COST-BENEFIT ASSESSMENT OF CLIMATE AND WEATHER OPTIMIZED TRAJECTORIES FOR DIFFERENT NORTH ATLANTIC WEATHER PATTERNS

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Abstract

Besides CO₂, the climate impact of commercial aviation is strongly influenced by non-CO₂ effects, which are highly sensitive to meteorological conditions and their spatial variations. To assess the cost-benefit potential (climate impact mitigation vs. cost increase) of climate and weather optimized flight trajectories in the North Atlantic flight corridor, optimal control techniques are applied. However, the execution of multi-criteria route optimizations for an intercontinental route network and various weather patterns is computationally highly intensive. Since computational resources are limited, a reduced surrogate route network is generated and evaluated first with regard to the computational effort, the coverage in terms of available seat kilometers, as well as the accuracy of reproducing the original route network with regard to climate impact. The proposed reduced route network consists of 40 routes (original network: 1,339) and is able to reproduce the climate impact of the original route network with reasonable climate impact deviations of 2.5%.

The evaluation of climate and weather optimized trajectories is performed for the top route of the surrogate network. The maximum climate impact reduction potential is differing strongly from 9% up to 60% for varying North Atlantic weather patterns. Averaged over the weather patterns, a maximum climate impact mitigation potential of about 32%, going along with a cost increase of about 8% has been estimated. However, at a cost penalty of 1%, a potential climate impact reduction of 24% has been observed.

1 Introduction

Impacts of commercial aviation upon the climate are expected to increase since predicted growth rates in terms of passenger kilometers (4-5% per year) [1] highly surpass annual fuel efficiency improvements of about 1-2% [2]. A significant part of aviation’s climate impact arises from non-CO₂ effects, e.g. changes in the atmospheric composition of ozone and methane as well as contrail induced cloudiness (CiC). Since non-CO₂ effects are highly sensitive to meteorological conditions, there are further interdependencies between aircraft emissions and climate impact apart from the amount of emitted climate agents, as in case of CO₂ [3]. Hence, there is a high spatial and temporal dependency of non-CO₂ climate effects which makes the associated climate impact estimations much more difficult but offers the possibility of climate impact mitigation by re-routing.

Most reliable climate impact assessments can therefore be obtained only with detailed chemistry-climate and general circulation model simulations, which are very computationally intensive limiting the number of feasible analyses. To reduce the computational effort, simplified climate-response models are often used, which reproduce results of detailed chemistry-climate model simulations without calculating all complex processes. Once they are determined, e.g. five-dimensional climate
change functions\(^1\) (CCFs), estimate the climate change contribution due to aircraft emissions as function of emission location, time and species with only low computational effort \([4][5]\).

However, to approximate the Pareto front (climate impact mitigation vs. cost increase) of various mitigation options for a single route and a specific weather pattern, there is still a large number of trajectory simulations necessary. The computational effort increases quickly with an increasing number of routes and weather patterns. Since computational resources are limited, the question arises how to simplify a complex route network for the adequate assessment of different climate impact mitigation options without significantly affecting the evaluation accuracy.

In the following, modeling approaches for the assessment of climate impact mitigation options are described (see section 2). Furthermore, the original route network is introduced, and the surrogate network is described and evaluated (see section 3). Subsequently, cost-benefit analyses of climate and weather optimized trajectories are performed exemplarily for the top surrogate route and eight different North Atlantic weather patterns (see section 4). Finally, conclusions and future work are described (see section 5).

2 Modeling approach

For the estimation of continuously optimized aircraft trajectories, the Trajectory Optimization Module (TOM) is utilized which is based on an optimal control approach \([6]\). Consequently, aircraft’s motion is described as temporal evolution of state variables \(x(t)\) and control variables \(u(t)\).

