 0.05	na	12.44 \pm 0.04
[Ca ²⁺] mM	10.1 \pm 0.1	10.7 \pm 0.0		10.7 \pm 0.0
Mean skeleton Sr/Ca				
Genotype 4 (<i>P. murrayensis</i>)	11.85 \pm 0.09 (21)	12.48 \pm 0.10 (22)	na	12.34 \pm 0.09 (25)
Genotype 5 (<i>P. lutea</i>)	11.97 \pm 0.08 (35)	12.42 \pm 0.13 (24)	na	12.36 \pm 0.12 (21)
Genotype 6 (<i>P. murrayensis</i>)	12.29 \pm 0.07 (55)	12.51 \pm 0.07 (50)	na	12.58 \pm 0.10 (55)
Genotype 7 (<i>P. lutea</i>)	12.00 \pm 0.04 (49)	12.41 \pm 0.04 (58)	na	12.40 \pm 0.06 (48)

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2.3 Coral sample processing and analysis

130 Cleaned skeletons were rinsed repeatedly in deionised water, sawn perpendicular to the growth surface
 131 to produce skeletal strips along the maximum growth axes, dried and fixed in 25 mm epoxy resin blocks
 132 (Epofix, Struers Ltd.). Blocks were polished using silicon carbide papers (up to 4000 grade, lubricated
 133 with water) and polishing alumina (0.05 μ m, suspended in water).

134 Polished, gold coated sections were analysed in the School of Geosciences at the University of
135 Edinburgh, UK by secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS). SIMS is a high spatial resolution technique
136 allowing us to confidently analyse skeleton deposited under different conditions. During calcification the
137 coral precipitates aragonite both at the skeleton surface (extending the skeletal trabecula units) and
138 further back in the skeleton (thickening the existing units). Reflecting this, Alizarin Red S stain is
139 incorporated at the tips of trabeculae and, further back in the skeleton, along their edges (Figure 1b).
140 Bulk analyses of drilled coral skeletons can combine aragonite deposited at the skeletal surface with
141 thickening deposits (which may be deposited up to weeks or months later), hampering the accurate
142 identification of palaeoproxy relationships (Gagan et al., 2012). For this study we focused the primary
143 SIMS beam to a diameter of ~25 μm and positioned it approximately midway between the centres of
144 calcification (occurring at the approximate centres of the trabeculae) and the edge of the trabeculae
145 (Figure 1c). Scanning electron micrographs indicate that trabecula are thickened to reach almost their
146 full width within a few days of deposition (Allison et al., 2010) and we are confident that our analyses
147 sample the aragonite deposited during the 28°C period without any contribution of material deposited at
148 25°C. K_D Sr/Ca did not vary significantly between duplicates of the same coral genotype in each pCO₂
149 treatment in our previous culturing work (Cole et al., 2016) so we analysed one individual of each clone
150 in this study. Multiple SIMS analyses were evenly spaced across the skeleton deposited in 2-5 different
151 corallites of each colony over each experimental period (Figure 1c) and numbers of analyses in each
152 individual are detailed in Table 1. Centres of calcification, which have subtly different Sr/Ca compared
153 to the fasciculi, appear as dark spots or lines in the section surface in reflected light (Allison et al., 2010)
154 and were not analysed in this study. These structures are frequently dissolved in ancient corals (Allison
155 et al., 2007).

156 SIMS data were collected in two sessions each of 7 days using a Cameca imf-4f ion microprobe (¹⁶O⁻
157 ion beam accelerated at 10.8 kV; primary beam current = 8 nA; energy offset = 75 eV, energy window
158 = ± 20 eV), and a Cameca 1270 ion microprobe (¹⁶O⁻ ion beam accelerated at 12 kV; primary beam
159 current = 8 nA; energy offset = 75 eV; energy window = ± 20 eV). Relative ion yields (RIYs) were
160 comparable between the 2 instruments and did not vary significantly within or between days unless
161 substantial refocusing of the primary beam was undertaken. We used a pre-analysis sputter of 1 minute
162 to remove surface contamination. Each analysis is the sum of ten cycles and, for each cycle, we
163 collected secondary singly-charged cations at masses ⁴⁴Ca (2 s) and ⁸⁸Sr (4 s). Count rates were
164 typically ~180,000 and ~80,000 counts per second (cps) respectively using the Cameca 4f and were
165 ~40% higher on the Cameca 1270. The total time per analysis (including other isotopes not reported
166 here) was 8 min and during this time the primary beam sputtered the sample to a depth of 2-3 μm
167 (Allison et al., 2013). We estimate no significant isobaric interference for any of the isotopes studied
168 (Allison et al., 1996). SIMS analyses were normalised to multiple analyses each day of a *Desmophyllum*
169 sp. coral aragonite standard, NaHaxby2 (Sr/Ca = ~2.87 mmol mol⁻¹). Internal reproducibility was
170 calculated from ten cycles of a single SIMS analysis ($2\sigma / \sqrt{10}$) and was ~0.2% for Sr/Ca. External
171 reproducibility (the precision of ~17 daily analyses on the standard, $2\sigma / \sqrt{n}$) was ~0.4%, or
172 0.011 mmol mol⁻¹, (2σ) for Sr/Ca.

