



Supplement of

Linking global terrestrial CO₂ fluxes and environmental drivers: inferences from the Orbiting Carbon Observatory 2 satellite and terrestrial biospheric models

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S1. Additional detail on the regression and inverse model (GIM) using OCO-2 observations

25 S1.1 Specific inverse model setup

We estimate both the fluxes (s , where $\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\zeta}$) and the drift coefficients ($\boldsymbol{\beta}$) by minimizing the GIM cost function (e.g., *Kitanidis and Vomvoris*, 1983; *Kitanidis*, 1995; *Michalak et al.*, 2004):

$$L_{s,\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{z} - h(\mathbf{s}))^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}(\mathbf{z} - h(\mathbf{s})) + \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})^T \mathbf{Q}^{-1}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \quad (\text{S1})$$

30 where \mathbf{s} (dimensions $m \times 1$) is a vector of unknown fluxes and \mathbf{z} (dimensions $n \times 1$) the observations. We pass the fluxes (\mathbf{s}) through an atmospheric model ($h(\cdot)$) to simulate atmospheric CO₂ ($h(\mathbf{s})$). In this study, \mathbf{X} (dimensions $m \times p$) is a matrix of environmental drivers, and $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ (dimensions $p \times 1$) are unknown drift coefficients that scale the individual columns in \mathbf{X} to best match the observations (\mathbf{z}). Collectively, $\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is referred to as the deterministic model.

35 Furthermore, $\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$ represents spatiotemporal patterns in CO₂ fluxes (\mathbf{s}) that are implied by the atmospheric observations (\mathbf{z}) but not captured by the deterministic model ($\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$). In the manuscript, we refer to this component as the stochastic component ($\boldsymbol{\zeta}$).

The inverse model includes two covariance matrices; \mathbf{R} (dimensions $n \times n$) and \mathbf{Q} (dimensions $m \times m$). The covariance matrix \mathbf{R} describes $\mathbf{z} - h(\mathbf{s})$, referred to here as the model-data mismatch errors. These errors include errors from the atmospheric measurements and from the transport model; in brief, the measurement errors are computed as the variances for 10-s averages by summing the inverse variances of all the soundings within the span of that 10-s average (e.g., *Crowell et al.*, 2019), and the model errors consider errors from the model transport and representativeness (e.g., *Basu et al.*, 2018); the model-data mismatch errors are the quadrature
40 sum of the measurement errors and model errors. The covariance matrix \mathbf{Q} prescribes the variances and spatiotemporal covariances of the stochastic component ($\boldsymbol{\zeta}$) and includes both diagonal and off-diagonal elements. Specifically, we use Restricted Maximum Likelihood (RML; e.g., *Kitanidis*, 1997; *Gourdji et al.*, 2012; *Miller et al.*, 2016) to estimate the covariance parameters for \mathbf{Q} , including the variance of \mathbf{Q} (referred to as σ_Q^2), the decorrelation length (l),
45 and the decorrelation time (t). We iteratively optimize these covariance parameters using flux estimates for years 2015 to 2018 from CarbonTracker (CT2019; *Peters et al.*, 2007, *Jacobson et al.*, 2020; <https://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/carbontracker/>). In this study we assume that the spatiotemporal properties of CO₂ fluxes from CT2019 are a reasonable proxy for the covariance
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parameters that are used in the GIM. Refer to *Mueller et al. (2008)* and *Gourdji et al. (2008, 2010, 2012)* for more detail on this proxy approach to estimating covariance parameters in the
55 inverse model setup. We re-grid the flux estimates from CT2019 to daily, 4° (latitude) by 5°
(longitude) resolutions, consistent with the GEOS-Chem model grid and the temporal resolution
of the stochastic component (ζ) of the GIM. We optimize these covariance parameters using an
exponential covariance model (e.g., *Mueller et al., 2008; Gourdji et al., 2008, 2010, 2012*) for
60 land and ocean, respectively. We specifically estimate a variance of 0.31 ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)² for
terrestrial regions and 0.014 ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for the ocean. We further estimate a decorrelation
length parameter of 1460 km for land and 4678 km for ocean and a correlation time parameter of
5.1 days for land and 8.6 days for the ocean. These values have a similar magnitude to an
existing global GIM study (*Gourdji et al., 2008*).

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After estimating the covariance matrix parameters, we then estimate the CO₂ fluxes by iteratively
minimizing Eq. S1 using the Limited-memory Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno algorithm (L-
BFGS, *Liu and Nocedal, 1989*). *Miller et al (2020)* provides detail on this iterative approach to
minimize Eq. S1.

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S1.2 Initial condition of atmospheric CO₂ and model spin-up

We first create an initial condition of atmospheric CO₂ mole fractions for 1 Sept., 2012 based on
NOAA's Carbon Tracker (CT) product, and use CO₂ fluxes from CT to run GEOS-Chem
forward for two years until 1 Sept., 2014 when the inverse modeling begins; we run the CT
75 fluxes through GEOS-Chem for two years to ensure that the CO₂ mixing ratios are consistent
with the GEOS-Chem model grid, and therefore to minimize potential spin-up artifacts due to
model transport. We then run the inverse model starting from 1 Sept., 2014, but we consider the
result from 2014 as part of an initial model spin-up period and do not use it for analysis. This
setup for the initial condition and spin-up is identical to that used in *Miller et al. (2018)*.

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S2. Additional detail on the setup of anthropogenic emissions, ocean fluxes, and biomass burning

We combine fossil fuel emissions from ODIAC, biomass burning fluxes from GFED, and
oceanic fluxes from ECCO-Darwin in a single column of \mathbf{X} and estimate a single coefficient (β)

85 for all three sources in all regions of the globe. This column of combined fluxes is selected using the BIC and is included within the inverse model. Furthermore, we estimate a coefficient (β) of 0.97 to 1.05 (depending on the year and simulation) for this column of \mathbf{X} . A scaling factor near one indicates that the overall, cumulative magnitude of these sources is consistent with OCO-2 observations.

90 We do not estimate separate coefficients (β) for fossil fuel emissions from ODIAC, biomass burning fluxes from GFED, and oceanic fluxes from ECCO-Darwin separately because current OCO-2 observations have limited ability to constrain patterns in these different source types. We conduct a sensitivity test in which we use three individual columns in \mathbf{X} to represent ODIAC, GFED, and ECCO-Darwin, respectively; we then re-run model selection using this setup for \mathbf{X} .

95 We select ODIAC but not GFED or ECCO-Darwin in this sensitivity test. This result suggests that ODIAC helps describe enough variability in atmospheric observations to be selected using BIC; by contrast, GFED or ECCO-Darwin alone do not help reproduce OCO-2 observations more than the penalty term (Eq. 2) in the BIC and therefore are not selected. The average atmospheric XCO₂ enhancement due to GFED emissions and ECCO-Darwin fluxes are 0.19 and
 100 -0.31ppm, respectively. These enhancements are small relative to emissions from ODIAC (2.70 ppm), a possible explanation of why ocean and biomass burning fluxes are not selected in this sensitivity test.

S3. Scaled temperature function

Most terrestrial biosphere models (TBMs) estimate CO₂ fluxes as a nonlinear or piecewise
 105 function of temperature (e.g., *Heskel et al.*, 2016; *Dayalu et al.*, 2018). In this study, we use a scaled function of temperature from the Vegetation Photosynthesis and Respiration Model (VPRM, *Mahadevan et al.*, 2008; *Dayalu et al.*, 2018) as an environmental driver in the inverse model (in \mathbf{X} , Eq. 1). This function peaks at the optimal temperature for photosynthesis and declines at higher and lower temperatures:

$$110 \quad T_{scale} = \frac{(T_{air}-T_{min})(T_{air}-T_{max})}{(T_{air}-T_{min})(T_{air}-T_{max})-(T_{air}-T_{opt})^2} \quad (S2)$$

The scaled temperature (T_{scale}) is calculated based on a minimum ($T_{min} = 0$ °C) and maximum ($T_{max} = 40$ °C) temperature threshold and an optimal temperature (T_{opt}) for photosynthesis which is set for each biome. In this study, we follow existing literature (*Mahadevan et al.*, 2008; *Luus et al.*, 2017; *Dayalu et al.*, 2018) and set an optimal temperature of 15 °C for tundra and boreal

115 biomes, and 20 °C for temperate, tropical, and desert/shrubland biomes. An example of scaled
temperature as a function of air temperature over the temperate forest biome is illustrated in Fig.
S1.