Optimized trajectories are determined by identifying a control input \(u(t)\) which minimizes the cost functional \(J\) according to Eq. (1). At the same time, dynamic constraints (e.g. equations of motion) as well as control (e.g. thrust limitations), state (e.g. maximum speed) and path limitations (e.g. maximum pressure altitude) have to be satisfied.

\[
J(x(t), u(t), t) = c_u \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \Psi(x(t), u(t), t) \, dt + c_Y \cdot Y(t_f, x(t_f))
\]

\[
c_u + c_Y = 1 \quad \text{with} \quad c_u, c_Y \in [0,1]
\]

Generally, the cost functional \(J\) consists of a penalty function \(Y\) which is a function of initial and final time \(t_0\) and \(t_f\) as well as initial and final state \(x(t_0)\) and \(x(t_f)\). Moreover, \(J\) contains the temporal integral over a second penalty function \(\Psi(x(t), u(t), t)\). The magnitudes of both penalty functions can be scaled with the corresponding weighting factors \(c_u\) and \(c_Y\) according to Eq. (2).

In this study, two different cost functionals are applied for calculating Pareto-optimal trajectories with regard to climate impact and economic aspects (see section 2.1) as well as orthodromes (see section 2.2).

The aircraft performance characteristics are obtained from Eurocontrol’s base of aircraft data (BADA) 4.2 performance models \([7]\). Additionally, the aircraft emissions which are required for the climate impact evaluation, are estimated based on the Eurocontrol modified Boeing Fuel Flow Method 2 \([8][9]\).

Using the MATLAB toolbox \(GPOPS-II\) \([10]\), the resulting continuous optimal control problem is transformed into a discrete non-linear programming problem (NLP) which is then solved with the NLP-solver \(IPOPT\) \([11]\).

2.1 Calculation of Pareto-optimal trajectories

To calculate trajectories which are Pareto-optimal with regard to climate impact and economic aspects, climate change functions (CCF, see section 2.1.1) and direct operating costs (DOC, see section 2.1.2) are integrated into the cost functional \(J\).

\[
J_{\text{Pareto}} = c_u \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \text{CCF}_\text{i}(x, t) \cdot \dot{m}_i(t) \, dt + \ldots + c_Y \cdot [\text{DOC} (t_f - t_0, m_0 - m_f)] \cdot \text{DOC}_{\text{ref}}^{-1}
\]

\[
+ \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \text{CCF}_\text{cic}(x, t) \cdot v_{\text{cic}}(t) \, dt \cdot \text{ATR}_{20,\text{ref}}^{-1} + \ldots
\]

\(^1\) CCFs form the basis for the simulation of climate and weather optimized flight trajectories and are computed individually for various weather patterns \([4][5][6]\).
According to Eq. (3), the cost functional $J$ is defined as the weighted sum of climate impact (curly brackets) and direct operating costs (squared brackets). Both values are normalized with respect to the corresponding values of the minimum DOC trajectory which is serving as reference. Pareto-optimal trajectories are obtained by varying the weights ($c_W$, $c_Y$) of climate impact and DOC: minimum climate impact trajectories are obtained for $c_Y = 1$ and minimum DOC trajectories for $c_Y = 1$.

2.1.1 Climate change functions

Climate change functions (CCFs) allow for the quantification of the climate impact caused by aircraft emissions as a function of emission location and time. Within this study, CCF($x,t$) derived by Frömming et al. (2013) [4] are used which are based on simulations performed with the ECHAM5/MESSY Atmospheric Chemistry Model (EMAC) [12] for eight typical weather patterns in the North Atlantic region as classified by Irvine et al. (2013) [13]. The CCFs are serving as a measure for climate change and are calculated as average temperature response integrated over a time period of 20 years ($\text{ATR}_{20}$) individually for CO$_2$, H$_2$O and NO$_x$ ($\text{ATR}_{20}$ per unit emission) as well as contrail induced cloudiness (CiC, $\text{ATR}_{20}$ per flown unit distance). The coverage area of the CCFs is illustrated in Fig. 1 (solid red line).

2.1.2 Direct operating costs

DOC are computed by employing the TU Berlin DOC method as proposed by Thorbeck (2012) [14]. Here, route dependent costs – including the costs for fuel, crew, maintenance as well as landing, navigation and ground handling fees – are calculated as function of mission time ($t_f - t_0$), mission fuel ($m_0 - m_f$) and aircraft size (e.g. maximum take-off mass, payload). Additionally, capital costs – covering the costs for depreciation, interest and insurance – are primarily based on the size of the aircraft and its respective operational empty weight. For the fuel price, the average value of the year 2016 is assumed. All other costs are scaled to the year 2016 considering the US inflation rate of average consumer prices [15].