173 The accuracy of our SIMS estimates is affected by uncertainty in the composition of the standard (e.g.
174 reflecting geochemical heterogeneity between grains used for SIMS and bulk characterisation). To

175 overcome this, skeletal Sr/Ca was also determined in bulk samples microdrilled from the outermost
176 sections (deposited at 25°C) of 3 coral heads of G7 cultured at 180, 260 and 750 μatm . These colonies
177 exhibited high calcification rates (Cole et al., 2018) and we were able to drill sufficient material for bulk
178 analyses. This was the final seawater temperature tested so all aragonite was deposited at 25°C
179 regardless of any skeletal thickening. The bulk samples were dissolved by submerging the powder in
180 18.2 M Ω -cm water (Milli-Q) and adding drops of 1M acetic acid with brief sonication until no bubbles
181 could be seen around the aragonite. Following centrifugation, the supernatants were transferred into
182 pre-cleaned Savillex™ vials and converted to NO₃⁻ form via concentrated HNO₃ refluxing. The Sr/Ca
183 analysis was carried out on an Agilent 7500ce ICP-MS at GEOMAR, Kiel. A known amount of dissolved
184 sample corresponding to 10 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ of Ca was taken for measurements using isotope dilution method
185 with simultaneous addition of known amounts of ⁴²Ca and ⁸⁴Sr isotope spikes. The well-characterised
186 JCp-1 coral was used as primary standard and analysed as unknowns to assess long-term
187 reproducibility of our results. The mean value of replicate analyses of JCp-1 during the course of this
188 study yield 8.86 mmol mol⁻¹ for Sr/Ca, which is within uncertainty of the mean of Sr/Ca among twenty
189 one different labs intercalibration (Hathorne et al., 2013). The long-term external reproducibility (1 σ) of
190 replicate analyses of JCp-1 during the course of this study was 0.24% or 0.021 mmol mol⁻¹ for Sr/Ca.
191 The mean SIMS Sr/Ca of the 2 fastest growing corals (cultured at 180 and 260 μatm) are 96.8 and
192 97.2% of the bulk values (Figure 2). For the third coral the mean SIMS Sr/Ca is 95.5% of the bulk
193 estimate. This coral grew the slowest and the bulk drilled powder had a pink colouration indicating that
194 some of the alizarin stain was sampled during drilling. Alizarin red suppresses coral calcification and
195 photosynthesis rates (Allison et al., 2011) and the Sr/Ca of the bulk sample of this skeleton may be
196 affected by this. We normalised all SIMS data to the mean of bulk analyses of the two fast growing
197 skeletons (i.e. by multiplying the data by 1.03).

198 To reduce the effect of calibration difference between and within SIMS sessions, analyses on the
199 skeleton deposited at 25 and 28°C in each coral were made on the same day and analyses comparing
200 genotypes were made within the same week. 3 corals were analysed in both SIMS sessions and skeletal
201 Sr/Ca estimates agree within 0.8% between sessions. Due to beamtime limitations the G5 coral head
202 cultured at 400 μatm at 25°C was not analysed.

203

204 **Results**

205 Skeletal and seawater Sr/Ca data are summarised in Table 1 (full details of individual SIMS analyses
206 are included in the supplementary data) and we use these data to estimate Sr/Ca partition coefficients
207 as $K_D \text{ Sr/Ca} = (\text{skeletal Sr/Ca})/(\text{seawater Sr/Ca})$ for each coral (Figure 3). These are best described as
208 apparent K_D as the Sr/Ca of the coral ECM used to build the skeleton is unknown. Genotypes are
209 numbered from 4 to 7 (abbreviated to G4, G5 etc) to facilitate comparison with the published calcification
210 data for the same corals (Cole et al., 2018). We compared the K_D between colonies of the same
211 genotype in different seawater pCO₂ and between different coral genotypes cultured in the same
212 seawater pCO₂ treatments (Table 2). Seawater pCO₂ affected Sr/Ca partitioning with K_D significantly
213 lower at 180 μatm than at 750 μatm in all genotypes at 25°C and in 3 of the 4 genotypes at 28°C (Table
214 2). Similarly $K_D \text{ Sr/Ca}$ at 180 μatm were significantly lower than at 260 μatm in 3 of the 4 genotypes at
215 both temperatures. Some significant variations in $K_D \text{ Sr/Ca}$ were observed between genotypes within a

216 pCO₂ treatment and temperature (Table 2). K_D G6 were significantly higher than for all other coral
 217 genotypes at both 25 and 28°C in 180 µatm and at 28°C in 750 µatm. K_D G6 was significantly higher
 218 than G4 at 25°C and 28°C in 750 µatm and K_D G4 was also lower than K_D G7 at 28°C in 180 µatm
 219 (Table 2). Temperature significantly affected Sr incorporation (paired 2 tailed t test comparing mean K_D
 220 Sr/Ca for each head at 25 and 28°C, p=0.000016) with K_D Sr/Ca higher at 25°C than at 28°C in all corals
 221 analysed. K_D Sr/Ca did not vary significantly between duplicate colonies of the same coral genotype in
 222 the same pCO₂ treatment in our previous culturing work (Cole et al., 2016) and we attribute differences
 223 in K_D Sr/Ca between coral colonies here to genotype or coral responses to seawater temperature/pCO₂.

