Reply to Referee #2 (gmd-2022-203)

We thank referee #2 for the positive and constructive comments on our manuscript. We took all comments of the reviewer into account. Below we (authors comment, AC) reply to the reviewer (review comment, RC) and revised the manuscript accordingly. Additionally, we highlighted the changes of the manuscript, and attached them to the reply.

Here are our replies:

RC: "I find the description given in the manuscript rather difficult to follow. This might be related to the fact that the authors provide a mixture of technical description of the python tool and scientific explanation of the underlying assumptions."

AC: Thank you for your feedback. We tried to clearly separate the technical description of the Library and the scientific background. That's why we first explain the underlying scientific background of the Library, before we actually introduce their technical details. By clarifying the specific comments of the reviewers and additional explanations on the scientific background, we hope that the descriptions are now better to follow.

RC: "Furthermore, the authors refer to several studies that are still in preparation. This is very unfortunate as the reader is left with insufficient information and open questions, e.g., about the calculation of the climate metric conversion factors (sect. 2.4) or the updated set of algorithmic climate change functions, aCCF-V1.1."

AC: Thanks a lot for this remark. We are fully aware of the problem that the publications are not available yet. Here the detailed answer to the two above mentioned publications:

- 1) In this work we provide metric conversion factors that were derived for this publication. These factors were calculated by the climate response model AirClim (Dahlmann et al., 2016): one simulation with pulse emission and one with future emission scenario. By simply comparing the two simulations the factors can be derived. In order to address the open question on the metric conversion we added some text in the manuscript. The publication in preparation (Dahlmann et al. 2023, in prep.) we refer to will introduce further metric conversion factors. We think that referring to this publication, that is still under preparation, has an added value to the reader, but it is not needed to understand the metric conversion factors.
- 2) The publication of aCCF-V1.1 (Matthes et al., 2023) is also not available yet, but it is in a very final state and will be submitted within the next two weeks to GMDD. Thus, it could be possible to provide the final reference during the type setting process. As aCCF-V1.1 is of particular interest to the potential user of the Library we additionally add the reference to the public Deliverable D1.2 of FlyATM4E "Report on expanded aCCFs including robustness and eco-efficiency aspect" H2020-SESAR-2019-2, where the AirClim calibration factors that are needed for aCCF-V1.1 are provided. However, the detailed explanation will be given in Matthes et al., 2023.
 - Matthes, S., Dietmüller, S., Dahlmann, K., Frömming, C., Yamashita, H., Grewe, V., Yin, F., Castino, F., 2023: Updated algorithmic climate change functions (aCCF) V1.1: Evaluation with the climate response model AirClim, submission to GMDD

RC: "It might be helpful to restructure the manuscript by starting with the description of the tool, the required input data, the workflow etc., and only then describe the underlying scientific assumptions or simplifications. In particular the description of how the merged aCCFs are calculated (current Sect. 2) needs improvement and clarification. For the authors it is certainly clear what is behind all the parameters, conversion or efficacy factors, and where they come from, but for the inexperienced reader it can be very confusing."

AC: Thank for the suggestion to further clarify the structure of the manuscript. We thought about your idea of restructuring the document. However, the current idea is to separate technical description of the Library from the scientific background, where we provide deep insights to e.g. physical climate metrics. Thus, we first explain the scientific background, as we think this information is needed to understand what the Library is doing. Second, we provided a detailed technical description. At the end of the introduction we follow your suggestion and stress the structure of the manuscript. Additionally, we made Section 2 more comprehensive by more detailed explanations.

Reply to specific comments:

L15: which non-CO2 emissions?

→ AC: To be clearer we know reformulated the text. See tracked changes.

L51/52: I find this sentence a bit confusing. On the one hand the authors talk about climate optimal trajectories, on the other hand they consider only non-CO2 climate impacts. How about additional CO2 emissions that might arise from a re-routing to reduce non-CO2 impacts?

→ AC: CO2 is also considered for re-routing, however as CO2 does not depend on the geographical location of emission, their aCCF is just a constant value. To make it clearer we rephrased the sentence to "...quantitative estimate of CO2 as well as of total non-CO2 climate effect. The latter is needed as four-dimensional data set" (see tracked changes).

L90/91: What do you mean by "NOx induced methane"? To me, NOx induced methane sounds like CH4 produced from NOx, but as far as I know NOx emissions from aircraft lead to a reduction of CH4 via NOx induced OH formation, right? So maybe "NOx induced CH4 loss"?

→ AC: Yes, that is right, CH4 is destructed via NOx. In the manuscript we understand the NOx -induced methane change as a methane decrease. To make it less confusing we now shortly explain the NOx- based effect of ozone production and methane destruction in the introduction (see Line 16-22). Moreover, we here changed the text to: "....NOx-induced ozone (production), NOx-induced methane (destruction)". However, in the manuscript we use the wording NOx-induced ozone aCCF and NOx-induced methane aCCF.

L94/95: As stated here, the contrail aCCFs are obtained from contrail radiative forcing calculations based on ERA-Interim reanalysis data, but in the example given in the manuscript ERA5 data are used as meteorological input. Do you expect any errors/biases arising from the different meteorological data sets?

→ AC: The statistical approach that provides the contrail aCCFs is based on a Lagrangian trajectory simulations that are using ERA Interim Data (for details see supplement of Yin et al. 2022). On the contrary, the mathematical formulation of the water vapour, ozone and methane aCCF is based on comprehensive chemistry climate model simulation. The derived aCCF formulations can be applied to every data set (ERA5, ERA-Interim, or any other NWP, or climate data). Generally speaking using different meteorological input data introduces additional uncertainties requiring further evaluation. However, comparing ERA5 and ERA-Interim, we expect only marginal differences.

L100: Please provide some more details/examples on the assumptions and simplifications. And how do these affect the results of your tool?

→ AC: First, the development of aCCFs is based on a statistical approach where assumptions were taken (van Manen et al., 2019). Moreover, the CCFs data, that are the basis of the aCCF formulation are calculated within a climate model (here simplification of atmospheric processes is needed). All these assumptions made

during the development of the aCCFs don't affect the tool. But, the aCCFs are subject of these uncertainties.

L106/107: This sentence is not clear to me. How do the different units of the individual aCCFs affect the weighting for different aircraft/engine classifications? Please clarify.

→ AC: I rephrased the sentence and hope it is clear now. See tracked changes.

L147-149: How is this statement related to the values provided in Table 2?

→ AC: This value is also derived by the emission inventory of the DLR project "Transport and Climate" (TraK). As mentioned in the text the uniform value of 0.16 km/kg(fuel) is given by averaging over the ten most frequent routes in the North Atlantic Flight corridor with the ten most used aircraft types in the year 2012. As mostly wide-body aircraft types are used over the NAFC, this value is similar to the in Table 2 provided wide-body values at typical flight altitudes

Table 1: This table provides altitude-resolved average specific NOx emission indices for three different aircraft categories. The values are provided with three decimal places, which implies a high accuracy. However, I would assume that these numbers are associated with some (large?) uncertainties. For example, the wide-body aircraft type seems to include a wide range of different aircrafts. I would be interested to see some uncertainty ranges of these emission indices. Same holds for table 2.

→ AC: Thanks for the feedback. We now extended both table 1 and table 2 by including the standard deviations of the emission indices.

L182/183: Is the statement on the different emission scenarios a more general comment related to climate metrics or is this directly related to the aircraft emissions? In general, it is not quite clear to me which emission scenarios are meant in Sect. 2.4. Aircraft emissions along a flight track or climate scenarios like the RCPs in general?

→ AC: Different emission scenarios can be used – this statement is not related to aircraft emissions only. However, in section 2.4 we mean the time development of aircraft emissions, when we talk about emission scenarios. The emission scenarios include pulse emission (emission at certain time, leading to temperature change; this metric is used if one compares the future impact of an emission in a certain year), sustained or future increasing emission scenario. Future emission scenario is representing the growth of the air traffic and is used to evaluate temperature change (emission continue to develop) at a given year. We clarified this point in the manuscript.

L191: Why is the climate metric P-ATR20 not suited for some questions? And why are FATR20/50/100 better suited? Please explain

→ AC: The question on the choice of a suited metric is essential. For details the reader is referred to the cited publication of Grewe and Dahlmann 2015. The P-ATR20 metric gives the information about the climate impact of an emission in a certain year. However, if you want to answer the question of the climate effect reduction of steadily applying a certain routing strategy, the P-ATR20 would not give you the right answer and future emission scenario are more suitable. To be clearer we rephrased the text accordingly.

Table3: Why are the conversion factor for H2O aCCF and O3 aCCF identical? Same for CH4 aCCF and PMO aCCF?

→ AC: The conversion factor converts the ATR20 from a pulse emission into ATR from a future increasing emission. An important issue for the conversion factor is the time development of the forcing. As we use the impact on an annual basis the time development of O3 and H2O forcing is the same. Therefore, also the conversion factor for O3 and H2O are the same. The conversion factors of PMO and CH4 are the same, as the time development (and forcing) of PMO is coupled with the time

development (and forcing) of CH4. We added some text in the manuscript. Please see the tracked changes in the resubmission

L239/240: "... compatible and tested with the standard of European Centre for MediumRange Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) data..." What exactly does this mean? Format, naming conventions, meta data? And what is meant by "standard ECMWF data"? Reanalysis? Forecasts? And what would be necessary to use the library with different meteorological data?

→ AC: With standard we mean "Standard format" (naming conventions, meta data, ...). We tested the Library for the different product types of ECMWF reanalysis data (i.e. reanalysis of ERA5, ensemble of ERA5, ERA-Interim, forecast). We didn't test the Library with input from other meteorological data sources. But of course, in the future we aim to make the Library consistent with input from other meteorological data sources, thus the user could specify the source of the data product he wants to use. Such an implementation should be straight forward, only small adoptions in the Library would be necessary. We also addressed this point in the Section "Conclusions" where we give an outlook. Moreover, we delete "standard" and replace it by "several data products of ECMWF (i.e. ERA5, ERA-interim, forecast)"

L274: What is meant by "provided default data set"? Does the python library come with a climatology of meteorological data? And if so, where does the default data set come from?

→ AC: Thanks for recalling this point. In fact, with this sentence, we meant that with CLIMaCCF, there is a possibility to calculate the required meteorological variables (in case of missing) by using other alternative variables included in the input dataset. For instance, the potential vorticity unit required for aCCF of water vapor can be calculated by temperature and components of wind (see Table 5 of the revised paper). In the manuscript we now replace "default data set" by "input data set".

L289: Why is the PCFA-SAC more accurate and how does is consider aircraft and engine properties? In L282/283 it is written that SAC uses rel. humidity over ice and temperature.

- → AC: Thanks, the text is not correctly formulated here. The SAC states, that a contrail will form when the exhaust-air mixture in the expanding plume reaches water-saturation. This depends on ambient air pressure, humidity, fuel and aircraft properties. Thus, using SAC is more accurate than simply using ISSR, that uses the temperature threshold of 235K. However, to exactly calculate SAC one needs to know additional aircraft specific parameters. Rephrased it in the text.
- L368: What is meant by "MET information"? Is MET an abbreviation? If so, please explain.
 - → AC: Meteorological product, we now spell it out

L404: Is there any specific reason for using 15 June 2018 as an example?