120 **S4. Comparisons against XCO₂ observations, against aircraft-based measurements, and against TCCON measurements**

S4.1 Comparisons against XCO₂ observations

We simulate posterior atmospheric CO₂ concentrations for years 2015 through 2018 by passing
the posterior CO₂ fluxes ($\hat{\mathcal{F}}$) through the atmospheric transport model ($h(\hat{\mathcal{F}})$); we then compare
the modeled XCO₂ against observed XCO₂. Fig. S2 displays the model-data XCO₂ comparisons
125 for years 2015 through 2018. Across the study years, the model-data biases are small and range
from -0.15 to -0.08 ppm. Furthermore, the root mean squared error (RMSE) ranges from 1.03 to
1.16 ppm, depending upon the year. These errors are similar to the model-data mismatch errors
specified in the inverse model (0.98 ± 0.31 ppm), indicating that the covariance matrix \mathbf{R} is a
reasonable estimate of the actual residuals. In addition, the model-data fit is consistent among all
130 years of the inverse modeling results; the model-data residuals are similar from one year to
another and do not display any trend.

S4.2 Comparisons against aircraft-based measurements

We evaluate the inverse model estimates against aircraft-based measurements included in the
NOAA ObsPack (version 2.0, NOAA Carbon Cycle Group Obspack team, 2018; *Masarie et al.*,
135 2014). These measurements include vertical profiles collected from NOAA regular aircraft sites
(*Sweeney et al.*, 2015), from the National Institute for Space Research (INPE), and from the
Atmospheric Tomography Mission campaign (ATom, *Wofsy et al.*, 2018). Table S2 displays a
full list of the aircraft sites and campaign used in this study. Note that we remove a few outlier
data points from this comparison, defined as differences between posterior CO₂ and aircraft
140 measurements that are larger than 30 ppm; these outliers may indicate very heavy local influence
(e.g., *Chevallier et al.*, 2019).

Figs. S3-S6 displays site-level comparisons against aircraft measurements collected from NOAA
aircraft sites and from INPE sites. We find that from one year to another, the model-data biases
and the RMSEs show similar magnitudes and patterns. The model-data differences over middle
145 latitudes are generally small and become larger across high latitudes. There are few OCO-2

observations in high latitude regions, a possible reason why the error statistics are larger in high latitude regions like Alaska. Furthermore, the resolution of the global GOES-Chem model (4° latitude \times 5° longitude) may introduce additional uncertainties in comparisons with aircraft point data that show substantial spatial heterogeneity (e.g., *Crowell et al.*, 2019). With that said, these
150 site-level comparisons are broadly consistent with previous studies (*Chevallier et al.* 2019; *Liu et al.*, 2020) in which the authors used aircraft measurements to evaluate inverse model estimates from GOSAT and OCO-2 satellites. Note that the sites available for comparison differs slightly from one year to another; for example, there are not any available aircraft measurements at RBA-B and ALF sites over South America for year 2018 (Fig. S6).

155 Furthermore, Fig. S7 shows grid-scale (4° latitude \times 5° longitude) comparisons against the ATom airborne campaigns. ATom aircraft measurements were collected from August 2016 to May 2018 over Pacific and Atlantic oceans. Within each grid box, we average available aircraft measurements for comparison. We find that over most of the grid boxes the residuals between modeled and observed CO_2 are within 1.0 ppm; these residuals are similar in magnitude to the
160 model-data mismatch errors specified in the inverse model, further indicating a good match between the \mathbf{R} covariance matrix and actual model-data residuals. In addition, the model-data residuals are smallest over ocean and are larger over land. These patterns in the residuals are broadly consistent with a recent study that employed GOSAT and OCO-2 satellite observations (*Liu et al.*, 2020).

165 Overall, the agreement between posterior CO_2 and various aircraft measurements confirms the conclusion that there are no major biases in the GIM flux estimates using OCO-2.

S.4.3 Comparisons against TCCON measurements

We sample the posterior atmospheric CO_2 concentrations to the times and locations of the TCCON retrievals. TCCON is a network of ground-based Fourier transform spectrometers (FTS)
170 that retrieve the column-average dry air mole fraction of trace gases (e.g., CO_2 and CH_4 ; *Wunch et al.*, 2011). We obtain the TCCON measurements from the TCCON Data Archive (<http://tccodata.org/>), and the TCCON retrievals are averaged to create 30-min average XCO_2 (e.g., *Crowell et al.*, 2019).

Figs. S8-S12 depicts the biases and the RMSE between posterior XCO_2 and TCCON
175 measurements across an array of sites; sites included in this study (Table S3) are similar to that in the OCO-2 inverse model inter-comparison (MIP) study (*Crowell et al.*, 2019). Fig. S8 shows

the comparisons across the entire study period, and Figs. S9-S12 each further show the comparisons for different seasons of the year. The biases are generally small across most of the sites (Fig. S8a) and are consistent across different seasons (Figs. S9 - S12), indicating an absence of any major seasonal biases in the inverse model estimates using OCO-2. With that said, the CalTech site exhibits higher biases than the other TCCON sites. The CalTech site is in the densely populated Los Angeles basin, a region that also has complex topography. We are unlikely to reproduce heterogeneous urban CO₂ signals given the spatial resolution of this global inverse model. Furthermore, the Eureka and Sodankyla sites exhibit higher biases than other TCCON sites. These sites are located at high latitudes where there are few observations from OCO-2 to constrain fluxes and posterior atmospheric CO₂ mixing ratios. The RMSE (Figs. S8-S12) ranges from 0.33 to 2.23 ppm at the different TCCON sites, which indicates that we can reproduce TCCON XCO₂ to within the range of uncertainties as described in the \mathbf{R} covariance matrix (Sect. S1).

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S5. Sensitivity tests for the estimated coefficients

We run the simulations with environmental driver datasets from two different meteorological products (CRUJRA and MERR-2) and two different formulations of the covariance matrix Ψ -- to test the sensitivity of the estimated coefficients to the choice of meteorology and statistical setup (Figs. S14 – S16). In Fig. S14, we compare estimated coefficients for the TBMs using environmental driver datasets from CRUJRA and MERRA-2 meteorology. The two sets of results look similar. In addition, Fig. S15 compares the coefficients estimated for OCO-2 observations using environmental driver datasets CRUJRA versus MERRA-2, and Fig. S16 compares coefficients estimated using different setups for the covariance matrix Ψ . Note that the results in Figs. S15 and S16 are also shown in Figs. 3 and 4 of the main article, but the figures included here make the differences more visually apparent.

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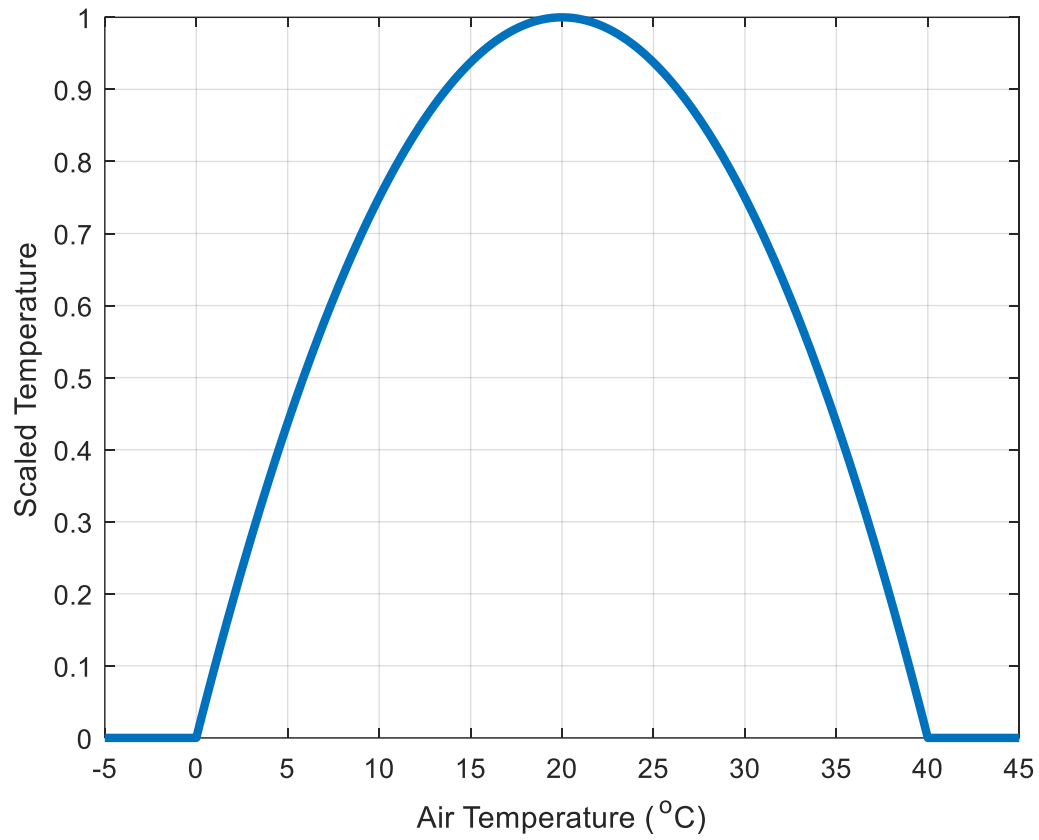
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Figure S1. Scaled air temperature function for photosynthesis. This figure displays the function used for the temperate forest biome; the function has different optimal temperatures in different biomes.