224 To explore the origin of variations in skeletal Sr/Ca incorporation we plot linear regressions of K_D Sr/Ca
 225 as a function of seawater pCO₂ and coral calcification rate for each temperature. We produce these
 226 plots for individual coral genotypes (Figure 4) and for all corals combined (Figure 5), including specimens
 227 previously cultured at 180, 400 and 750 µatm and 25°C in a previous study in our laboratory (Cole et
 228 al., 2016). We observe inverse correlations (r²>0.5) between K_D Sr/Ca and seawater pCO₂ and
 229 calcification rate within most genotypes at 25°C but not at 28°C (Table 3) but these datasets are too
 230 small (n=3-4) for meaningful statistical analysis. In the combined datasets we observe weak significant
 231 positive correlations between K_D Sr/Ca and seawater pCO₂ at 25°C but other relationships are
 232 insignificant (Table 3). Finally, a multiple linear regression analysis indicates that a significant degree
 233 (p=0.00096) of variance in K_D Sr/Ca across the combined dataset is dependent on temperature and
 234 seawater pCO₂ but independent of calcification rate (Table 4).

235

236

237 **Table 2.** Summary of significant differences (p≤0.05) comparing K_D Sr/Ca between colonies of the same
 238 genotype in different seawater pCO₂ (µatm) and between different coral genotypes cultured in the same
 239 seawater pCO₂ treatments e.g. '400<260,750' shows that K_D Sr/Ca in the 400 µatm treatment was
 240 significantly lower than in both the 260 and 750 µatm treatments. Significant differences were identified
 241 by one way ANOVA followed by Tukey's pairwise comparisons. ns = not significant, nd= not determined.

Parameter	25°C	28°C
Comparing corals of the same genotype between seawater pCO ₂ treatments		
Genotype 4	400<260, 750 180<260, 750	180<260,750
Genotype 5	180<260, 750	180<260,750
Genotype 6	180<750	ns
Genotype 7	180<260,400,750 260<750 400<260	180<260,750
Comparing corals of different genotype in the same seawater pCO ₂ treatment		
Seawater pCO ₂ = 180 µatm	G4, G5, G7<G6	G4, G5, G7<G6 G4<G7
Seawater pCO ₂ = 260 µatm	ns	ns
Seawater pCO ₂ = 400 µatm	ns	nd
Seawater pCO ₂ = 750 µatm	G4<G6	G4,G5,G7<G6

242 **Table 3.** Coefficients of determination (r^2) and p values for linear regressions between coral K_D Sr/Ca
 243 and seawater pCO_2 and calcification rate (Cole et al., 2018) for individual coral genotypes and for the
 244 entire dataset combined with additional data for corals cultured at 25°C and seawater pCO_2 of ~180,
 245 400 and 750 μatm from Cole et al., 2016. $p < 0.05$ are highlighted in bold.
 246

Parameter	25°C		28°C	
	r^2	p	r^2	p
Seawater pCO_2				
Genotype 4	0.20	0.55	0.14	0.76
Genotype 5	0.62	0.42	0.20	0.71
Genotype 6	0.93	0.035	0.88	0.22
Genotype 7	0.37	0.43	0.35	0.60
Coral calcification rate				
Genotype 4	0.52	0.28	0.48	0.51
Genotype 5	0.74	0.34	0.31	0.62
Genotype 6	0.80	0.10	1.00	0.011
Genotype 7	0.00	0.99	0.09	0.81
Entire dataset combined with Cole et al., 2016				
Seawater pCO_2	0.20	0.022	0.15	0.22
Coral calcification rate	0.055	0.25	0.051	0.48

247

248 **Table 4.** Intercept, gradients and goodness of fit of a multiple linear regression model to predict
 249 skeletal K_D Sr/Ca from seawater temperature, pCO_2 and calcification rate. This analysis combined
 250 data from the present study with that of Cole et al., 2016 (normalised to the bulk skeletal Sr/Ca
 251 determination analysed here to enable direct comparison with the present study). The coefficient of
 252 determination of the model (r^2) = 0.38.