→ AC: No there is so specific reason for that choice. It is just an example for a typical summer day. See "as application example" (line 339).

Fig. A1: Is there any difference in the H2O aCCFs for the different aircraft categories? To me, the plots look identical.

→ AC: No, there is no difference here as the specific aCCF of H2O is given in K/kg(fuel), thus there is no need to be converted the H2O aCCF. Moreover, this is also clear from equation 1 and we also addressed the point, that the H2O aCCF is already fuel related and does not need to be multiplied by the emission index of water vapour in Section 2.2. Moreover, we added a short note in the caption of Fig. A1.

L408: ".. gets somehow more important..." This formulation is not very scientific and should be rephrased.

→ AC: Deleted "somehow".

Climate hotspots: I am wondering how meaningful the usage of percentiles as threshold values is? If I understand this approach correctly, it will always identify climate hotspots, no matter how strong the absolute climate impact is, but a re-routing could lead to additional CO2 emissions, so I am wondering how applicable this feature is in practice?

→ AC: Of course, an efficient overall implementation will rely on combining fuel penalty and climate effects with mitigated non-CO2 effects during the trajectory optimization process. And yes, it is right, that with this approach climate hotspots are always identified. We also tested constant thresholds (this is also an option included in the Library), however these constant thresholds are not representative for different altitudes, seasons, geographical locations. Thus, we decided to use percentiles as threshold value. Future development could of course provide different concepts of identifying climate hotspots (e.g. tabulated geographical and time dependent fixed threshold values). By the selection of the 99% or 95% percentiles the regions that are identified are small, we expect that the re-routing (from fuel optimal route) will not need much additional fuel (and thus additional CO2).

Section 5.3: I think this section would benefit from a more quantitative discussion of uncertainties. For example, what is the uncertainty range of the non-CO2 climate effects?

→ AC: This section underlines, that several sources of uncertainties are associated with the calculation of aCCF. As mentioned in the text Lee et al., 2021 summarizes the quantitative estimate of aviation RF (their Fig. 3 illustrates the confidence intervals of these RF estimates). We do not see the need to repeat these values here, however we directly refer to Fig.3 of Lee et al., 2021 in the text now.

Although it is a bit unsatisfying that the authors strongly refer to a paper that is still in preparation. What is the status of Matthes et al, 2022?

- → AC: Thanks a lot for pointing that out. As mentioned in the comment above this paper is still not available yet, but in a very final state. Note that *Matthes et al. 2022* is now separated into two papers. One is about the updated aCCF version (aCCF-V1.1), explaining in detail their development (submission to GMDD within the next two weeks). The other one is the paper on the FlyATM4E concept of identifying robust eco-efficient aircraft trajectories (submitted to Meteorologische Zeitschrift, TAC special issue).
 - Matthes, S., Dahlmann, K., Dietmüller, S., Yamashita, H., Grewe, V., Soler, M., Simorgh, A., González Arriba, D., Linke, F., Lührs, B., Meuser, Maximilian, C. F., and Yin, F.: Concept for identifying robust eco-efficient aircraft trajectories: methodological concept of climate-optimized aircraft trajectories in FlyATM4E, Meteorologische Zeitschrift, 2023, submitted
 - Matthes, S., Dietmüller, S., Dahlmann, K., Frömming, C., Yamashita, H., Grewe,
 V., Yin, F., Castino, F., 2023: Updated algorithmic climate change functions (aCCF)
 V1.1: Evaluation with the climate response model AirClim, submission to GMDD
 - We will additionally refer in the manuscript to the public Deliverable D.1 of the FLyATM4E project, that provides the AirClim calibration factors, needed for aCCF-V1.1. However, we hope that these publications are available as preprint within the typesetting phase.
- 5.4: Would you expect different results for meteorological input data other than ERA5? How sensitive are the calculated aCCFs to the meteorological data?
 - → AC: How sensitive the aCCFs are for different meteorological data, depends on how the input data (e.g. temperature, geopotential) differ between the used dataset and the ERA5 data. Moreover, the vertical and horizontal resolution of the used data product also influences the granularity of the aCCFs. We added a comment on that in Section 5.4.

L536/537: What would be necessary to use other meteorological data than ECMWF products in CLIMaCCF? Is it only a coding issue or would the calculation of the aCCF require additional adaptations?

→ AC: Yes, that is only a coding issue. All NWP data, providing the input variables that are needed to calculate aCCFs, could be used. We only tested it for ERA ECMWF data - however, with some small coding adoptions the Library could also use other data products. Rephrased to be clearer.

A python library for computing individual and merged non-CO₂ algorithmic climate change functions: CLIMaCCF V1.0

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Abstract. Aviation aims to reduce its climate impact_effect by adopting trajectories, that avoid those regions of the atmosphere where aviation emissions have a large impact. To that end, prototype algorithmic climate change functions (aCCFs) can be used, which provide spatially and temporally resolved information on aviation's climate impact_effect in terms of future near-surface temperature change. These aCCFs can be calculated with meteorological input data obtained from e.g. numerical weather prediction models. We here present the open-source Python Library called CLIMaCCF, an easy to use and flexible tool which efficiently calculates both the individual aCCFs (i.e., aCCF of water vapour, nitrogen oxide (NO_x) induced ozone and methane, and production and methane depletion, and of contrail-cirrusaCCFs) and the merged non-CO₂ aCCFs that combine all these individual contributions. These merged aCCFs can be only constructed with the To construct merged aCCFs all individual aCCFs are converted to the same physical unit. This unit conversion needs the technical specification of aircraft/engine parameters, i.e., NO_x emission indices and flown distance per kg burnt fuel. These aircraft/engine specific values are provided within CLIMaCCF version V1.0 for a set of aggregated aircraft/engine classes (i.e. regional, single-aisle, wide-body). Moreover, CLIMaCCF allows by a user-friendly configuration setting to choose between a set of different the user to choose from a range of physical climate metrics (i.e. average temperature response for pulse or future scenario emissions over the time horizons of 20, 50 or 100 years). Finally, we demonstrate the abilities of CLIMaCCF by-through a series of example applications.

1 Introduction

Global aviation significantly contributes to the anthropogenic climate change by CO_2 and non- CO_2 emissions. Non- CO_2 of all non- CO_2 emissions also affect the climatesystem by changing the concentrations of ozone, water vapour, methane and aerosols as well as cloudiness by forming have a direct effect on climate. Aircraft NO_x emissions are not radiatively active themselves, but they are very effective in the photo-chemical production of ozone (O_3) causing a positive radiative forcing. At the same time increased NO_x and O_3 concentrations lead to an increased oxidation of methane (CH_4) causing a negative

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radiative forcing (e.g. ??). This destruction of methane leads to a subsequent reduction in the ozone productivity, which reduces background ozone concentrations (PMO, primary mode ozone, (e.g. ?)), also causing a negative forcing. Furthermore, induced by non-CO₂ emissions, contrails and contrail-cirrus . As can form in ice supersaturated regions and alter the radiation budget (e.g. ?). Overall, as recently reviewed by ?, global aviation contributes to 3.5% of the total anthropogenic radiative forcing (RF). The total aviation RF comprises about one one—third CO₂ effects and about two thirds two-thirds non-CO₂ effects. The largest single contribution to aviation RF comes from contrails and contrail-cirrus, but this estimate is affected by a very large uncertainty, as well as for NO_x impacts effects (?). In contrast to the CO₂ impacts effect, the non-CO₂ impacts effects reveal a strong dependence on atmospheric conditions. Thus, the non-CO₂ impacts effects depend on the geographical location, altitude and time of aircraft emission (e.g. ??). In order to provide information on this—the spatially and temporally resolved climate impact effect of these non-CO₂ effects, climate change functions (CCFs) were developed with an atmospheric chemistry climate model system (?). These CCFs provide a measure of the spatial and temporal climate impact effect for a given emission by using the metric of average temperature response (ATR). These CCFs were calculated for a wide range of time steps and for eight representative weather types in summer and winter classified after ? over the North Atlantic region (?).

Based on these CCFs, ? investigated the transatlantic air traffic for one single winter day and analysed the routing changes that are required to achieve a reduction in the impact effect of air traffic on climate. Thus, this study provides a first comprehensive and valuable basis for weather-dependent flight trajectory optimization with minimum climate impact respect to minimum climate effect. However, as the calculation of these CCFs within a global chemistry-climate model system requires large computational cost, it cannot be used for operational climate optimized climate-optimized flight planning. To address this issue, the initial concept of CCFs was extended to algorithmic climate change functions (aCCFs). These functions provide a very fast computation of the individual non-CO₂ climate impact effect as they are based on mathematical formulas which only need a fairly limited number of relevant local meteorological parameters as input (e.g???). To derive the mathematical formulation of the individual aCCFs (a detailed formulation of these prototype aCCFs is given in Appendix A), statistical methods were used. A detailed explanation of the concept of aCCFs the aCCF approach can be found in ? for the NO_x induced emission induced effect on the species ozone and methane (as NO_x acts as a precursor to ozone production and methane depletion), and for water vapour. In the case of the contrail aCCFs approach, a detailed description is available in the supplement of ?. These aCCFs formulas facilitate predicting the climate impact facilitates the prediction of the climate effect of individual species by means of meteorological input data from e.g., weather forecast, without computationally extensive re-calculation using chemistry-climate models. Of course, a number of assumptions and simplifications are necessary for this kind of statistical approach. Nevertheless, it was shown in the studies of ? and ? that these prototype aCCFs are in broad agreement with the climate change metric of earlier studies, i.e. CCFs (?).

Indeed, aCCFs can be used for trajectory planning purposes. The weather dependent re-routing of flight trajectories in order to reduce the climate impact effect of air traffic needs the information on regions that are highly sensitive to aviation emissions. In order to quantify the potential of mitigating aviation's climate impacteffect, case studies with optimized aircraft trajectories that use the above described aCCFs, were performed. These studies showed that re-routing has a large potential to reduce the air traffic's contribution to climate change. Even small changes in the flight trajectory can lead to significant reduction of the

climate impact effect (see e.g. ?????).

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Nevertheless, a elimate optimal climate-optimal trajectory (interested readers are also referred to ? for a recent, thorough survey on elimate optimal climate-optimal aircraft trajectory planning) requires a quantitative estimate of the total CO_2 and non- CO_2 climate impact-effects. The latter is needed as four dimensional data set (latitude, longitude, altitude, time). This location and time dependent quantitative estimate can be generated by combining the individual aCCFs of water vapour, NO_x induced ozone and methane changes induced ozone (production), NO_x induced methane (depletion), and contrail-cirrus to a merged non- CO_2 aCCF by means of a consistent climate metric. However, for combining the individual aCCFs, it has to be considered that the aCCF algorithms provide their estimates in average temperature change per emitted mass of the relevant species, e.g. in $K/kg(NO_2)$ for the ozone aCCF. Thus, before merging the individual aCCFs, all individual aCCFs have to be converted to the unit of K/kg(fuel). For this conversion the information on NO_x emission indices and flown distance per kg burnt fuel (specific range) is needed. Based on these generated merged non- CO_2 aCCFs elimate optimized climate-optimized trajectories that aim to avoid climate sensitive regions can be calculated efficiently. Note, that also the total merged aCCF (non- CO_2 as well as CO_2 effects included) can be calculated, however as the CO_2 aCCF is a constant in location and time, we focus on the merged non- CO_2 aCCFs.