2.2 Calculation of orthodromes

Orthodromes serve as reference trajectories and ensure the comparability of the results. To minimize the flight distance over ground ($s_{\text{Ground}}$) TOM’s cost functional $J$ is defined as:

$$J_{\text{Orth}} = s_{\text{Ground}}(t_f)$$

3 North Atlantic route network

Within this study, potential climate impact savings are estimated based on the scheduled North Atlantic civil air traffic for the year 2016. However, since computational resources are limited, the original route network (see section 3.1) was replaced with a reduced surrogate route network (see section 3.2).

3.1 Original North Atlantic route network

Using the worldwide Airport Data Intelligence (ADI) dataset of scheduled flights for the year 2016 [16], the original North Atlantic route network has been generated by applying multiple filters to the full dataset:

1. only routes operated with Airbus (A310, A330, A340, A380) and Boeing (747, 757, 767, 777, 787) long-range aircraft are considered,
2. the orthodrome between origin and destination of each route has to intersect the mean longitude line within the CCF coverage area (see red dashed line in Fig. 1),
3. the maximum latitude of the orthodrome is below the northern bound of the CCF coverage area.

The resulting route network is illustrated in Fig. 1 and consists of 1,359 routes representing approximately 10.5 % of the available seat kilometers (ASK) worldwide.

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2 However, within this study, CiC has not been considered since an updated version of the corresponding CCFs is currently under development.
3.2 Surrogate North Atlantic route network

Based on the previously described original North Atlantic route network for the year 2016, the generation of a reduced North Atlantic route network is explained in the following (see section 3.2.1). Subsequently, the ability of the reduced North Atlantic route network to serve as surrogate network for the original North Atlantic Route network is examined and evaluated against potential savings in terms of computational effort (see section 3.2.2).

3.2.1 Route network generation

The climate change functions (see section 2.1) as well as the associated weather conditions (e.g. wind, pressure, temperature) are only available within the CCF coverage area. For this reason, the reduced North Atlantic route network is constructed as network in between the edges of the CCF coverage area (see Fig. 3).

To generate a reduced route network, the western and eastern bounds of the CCF coverage area are divided into $n$ equally spaced segments each with $\Delta \varphi = (\varphi_{\text{max}} - \varphi_{\text{min}})/n$ (see Fig. 3, segments A to G and a to g). Additionally, the southern bound is divided into segments of the same geometric length leading to $\Delta \lambda = \Delta \varphi / \cos (\varphi_{\text{min}})$ for both, the western (H to L) and the eastern half (h to l).

Subsequently, for all original routes, the intersection locations $(\lambda_{x} | \varphi_{x})$ of the corresponding orthodrome with the CCF coverage area are determined and the original route is assigned to a surrogate route $r$ from one western segment (A to L) to one eastern segment (a to l) or vice versa. As illustrated in Eq. (5) and (6), for each segment $s \in \{A, B, \ldots, a, b, \ldots\}$, the adjusted ASK weighted average intersection locations $\bar{\lambda}_{s}$ and $\bar{\varphi}_{s}$ are determined (see Fig. 3, red crosses). Here, $n_{s}$ represents the number of original routes intersecting segment $s$.

$$\bar{\lambda}_{s} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_{s}} \lambda_{x,s,j} \cdot \frac{\text{ASK}_{\text{adj},s,j}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n_{s}} \text{ASK}_{\text{adj},s,j}} \quad (5)$$

$$\bar{\varphi}_{s} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_{s}} \varphi_{x,s,j} \cdot \frac{\text{ASK}_{\text{adj},s,j}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n_{s}} \text{ASK}_{\text{adj},s,j}} \quad (6)$$

For each surrogate route $r$ from segment to segment, the cumulative adjusted ASK is

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Footnote: The adjusted ASK for each route is defined as the ASK within the CCF coverage area (see Fig. 1).
determined according to Eq. (7), where $n_r$ denotes the number of original routes being assigned to the surrogate route $r$.