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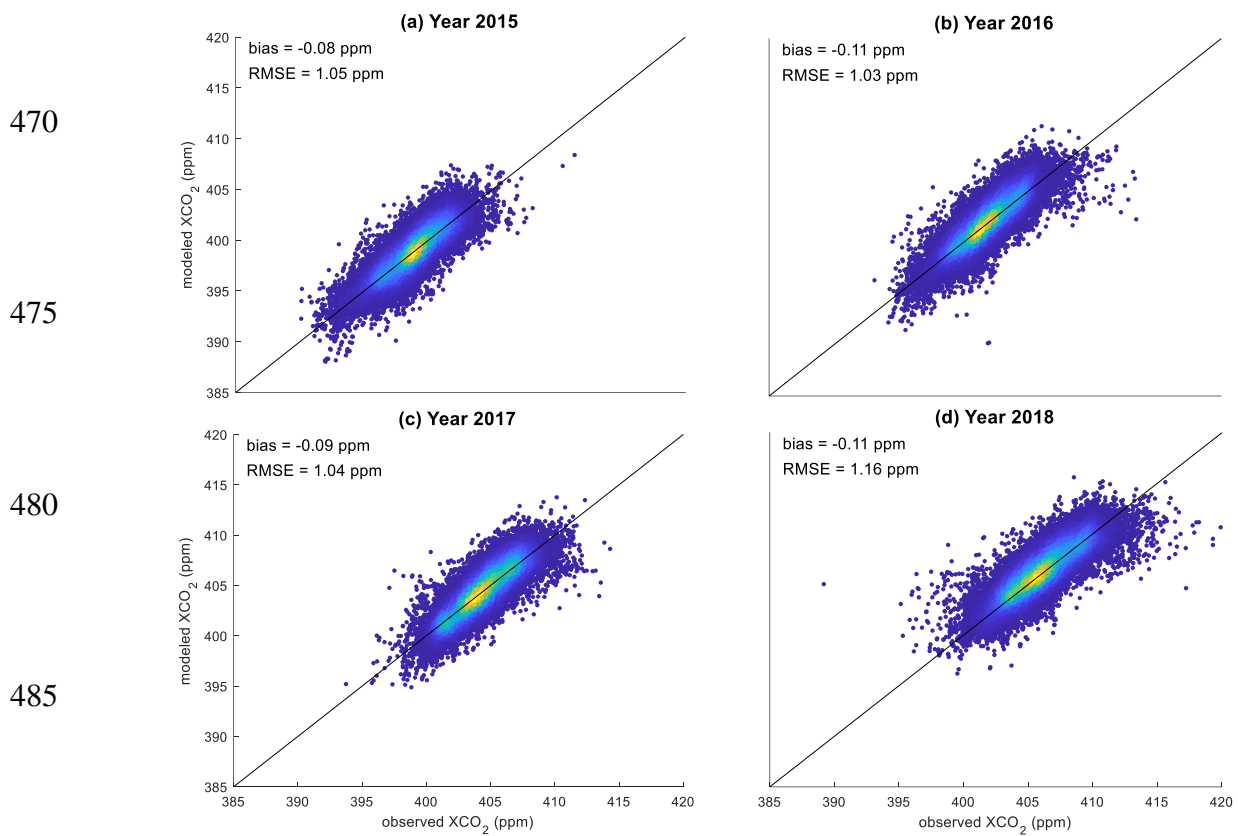
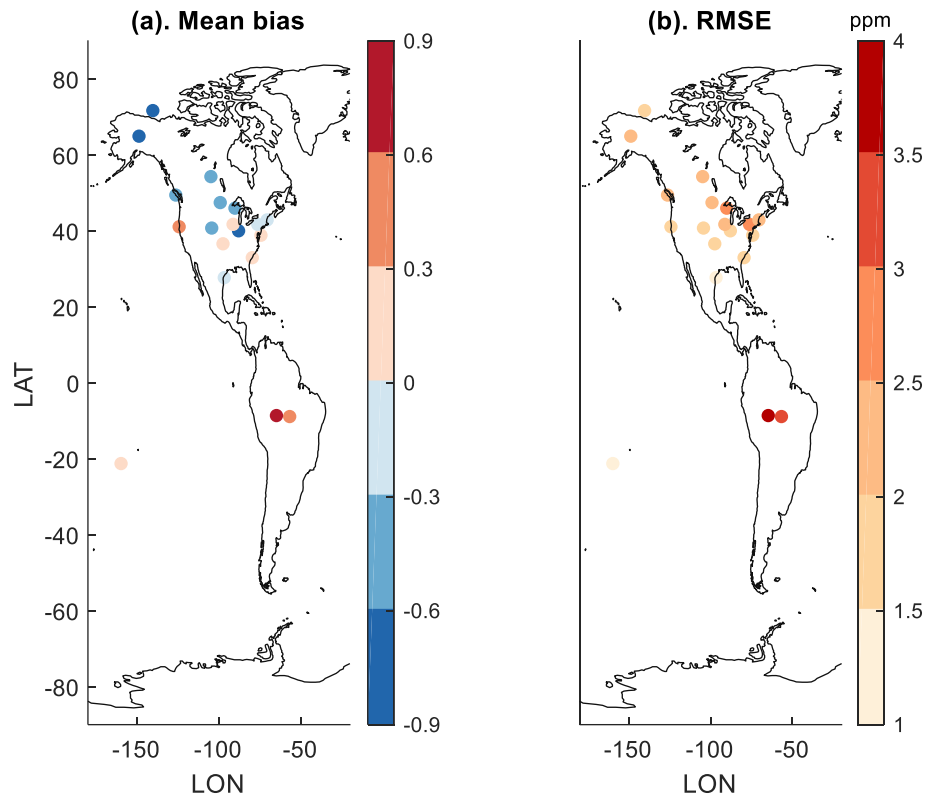


Figure S2. Comparisons against XCO₂ observations for years 2015 to 2018. Yellow and green colors indicate a high density of points while blue colors indicate a low density of data points.

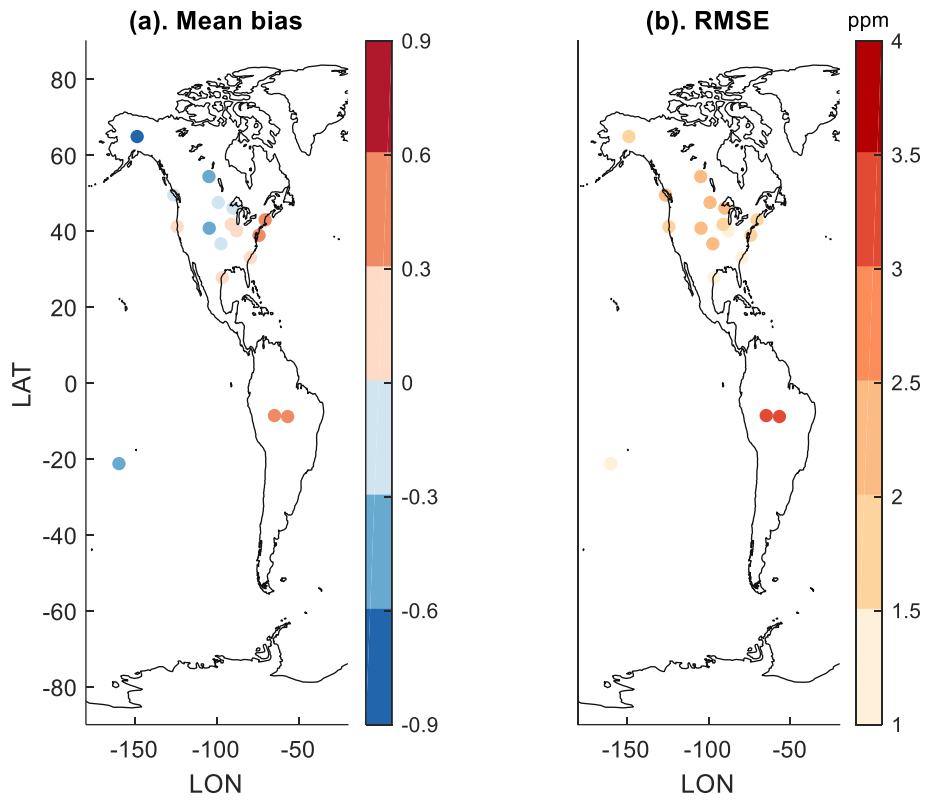


510 **Figure S3.** Site-level comparisons against measurements collected from NOAA regular sites and
 515 INPE sites (year 2015).