The development of the Python Library, CLIMaCCF, which will be released together with this paper (available on Zenodo with the software DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.6977272) represents a technical enabler to seamlessly integrate the information of spatially and temporally dependent non-CO₂ climate impacts effects (in terms of individual and also merged non-CO₂ aCCFs) in a trajectory optimization tool. In this paper we will present both the scientific background of merging aCCFs and the technical framework of the user friendly and flexible Python Library CLIMaCCF V1.0.

The paper is structured as follows. In Section ?? the scientific background of generating merged aCCFs, which quantify the spatial and temporal non-CO₂ climate impact of aviation, is described. Merged non-CO₂ aCCFs rely on the individual prototype algorithmic climate change functions. Before combining these individual aCCFs we explain how individual aCCFs are combined to a merged aCCF, non-Co₂, by taking assumptions about emission indices of NO_x and flown distance per kg burnt fuel. We also provide a detailed overview on the scientific climate background needed to understand which decisions have to be made and decisions on the physical climate metric used and the inclusion or exclusion of the forcing dependent efficacy (e.g. ?) have to be takenbefore generating the merged aCCF. This includes insights to physical climate metrics and forcing dependent efficacies. In Section ?? the technical implementation (general architecture) of the Python Library CLIMaCCF is given by describing how the user can generate individual and merged aCCFs in a flexible manner. Section ?? provides various analyses of the individual aCCFs and the merged aCCF, showing their characteristic patterns. Moreover, the sensitivity of merged aCCFs to different assumptions, as well as the identification of climate highly sensitive regions identifying regions of high climate sensitivity in the presence of aircraft emissions is given. A discussion about the capability and the limitations of the Python Library follows (Section ??), before the conclusions are drawn in Section ??.

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2 Generation of merged aCCFs

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Based on aCCFs that represent the individual effects of water vapour, NO_x induced ozone and methane changes—induced ozone increase, NO_x —induced methane decrease and contrail-cirrus, a single aCCF function which combines these individual CO_2 and non- CO_2 impacts effects can be generated (i.e. merged aCCF). This merged aCCF can be used as advanced meteorological (MET) information for flight planning, as a climate-optimized trajectory requires the quantification of the total climate impact effect as four-dimensional data set (latitude, longitude, altitude and time). Such a merged aCCF can only be constructed by using assumptions on several aircraft/engine specific parameters and consistent climate metrics. In the following, we describe the concept of merging aCCFs and the underlying assumptions (choice of aircraft/engine parameters, climate metric and efficacy) in detail.

100 2.1 Mathematical formulation of individual aCCFs

As mentioned in the introduction, aCCFs were developed to provide a computational fast way to calculate the climate impact effect of individual non-CO₂ aviation emissions in dependence of their geographical location, altitude, time and weather. Correlations and statistical methods were used to derive the individual prototype aCCFs of water vapour, NO_x induced ozone-induced ozone (production), NO_xinduced methane induced methane (destruction) and contrail-cirrus. For water vapour, ozone and methane aCCFs, this was done by linking a large range of climate change function (CCF) data, which were calculated in a detailed chemistry climate model simulation (?), to selected meteorological data, as e.g., temperature or geopotential height (?). The algorithm for contrail aCCFs was developed differently. Contrail aCCFs are obtained from contrail radiative forcing calculations which are based on ERA-Interim reanalysis data (?) and on European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) reanalysis and contrail trajectory data (?). A short overview of the mathematical formulation of these emission type dependent prototype aCCFs is given in Appendix A of this document. For a detailed description of the first complete and consistent set of prototype aCCFs (aCCF-V1.0) the reader is referred to ?. Moreover, within the EU project FlyATM4E an updated set of aCCFs (aCCF-V1.1) was developed that considers current level of scientific understanding of aviation's climate effects: For more details, readers are referred to ?...? Overall for the development of the aCCF a number of assumptions and simplifications were necessary—, e.g. in the statistical approach or in the calculation of the CCF data in a climate chemistry model. Nevertheless, it was shown that these aCCFs are in broad agreement with the climate change metric of earlier studies (e.g. ??).

2.2 Merged non-CO₂ aCCFs and total aCCFs

To build the merged non-CO₂ aCCFs, all individual aCCFs are converted consistently to the same physical units of [K/kg(fuel)]. Note that the In order to be independent of the aircraft type the individual aCCFs (except the water vapour aCCF) are given in different specific units, i.e., K/km for contrail aCCFs or K/kg(NO₂) for the NO_x induced ozone and methane aCCF. These differences result in different weighting of the effect for different aircraft/engine classifications. To this end, we select for By simply multiplying the NO_x induced aCCFs (aCCF_{Q3}, aCCF_{CH4}, and aCCF_{PMQ}) by the NO_x emission indices (EI_{NO_x})

in $g(NO_2)/kg(fuel))$ and for contrail cirrus specific range or the contrail-cirrus aCCF (aCCF_{contrail}) by flown distance per kg burnt fuel (F_{km} in [km/kg(fuel)]) -all individual aCCF are converted to same unit (K/kg(fuel)) and in a second step the converted individual aCCF are combined to a merged aCCF (see Eq. 1). Note that the water vapour aCCF formula is already fuel related and, thus, does not need to be multiplied by the emission index of water vapour. Typical transatlantic fleet mean values of EI_{NO_x} and of F_{km} are available from the literature: transatlantic fleet mean values for F_{km} is 0.16 km/kg(fuel) (? and personal communication F. Linke, TU Hamburg, 2020) and for EI_{NO_x} is 13 g(NO₂)/kg(fuel) (e.g. ?), respectively. Another possibility is to take specific emitted amounts of NO_x emissions and fuel consumption values from an engine performance model. Here, we use altitude depending In this study we also provide altitude dependent mean emission indices for NO_x and flown distance per kg burnt fuel for aggregated aircraft/engine classifications (e.g. regional, single-aisle and wide-body, see Section 2.3) and combine that with the choice of climate metric (Section 2.4) and the use of forcing efficacies (Section 2.5) to merge non-CO₂ aCCFs:

$$aCCF_{merged}^{non-CO_{2}}(t,x,y,z,i_{ac},i_{r},i_{CM}) =$$

$$135 \quad aCCF_{O_{3}}(t,x,y,z) * EI_{NO_{x}}(i_{ac},z) * r_{O_{3}}(i_{r}) * CM_{O_{3}}(i_{CM})$$

$$+aCCF_{CH_{4}}(t,x,y,z) * EI_{NO_{x}}(i_{ac},z) * r_{CH_{4}}(i_{r}) * CM_{CH_{4}}(i_{CM})$$

$$+aCCF_{PMO}(t,x,y,z) * EI_{NO_{x}}(i_{ac},z) * r_{PMO}(i_{r}) * CM_{PMO}(i_{CM})$$

$$+aCCF_{contrail}(t,x,y,z) * F_{km}(i_{ac},z) * r_{contrail}(i_{r}) * CM_{contrail}(i_{CM})$$

$$+aCCF_{H_{2}O}(t,x,y,z) * r_{H_{2}O}(i_{r}) * CM_{H_{2}O}(i_{CM}),$$

$$(1)$$

where $aCCF_X$ are the algorithmic climate change functions for a specie species X i.e., water vapour (H₂O), ozone (O₃), methane (CH₄), primary mode ozone (PMO), and contrail-cirrus. The variables t, x, y, z indicate the three spatial variables (x, y, z) and time (t). i_{ac} is the identifier for three mean aircraft/engine classes: regional, single-aisle, wide-body (see Section (t)). $r_X(i_r)$ is the efficacy (see Section (t)) of the species t0 with the switch t1 for disregarding or using the efficacies (i.e. $r_X(0)=1$) and $r_X(i_{CM})$ is the climate metric conversion factor (see Section (t)2 for species t3 and the choice of currently four climate metrics t3.

By additionally including the aviation climate impact effect of CO₂ the total merged aCCF is given:

$$aCCF_{merged}^{total}(t, x, y, z, i_{ac}, i_r, i_{CM}) =$$

$$= aCCF_{CO_2} * CM_{CO_2}(i_{CM}) + aCCF_{merged}^{non-CO_2}(t, x, y, z, i_{ac}, i_r, i_{CM})$$
(2)

Note that the CO_2 aCCF is independent of the location x, y, z, efficacy (r_X) and aircraft class.

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For a merged aCCF it is required that the individual aCCFs are based on the same physical climate metric, emission scenario and time horizon. The recent publication of ? comprises such a consistent set of individual updated prototype aCCFs. Note, that earlier publications (as e.g. ?) provided mathematical formulations that assumed different emission scenarios for water vapour and NO_x aCCFs and for contrail aCCFs, as they were developed separately.

Overall, merged aCCFs are not only a function of time and location, but also a function of aircraft/engine specific data, climate metric and efficacy. For an efficient and flexible provision of such merged aCCFs we developed the Python Library CLIMaCCF.

2.3 Choice of aircraft/engine specific parameters

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The calculation of merged non-CO₂ aCCFs requires knowledge about the emission index of NO_x , EI_{NO_x} , and the flown distance per kg burnt fuel, F_{km} (see Eq. 1). As these indices vary depending on the actual aircraft-engine combination (i_{ac}) and the cruise altitude (z), the use of global mean emission indices should be avoided. Moreover, there is a strong altitude dependency of the NO_x emission index and flown distance F_{km} , which should be considered as well. Aggregated values for altitude dependent emission indices are derived from trajectory simulation and emission inventory data. Similarly, aggregated values for the specific range (i.e. flown distance per kg burnt fuel) F_{km} , are gained.

For instance, analyzing the ten most frequented routes in the North Atlantic Flight Corridor with the ten most used aircraft types in 2012 yields an average flown distance per kg burnt fuel of 0.16 km/kg(fuel) (personal communication F. Linke, 2020) for transatlantic flights. More differentiated values are obtained by analyzing available emission inventory data from the DLR project "Transport and Climate" (TraK). This data contains the air traffic emission distribution in year 2015 and can be evaluated separately per aircraft type, altitude or region. Basis for the development of these emission inventories was a database of reduced emission profiles within the Global Air Traffic Emission Distribution Laboratory (GRIDLAB, ?). Those profiles were created by simulating aircraft trajectories for various ranges and load conditions with aircraft performance models from EUROCONTROL's Base of Aircraft Data (BADA, ?) model families 3 and 4. Along those trajectories engine emissions were calculated using the EUROCONTROL-modified Boeing Fuel Flow method 2 (??) applied to engine certification data for the Landing and Take-off Cycle (LTO) taken from the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) Engine emission database. In order to create the reduced profiles, those trajectory emission data were finally resampled to only consider key points along the profile such as transitions between flight phases. The emission inventory contains gridded data in a resolution of 0.25°× 0.25° × 1000 ft (Weder et al., 2022, under preparation). Associated to each grid cell are the amounts of the individual emission species as well as the flown distance in that grid cell. The aggregated mean EI_{NO_x} value at a given altitude is calculated by dividing the sum of the amounts of emissions per species in all grid cells at that altitude by the sum of burnt fuel at that altitude. The specific range is calculated accordingly. We evaluated aggregated fleet-level values for $EI_{NO_x}(i_{ac}, z)$ and the specific range $F_{km}(i_{ac}, z)$ for a variety of aircraft/engine classes. As the aircraft specific values are similar for certain aircraft/engine class, we group those aircraft classes and provide their average fleet values and their standard deviation in Tables ?? and ??. Three different aircraft types are given; regional (small aircraft with short range (up to 100 seats)), single-aisle (short to mediumrange narrow-body aircraft) and wide-body (medium to long-range aircraft (250-600 seats)).