$$ASK_{adj,r} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_r} ASK_{adj,r,k}$$

In the next step, the most prominent aircraft type in terms of adjusted ASK is selected as representative aircraft type $AC_r$ individually for each surrogate route $r$. Finally, the annual frequency $f_r$ of route $r$ of the surrogate network is calculated according to Eq. (8),

$$f_r = \frac{ASK_{adj,r}}{d_r \cdot n_{Seats,AC_r}}$$

where $d_r$ represents the orthodrome distance of route $r$ and $n_{Seats,AC_r}$ the number of seats in the representative aircraft type $AC_r$. Exemplary results for $n = 7$ are shown in Tab. 1.

Tab. 1: Top 4 routes (adjusted ASK) of the surrogate route network for $n = 7$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$ASK_{adj,ref}$</th>
<th>$S_{org}$</th>
<th>$S_{dest}$</th>
<th>$f_r$</th>
<th>$AC_r$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1359</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>42,482</td>
<td>777-300ER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1357</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>42,446</td>
<td>777-300ER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.0640</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>20,363</td>
<td>777-300ER</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.0629</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>23,658</td>
<td>A330-300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.2 Route network selection

To identify an appropriate fineness $n$ of the surrogate route network, a tradeoff between the resulting computational effort, the ASK coverage as well as the accuracy of reproducing the original route network in terms of climate impact is required.

Fig. 4 shows the cumulative relative adjusted ASK as a function of the number of considered routes for different network fractions $n$. To evaluate the accuracy in terms of the resulting climate impact, trajectory calculations are performed with TOM for both, the original as well as the surrogate route network within the CCF coverage area and all eight weather patterns (see section 2.1.1) in three steps:

(I) Trip fuel estimation

In a first step, the trip fuel is estimated assuming international standard atmosphere (ISA) conditions, a cruise flight with constant cruise mach number on flightlevel 340 and 5% contingency fuel.

For the original route network, each route is simulated as orthodrome (see section 2.2) from origin to destination. In contrast, for each surrogate route $r$, the trip fuel estimation is based on the adjusted ASK weighted mean orthodrome distance $d_r$ of the associated original routes:

$$d_r = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n_r} d_{Orth,r,k} \cdot ASK_{adj,r,k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{n_r} ASK_{adj,r,k}}$$

(II) Fuel at final intersection point

Secondly, the amount of unburned fuel at the final intersection point with the CCF coverage area is calculated for all routes of both route networks. Following the approach from (I), an average rest distance $d_{Rest,r}$ from the final intersection point to the destination is assumed for each surrogate route $r$ based on the adjusted ASK weighted average orthodrome rest distance:
\[
\bar{d}_{\text{Rest}, r} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n_r} d_{\text{orth.Rest}, r,k} \cdot \text{ASK}_{\text{adj}, r,k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{n_r} \text{ASK}_{\text{adj}, r,k}}
\]  

\[(III) \text{ Final trajectory simulation}\]

Finally, for each route, the climate impact caused within the CCF coverage area is calculated assuming a great circle connection. Wind, pressure and temperature distributions are considered individually for each weather pattern. The amount of remaining fuel at the final intersection point determined in (II) is defined as boundary condition in the trajectory simulations. Subsequently, the total climate impact caused within the CCF coverage area is estimated for both networks by summing up the climate impact contributions of all routes for all weather patterns \(w_i\) individually. The relative climate impact deviation \(\Delta \text{ATR}_{20, \text{rel}, w_i}\) between the original (index \(o\)) and the surrogate (index \(s\)) route network is estimated according to Eq. (11).

\[
\Delta \text{ATR}_{20, \text{rel}, w_i} = \frac{\text{ATR}_{20, w_i, o} - \text{ATR}_{20, w_i, s}}{\text{ATR}_{20, w_i, o}}
\]

Based on the weather pattern frequencies \(f_{w_i}\) from Tab. 2, the weighted mean value of the climate impact deviation \(\Delta \text{ATR}_{20, \text{rel}}\) is obtained as illustrated in Eq. (12) and plotted in Fig. 5 for different network fractions \(n\).