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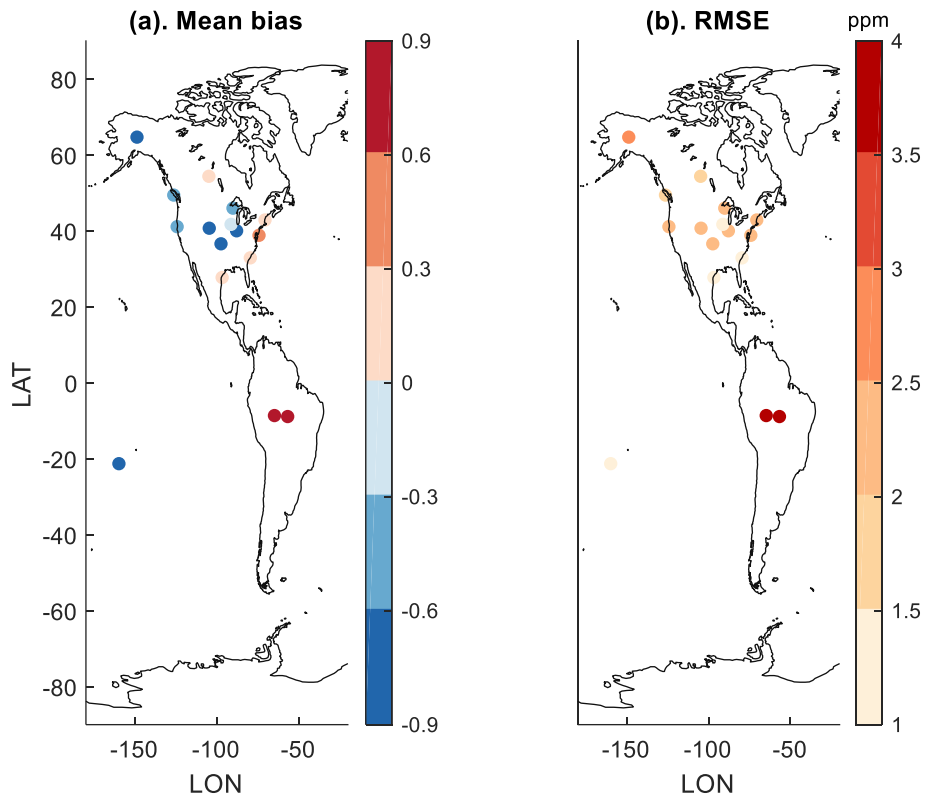


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535 **Figure S4.** Site-level comparisons against measurements collected from NOAA regular sites and INPE sites (year 2016).

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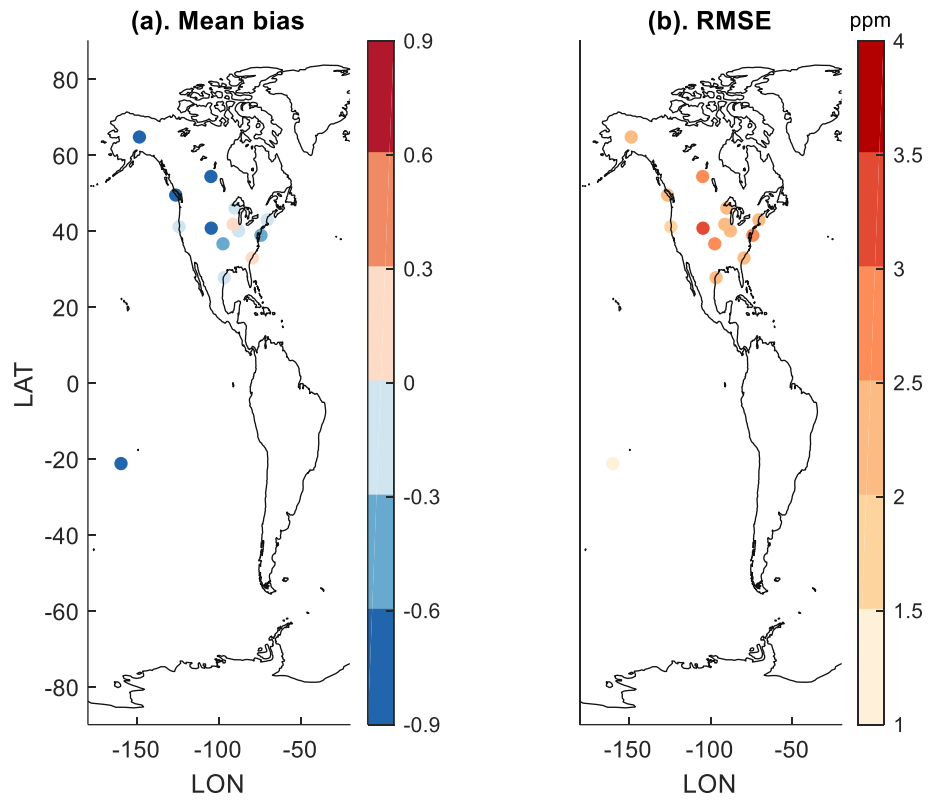
550 **Figure S5.** Site-level comparisons against measurements collected from NOAA regular sites and
 555 INPE sites (year 2017).

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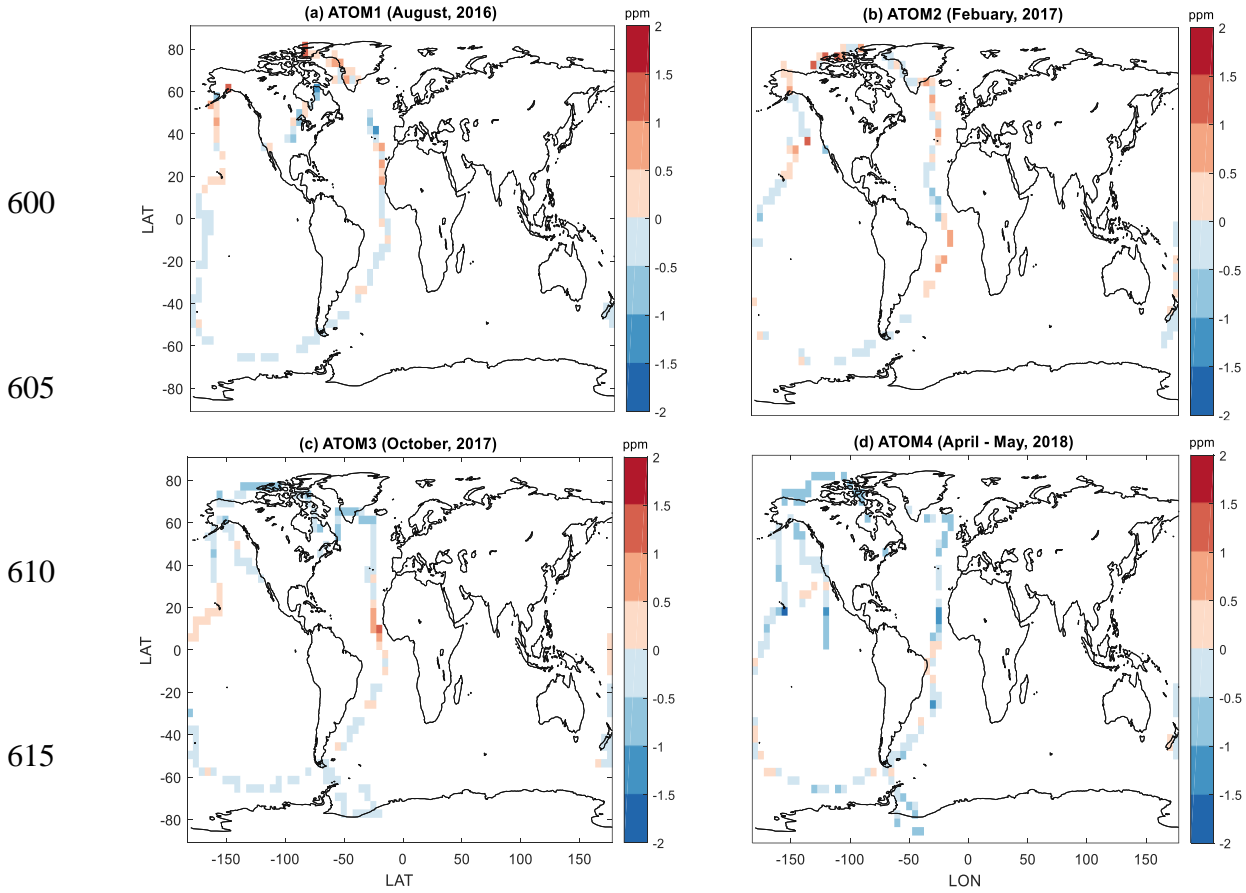
575 **Figure S6.** Site-level comparisons against measurements collected from NOAA regular sites and
 580 INPE sites (year 2018).