Table ?? clearly shows that average EI_{NO_x} values increase with increasing aircraft class/size, while EI_{NO_x} values decrease with increasing altitude. NO_x emissions are produced during combustion due to high combustion temperatures, which are connected to high thrust settings and engine load conditions. In general, the thrust requirement increases with the aircraft size. Increasing the thrust requirement leads to an increase in the combustion temperature, therefore, an increase in NO_x emissions. Below cruise altitude the aircraft is e.g. during climb operated with climb thrust and during descent with near idle conditions

Table 1. Average specific NO_x emission indices and their standard deviation (in $g(NO_2)/kg(fuel)$) for the three aircraft classes (regional, single-aisle, wide-body) derived from the global TraK emission inventory. $EI_{NO_x}((i_{ac}, z))$ are shown for various typical flight altitudes (20000 ft - 40000 ft). Besides the flight altitude in ft the corresponding pressure level under ICAO standard atmosphere is given in hPa.

flight altitude [ft]	pressure level [hPa]	regional [g(NO ₂)/kg(fuel)]	single-aisle [g(NO ₂)/kg(fuel)]	wide-body [g(NO ₂)(kg(fuel)]
20000	466	11.628 11.464±1.270	17.279 17.242±1.008	24.750 24.765±0.928
25000	376	$\frac{10.223}{10.168} \pm 1.144$	$\frac{14.877}{14.765} \pm 0.859$	$\frac{22.182}{22.229} \pm 0.835$
30000	301	9.377±1 <u>.026</u>	$\frac{13.603}{13.602} \pm 0.792$	$\frac{19.158}{19.230} \pm 0.743$
35000	238	7.968 ± 0.827	$\frac{11.24911.248}{11.248} \pm 0.686$	$\frac{15.008}{15.423} \pm 0.579$
40000	188	6.567 ± 0.795	8.564 8.563 ± 0.642	12.730 ± 0.434

Table 2. Average flown distance per burnt fuel and their standard deviation (in km/kg(fuel)) for the three aircraft classes (regional, single-aisle, wide-body) derived from the global TraK emission inventory. $F_{km}(i_{ac}, z)$ values are shown in dependence of typical flight altitude (20000 ft - 40000 ft). Besides the flight altitude in ft the corresponding pressure level under ICAO standard atmosphere is given in hPa.

flight altitude [ft]	pressure level [hPa]	regional [km/kg(fuel)]	single-aisle [km/kg(fuel)]	wide-body [km/kg(fuel)]
20000	466	0.393 0.340±0.070	0.252 ± 0.013	0.096 ± 0.004
25000	376	$0.4420.450\pm0.075$	$0.282{\pm0.015}$	0.107 ± 0.004
30000	301	0.470 ± 0.081	0.287 ± 0.015	0.117 ± 0.005
35000	238	0.488 ± 0.086	0.324 ± 0.018	$0.1200.116 \pm 0.005$
40000	188	0.682 ± 0.108	0.401 ± 0.024	0.157 ± 0.007

leading to on average higher engine loads at lower altitudes than during cruise. The flown distance in Table ?? increases with altitude, as the aircraft is operated in near-fuel-optimal conditions during cruise. On the other hand, larger aircraft tend to have a lower specific range than aircraft with shorter range, as they become less fuel efficient on longer ranges, on which they have to carry additional fuel solely for the purpose of transporting a higher fuel mass over a long distance.

2.4 Choice of physical climate metric

Physical climate metrics can be understood as methods to directly compare the climate impact effect of different forcing agents, or different sectors and sources (?). A climate metric is a combination of climate indicator (e.g. average temperature response (ATR) or global warming potential (GWP)), time horizon (e.g. 20, 50 or 100 years) and emission scenario, including emission scenarios and background emission (?). As emission scenarios a pulse, sustained For the time development of aircraft emissions a pulse (emission at a certain time), sustained (emission sustained at a certain time) or a future increasing (emission continue to develop) scenario might be considered (?). The choice of an adequate climate impact effect metric depends on the specific question of climate impact effect (e.g. 'Contribution to nowadays climate impact effect', 'What is the long-term climate

impact effect?') to be answered (?). Thus, depending on the question different climate impact effect metrics should be used.

The aCCFs were developed based on the climate metric of average temperature response over a time horizon of 20 years (ATR20). The emission scenario assumed was either based on pulse emission (P) or on the future business as usual emission scenario (F). This inconsistency has been discovered and a revision of the aCCFs is given in the recent publication of ?. Now all direct outputs of aCCF formulas are given in P-ATR20 (ATR20 based on pulse emission). As P-ATR20 is not my not be well suited for some questionsthis climate metric is not well suited. Therefore all questions, e.g. for the question of the climate effect reduction of steadily applying a certain routing strategy future emission scenario are more suitable. Thus we introduced conversion factors $CM_X(i_{CM})$ (see Eq. 1) which make it possible to switch from the P-ATR20 metric (which is the basis of the aCCF-V1.0 formulas in the Appendix A) to other physical climate metrics, as e.g. ATR based on the future emission scenario (i.e. business as usual) with different time horizons (i.e. F-ATR20, F-ATR50 or F-ATR100). To calculate these conversion factors we use the non-linear climate response model AirClim (??) and perform several simulations with different emission scenarios. A first set of conversion factors for four different metrics (i_{CM}) is presented in Table ??. Note, that for the conversion factor the time development of the forcing is important. As we use the impact on an annual basis the time development of O₃ and H₂O forcing is the same. Therefore, also the conversion factor for O₃ and H₂O are the same. The conversion factors of PMO and CH₄ are the same, as the time development (and forcing) of PMO is coupled with the time development (and forcing) of CH₄. Conversion factors for other emission scenarios and other climate indicators will be presented in an upcoming publication by Dahlmann et al., 2022 (in preparation).

Table 3. Climate metric conversion factors CM_x from P-ATR20 (pulse emission based ATR over 20 years) to F-ATR20 (future emission based ATR over 20 years), F-ATR50 (future emission based ATR over 50 years) and F-ATR100 (future emission based ATR over 100 years) for water vapour, ozone, methane, primary mode ozone (PMO), contrail-cirrus and CO_2 aCCFs.

	F-ATR20	F-ATR50	F-ATR100
water vapour aCCF	14.5	34.1	58.3
ozone aCCF	14.5	34.1	58.3
methane aCCF	10.8	42.5	98.2
PMO aCCF	10.8	42.5	98.2
contrail aCCF	13.6	30.16	48.9
CO ₂ aCCF	9.4	44.0	125.0

220 2.5 Choice of climate forcing related efficacy

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Radiative forcing (RF), measured in W/m^2 , describes the change of the planetary energy balance. RF is often used as a metric for comparing the global climate impact effect of specific forcing components (e.g. CO_2 , ozone, aerosols). What makes RF so useful for comparison is its empirical based linear relationship to the steady-state global mean near-surface temperature change

(e.g. ??). The model dependent constant, which relates these two parameters, is the so-called climate sensitivity parameter λ (e.g. ??). This relation is a good approximation for many spatially homogeneously distributed climate forcing components, such as CO_2 . However, for radiatively active gases with a distinctly inhomogeneous structure in-homogeneous structure (vertically and horizontally) like, e.g. ozone and contrailschange patterns from precursor emissions of the aviation sectors and contrail-cirrus, the relation with constant climate sensitivity parameter fails (e.g. ??). Several studies showed that the (e.g. ???). Thus, RF of some non- CO_2 forcing agents is may be less or more effective in changing global mean temperature per unit forcing compared to the response of CO_2 forcing. As pointed out by, e.g., ? or ?, this can be explained by the fact that such non-homogeneous forcings trigger feedbacks, that differ from those induced by CO_2 (giving a climate response different from CO_2). A way to account for this is to introduce a forcing dependent efficacy parameters, which is defined as warming per unit global average forcing divided by the warming per unit forcing from CO_2 . By considering this efficacy (???), a better prediction of the global expected global mean temperature change is given.

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As mentioned before, aCCFs are based on the climate metric average temperature response (ATR) over a certain time horizon, a useful metric to asses aviation induced climate impact assess aviation-induced climate effect (?). However, here ATR was calculated without taking the efficacy of the different non-CO₂ forcing components into account. Integrating the efficacies r_X of water vapour, ozone, methane and contrail cirrus to the merged aCCFs (see Eq. 1) makes the prediction of aviation elimate impact has the potential to make the predictions of aviation induced temperature change and climate effect more reliable. State-of-the-art efficacies Efficacies were recently summarized in ? and are shown in Table ??. The efficacy of the NO_x induced -induced short term ozone, NO_x induced methane and NO_x induced primary mode ozone PMO-induced methane is larger than 1. This means that ozone and methane RF have a higher impact on the temperature response than CO₂. However, the efficacy values provided by ? may require updates, e.g. other values for ozone efficacies were provided by ?, using a more realistic ozone change pattern from aviation emission. Moreover, ? assume the PMO efficacy to be equal to that for methane, although the PMO change pattern is largely unknown and there are no dedicated PMO climate sensitivity simulations available. For contrails, the efficacy given in ? is lower than 1, meaning that contrail RF has a lower impact on the global temperature response than CO₂. Note that the contrail efficacy of 0.42 in ? is based on three different contrail efficacy estimates from earlier studies, including an estimate of 0.59 (?), an estimate of 0.31 (?) and an estimate of 0.35 (?). Efficacies strongly deviating for unity (as in case of contrail cirrus) can substantially affect the assessment of mitigation measures (e.g. ?), but it would be desirable to have more model studies on the subject to establish more reliable values.

3 Technical implementation of individual and merged aCCFs in the Python Library CLIMaCCF Version 1.0

The generation of individual and merged non-CO₂ aCCFs will be performed by using a user-friendly Library developed with Python, called CLIMaCCF. The scope of CLIMaCCF is to provide individual and merged aCCFs as spatially and temporally resolved information considering meteorology from the actual synoptical situation, the engine/aircraft type, the selected physical climate metric, and the selected version of prototype algorithms in individual aCCFs (i.e. aCCF-V1.0 and aCCF-V1.1; see Section 2.1). In the following, some details on the technical implementation of the Python Library are presented. For a

Table 4. Overview of state-of-the-art efficacies r_X of NO_x induced induced ozone, methane. PMO, as well as of water vapour and contrails contrail cirrus. Respective references are given in the right side of the table.

	efficacy	Reference
ozone	1.37	?
methane	1.18	?
PMO	1.18	?
H_2O	1	?
contrail-cirrus	0.59	?
	0.31	?
	0.35	?
	0.42*	?