	Coefficients \pm standard error	P value
Intercept	1.14 \pm 0.043	4.22 x 10 ⁻²⁴
Seawater pCO_2	2.35 x 10 ⁻⁵ \pm 0.98 x 10 ⁻⁵	0.021
Temperature	-0.00533 \pm 0.0017	0.0032
Calcification	-0.00015 \pm 0.00026	0.57

253

254

255 Discussion

256 Both temperature and seawater pCO_2 significantly affect K_D Sr/Ca in this study (Table 4). Increasing
 257 seawater temperature is associated with a reduction in K_D Sr/Ca while seawater pCO_2 and K_D Sr/Ca are
 258 positively related. Similar increases in skeletal Sr/Ca have been reported in some corals cultured at high
 259 seawater pCO_2 compared to ambient (Tanaka et al., 2015; Cole et al., 2016) but not in others (Kuffner
 260 et al., 2012; Cole et al., 2016). Given these disparities it is likely that pCO_2 driven variations in K_D Sr/Ca
 261 are mediated by responses of coral biomineralisation to seawater pCO_2 rather than the direct influence
 262 of seawater DIC chemistry.

263

264

265 4.1 Palaeoenvironmental implications of changes in K_D Sr/Ca

266 Modern day seawater pCO_2 has increased dramatically in the last 200 years. Atmospheric CO_2
267 oscillated from $\sim 180 \mu atm$ during the ice ages to $\sim 260-280 \mu atm$ during the interglacials (Luthi et al.,
268 2008) from ~ 800 ky to the pre-industrial (~ 1760) but today atmospheric CO_2 exceeds $400 \mu atm$. Our
269 finding that coral K_D Sr/Ca is reduced at low seawater pCO_2 suggests that applying Sr/Ca-SST
270 calibrations derived from modern day corals (growing at relatively high seawater pCO_2) to both pre-
271 industrial specimens and older carbonate records in modern corals will result in overestimation of
272 seawater temperatures.

273 We temper this finding with our conclusion that skeletal Sr/Ca probably does not directly reflect seawater
274 pCO_2 but rather the response of the biomineralisation process to seawater pCO_2 . The calcification rates
275 of corals cultured at 180 and $260 \mu atm$ in our laboratory are usually higher than their clones cultured at
276 $400 \mu atm$ (Cole et al., 2018). However skeletal extension rates of corals which grew during periods of
277 lower atmospheric CO_2 can be lower than their modern day counterparts. For example, skeletal
278 extension of a 9.5 ky Tahiti *Porites* (growing under a CO_2 atmosphere of ~ 260 ppm) is about 75% that
279 of a modern day specimen from a nearby location (DeLong et al., 2010; Boiseau et al., 1998). Coral
280 calcification is affected by seawater temperature (Lough and Barnes 2000), light (Chalker, 1981) and
281 photosynthesis (Gattuso et al., 1999) as well as genotype (Cole et al., 2018) and changes in these
282 environmental parameters could also influence skeletal Sr/Ca (see section 4.2).

283 The regression analysis (Table 4) indicates that the influence of temperature on K_D Sr/Ca is $-0.0053 \text{ } ^\circ C^{-1}$,
284 equivalent to a change in skeletal Sr/Ca of $0.046 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1} \text{ } ^\circ C^{-1}$, assuming a reefwater Sr/Ca of
285 $8.541 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1}$ (de Villiers et al., 1994). This temperature dependence is similar to that reported in
286 some inorganic aragonites (Kinsman and Holland, 1969, Dietzel et al., 2004, but lower than that reported
287 in Gaetani and Cohen, 2006). The temperature sensitivity of skeletal Sr/Ca in massive *Porites* spp.
288 corals collected in modern reef environments is highly variable (from 0.041 to $0.082 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1}$, Corregge
289 2006). Skeletal thickening (the deposition of new aragonite onto existing trabeculae) can compromise
290 the identification of the exact skeletal Sr/Ca temperature dependence (Gagan et al., 2012) as sampling
291 can combine material deposited under varying temperatures. Gagan et al (2012) calculate a
292 temperature sensitivity of $0.084 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1} \text{ } ^\circ C^{-1}$ in *Porites* spp. after correcting for this thickening. This
293 is in good agreement with other estimates derived by comparing mean annual Sr/Ca and SST of multiple
294 *Porites* spp. from a broad range of localities and temperatures (0.089 and $0.081 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1} \text{ } ^\circ C^{-1}$
295 (DeLong et al., 2010; Murty et al., 2018) and from SIMS analysis (avoiding thickening deposits) of a
296 Hawaiian *P. lobata* ($0.080 \text{ mmol mol}^{-1} \text{ } ^\circ C^{-1}$, Allison and Finch, 2004). However these calibrations
297 encompass the effects of all seasonal influences, not just temperature, on skeletal Sr/Ca. Our
298 observation that coral Sr/Ca temperature sensitivity is comparable to that of inorganic aragonite in a
299 culture system suggests that seasonal changes besides temperature may also play an important role in
300 controlling skeletal Sr/Ca.