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Figure S7. Grid-scale differences between the posterior CO₂ estimate and ATom aircraft measurements (model minus measurements).

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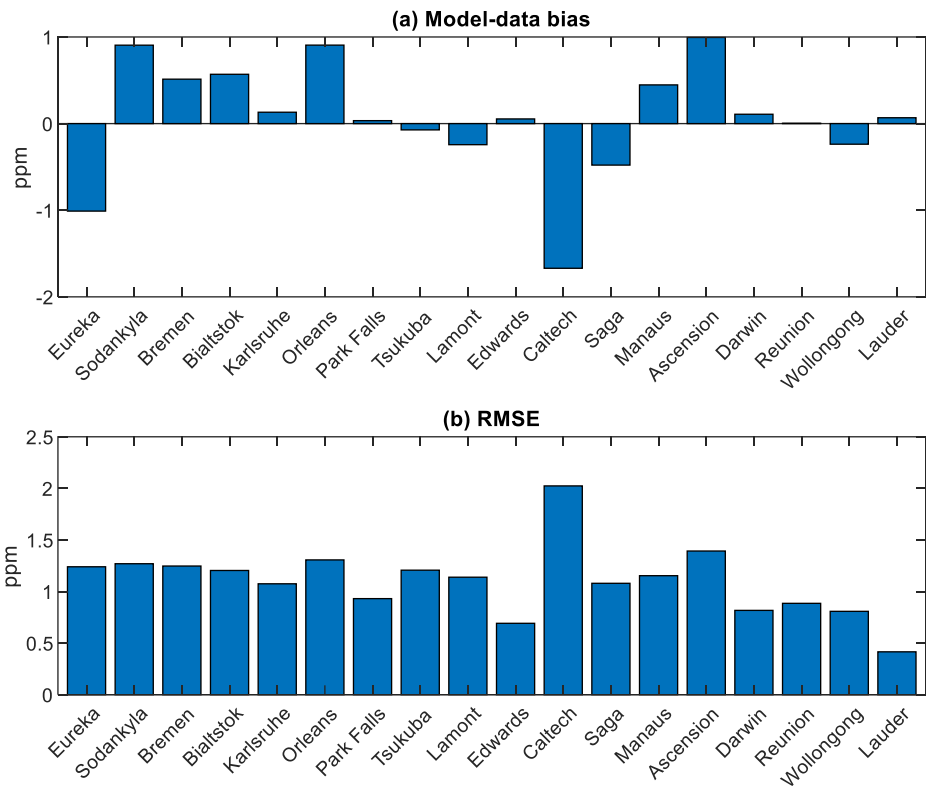


Figure S8. Comparisons between the posterior XCO₂ estimate and TCCON observations across years 2015-2018. We order these sites from Northern Hemisphere to Southern Hemisphere.

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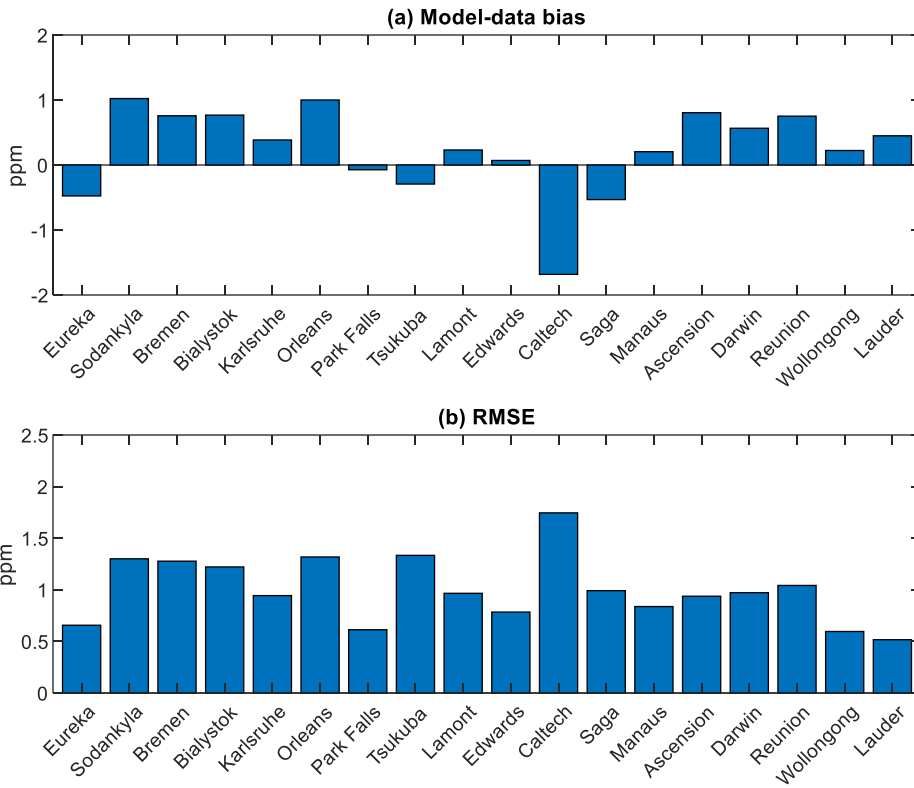


Figure S9. Comparisons between the posterior XCO₂ estimate and TCCON observations for March, April, and May (MAM) across the four-year study period.

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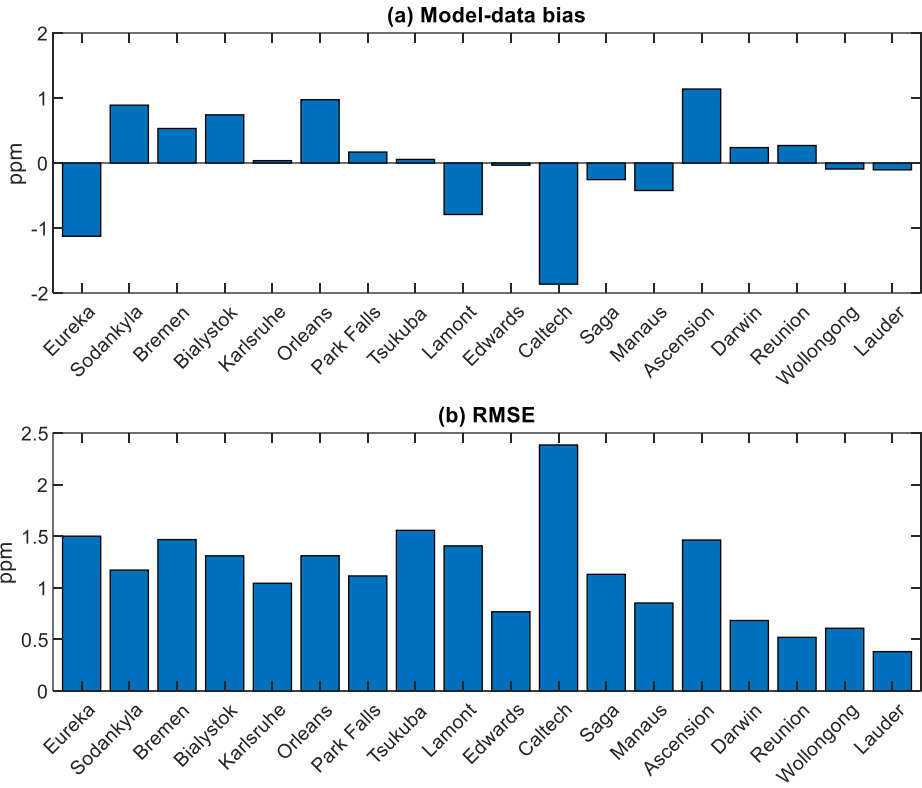


Figure S10. Comparisons between the posterior XCO₂ estimate and TCCON observations for June, July, and August (JJA) across the four-year study period.