^{*} Lee et al. 2021 value is the mean over the values given by ???

more comprehensive documentation, the reader is referred to the CLIMaCCF User Manual that is provided as a Supplement to this paper. Overall, the Python Library consists of three main blocks: input block, processing block, and output block (see schematic workflow in Figure ??). In the input block, the Python Library obtains the weather data (e.g., forecast, reanalysis, etc.) containing the required meteorological input and configurations like climate metric and aircraft/engine class. In the processing block, the individual aCCFs are calculated and merged aCCFs are generated. In the output block the individual and merged aCCFs are stored. In the following we describe these three blocks in more detail.

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3.1 Input block

Within the input block (left box in Fig. ??), the meteorological input data needed to calculate aCCFs are specified by the user. All meteorological input data needed to calculate the individual aCCFs are summarized in Table ??. The current im-265 plementation of the Library is compatible and tested with the standard of several data products of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) data(i.e. reanalysis data ERA 5 and ERA-Interim, forecast). These user settings include the selections of geographical area, horizontal resolution and several output options (e.g. the output file can include merged aCCFs, individual aCCFs and the input data used). Besides the specification of meteorological input data, users can 270 select the version of aCCFs they aim to use. These options include aCCF-V1.0, which is the first consistent and complete set of aCCFs (?), aCCF-V1.1, in which the aCCFs-V1aCCF-V1.0 are scaled by educated guess factors (?) is calibrated to the climate response model AirClim (see ??). Additionally user-defined scaling factors can be applied to the selected aCCF version. These scaling factors are set to one per by default, however if a scaling of the aCCFs (to higher or lower values) is wanted desired (e.g. for sensitivity studies) the user can adopt them accordingly. User settings for the generation of individual and merged aCCFs 275 can also be selected. Here, the user can choose different assumptions for aircraft specific parameters and the physical climate metric (emission scenario, physical climate indicator, time horizons). Moreover, the user can decide if the aCCF calculation is performed with or without considering consideration of efficacy. As for efficacy, users can use the values reported by? or define the factors themselves use efficacy values provided by other studies. As the selection of aircrafttype/engine classification is an important factor in determining reliable merged aCCF (see Section ??), we have implemented an initial set of specific 280 emission indices for some selected aircraft/engine combinations. By selecting an aggregated aircraft/engine type, tabulated flight level dependent NO_x emission indices and flown distance per burnt fuel values are used to calculate the merged aCCFs. An additional functionality is the identification of areas that are very sensitive to aviation emission, in the following called 'climate hotspots'. To quantify these areas, a threshold value is used to identify the regions with very large effects induced from aviation, has to be chosen. The threshold to determine these climate hotspot areas is also considered as an adjustable 285 parameter (for details, see Section ??). In the end, the users can specify output parameters such as merged aCCFs or the aCCFs of each species. In the case of using ensemble forecasts, one can also receive the ensemble mean and ensemble spread of the resulting individual or merged aCCFs from CLIMaCCF. The user can select the output format (either netCDF, or PICKLE). There is also a possibility to output the climate hotspots in the GeoJSON file format.

3.2 Processing block

The processing block (upper right box in Fig. ??) performs the aCCF calculations using the given weather data and the above-described user settings. The processing block includes, for the aCCF calculation, preprocessing of input variables, the calculation of individual and merged aCCF, as well as the calculation of climate sensitive regions (climate hotspots). A more detailed description of these calculations is given in the following.

Before calculating individual and merged aCCFs, preprocessing of several input data is needed:

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Processing weather data: In an initial step, based on the user preferences, the geographical areas, where the merged aCCFs are calculated, can be reduced, or the default resolutions can be changed. In these cases, some modifications are applied to the original input weather data. Notice that the horizontal resolution cannot be increased, and the decrease in resolution is a factor i of natural numbers. For instance, if the resolution of meteorological input data is $0.25^{\circ}x$ 0.25° , the resolution can be reduced to $i*0.25^{\circ}x$ $i*0.25^{\circ}$, for $i \in \mathbb{N}$.

Calculate required weather variables form alternative variables: If If some required meteorological variables are missing in the input data set, they can be retrieved from provided default alternative variables included in the data set. Howeveronly, only if alternative variables described in Table ?? exist in the data set, as they will be employed to calculate the required variables.

Tabulated aircraft/engine specific parameters: In the database of the Library, NO_x emission indices (EI_{NO_x}) and flown distances (F_{km}) are provided for different types of aircraft (i.e. regional, single aisle, wide-body) at different flight levels. By using spline interpolations, these indices are calculated for any given flight level (or pressure level).

Calculate persistent contrail formation areas: The units of the day- and night-time contrail aCCFs are given in the unit of [K/km], meaning that they are defined only in areas where the formation of persistent contrails is possible, called persistent contrail formation areas (PCFA). These regions are identified by two atmospheric conditions (e.g. ?): First the Schmidt-Appleman condition (SAC) (?), using the meteorological variables of relative humidity over ice and temperaturethat contrails form if the exhaust-air mixture in the expanding plume reaches water-saturation, has to be fulfilled. SAC describes the formation of both short-lived and long-lasting (or persistent) contrails. For the persistence of contrails a second criteria is needed: the ambient air has to be supersaturated with respect to ice, meaning that the relative humidity over ice ($rhum_{ice}$) is higher that than 100%. Within CLIMaCCF the PCFA are calculated in the processing step. Here the user has two possibilities: The first possibility is to calculate PCFA by using the thresholds, one for the temperature (of ice supersaturated regions (ISSR), using the temperature threshold of T < 235K) and one for the and the threshold of relative humidity over ice (>100%) (see supplement?) (PCFA-ISSR). The second possibility, which is more accurate, as it takes into account aircraft/engine properties, is to use SAC is to calculate SAC explicitly to define the thresholds and temperature threshold and then additionally assume ice supersaturation (PCFA-SAC). Note however, that for the exact calculation of SAC also parameters of aircraft/engine properties are needed.

The **calculation of the individual and merged aCCFs** within CLIMaCCF is based on the aCCF formulas of **?** (see Appendix A). By using the provided original and preprocessed input data the individual and merged aCCFs are calculated. Moreover, user specific conversion factors due to the selected physical climate metric, efficacy, and aircraft specific emission indices are needed. Table **??** summarizes all the individual aCCFs and parameters needed to calculate merged aCCFs. Additionally the processing block includes the **calculation of climate hotspots**, areas that are very sensitive to aviation emission. The calculation of climate hotspots is based on the calculated merged aCCFs. For identifying these climate hotspots a threshold based on the merged aCCFs is needed. This threshold can either be fixed to a user defined parameter or it can be determined dynamically within CLIMaCCF by calculating the percentile value (e.g. 90% or 95%) of the merged aCCF (a more detailed explanation of the dynamical approach is given in Section **??**).

Table 5. Meteorological variables and their alternatives needed to calculate aCCFs.

Meteorological variables	Alternatives
Potential vorticity unit $[10^{-6}Kkg^{-1}m^2s^{-1}]$	Temperature $[K]$, components of wind $[ms^{-1}]$
Relative humidity [%]	Specific humidity $[kgkg^{-1}]$
Outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) $[Wm^{-2}]$	Top net thermal radiation (ttr) $[Jm^{-2}]$
Incoming solar radiation at top of the atmosphere $[Wm^{-2}]$	Date, declination angle
Temperature $[K]$	
Geopotential $[m^2s^{-2}]$	

330 3.3 Output block

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In the output block (lower right box in Fig. ??), the processed aCCFs are saved. In the current version, for saving aCCFs (e.g., individual aCCFs, merged aCCF, and climate hotspots) and weather variables (if selected), netCDF and PICKLE file formats can be selected. In addition, the user can choose the GeoJSON format for storing polygons of climate sensitive regions (i.e., climate hotspots).

335 4 Application of CLIMaCCF to ERA5 reanalysis data

The Python Library CLIMaCCF allows to easily generate output of spatially and temporal resolved climate impact effect of aviation emissions by using available aCCFs. As mentioned above the individual aCCFs of NO_x induced induced ozone and methane, water vapour, contrail-cirrus, and the merged non- CO_2 aCCFs can be calculated with CLIMaCCF. In this Section section, we describe different characteristic patterns of individual and merged aCCFs over the European airspace. We here use the aCCFs over the whole European airspace (although they were developed over the NAFC), as weather pattern analysis showed that Europe is highly influenced by North Atlantic dynamics. We also compare merged aCCFs using different assumptions of aircraft types and metrics, and we explain how to identify regions that are very sensitive to aviation emissions (so called so-called climate hotspots) and how these climate hotspots behave.

The meteorological input data, used for calculating the aCCFs within the CLIMaCCF were taken from the ERA5 high resolution realisation reanalysis data set (?)(?). ERA5 is the fifth generation of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECWMFECMWF) atmospheric reanalysis. ERA5 high resolution (HRES) data are archived with a horizontal resolution of 0.28°x 0.28°.

4.1 Analysis of individual and merged aCCFs by using the Python Library CLIMaCCF

In this subsection As application example we show typical summer patterns of water vapour, NO_x-induced (including ozone, methane and PMO), contrail-cirrus and merged non-CO₂ aCCFs at 12 UTC (under day-time conditions) on 15 June, 2018, over the geographical region of Europe (15°W-30°E, 35°-60°N) at a pressure level of 250 hPaas an example. With this analysis

Table 6. The functions and variables needed to calculate merged aCCFs.

Function	Unit	Physical input parameter	Range
$aCCF_{O3}$	K/kg(NO ₂)	Geopotential, temperature	≥ 0 (warming)
$aCCF_{CH4}$	K/kg(NO ₂)	Geopotential, solar radiation	≤ 0 (cooling)
$aCCF_{H2O}$	K/kg(fuel)	Potential vorticity unit	≥ 0 (warming)
$aCCF_{contrail-day}$	K/km	Outgoing longwave radiation, relative humidity, temperature	$-10^{-10} \le aCCF_{contrail-day} \le 10^{10}$ (cooling/warming)
$aCCF_{contrail-night}$	K/km	Temperature, relative humidity	$aCCF_{contrail-night} \ge 0 \text{ (warming)}$
EI_{NOx}	g(NO ₂)/kg(fuel)	Aircraft/engine	$\mathrm{EI}_{NOx} \geq 0$
F_{km}	km/kg(fuel)	Aircraft/engine	$F_{km} \ge 0$
PCFA	-	threshold for relative humidity over ice and temperature, aircraft/engine properties	PCFA = [0, 1]

we aim to give an impression of the typical structure and of gradients of the specific aCCFs over the European airspace. Note that in this subsection, we generated individual and merged aCCF using aCCF-V1.1 and by assuming the climate metric of F-ATR20 with inclusion of efficacies. For merging we used typical transatlantic fleet mean parameters (see Section ??). In case of merged aCCFs we will focus on the merged non-CO₂ aCCFs (Eq. 1), as the merged aCCF pattern doesn't change if including the CO₂ aCCF which is as constant value in time and location. But of course, that for climate optimal climate-optimal trajectory optimization, fuel consumption has to be also taken into account, as this is directly linked to CO₂ emissions.