301 In our study K_D Sr/Ca were significantly lower at $180 \mu atm$ compared to $260 \mu atm$ in 3 of the 4 coral
302 genotypes at both temperatures. These data suggest that even the relatively minor changes in seawater
303 pCO_2 observed over glacial-interglacial cycles from 800 ky to ~ 1760 before present (Luthi et al., 2008)
304 may have influenced coral skeletal Sr/Ca. Our regression analysis (Table 4) indicates that the influence

305 of seawater pCO₂ on K_D Sr/Ca is 0.000024 μatm⁻¹, equivalent to a change in skeletal Sr/Ca of +0.020
306 mmol mol⁻¹ per 100 μatm CO₂ increase. This change in skeletal Sr/Ca is equivalent to 0.44°C per 100
307 μatm CO₂ increase using the Sr/Ca temperature dependence derived in this study and 0.33°C using
308 the mean Sr/Ca-SST *Porites* spp. calibration of Correge (2006). Atmospheric CO₂ varies by up to ~80
309 ppm between glacial and interglacial periods and oscillations of this magnitude would have a minimal
310 effect on coral derived seawater temperatures. No significant trend in skeletal Sr/Ca is observed in a
311 modern *Porites* sp. skeleton record spanning ~1880 to 1998 (Nurhati et al., 2011), although atmospheric
312 CO₂ increased by ~100 ppm over the duration of this record Luthi et al., 2008). This change in skeletal
313 Sr/Ca is equivalent to <0.25°C on the palaeothermometer equation used in the study (Nurhati et al.,
314 2011) and it is unlikely to be detected in the record. Atmospheric CO₂ changes between the present and
315 glacial periods are more significant (>200 ppm) and could lead to larger reconstructed seawater
316 temperature errors.

317 Given the variability between coral genotypes in this study and others (Cole et al., 2016), it is likely that
318 variations in K_D Sr/Ca between seawater pCO₂ treatments reflect responses of coral biomineralisation
319 rather than the direct influence of seawater DIC chemistry. During our study, corals were acclimated to
320 altered seawater pCO₂ over periods of months and it is not certain that their geochemistry responses
321 duplicate those of corals which grew naturally at low seawater pCO₂. We find no evidence that K_D Sr/Ca
322 are increased in corals at low seawater pCO₂, a potential explanation for the cold bias observed in some
323 older coral skeletons (reviewed in Gagan et al., 2012). The higher skeletal Sr/Ca observed in these older
324 specimens may indicate deposition of secondary cements in the coral skeleton (McGregor and Gagan,
325 2003), post-depositional re-equilibration processes, variations in the seawater Sr/Ca at the time of coral
326 deposition (Stoll and Schrag, 1998) or changes in coral physiological processes that influence skeletal
327 Sr/Ca e.g. rate of skeletogenesis.

328

329 **4.2 Origin of K_D Sr/Ca variations in coral aragonite**

330 Multiple observations indicate that coral skeletal Sr/Ca is affected by other factors besides seawater
331 temperature. Large variations in Sr/Ca-SST relationships are observed between modern *Porites* spp.
332 corals collected from the same reef location or cultured in the same laboratory (e.g. this study, Alpert et
333 al. 2016). Large ~monthly Sr/Ca cycles are resolved in coral skeletons by high resolution microanalysis
334 methods that are not related to seawater temperature (Meibom et al., 2003). Skeletal Sr/Ca is lower
335 than synthetic aragonites precipitated at comparable temperatures (Gaetani and Cohen, 2006) and in
336 symbiotic versus asymbiotic (non-algal bearing) polyps of the same coral species raised in the same
337 conditions (Inoue et al., 2018). We discuss three popular hypotheses that are invoked to explain Sr/Ca
338 variability in coral aragonite and consider how they relate to the data in this study.

339

340 **4.2.1 Variations in Sr/Ca_{ECM} dependent on Rayleigh fractionation**

341 Rayleigh fractionation occurs when a proportion of a fluid reservoir is utilised during CaCO₃ precipitation
342 (Elderfield et al., 1996) and the K_D of the element of interest does not equal 1. In the case of elements
343 (Me) with K_D Me/Ca > 1, the Me/Ca of the fluid decreases as precipitation proceeds and Me is

344 preferentially removed from the solution compared to Ca. Precipitation of a relatively large proportion of
345 the reservoir then produces a CaCO_3 with a lower bulk Me/Ca composition than when a smaller portion
346 of the reservoir is utilised. Estimates of K_D Sr/Ca at 25°C in inorganic aragonite precipitations range from
347 ~1.06 to 1.14 (AlKhatib and Eisenhauer, 2017; Gaetani and Cohen, 2006; Dietzel et al., 2004). These
348 K_D are higher than observed in coral (Giri et al., 2018; Cole et al., 2016; this study). K_D Sr/Ca for coral
349 aragonite should be viewed as apparent distribution coefficients, calculated by comparing skeletal and
350 seawater Sr/Ca. The coral aragonite forms from the ECM and the Sr/Ca of this fluid is unknown.