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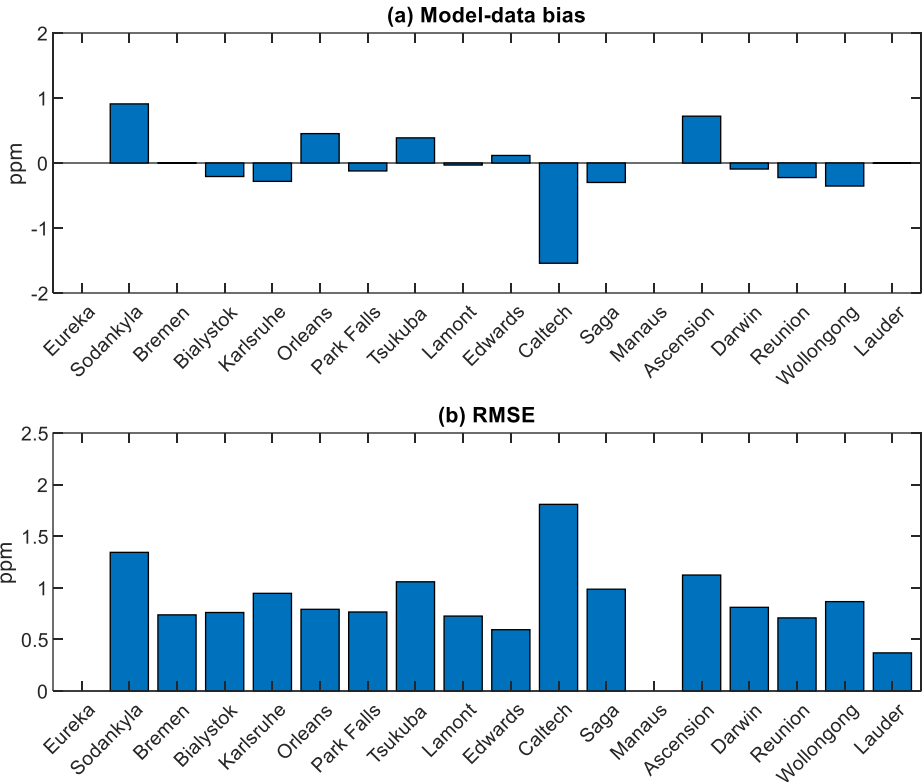
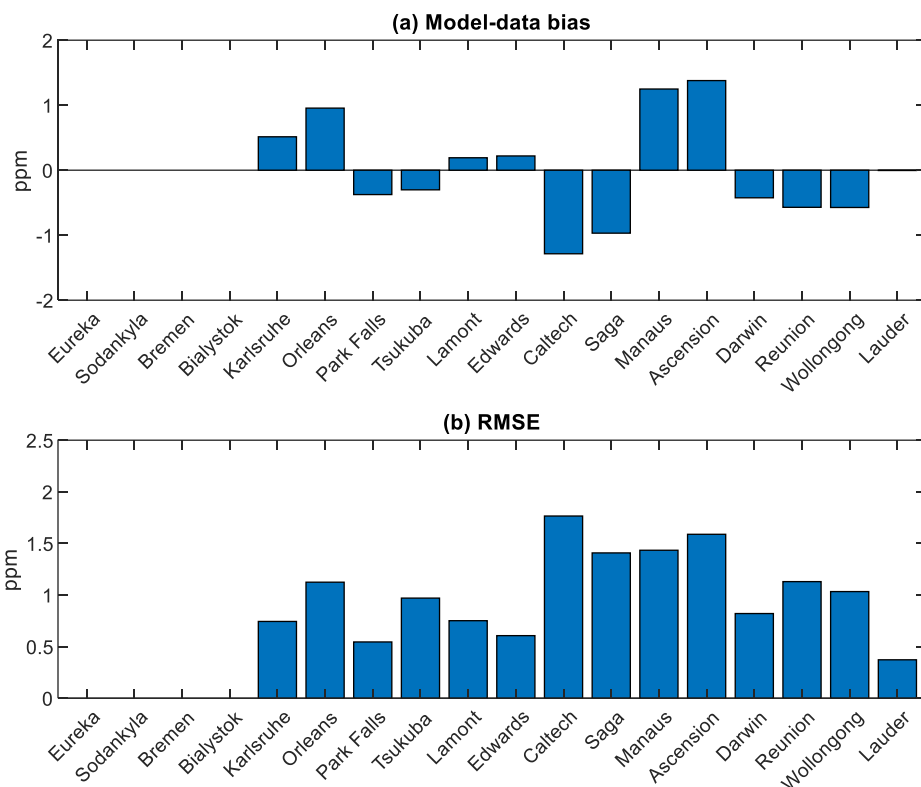


Figure S11. Comparisons between the posterior XCO₂ estimate and TCCON observations for September, October, and November (SON) across the four-year study period. Note the blank color indicates there are no available TCCON observations during SON over the individual sites. Also note that the model-data bias over Bremen and Lauder sites in panel (a) are small (0.005 and -0.004 ppm, respectively) but not blank.

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Figure S12. Comparisons between the posterior XCO₂ estimate and TCCON observations for December, January, and February (DJF) across the four-year study period. Note the blank color indicates there are not any available TCCON observations during DJF for the site in question.

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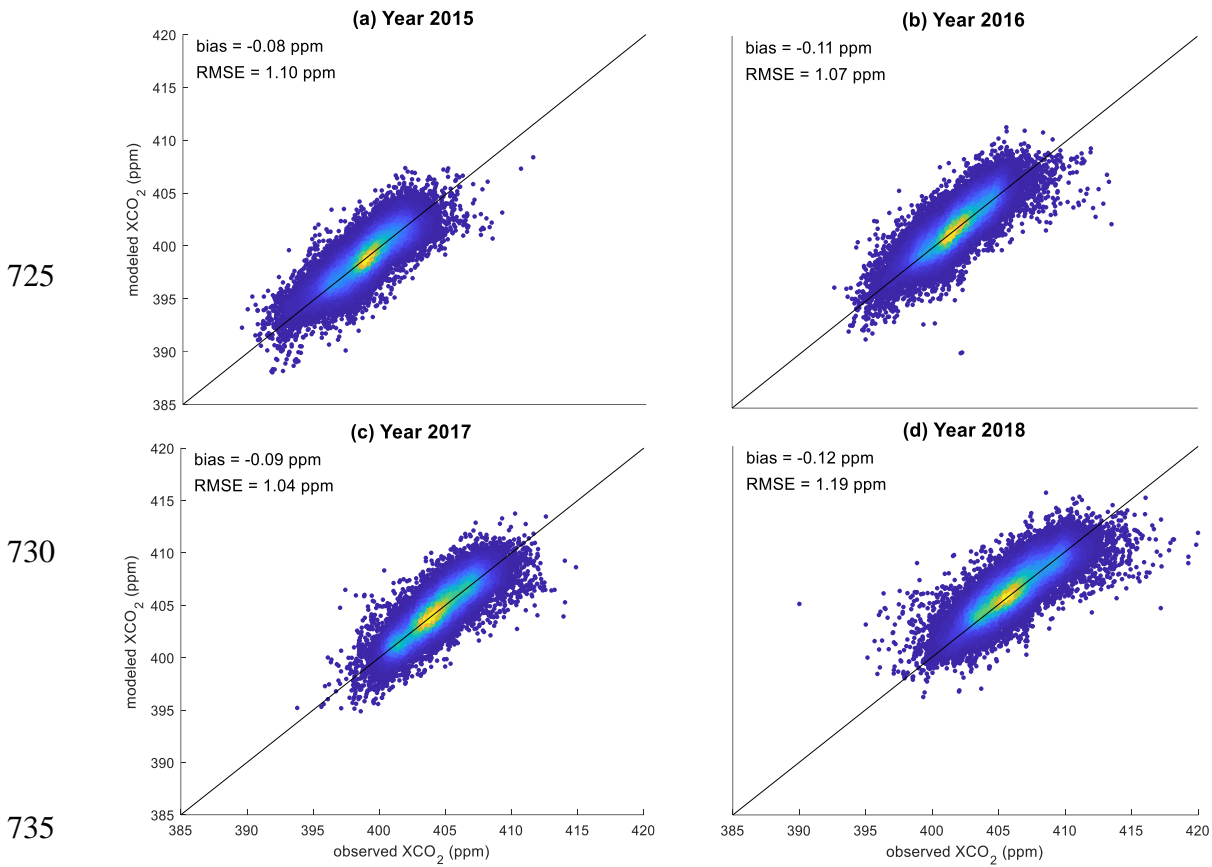


Figure S13. Comparison between modeled XCO₂ using the output of the regression analysis ($\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}$; Sect. 2) and XCO₂ observations for years 2015 to 2018. The biases (model minus observation) across years 2015-2018 are small (-0.12 to -0.08 ppm). The model-data residues are also within the range of uncertainties as described in the \mathbf{R} covariance matrix (0.98 ± 0.31 ppm; see Sect. S1). In addition, the model-data residuals are similar from one year to another and do not display any trend.