\[
\Delta \text{ATR}_{20, \text{rel}} = \frac{\sum_i f_{w_i} \text{ATR}_{20, w_i, o} - \sum_i f_{w_i} \text{ATR}_{20, w_i, s}}{\sum_i f_{w_i} \text{ATR}_{20, w_i, o}}
\]

Tab. 2: Frequencies \(f_w\) (days/year) of the North Atlantic weather patterns [4].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(W_1)</th>
<th>(W_2)</th>
<th>(W_3)</th>
<th>(W_4)</th>
<th>(W_5)</th>
<th>(W_6)</th>
<th>(W_7)</th>
<th>(W_8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(f_w)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The resulting mean climate impact deviation \(\Delta \text{ATR}_{20, \text{rel}}\) (solid line) generally shows a decreasing tendency with increasing network fraction \(n\) and reduces from 7% for \(n = 6\) to 2.5% for \(n = 10\). However, \(\Delta \text{ATR}_{20, \text{rel}}\) is alternating since the vast majority of air traffic, which is intersecting the eastern bound of the CCF coverage area between 50° and 57° latitude (see Fig. 1), is allocated to one segment for even \(n\) (higher deviation) and two segments for odd \(n\) (lower deviation). Independent of \(n\), the minimum and maximum climate impact deviations of single weather patterns (dashed lines), fluctuate about ±2% around the mean climate impact deviation.

![Figure 5: Relative climate impact deviation between original and reduced North Atlantic route network as a function of the network fineness \(n\).](image)

To analyze a variety of different climate impact mitigation options, the simulation of 40 routes (3% of the original 1,359 routes) seems to be feasible in terms of computational resources and sufficient in terms of adjusted ASK for \(n < 8\), as more than 90% of the adjusted ASK are covered (see Fig. 4). Thus, an odd network fraction of \(n = 7\) is selected, which is characterized by a mean climate impact deviation of about 2.5%; a deviation much lower than existing uncertainties in climate impact prediction [17].

4 Optimization results

In the next section, climate and weather optimized trajectories are presented exemplarily for the top 1 westbound route from segment e to segment G of the previously selected surrogate route network (see Tab. 1; Fig. 3), which represents 13.6% of the adjusted ASK of the original route network. Results are discussed for a single weather situation on trajectory level first (see section 4.1). Then, consolidated results for all eight weather patterns are presented (see section 4.2).

4.1 Single weather situation

The following climate and weather optimized aircraft trajectories have been generated with TOM (see section 2) applying the cost functional
from section 2.1 and assuming free flight conditions. All simulations were performed with a BADA 4.2 Boeing 777-300ER aircraft performance model assuming a constant cruise Mach number of 0.84. The meteorological conditions as well as the CCFs were obtained from weather pattern w₁ at 12:00 p.m. UTC. In Fig. 6, climate and weather optimized trajectories are depicted for the route e-G. Colors represent the magnitude of the wind speed (a) and the climate sensitivity (b). In order to avoid the jet stream, the minimum DOC trajectory (solid black trajectory; $c_W = 0$) is located in the north of the orthodrome (blue line). While increasing the climate weighting factor $c_W$ (see Eq. (3)), the trajectories are shifted even more northwards to regions with lower climate sensitivities (see dashed and dash-dotted trajectories).

Fig. 6: Latitude-longitude plot of optimized trajectories on route e-G with varying climate weighting factors. Wind speeds and directions (a) and total climate cost (b) are shown for flight level 340.

Fig. 7: Altitude-longitude plots of optimized trajectories on route e-G for varying climate weighting factors. Wind data (a-c) and total climate costs (d-f) are shown along the cross section of the lateral path. Figures represent minimum DOC (a,d), minimum ATR (c,f) and Pareto-optimal trajectories (b,e).
Vertical flight profiles are plotted in Fig. 7 for the minimum DOC (a,d), the +2% DOC Pareto-optimal (b,e), as well as the minimum ATR trajectory (c,f). The shape of the minimum DOC trajectory (a,d) is essentially driven by the avoidance of head winds\(^4\) which especially occur in the second half of the flight. If the importance of climate impact reduction is increased (b-c, e-f), the influence of wind decreases and the vertical profiles are adjusted to regions with lower climate sensitivities.\(^5\) Pareto-optimal trajectories have been generated for a variety of climate weighting factors between 0 and 1 (see Eq. 2). The resulting Pareto front, illustrating the potential climate impact savings as a function of the DOC penalty is shown in Fig. 8. All results are expressed relative to the values of the minimum DOC trajectory (reference) according to Eq. (12) and (13), which also contain the individual contributions of each emissions species \(i \in \{\text{CO}_2, \text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{NO}_x\}\).