351 If we assume that the actual K_D Sr/Ca in coral aragonite are >1 i.e. describing partitioning between the
352 ECM and skeleton, as suggested in inorganic aragonite precipitations, then aragonite Sr/Ca will be high
353 when a small proportion of the reservoir is used for calcification and will decrease as more of the ions
354 in the ECM are utilised. Aragonite precipitation rates from seawater are largely controlled by $[\text{CO}_3^{2-}]$
355 (Burton and Walter, 1987), itself dependent on [DIC] and seawater pH. *Porites* spp. corals cultured at
356 high seawater pCO_2 typically have lower pH_{ECM} and reduced calcification rates (Allison et al, 2018a and
357 Cole et al., 2018 respectively), which are both suggestive of limited CaCO_3 precipitation. In this respect
358 our observation of higher K_D Sr/Ca in corals cultured at high seawater pCO_2 (Figures 4 and 5) supports
359 the Rayleigh fractionation hypothesis. Despite this we do not observe consistent inverse correlations
360 between calcification rate and K_D Sr/Ca (Figure 4) or identify calcification as a control on K_D Sr/Ca (Table
361 4). We note that calcification per se may not provide a good indication of the proportion of the ECM
362 reservoir used during calcification. As the skeletal aragonite crystals are deposited approximately
363 perpendicular to the maximum growth axis of the coral skeleton in *Porites* spp., variations in coral
364 calcification may reflect an increase in the surface area over which aragonite is deposited instead of the
365 extension rates of individual crystals. We also do not observe a significant relationship between K_D
366 Sr/Ca and the pH of the ECM (Figure 6a) in a suite of corals cultured over varying seawater pCO_2 at
367 25°C in our laboratory (Cole et al., 2016; Allison et al., 2018a). pH_{ECM} is a potential indicator of the
368 saturation state of the ECM and thereby a proxy for the proportion of the ECM reservoir utilised during
369 calcification.

370

371 **4.2.2 The growth entrapment model**

372 The growth entrapment model (Watson, 1996) describes the growth dependent enrichment or depletion
373 of trace/minor elements in the surface of crystals relative to the bulk crystal. The chemical composition
374 of the surface zone of a crystal may not reach equilibrium with the aqueous solution if crystal growth is
375 rapid and the diffusivity of the element in the crystal is slow. Instead a non-equilibrium composition can
376 become buried (or entrapped) in the crystal by subsequent crystal growth.

377 K_D Sr/Ca at 25°C have been both positively and negatively correlated with aragonite precipitation rate
378 (AlKhatib and Eisenhauer, 2017). This inconsistency could reflect the adsorption of Mg^{2+} to the crystal
379 surface which reduces uptake of Sr^{2+} (AlKhatib and Eisenhauer, 2017). Given this uncertainty it's
380 unclear how growth entrapment will influence Sr/Ca in coral aragonite. Our observation of higher K_D
381 Sr/Ca in corals cultured at high seawater pCO_2 could reflect growth entrapment, assuming aragonite
382 Sr/Ca increases at low crystal growth rates. However as noted above we do not observe significant
383 relationships between calcification rate and Sr/Ca to support a growth entrapment mechanism although,

384 once again we note that calcification rates may not provide a reliable indicator of the extension rates of
385 individual skeletal crystals.

386

387 **4.2.3 Variations in Sr/Ca_{ECM} dependent on ion transport**

388 The Sr/Ca of the ECM, used to build the skeleton may vary between corals. Ca²⁺ is transported across
389 the coral tissues by a L type Ca²⁺ channel (Zoccola et al., 1999) and by a plasma membrane Ca-ATPase
390 (Zoccola et al., 2004). It is uncertain if Sr²⁺ is also transported by these processes (Carafoli, 1987; Ip
391 and Lim, 1991; Yu and Inesi, 1995) but any discrimination against Sr will reduce both Sr/Ca_{ECM} and K_D
392 Sr/Ca. Corals at high seawater pCO₂ increase the H⁺_{sw}-H⁺_{ECM} gradient more than corals at ambient
393 seawater pCO₂ (Venn et al., 2013) indicating that Ca-ATPase activity may be enhanced in these corals
394 as the enzyme is a H⁺/Ca²⁺ antiporter (Allemand et al., 2011). However we do not observe significant
395 relationships between the K_D Sr/Ca reported in Cole et al 2016 and the H⁺ gradient between the culture
396 seawater and the calcification media (termed H⁺_{sw}-H⁺_{ECM}) for the same corals (Figure 6b) to support this
397 hypothesis. We calculate the gradient from the pH_{seawater} and pH_{ECM} reported for the same corals (Allison
398 et al., 2018a). These observations are not consistent with the hypothesis that Ca-ATPase activity is
399 reduced at high seawater pCO₂ resulting in less dilution of Sr/Ca_{ECM}, assuming the enzyme discriminates
400 against Sr²⁺ (Tanaka et al., 2015). Inhibiting Ca-ATPase and Ca²⁺ channels in the branching coral
401 *Pocillopora damicornis* did not affect skeletal Sr/Ca suggesting these transport processes do not
402 fractionate Sr/Ca (Allison et al., 2011).