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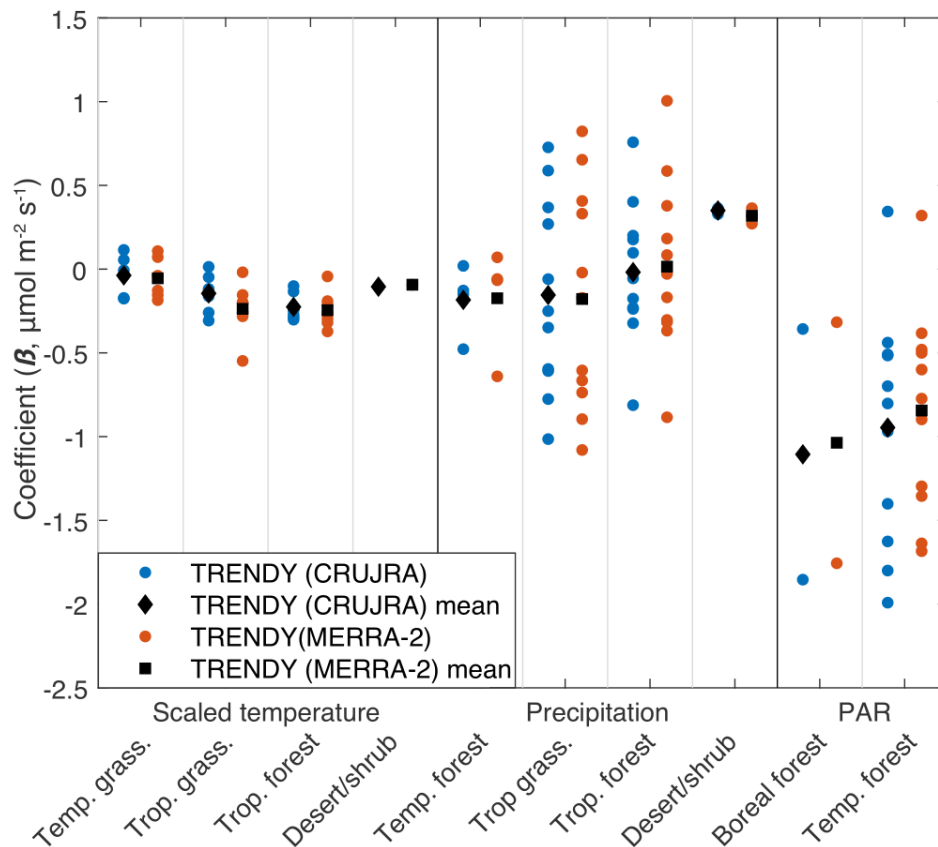


Figure S14. In the analysis using TBMs, we run simulations using CRUJRA (blue) and using MERRA-2 (red), respectively. The estimated coefficients between the two simulations are similar across different environmental drivers and across different biomes.

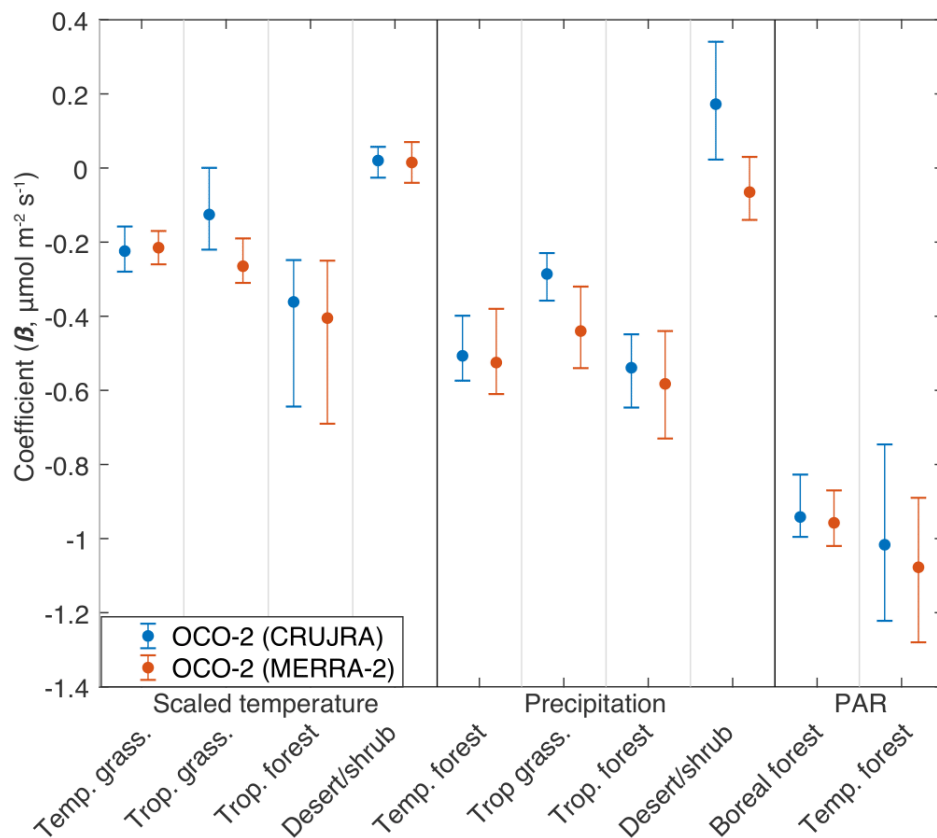


Figure S15. In the analysis using OCO-2, we run the simulations using environmental driver datasets from MERRA-2 (red) and from CRUJRA (blue). The vertical bars denote the range of coefficient estimates across four years and the dots denote the mean values. The estimated coefficients between the two simulations are similar for most environmental driver variables.

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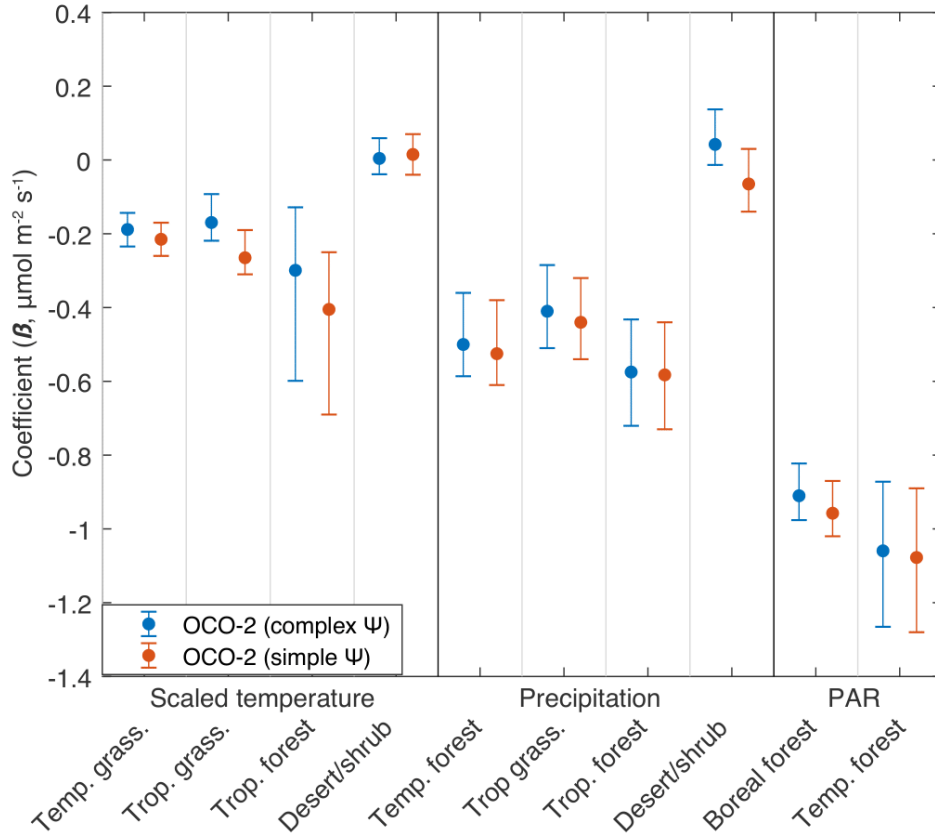


Figure S16. Comparison between the coefficients estimated using a simple, diagonal formulation of Ψ (red) and using a more complex and complete formulation of Ψ (blue). The vertical bars denote the range of coefficient estimates across four years and the dots denote the mean values.