4.1.1 Water vapor aCCF

Fig. ?? presents the typical water vapour aCCFs over Europe for the specific summer day. As aircraft induced aircraft-induced water vapour emissions have a warming effect, the water vapour aCCFs reveal positive values in all regions. The values of water vapour aCCF are highly variable, and they vary with locations by a factor of about three. This regional variation in the aCCFs pattern highly follows the weather pattern; the maximum value can be observed over the region with negative geopotential height anomalies (see overlaid green lines), indicating a low precursor pressure and low tropopause.

Figure 2. Water vapour aCCF at pressure level of 250 hPa over Europe at 12 UTC on 15 June, 2018. Units are given in [K/kg(fuel)]. Overlaid green lines indicate positive (solid line) and negative (dashed line) geopotential height anomalies (in m^2/s^2).

4.1.2 NO_xinduced -induced aCCFs

To better understand the total NO_x induced induced aCCF, the NO_x aCCF is displayed in Fig. ?? together with the ozone and methane aCCF. Note that the long-term primary mode ozone PMO, is included here in the methane aCCF. The ozone aCCF (Fig. ??a) is positive (warming), as NO_x emissions from aviation induce the production of the greenhouse gas ozone. It reveals generally higher values in southern regions, as the photochemical ozone formation increases with the availability of sunlight as well as with temperature. Additionally, the synoptical weather pattern influences the ozone aCCF values, as emitted NO_x that is transported to lower latitudes experiences more solar radiation, and thus photochemical ozone production is higher compared to that which remains at higher latitudes. The methane aCCF is negative (Fig. ??b), as NO_x emissions cause a decrease in methane concentrations, as there is a decrease in warming from methane. The resulting total NO_x aCCF (Fig. ??c), a combination of ozone warming and methane net cooling effects, reveals that the ozone effect dominates the overall warming effect of NO_x emissions. Note that by using the metric of ATR20 and an underlying future emission scenario, the differences in lifetime between NO_x, ozone and methane are taken into account.

Figure 3. (a) Ozone aCCF, (b) methane aCCF (including PMO) and (c) total NO_x aCCF (sum of ozone, methane and PMO aCCFs) at pressure level 250 hPa over Europe at 12 UTC on 15 June, 2018. Units are given in $[K/kg(NO_2)]$. Overlaid green lines indicate positive (solid line) and negative (dashed line) geopotential height anomalies (in m^2/s^2).

4.1.3 Contrail-cirrus aCCFs

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Only if the atmospheric conditions allow for a contrail formation, the contrail aCCF is non-zero. Fig. ?? shows the day-time contrail-cirrus aCCF that can lead to either a positive or negative climate impacteffect. Whether the climate impact effect is positive or negative depends mainly on the solar insolation, as contrails not only reduce the outgoing longwave radiation (warming) but also reflect the shortwave incoming radiation (cooling). The spatial variability in the contrail aCCF is very high and ranges from zero (regions with no persistent contrail formation) to high positive or negative values. This is clear as the formation of persistent contrails is highly sensitive to the actual atmospheric conditions.

Figure 4. Day-time contrail aCCF at pressure level 250 hPa over Europe at 12 UTC on 15 June, 2018. Units are given in [K/km(contrail)]. Overlaid green lines indicate positive (solid line) and negative (dashed line) geopotential height anomalies (in m²/s²).

4.1.4 Merged non-CO₂ aCCFs

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Figure ?? finally shows the merged non- CO_2 aCCF, which combines the water vapour, NO_x -induced and contrail-cirrus aCCFs. The shown merged aCCF is calculated based on the climate metric of F-ATR20, taking into account the different efficacies of contrails, ozone and methane. Moreover, the typical averaged fleet mean values of transatlantic flights are taken for the NO_x emission index and the specific range. The comparison of the individual aCCF components (see Figs. 2-4) with the merged non- CO_2 aCCF (Fig. ??) clearly shows that the contrail-cirrus aCCF dominates the non- CO_2 climate impact effect in the regions where contrails form. By converting all the individual aCCFs to the same unit of K/kg(fuel), the direct comparison of the aCCFs can be allowed (see Appendix B, Figure ?? first row). This shows that contrail aCCF have the highest climate impact effect in the contrail formation areas, followed by the NO_x -induced aCCF; whereas the water vapour aCCF is of negligible magnitude in this case. Thus, adding the high values of positive contrail aCCF to the smaller positive NO_x aCCF values leads to very high values in the merged aCCF, whereas areas of negative contrail aCCF mostly lead to the negative merged aCCF, as the magnitude of the negative aCCF is often higher than that of the NO_x -induced aCCF. On the basis of the merged aCCF (Fig. ??), a hypothetical climate-optimized European flight (which will stay on this pressure level for simplification) would certainly try to avoid the areas with high positive merged aCCFs. Further, this flight trajectory will probably find a compromise between avoiding long distances through enhanced climate warming areas and at the same time avoiding long detours as these

would induce a penalty with respect to CO_2 aCCF. Thus, if the trajectory is optimized based on the merged non- CO_2 aCCF, this penalty is not taken into account.

Figure 5. Merged non-CO₂ aCCF at pressure level 250 hPa over Europe at 12 UTC on 15 June, 2018. Units are given in [K/kg(fuel)]. Overlaid green lines indicate positive (solid line) and negative (dashed line) geopotential height anomalies (in m^2/s^2).

400 4.2 Sensitivity of merged aCCFs to different aircraft/aircraft classes and climate metrics

As mentioned above, the merged aCCFs can be used as advanced MET information for flight planning, as CLIMaCCF enables quantifying the total non-CO₂ climate impact effect as four-dimensional data set (latitude, longitude, altitude and time), that is necessary for a elimate optimized climate-optimized trajectory. In Section 4.1, we showed the merged aCCF constructed with CLIMaCCF assuming the climate metric of F-ATR20 (the efficacies included) and the transatlantic fleet mean value of the NO_x emission index and the specific range. However, as described in Section ??, there are several choices for generating the merged aCCFs. These choices are related to the climate objective (climate metric) and the emission behaviour of the aircraft type and depend of course on a user objective. In the following, we investigate how sensitive the merged non-CO₂ aCCFs are to different assumptions. Table ?? summarizes the different considerations of merged non-CO₂ aCCFs that were performed with CLIMaCCF. The reference calculation is the same as shown in Section 4.1 (using the climate metric F-ATR20, inclusion of efficacies, and emission indices of typical fleet mean values of transatlantic flights). Additionally we conducted three sensitivity calculations with height dependent emission indices and specific ranges of different aircraft types (i.e. regional, single-aisle and wide-body); and one sensitivity calculation with a different climate metric of F-ATR100.

In the first three sensitivity calculations (SENS-AC1, SENS-AC2 and SENS-AC3), we varied the emission indices by using

Table 7. Overview on the conducted calculations of merged non-CO₂ aCCFs. Besides the reference calculation (REF), which uses transatlantic fleet mean values, there are three sensitivity calculations using height dependent aircraft/engine parameters (i.e. EI_{NOx} , F_{km}) of different aggregated aircraft types (SENS-AC1, SENS-AC2 and SENS-AC3) and one sensitivity calculation using a different climate metric (SENS-M1). Efficacy is is taken into account for all simulations.

	REF	SENS-AC1	SENS-AC2	SENS-AC3	SENS-M1
climate metric	F-ATR20	F-ATR20	F-ATR20	F-ATR20	F-ATR100
aircraft/engine class	fleet mean	regional	single-aisle	wide-body	fleet mean

different aircraft types. With choosing different aggregated aircraft types (i.e. regional, single-aisle and wide-body), the respective values of F_{km} and EI_{NOx} were used (see Tables ?? and ??). Note moreover that, in contrast to the mean fleet value 415 used for the reference calculation, EI_{NOx} and specific range values are flight altitude dependent. These sensitivity calculations are used to investigate how the aircraft type influences the overall climate impact effect in terms of the average temperature change. Figure ?? shows the merged aCCFs for the reference calculation (REF) and for the aircraft dependent sensitivity calculations (SENS-AC1, SENS-AC2 and SENS-AC3) on 15 June, 2018 at a pressure level of 250 hPa. Additional Figure ?? of the Appendix B provides aircraft/engine dependent merged aCCF patterns together with the respective water vapour, NO_x and 420 contrail-cirrus aCCFs, all given in the same unit of K/kg(fuel). Generally, for all aggregated aircraft types, the highest climate impact effect is found in the areas of contrail formations. Comparing the aircraft type dependent merged aCCFs reveals that contrails are more dominant for the regional and single-aisle aircraft types. In the case of regional (SENS-AC1) and single-aisle (SENS-AC2) aircraft types, the merged aCCFs have very high contrail aCCF values (see Fig. ??), leading to the high absolute merged aCCF values. The maximum merged aCCF values are smaller if the transatlantic fleet mean (REF) and the wide-body 425 (SENS-AC3) aircraft type emission indices are chosen. Moreover, in regions where no contrails form, the NO_x -induced aCCF (i.e. the sum of the ozone, methane and PMO aCCFs) shows relative high values for REF and SENS-AC3, compared to those for SENS-AC1 and SENS-AC2. Comparing to the aircraft/engine dependent NO_x emission indices and flown distances at flight altitude of 35000 ft (roughly corresponding to the pressure layer of 250 hPa) in Tab. ?? and Tab. ??, these differences 430 can be explained: at this cruise altitude the aggregated regional aircraft type shows the lowest EI_{NOx} (7.968 g(NO₂/kg(fuel)), but the highest flown distance values F_{km} (0.488 km/kg(fuel)).

Figure 6. Merged non-CO₂ aCCF at pressure level 250 hPa over Europe on 15th of June 2018 (12 UTC), using four different assumptions for the NO_x emission index and the flown distance values: (a) typical transatlantic fleet mean, (b) regional aircraft type, (c) single-aisle aircraft type and (d) wide-body aircraft type. Units are all given in [K/kg(fuel)].

To generate a merged non-CO₂ aCCF, it is necessary to choose a consistent climate metric for all individual aCCFs. As mentioned in Section ??, there are many metrics used in literature to assess the climate impacteffect; however the choice of the metric depends on the objective of the study (e.g. ?). CLIMaCCF provides the possibility to choose between a set of different climate metrics. Thus, we can show how different metrics influence the merged non-CO₂ aCCF. As example we here compare the reference calculation (REF), which is based on F-ATR20 (Fig.??a) to the SENS-M1 calculation, which assumes the climate metric of F-ATR100 (Fig. ??b). For the F-ATR100 metric, the focus lies more on long-term mitigation effects, whereas the choice of F-ATR20 metric focuses on the short-term mitigation effect. Choosing the time horizon of 100 years for the F-ATR

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largely impact the absolute values of the merged aCCF, as the metric conversion factor of all species is higher for F-ATR100 (see Tab. ??). Moreover, in Fig. ?? (Appendix B) the individual aCCFs for these two metrics are shown in terms of the same unit of K/kg(fuel) and we see that the climate $\frac{\text{impact effect}}{\text{impact effect}}$ of NO_x-induced emissions gets $\frac{\text{somehow}}{\text{more}}$ more important compared to the contrail aCCFs in case of ATR100.

Figure 7. Merged non-CO₂ aCCF at pressure level 250 hPa over Europe at 12 UTC on 15th June, 2018, using two different assumptions for the climate metric: (a) F-ATR20 (REF) and (b) F-ATR100 (SENS-M1).