403 After considering these three hypotheses we are unable to resolve the source of K_D Sr/Ca variations
404 between seawater pCO₂ treatments. Variations in K_D Sr/Ca between genotypes are relatively small in
405 the 260 μatm treatment compared to other seawater pCO₂ conditions (Figure 5). It is noteworthy that
406 these smallest variations in skeletal geochemistry are observed in the conditions under which corals
407 naturally grew before the rapid addition of anthropogenic CO₂ to seawater in the last 2 centuries.

408

409 **4.3 Absolute K_D Sr/Ca values in the present study**

410 The K_D Sr/Ca determined here (0.980 to 1.019) are substantially lower than estimated from Sr/Ca-SST
411 calibrations of *Porites* spp. collected from natural habitats. Combining the mean Sr/Ca-SST calibration
412 for *Porites* spp. determined by Corregge (2006) i.e. Sr/Ca = -0.0607 x SST + 10.553, with a reefwater
413 Sr/Ca of 8.540 mmol mol⁻¹ (the mean of measurements by de Villiers et al., 1994 and Sun et al., 2005)
414 yields a K_D Sr/Ca of 1.058 at 25°C. Surface seawater Sr/Ca may vary by up to 2% (summarised in Sun
415 et al., 2005) but changes of this magnitude are still insufficient to account for the offset between the K_D
416 Sr/Ca in this study and previous estimates. Our K_D Sr/Ca are also lower than in culturing studies of the
417 branching coral *Pocillopora damicornis* at typical seawater [Ca²⁺] and present day atmospheric CO₂ (K_D
418 = 1.03-1.04, Giri et al., 2018). We consider it most likely that the low K_D Sr/Ca observed in this study
419 reflect a decrease in the Sr/Ca of the ECM used to build the skeleton. This could reflect enhanced
420 transport of Ca²⁺ relative to Sr²⁺ into the ECM (ion transport) or could indicate that a relatively large
421 proportion of the ions in the ECM reservoir are precipitated (Rayleigh fractionation) in the corals in our
422 culture system.

423 We consider it unlikely that K_D Sr/Ca reflect large differences in the physiological behaviour of corals in
424 this culture study compared to field specimens i.e. growing in the natural environment. Calcification rates
425 in this study range from 5-40 $\mu\text{mol CaCO}_3 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ (Cole et al., 2018) and are in good agreement with
426 estimates from modern field *Porites* spp. Massive *Porites* spp. typically extend their skeletons by 8-20
427 mm year⁻¹ with a typical skeletal density of 0.9-0.7 g cm⁻³ (Allison et al., 1996) equivalent to calcification
428 rates of 19-38 $\mu\text{mol CaCO}_3 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$. Lower calcification rates in the culture study reported here are
429 usually associated with the artificial increase of seawater pCO₂ (Cole et al., 2018). Respiration rates in
430 the corals cultured here ranged from 0.8-1.4 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Cole et al., 2018), in good agreement
431 with estimates from field corals (0.6-1 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ Hennige et al., 2010). Gross photosynthesis
432 rates in the cultured corals ranged from 2-6 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ (Cole et al., 2018) and are equivalent to or
433 higher than other estimates from field corals (15-28 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ 12h}^{-1}$ i.e. 1.3-2.3 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$
434 (Hennige et al., 2010). Skeletal Sr/Ca is lower in symbiotic *Acropora digitifera* compared to
435 azooxanthellate specimens cultured under the same conditions (Inoue et al., 2018) and variations in
436 colony photosynthesis between our study and field specimens could influence K_D Sr/Ca. However light
437 conditions were the same between seawater pCO₂ treatments and between temperatures in the present
438 study so this does not affect K_D Sr/Ca between treatments.

439 Seawater [Sr] in the present study is higher than in reefwaters although [Ca²⁺] is comparable, resulting
440 in increased seawater Sr/Ca (12.29-12.44 mmol mol⁻¹, Table 1) compared to natural reefwaters
441 (8.5 mmol mol⁻¹, De Villiers et al., 1994; Sun et al., 2005). Skeletal Sr/Ca in the branching coral
442 *Pocillopora damicornis* is affected by the [Ca²⁺] of seawater and reducing [Ca²⁺] by ~40% (thereby
443 increasing Sr/Ca) reduced coral K_D Sr/Ca by ~15% (Giri et al., 2018). Ca²⁺ is a key substrate in the
444 production of CaCO₃ and increased transcellular Ca²⁺ transport at low seawater [Ca²⁺] will reduce
445 Sr/Ca_{ECM} if transport processes discriminate against Sr²⁺. It is unclear how changes in seawater Sr/Ca
446 driven by variations in Sr²⁺ will impact K_D Sr/Ca. We cannot rule out the possibility that the change in
447 seawater [Sr²⁺] affects K_D however variations in Sr/Ca and [Ca²⁺] between treatments are small (Table
448 1) and are unlikely to drive the variations in coral K_D observed between treatments.