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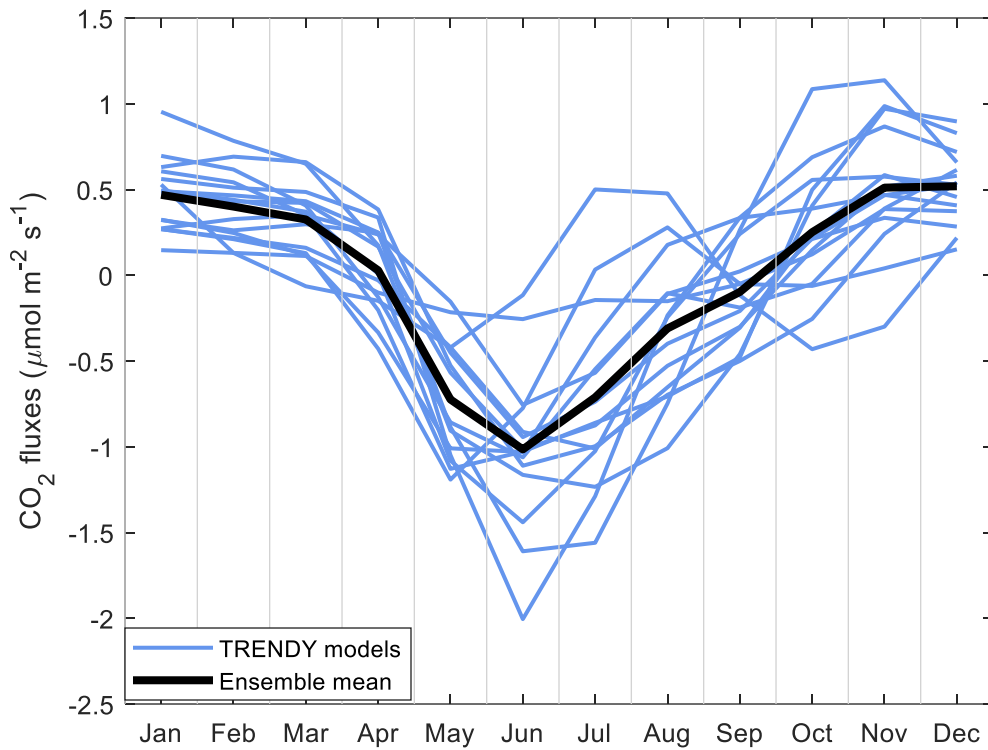


Figure S17. Four-year averaged CO₂ fluxes estimated from a suite of 15 TBMs (blue) and from the ensemble mean (black) for temperate forests. TBM disagree on the seasonality and the magnitude. These large differences of CO₂ fluxes over temperate forests likely help explain the large spread of coefficient estimates for PAR (Figs. 3a and 4).

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795 **Table S1.** A full list of TBMs participating in TRENDY.

TRENDY models	Original spatial resolution	Reference
CABLE-POP	1°×1°	Haverd <i>et al.</i> , 2018
CLASS-CTEM	2.8125°×2.8125°	Melton and Arora, 2016
CLM5.0	1.25°×0.9424°	Oleson <i>et al.</i> , 2013
DLEM	0.5°×0.5°	Tian <i>et al.</i> , 2015
ISAM	0.5°×0.5°	Meiyappan <i>et al.</i> , 2015
JSBACH	1.875°×1.875°	Mauritsen <i>et al.</i> , 2019
JULES	1.875°×1.25°	Clark <i>et al.</i> , 2011
LPJ	0.5°×0.5°	Poulter <i>et al.</i> , 2011
LPX-Bern	0.5°×0.5°	Lienert and Joos, 2018
OCN	1°×1°	Zaehle and Friend, 2010
ORCHIDEE	2°×2°	Krinner <i>et al.</i> , 2005
ORCHIDEE-CNP	2°×2°	Goll <i>et al.</i> , 2017
SDGVM	1°×1°	Walker <i>et al.</i> , 2017
ISBA-CTrip	1°×1°	Joetzjer <i>et al.</i> , 2015
VISIT	0.5°×0.5°	Kato <i>et al.</i> , 2013

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Table S2. Aircraft measurements from NOAA regular sites, INPE sites, and ATom campaign.

site or program code	Site or program name	Network
ACG	Alaska Coast Guard, USA	NOAA/ESRL Global Greenhouse Gas Reference Network (e.g., <i>Sweeny et al.</i> , 2015)
CAR	Briggsdale, Colorado, USA	
CMA	Offshore Cape May, New Jersey, USA	
CRV	CARVE	
DND	Dahlen, North Dakota, USA	
ESP	Estevan Point, British Columbia, Canada	
ETL	East Trout Lake, Saskatchewan, Canada	
HIL	Homer, Illinois, USA	
LEF	Park Falls, Wisconsin, USA	
MRC	Marcellus, Pennsylvania, USA	
NHA	Offshore Portsmouth, New Hampshire, USA	
PFA	Poker Flat, Alaska, USA	
RTA	Rarotonga, Cook Islands	
SCA	Offshore Charleston, South Carolina, USA	
SGP	Southern Great Plains, Oklahoma, USA	
TGC	Offshore Corpus Christi, Texas, USA	
THD	Trinidad Head, California, USA	
WBI	West Branch, Iowa, USA	
RBA_B	Rio Branco, Brazil	INPE
ALF	Alta Floresta, Brazil	
TOM	ATom, Atmospheric Tomography Mission	NASA Airborne Science (<i>Wofsy et al.</i> , 2018)

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Table S3. TCCON sites used in this study.

Site name	Reference
Park Falls, Wisconsin, USA	Wennberg et al. (2014)
Lamont, Oklahoma, USA	Wennberg et al. (2014)
Bialystok, Poland	Deutscher et al. (2015)
Orleans, France	Warneke et al. (2014)
Karlsruhe, Germany	Hase et al. (2015)
Tsukuba, Japan	Morino et al. (2016)
Lauder, New Zealand	Sherlock et al (2014)
Darwin, Australia	Griffith et al (2014a)
Wollongong, Australia	Griffith et al (2014b)
Bremen, Germany	Notholt et al (2014)
Eureka, Canada	Strong et al (2016)
Sodankyla, Finland	Kivi and Heikkinen (2016)
Reunion Island, France	De Maziere et al (2014)
Ascension Island, UK	Feist et al (2014)
Saga, Japan	Kawakami et al (2014)
Manaus, Brazil	Dubey et al (2014)
Caltech, California, USA	Wennberg et al (2015)
Edwards, California, USA	Iraci et al (2016)

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Table S4. Estimated regression coefficients for the analysis using the TBMs and OCO-2 observations. In each box, we show the range of the coefficients, with the top and bottom values indicating the minimum and maximum coefficients, respectively, across years 2015 to 2018.

835 Blank boxes indicate that the specific drivers are not selected in the individual TBMs. The environmental driver datasets shown in this table are those selected using real OCO-2 observations (as in Figs. 3-4). Note that for many TBMs, we also select additional environmental driver datasets that were not selected using real OCO-2 observations, and we do not list all of those coefficients in the table below for the sake of brevity.

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TBMs or OCO-2 observations	Scaled temperature				Precipitation				PAR	
	Temp. grass.	Trop. Grass.	Trop. forest	Desert shrub	Temp. forest	Trop. Grass.	Trop. forest	Desert shrub	Boreal forest	Temp. forest
ISBA-CTrip		-0.12, 0.16	-0.50, -0.17		-0.26, 0	-0.86, -0.54	-0.21, 0.030			-0.84, -0.32
DLEM	0.02, 0.11						-0.01, 0.28	0.19, 0.68		
LPX-Bern	-0.21, 0.07	-0.29, 0.05				-1.32, -0.91	-0.69, -0.06	0.23, 0.42		-1.97, -1.48
VISIT	0.09, 0.15	-0.44, -0.080	-0.18, 0.10			0.44, 0.84	0.14, 0.52	0.32, 0.47	-0.60, -0.10	0.22, 0.50
CABLE-POP			-0.33, -0.08				0.02, 0.26			
CLASS-CTEM				-0.15, -0.06		-0.45, -0.080	-0.44, -0.060			-0.68, -0.34
JSBACH		-0.43, 0.060	-0.56, 0.28		-0.25, 0.32	-0.36, 0.72	-0.07, 0.80			-2.08, -0.97
CLM5	-0.29, -0.10				-0.41, 0.22	-0.32, 0.52				-2.28, -0.99
JULES		-0.35, -0.080	-0.32, -0.08			0.68, 0.88	0.64, 1.25			-0.72, -0.58
OCN		-0.70, -0.14	-0.37, -0.21			0.17, 0.56				-0.57, -0.44
LPJ		-0.14, 0.060	-0.20, 0			0.14, 0.52	0.54, 0.64			
SDGVM	-0.09, 0.04				-0.78, -0.23	-0.99, -0.69	-0.98, -0.73		-2.62, -1.47	-1.92, -1.15
ISAM			-0.39, -0.13			-0.76, -0.21	-0.24, 0.02			-0.90, -0.29
OECHIDEE-CNP	-0.19, -0.16	-0.19, 0.010								
ORCHIDEE		-0.28, 0.020	-0.41, -0.12			-0.80, -0.44	-0.42, -0.16			-1.11, -0.78
OCO-2	-0.28, -0.14	-0.31, 0	-0.69, -0.13	-0.04, 0.07	-0.61, -0.36	-0.54, -0.23	-0.73, -0.43	-0.14, 0.34	-1.02, -0.82	-1.28, -0.75

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