4.3 Identification of climate sensitive regions (climate hotspots)

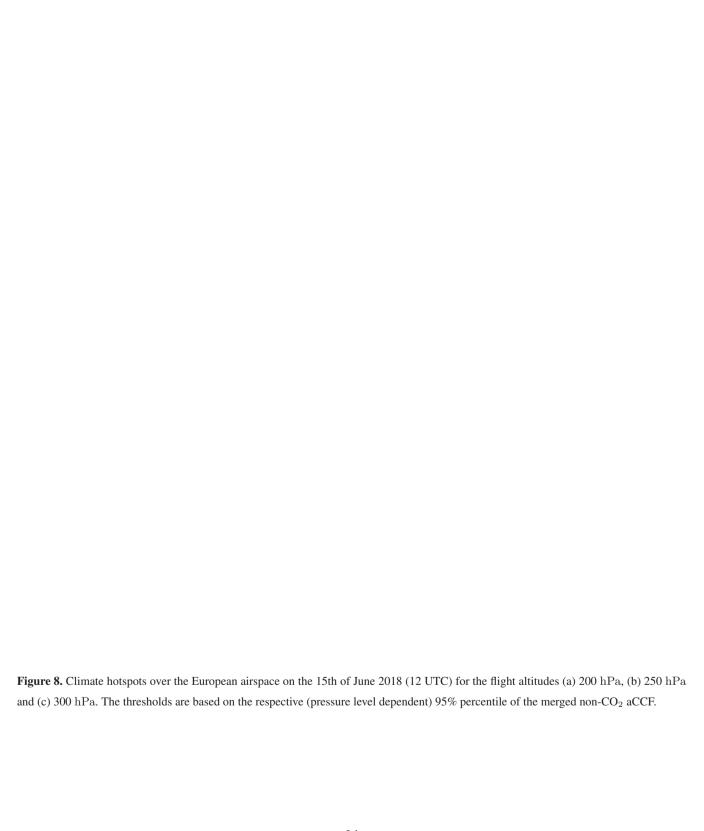
Any trajectory planning tool capable to plan for planning climate-optimized aircraft trajectories (see ?), can use the information of the location, altitude and time dependent climate impact effect of non-CO₂ emissions and aim to avoid such highly sensitive regions by planning for an alternative, climate-optimized or eco-efficient aircraft trajectory. CLIMaCCF offers the possibility to identify those regions with large climate impacteffect, called climate hotspots. Threshold values, that define these climate hotspots, have to be provided. These threshold values are based on the merged non-CO₂ aCCF values: if the merged aCCF

exceeds a certain threshold value of the merged aCCF the region is defined as a climate hotspot. As the merged aCCFs highly vary with season, flight altitude, geographical latitude, day- and night-time condition and synoptic weather situation, these threshold values should be determined dynamically for every time step and flight altitude over a certain geographical region (e.g. European airspace). To do so, we calculate the percentile (e.g. 95% percentile) of the merged aCCF distribution over all grid-points spanning e.g. the European airspace (in our example we use the geographical region of 35°-60°N, 15°W-30°E). This percentile then provides the time step and level dependent threshold of the merged aCCF. As mentioned above, regions are defined as climate hotspots if the corresponding merged aCCF lies above this threshold. Thus, e.g. in case of the 95% percentile the highest 5% of the merged aCCF are declared as climate hotspots. In CLIMaCCF the user has the possibility to select the geographical region over which the percentile of the merged aCCF is calculated as well as the percentage (e.g. 90%, 95%) of the percentile.

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Figure ?? illustrates such climate hotspots (in red) over the European airspace for the different cruise altitudes of 200, 250 and 300 hPa exemplary for the 15th June 2018 at 12 UTC. The underlying merged non-CO₂ aCCF used here is based on the REF calculation (see Tab. ?? and Fig. ??). By selecting the 95% percentile for the calculations we get different threshold values for different altitudes: 2.945e⁻¹³ K/kg(fuel) for 200 hPa, 3.256e⁻¹³ K/kg(fuel) for 250 hPa and 2.687e⁻¹³ K/kg(fuel) for 300 hPa. The threshold at 250 hPa has the highest value, meaning that aviation's climate impact effect (in terms of merged non-CO₂ aCCFs) is generally larger here. Comparing the climate hotspot patterns in Figure ?? it is clear that these regions vary a lot for different altitudes.



5 Discussion

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5.1 CLIMaCCF configuration

With the open source Python Library CLIMaCCF we provide a simple and easy to use framework for quantifying the spatially and temporally resolved climate impact_effect of aviation emissions by making use of the aCCFs that are published in the studies of ??? and ??. CLIMaCCF is easy to install and to run and it efficiently calculates the individual and merged non-CO₂ aCCFs, taking the actual meteorological situation into account. Merged non-CO₂ aCCFs are generated by combining the individual aCCFs of water vapour, NO_x- induced ozone and methane and contrail cirrus, by taking assumptions on the technical specification of the engine/aircraft combination (i.e. EI_{NOx} and F_{km}), and on an appropriate physical climate metric. With this newly developed Python Library, the user has got the possibility to investigate merged aCCFs for three different aggregated aircraft types (regional, single aisle, wide-body) that provide flight level dependent values of EI_{NOx} and F_{km} (for details see Table ?? and ??). This novel feature of calculating merged aCCFs by considering the flight level and aircraft dependent values of EI_{NOx} and F_{km} , rather then than using the transatlantic fleet mean values, leads to a better representation of aviation's non-CO₂ climate impact effect. Compared to the study of ?, which showed aviation's merged climate impact effect (in terms of CCFs) by using transatlantic fleet mean values, this is a real improvement, as merged aCCFs vary significantly for different aircraft types as also shown in Fig. ??.

Moreover CLIMaCCF offers the possibility to calculate aCCFs for a set of different physical climate metrics. For instance the user has the flexibility to calculate the aCCFs for the climate metric of global average temperature response (ATR) with pulse emission or future emission scenario over the time horizons of 20, 50 and 100 years. However we want to point out here, that any optimization study has to carefully choose an adequate physical climate metric (i.e. its climate indicator, emission scenario and time horizon), so that it is suitable to the specific application, that depends on taken strategic decisions strategic decisions taken, on given constraints and on policy assumptions (e.g. ??). For example a pulse emission compares the future climate impact effect in a given year, whereas a future emission scenario compares the effect of increasing emissions over a future time period. This leads to different estimates of the ATR, as also shown in Fig. ??.

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5.2 Threshold of relative humidity for ice supersaturated regions (ISSR)

Besides the wise selection of an appropriate climate metric, also other configuration parameters have to be chosen carefully by the user. Thus, if using the Python Library CLIMaCCF for calculating the climate $\frac{impact}{impact}$ effect of contrails the user has to pay special attention when defining the threshold of relative humidity for ice supersaturated regions (ISSR). In case of contrail aCCFs we need to determine these ISSRs, as only in these regions persistent contrails can form. And only for these regions the contrail aCCF is calculated. These ISSRs are identified by two conditions. The temperature is below 235 K (in order to avoid identification of mixed-phase regions (?)) and the relative humidity with respect to ice (RH_{ice}) exceeds 100% (see e.g. ?, their supplement on contrail aCCF). However, for considering the sub-grid-scale variability in the relative humidity field in numerical weather forecast model data, e.g. ERA5, RH_{ice} thresholds below 100% are needed. For example ? showed that the

relatively coarse resolution of the ERA-Interim data, leads to a grid box with a grid mean humidity slightly below 100%, as 500 it is likely within this grid box that some air parcels show relative humidity values above 100%. In the following we explain how we derive the threshold value of RH_{ice} in order to consider the sub-grid-scale variability for the data product ERA5 HRES (see Section ??). To do so we calculated the annual mean (2009-2010) ISSR frequency over the European region (5°W- 30° E, 40° N- 60° N) using the ERA-5 data set. For the ISSR frequency calculation we varied the threshold value of RH_{ice} (i.e. taking 90% and 95%), but leaving the temperature threshold of 235 K constant and compared the results to the observational 505 based ISSR frequency values of the study of ?. This study used in-situ measurement data of temperature and RHice from the full MOZAIC program¹ over the period 1995-2010. Table ?? summarises the results of our ERA-5 based ISSR calculations together with the results of? obtained by observational data. The frequency of ISSR in the European area is shown for three different vertical levels, the tropopause layer (TPL, thermal tropopause), the upper troposphere (UT, 30 hPa below thermal 510 tropopause), and the lower stratosphere (LS, 30 hPa above thermal tropopause). From this table we see that by setting the RH_{ice} threshold value to 90% for ERA5 the ISSR values of ? are best matched. Thus, taking RH_{ice} threshold values of 90% the ISSR frequency of ? is only slightly overestimated in the TPL (2%) and in the UT (1%). Note, that the threshold value for the RH_{ice} have to be adopted if using other resolutions of ERA-5 data or other data products. The contrail aCCF shown in Section ?? of this publication uses the 90% threshold, as it is based on ERA-5 HRES input data.

Table 8. Frequency/Coverage area of annual mean ISSR (in %) over the European region (5° W- 30° E, 40° N- 60° N) at the TPL, LS (30 hPa above thermal tropopause), UT (30 hPa below thermal tropopause). Values are shown for MOZAIC in-situ measurement data ? and for ERA-5 HRES using RH_{ice} thresholds of 90% and 95%,

	?	RH _{ice} =90%	RH _{ice} =95%
TPL	18.8%	20.55%	16.7%
LS(TPL-30 hPa)	1.6%	0.65%	0.4%
UT(TPL+30 hpAhPa)	30.95%	31.85	26.75%

515 5.3 Limitations of prototype aCCFs

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It is also essential to note here that CLIMaCCF is facing limitations. An important limitation is the prototype character of the aCCFs. As described in Section ?? the aCCF algorithms were developed based on a set of detailed comprehensive climate model simulations for meteorological summer and winter conditions with focus on the North Atlantic flight corridor (??). We do not recommend an off-design use of these aCCFs, especially using the aCCFs for tropical regions or for spring and autumn seasons. However the development of the aCCFs is current research activity and an expansion of their geographic scope and seasonal representation is ongoing. New developments and improved understanding in aCCF algorithms will provide updated aCCF formulas that will be included to future versions of CLIMaCCF, as soon as they are published. As the current version

¹The MOZAIC (Measurement of Ozone, Water Vapour, Carbon Monoxide and Nitrogen Oxides by Airbus In-Service Aircraft) program was designed to collect trace gases by using automatic equipment installed on board of five long-range Airbus A340 operated by European airlines. See ?

of CLIMaCCF provides the possibility to chose between different aCCF versions, it will be easy to implement further aCCF versions.