\[
\Delta\text{DOC}_{\text{rel}} = \frac{\text{DOC} - \text{DOC}_{\text{ref}}}{\text{DOC}_{\text{ref}}} \quad (13)
\]

\[
\Delta\text{ATR}_{20,\text{rel}} = \frac{\text{ATR}_{20,i} - \text{ATR}_{20,\text{ref}}}{\text{ATR}_{20,\text{ref,total}}} \quad (13)
\]

The Pareto front indicates a maximum total climate impact reduction potential (black dots) of almost 60% going along with a DOC penalty of about 16%. However, much higher total climate impact mitigation efficiencies (climate impact reduction per cost increase) are obtained at lower DOC penalties. E.g. at a cost penalty of 2%, a total climate impact reduction of 25% is observed.

As shown in Fig. 8, the total climate impact mitigation potential of this particular route and weather situation is essentially driven by reducing the climate impact caused by NO\(_x\)-emissions (red dots). \(\Delta\text{ATR}_{20,\text{rel,NO}_x}\) is overcompensating the additional climate impact caused by increased CO\(_2\)-emissions (grey dots) resulting from headwinds, detours as well as off-design altitudes.

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\(^4\) In (a-c) the direction of the wind is expressed as the ratio of ground speed and true air speed (headwinds: ratio < 1, tailwinds: ratio > 1)

\(^5\) A more detailed analysis on trajectory level for a similar route is given by Lührs et al. (2016) [6].
Pareto front indicates a maximum climate impact reduction potential of 32.4% at a DOC penalty of 7.7% (see Fig. 10, black line). However, 24% climate impact reduction can already be achieved for 1% additional DOC. Since any deviation from the cost optimal trajectory is related with increased DOC, climate impact mitigation does not coincide with cost reduction. To create a financial incentive for airlines to minimize flight time and emissions in highly climate sensitive regions, Niklaß et al. (2018) suggest levying a climate charge for transition. Thus, cost-minimizing airlines will re-route their flights voluntarily to reduce the sum of both, climate charges and direct operating costs [18].

5 Conclusion and outlook

To reduce the computational effort for aircraft trajectory calculations and associated climate impact estimations, a method for the generation of reduced surrogate route networks in the North Atlantic flight corridor has been proposed. For the scheduled North Atlantic air traffic of the year 2016, the applied simplification allows for a reduction from 1,359 to 40 routes while covering more than 90% of the available seat kilometers (ASK).

Using the surrogate network, the climate impact of the original route network can be reproduced with reasonable mean climate impact deviations of about 2.5% for CO$_2$, H$_2$O and NO$_x$. However, the comparison has only been evaluated for one specific altitude and since climate impact strongly depends on altitude, a sensitivity analysis is required in future studies. Additionally, the proposed methodology needs to be verified for the reproduction of the climate impact caused by contrail induced cirrus cloudiness which is characterized by strong lateral and vertical gradients and hence may increase the climate impact deviations resulting from the network simplification.

In the second part of the study, a cost-benefit analysis has been performed for the top 1 route of the surrogate route network trading-off climate impact reduction vs. rise of direct operating costs. Maximum climate impact savings have been found to differ significantly
between individual weather patterns and range from 9% to 60%. Averaged over the weather patterns, potential climate impact savings of about 24% have been observed for a 1% cost penalty. Maximum climate impact savings of approximately 32% can be reached for a cost penalty of about 8%. However, this potential is based on the assumption of free flight conditions and hence may not be fully achieved due to air traffic regulations. Thus, the integration of air traffic constraints is planned for future investigations. Additionally, the cost-benefit analysis performed in this study will be extended to consider all routes of the surrogate route network.

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References


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