449 SIMS analyses in this study were focused midway between centres of calcification and the outside
450 edges of the trabeculae. Centres of calcification are relatively enriched in Sr/Ca (Allison and Finch,
451 2004) and the exclusion of this material from the analyses could bias the SIMS estimates to lower Sr/Ca
452 values. However the SIMS analyses were normalised to bulk Sr/Ca estimates (combining fasciculi and
453 centres of calcification) from 2 coral samples so this is unlikely to be a significant factor.

454 We observe large variations in K_D between corals of different genotype from the same treatment. Similar
455 variations in skeletal Sr/Ca are reported in other culturing (Cole et al., 2016; Tanaka et al., 2015) and
456 field studies (Alpert et al., 2016). We considered whether any other physical or chemical skeletal
457 parameter could be used to predict the K_D Sr/Ca to apply to a coral specimen. We are unable to identify
458 any single factor (calcification rate, pH_{ECM} or H⁺_{sw}-H⁺_{ECM}) that correlates consistently with K_D Sr/Ca to
459 enable us to estimate the correct K_D Sr/Ca to apply to coral records. Similarly we did not observe
460 consistent relationships between K_D Sr/Ca and K_D Mg/Ca or K_D Ba/Ca in our first study culturing massive
461 *Porites* spp. over a range of seawater pCO₂ (Allison et al. 2018b). We conclude that it is not yet possible
462 to identify the correct K_D Sr/Ca to apply to older coral skeletons for accurate seawater temperature
463 reconstruction.

464

465 All seawater and skeletal Sr/Ca data are included in an electronic annex.

466

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475

476 **Figure legends**

477 **Figure 1.** Images of coral skeletons cultured at seawater pCO₂ of 260 µatm.. A: Alizarin Red S stain
478 lines indicate 1 = the start of the experimental period at 28°C, 2 = the end of the 28°C period and 3 =
479 the start of the experimental period at 25°C. The coral was sacrificed at the end of the 25°C period. B: A
480 higher resolution image indicating the incorporation of stain over skeletal structures (see arrow). C: A
481 polished block of skeleton after SIMS analysis. The black circles are SIMS pits and the arrow indicates
482 the growth direction of the skeleton. A trabecula is annotated.

483 **Figure 2.** Comparison of skeletal Sr/Ca (mmol mol⁻¹) in 3 coral samples (all genotype 7 at 25°C)
484 analysed by SIMS (normalised to NAHaxby2) and ICP-MS (isotope dilution method). The pCO₂
485 conditions under which each coral was cultured are indicated. The dotted line indicates where SIMS
486 and ICP-MS analyses are equal. Error bars are 95% confidence limits for SIMS Sr/Ca and 1 standard
487 deviation of repeat analyses of the standard by ICP-MS.

488 **Figure 3.** Influence of seawater pCO₂ and temperature on K_D Sr/Ca in 4 genotypes of *Porites* spp.
489 Bars represent the mean of multiple analyses (n = 15-59) across 2 or more corallites within colonies
490 except for G6, 400 µatm, 25°C where n=6. Bars indicate mean K_D Sr/Ca and error bars indicate 95%
491 confidence limits (propagating 95% confidence limits in the determinations of skeletal and seawater
492 Sr/Ca as $K_D \text{ Sr/Ca error} = \sqrt{((\text{skeletal Sr/Ca error})^2 + (\text{seawater Sr/Ca error})^2)}$).

493 **Figure 4.** Relationships between K_D Sr/Ca and calcification rate (Cole et al., 2018) and seawater
494 pCO₂ in each coral genotype. Coefficients of determination (r²) and p values for linear regressions are
495 summarised in Table 3. Note the difference in scale between 25 °C and 28°C.

496 **Figure 5.** Relationships between K_D Sr/Ca and seawater pCO₂ and calcification rate (Cole et al.,
497 2018) for the combined dataset (all corals) at each temperature. Linear regressions at 25°C combine
498 the data from this study with that of Cole et al 2016, normalised to the bulk skeletal Sr/Ca
499 determination analysed here to enable direct comparison with the present study.

500 **Figure 6.** Relationships between K_D Sr/Ca and a) pH_{ECM} and b) H⁺_{sw}-H⁺_{ECM} in a series of corals cultured
501 over varying seawater pCO₂ in our laboratory in a previous experiment. K_D Sr/Ca are from Cole et al.,

502 2016, pH_{ECM} are from Allison et al., 2018a and $\text{H}^+_{\text{sw}} - \text{H}^+_{\text{ECM}}$ are calculated from the $\text{pH}_{\text{seawater}}$ and pH_{ECM}
503 data in Allison et al., 2018a. Coefficients of determination (r^2) and p values for linear regressions are
504 overlain on each graph.

505

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