525 Moreover aCCFs are associated with different aspects of uncertainties, as current scientific understanding still recognizes uncertainties in the quantitative estimates of weather forecast and climate impact effect prediction. The uncertainty range of the individual aviation climate effects was recently specified in ? (see confidence interval of the RF estimates in their figure 3). They showed that still large uncertainties of individual non-CO₂ effects effect (i.e. contrail-cirrus, NO_x, water vapour as well as the indirect aerosol effect) estimates exist. Within the EU project FlyATM4E, a concept is developed that incorporates these 530 uncertainties in order to generate robust aCCFs (?)(?). Thus for this purposeeducated guess estimates of aCCF were developed (, aCCF-V1.1, ?) were developed (??) in order to shift the aCCFs quantity to calibrate the individual aCCF quantities to the state-of-the-art research. These educated guess aCCF are climate response model AirClim. The option to choose aCCF-V1.1 is included in CLIMaCCF and can be selected in the configuration script. A more detailed description on these educated guess aCCFs, that are basically aCCFs that are multiplied with educated guess factors, aCCF-V1.1 is given in ???. Besides choosing 535 between two different aCCF versions (i.e aCCF-V1.0, aCCF-V1.1), the individual aCCFs (either Version 1.0 or Version 1.1) can be modified by multiplied by any factors specified by the user. By using these alternative factors the user has the possibility to generate upper and lower limit estimates of the aCCF. With that the different degrees of level of scientific understanding can be reflected.

5.4 Application using ERA5 reanalysis data

CLIMaCCF was successfully applied to ERA5 HRES reanalysis data. Obtained results show the characteristic patterns of the individual and merged aCCFs for a single day in June 2018 over the European airspace. The aCCFs patterns of the individual aCCFs show the overall positive climate $\frac{1}{1}$ impact_effect of NO_x and water vapour emissions and negative and positive values for the daytime contrail aCCFs. These features were found in several studies before (e.g. ???). Looking at the merged aCCFs it is clear, that NO_x and contrail aCCF are dominating the magnitude of merged aCCFs, while water vapour aCCF only plays a minor role for the total non-CO₂ aCCF. Overall the merged aCCF pattern is highly dominated by the very variable contrail aCCF pattern and thus avoiding the contrail climate $\frac{1}{1}$ impact_effect leads to the most promising mitigation potential. This is in line with earlier studies, that also showed the dominating effect of contrail-cirrus (e.g. ???).

Applying CLIMaCCF to other data sets than ERA5 HRES can influence the aCCF patterns in magnitude and granularity. This depends on how the meteorological input data and also their vertical and horizontal resolution differ from the ERA5 HRES data set used in this study.

6 Conclusions

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In this publication we developed a tool for efficiently calculating the spatially and temporally resolved climate impact effect of aviation emission by making use of the aCCFs. In the novel Python Library CLIMaCCF, these aCCFs can be simply calculating the spatially and temporally resolved climate impact effect.

1555 lated with meteorological input data from the forecast or reanalysis data products of ECWMF. Besides the individual aCCFs of water vapour, nitrogen oxide (NO_x) induced ozone and methane and contrail-cirrus aCCF, CLIMaCCF generates merged (non-CO₂) aCCFs that combine the individual spatially and temporally resolved aCCFs. However, these merged aCCFs can be only constructed with the technical specification of the EI_{NOx} and F_{km} of a selected engine/aircraft type. Additionally, these merged aCCFs can be calculated for a range of user-defined parameters, as e.g. the choice of a physical climate metric. Thus, generating user defined merged non-CO₂ aCCFs can serve as advanced MET info for trajectory flight planning. Additionally CLIMaCCF provides a method to identify regions that are very sensitive to aviation emissions.

We apply CLIMaCCF to the ERA5 HRES reanalysis data set and show the characteristic pattern of the individual and merged aCCFs for a single day in June 2018 over the European airspace. Our results describe the geographical distributions of individual and merged non-CO₂ aCCFs. By comparing the individual aCCFs to the merged aCCF shows that contrail aCCFs are dominating the total non-CO₂ impacteffect. These merged aCCFs were calculated for different aircraft/engine combinations and with different metrics, showing that magnitude and structure of merged aCCFs vary with different assumption for aircraft/engine combination or for climate metric.

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Current limitations of CLIMaCCF could be addressed in future development. Overall future efforts should be directed towards improvement of aCCFs and expansion of user configuration parameters. Thus At the moment CLIMaCCF is designed for ECMWF data, thus possible future extensions of CLIMaCCF could for example include the adaption of the source code to other data products(rather than only ECWMF data products), as e.g. climate chemistry model data or other numerical weather forecast data. This would be possible by simply adopting the source code of the Library. Additionally future versions of CLIMaCCF could include metric conversion factors for a larger set of climate metrics, as e.g. greenhouse warming potential. Also an expansion of the emission indices to further engine/aircraft combinations or to future aircraft types is possible.

575 Thus overall, with CLIMaCCF we provide a user friendly tool, that can be used for elimate optimized climate-optimized trajectory planning.

Code availability. CLIMaCCF is a newly developed open source Python Library. It is developed at https://github.com/dlr-pa/climaccf/ and is available via the DOI (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6977272). It is distributed under the GNU Lesser General Public Licence (Version 3.0). The respective User Manual, which includes details on the software and its user configuration is included as supplement of this paper.

Data availability. The ERA5 data sets used in this study can be freely accessed from the respective repositories after registration. ERA5 data were retrieved from the Copernicus Climate Data Store (https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/, European Reanalysis 5, 2020). Last access:05/2022.

Appendix A: Mathematical formulation of aCCFs-V1.0

A detailed explanation of the aCCFs approach can be found in ? for NO_x induced species and water vapour, and in the case of the contrail aCCFs approach, a detailed description is given in (?)?. In the following we describe the mathematical formulation of the individual aCCFs (aCCF-V1.0, see ?). We want to mention here that the aCCF-V1.0 (?) are not identically to ?, but differ by certain factors (explanation is given in ?). Note moreover that all aCCF formulations are consistently given in P-ATR20, and efficacy is excluded.

NO_xinduced -induced aCCFs

The total NO_x aCCFs is a combined effect of the NO_x induced ozone aCCFs and the NO_x induced methane aCCFs. This can be explained by the fact that the NO_x emissions of aviation lead to the formation of ozone (O_3) which induces a warming of the atmosphere. Additionally, NO_x emissions lead to the destruction of the long lived GHG methane (CH_4) which then induces a cooling of the atmosphere. In the following, the mathematical formulation of both the ozone and the methane aCCFs are described.

595 NO_x induced -induced ozone aCCFs

The mathematical formulation of the ozone aCCFs is based on temperature T [K] and geopotential Φ [m^2/s^2]. The Note here, that although the solar incoming radiation highly influences ozone production, the meteorological parameters T and Φ turned out to give the best correlations (see table 3 in ?). Thus, the relation for the ozone aCCFs (aCCF_{O3}) at a specific atmospheric location and time is given in temperature change per emitted NO₂ emission [K/kg(NO₂)]:

$$aCCF_{O3} = \begin{cases} -2.64 * 10^{-11} + 1.17 * 10^{-13} * T + 2.46 * 10^{-16} * \Phi - 1.04 * 10^{-18} * T * \Phi, & \text{if } aCCF_{O3} \ge 0. \\ 0, & \text{if } aCCF_{O3} < 0 \end{cases}$$
(A1)

Accordingly, the ozone aCCFs takes positive values, and is set to 0 in case of negative aCCF values.

NO_xinduced -induced methane aCCFs

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The methane aCCFs is based on the geopotential Φ [m^2/s^2] and the incoming solar radiation at the top of the atmosphere F_{in} [W/m^2]. The relation of the methane aCCFs (aCCF_{CH4}) at a specific location and time is given in temperature change per emitted NO₂ emission[K/kg(NO₂)]:

$$aCCF_{CH4}(\Phi, F_{in}) = \begin{cases} -4.84 * 10^{-13} + 9.79 * 10^{-19} * \Phi - 3.11 * 10^{-16} * F_{in} + 3.01 * 10^{-21} * \Phi * F_{in}, & \text{if } aCCF_{CH4} < 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } aCCF_{CH4} > 0 \end{cases}$$
(A2)

Thus, the methane aCCFs is negatively defined. It is set to 0 if the term aCCF $_{CH4}$ is 0 or positive. Fin in is defined as incoming solar radiation at the top of the atmosphere as a maximum value over all longitudes and is calculated by: $F_{in} = S*cos\theta$, with total solar irradiance S=1360 Wm^{-2} , $cos\theta = sin(\phi)sin(d) + cos(\phi)cos(d)$ and d = -23.44°*cos(360°/365°*(N+10)). Here θ is the solar zenith angle, ϕ is latitude, and d is the declination angle, which defines the time of year via the day of the year N.

The mathematical formulation of the ozone aCCF is only valid for the short-term ozone effect of NO_x . The primary mode ozone (PMO), which describes the long-term decrease in the background ozone, as result of a methane decrease, is not included (?). Also, the stratospheric water vapour decrease via the methane oxidation is not included. Thus, if merging total NO_x effect be aware that only the NO_x effect on short term ozone increase and on methane decrease is taken into account. For NO_x induced PMO climate impact—induced PMO climate effect we have the possibility to include it to the total NO_x aCCF, as the PMO aCCF can be derived by applying a constant factor of 0.29 to the methane aCCF (?). Thus $aCCF_{PMO} = 0.29 * aCCF_{CH4}$.

Water vapour aCCFs

The water vapour aCCFs is based on the Potential Vorticity (PV) given in standard PV units $[10^{-6}Kkg^{-1}m^2s^{-1}]$. Following the relation of the water vapour aCCFs (aCCF_{H20}) at a specific location and time is given in temperature change per fuel [K/kg(fuel)]:

$$aCCF_{H20}(PV) = 2.11 * 10^{-16} + 7.70 * 10^{-17} * |PV|$$
(A3)

The absolute value of the PV is taken to enable a calculation on the southern hemisphere, where PV has a negative sign.

Contrail aCCFs

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The algorithm that generates contrail aCCFs is obtained by the calculation of the contrail radiative forcing, using ERA-Interim data as input (?). In contrast, the above described NO_x

The RF of day-time contrails (RF

The RF of day-time contrails (RF_{aCCF-day} in $[W/m^2]$) is based on the outgoing longwave radiation (OLR) at top of the atmosphere in $[W/m^2]$ at the time and location of the contrail formation. For a specific atmospheric location and time, the RF_{aCCF-day} is given by:

$$RF_{aCCF-day}(OLR) = 10^{-10} * (-1.7 - 0.0088 * OLR)$$
(A4)

According to the equation, the RF for the daytime contrails can take positive and negative values, depending on the OLR. The RF of night-time contrails (RF_{aCCF-night}) in $[W/m^2]$ is based on temperature (T) in [K]. For an atmospheric location (x,y,z) at time t:

$$RF_{aCCF-night}(T) = 10^{-10} * (0.0073 * 10^{0.0107*T} - 1.03)$$
(A5)

For temperatures less than 201 K, the night-time contrail is set to zero. The above calculated RF of contrails can be converted to global temperature change (P-ATR20) by multiplying with a constant factor of 0.0151 $K/(W/m^2)$ (?). The resulting contrail aCCFs are then given in temperature change per flown kilometre [K/km].

Contrail aCCFs are only relevant at locations where persistent contrails can form and accordingly regions without persistent contrails have to be set to zero. For that locations in which persistent contrails can form have to be calculated. Persistent contrails can be identified by two conditions: temperature below 235 K and relative humidity with respect to ice at or above 100 % (see supplement of ?). Alternatively, the more accurate Schmidt-Appleman-criterion (?), which additionally considers the aircraft engine type, could be used.