

## ***Interactive comment on “***

# **Modeling the climate impact of road transport, maritime shipping and aviation over the period 1860–2100 with an AOGCM” by D. J. L. Olivie et al.**

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## **Answer to reviewer #2**

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We thank the reviewer for the constructive comments on the manuscript. Please find below our responses to the comments.

1. *The approach is off-line (prescribe concentrations of forcing agents) and therefore what has been assumed throughout is that the resultant climate changes do not feed back and affect the forcing mechanisms. Is this valid? For example, in a region where there is a large change in predicted precipitation, that would have large effects on the aerosol forcing.*

The approach for the climate forcers is indeed off-line. In reality, climate change will impact the climate forcers, and so possibly create negative or positive feedbacks. E.g., the long-lived GHG CO<sub>2</sub> will cause a change in temperature which will change the uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> by vegetation and by the ocean, causing possible feedbacks (Friedlingstein et al., 2003, 2006; Gregory et al., 2009). But also short-lived climate forcers can be modified by the impact of changes in the climate, e.g., humidity changes will impact the OH concentrations, which in turn can impact on CH<sub>4</sub> or on the formation of secondary aerosols like sulfate. In addition, as wet deposition is an important removal mechanism for atmospheric aerosols, modifications in precipitation can also

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modify the distribution of aerosols. Horowitz (2006) showed that simulated aerosol concentrations are highly sensitive to the rate of aerosol wet removal, which is poorly known.

We see our approach as a first order approach, where impacts from modifications in emissions on concentration distributions are taken into account, but where impacts of climate change on these distributions are not taken into account. Horowitz (2006) report that emissions changes over the 2000–2050 period are very large and are expected to dominate the change in O<sub>3</sub> and aerosol concentrations, but other concurrent changes also affect these concentrations: meteorological variability and trends, which affect water vapor concentrations, circulation and precipitation patterns, and production of NO<sub>x</sub> from lightning.

There have been several studies which studied the impact of a changing climate on the tropospheric chemistry. Recently, Hedegaard et al. (2008) and Koffi et al. (2010) both performed simulations for present and future climate using constant emissions. Koffi et al. (2010) mainly concentrated on tropospheric O<sub>3</sub>, and performed simulations for year 2000 and 2050 climate conditions (SRES scenarios A1B and B1) with emissions from the year 2000 using the LMDz AGCM with prescribed SSTs and linked to the INCA CTM. Hedegaard et al. (2008) did a similar study focussing on tropospheric chemistry and aerosols. They investigated the impacts of climate change on air pollution levels in the Northern Hemisphere (with special focus on Europe and the Arctic). They used the ECHAM4-OPYC3 AOGCM and compared the decades 1990, 2040 and 2090 (SRES scenario A2). They separated out the impact from climate change by keeping the anthropogenic emissions on a constant 1990 emission level. They found that the dominant impact from climate change on a large number of chemical species are related to the predicted temperature increase. They mention that in some areas of the NH the wet deposition is increasing and in other areas the wet deposition is decreasing in their model simulation. However, none of these changes were significant. Finally, Wu et al. (2008) performed simulations for the year 2000 and 2050 (SRES

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scenario A1B) with the GISS GCM 3 with q-flux linked to GEOS-Chem. They also separately investigated the impact from emission changes and climate changes on the tropospheric chemistry. They conclude that over this period changes in O<sub>3</sub> are dominated by emission changes, while changes in OH are dominated by changes in climate.

We added at the end of Sect. 2.3:

"Furthermore, in our approach resultant climate impacts do not feed back or affect the forcing mechanisms. E.g., OH, NO<sub>x</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> distributions for the year 2050 have been calculated using 2050 emissions but using year 2000 (or 2003) meteorology, such that impacts of possibly warmer and wetter conditions on the presence of these species are not taken into account. Expected impacts of changes in precipitation on aerosol distributions are not taken into account either. Several studies (Brasseur et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2008; Hedegaard et al., 2008; Koffi et al., 2010) investigated the impact of climate change on tropospheric chemistry and aerosols. Over the period 2000–2050, Wu et al. (2008) found that OH changes from climate change prevail on changes from emissions, while O<sub>3</sub> changes are mainly driven by emission changes (Brasseur et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2008; Koffi et al., 2010). Hedegaard et al. (2008) found both regions with increasing and decreasing wet deposition of aerosols, but none of these changes were significant in their simulations."

2. *NO<sub>x</sub> emissions influence aerosol formation (for example, Shindell et al., Science, 2009) and the carbon cycle (for example, Sitch et al., 2007 and Collins et al., JGR, 2010). These indirect forcings are not accounted for in this study.*

Through the O<sub>3</sub> damage to vegetation, non-CO<sub>2</sub> emissions can impact the terrestrial carbon storage and therefore the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. Sitch et al. (2007) suggest that the impact of indirect forcing from CO<sub>2</sub> through the vegetation feedback might be larger than the direct O<sub>3</sub> impact. Furthermore, Collins et al. (2010)

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show that the inclusion of this feedback from O<sub>3</sub> on CO<sub>2</sub> caused by NO<sub>x</sub> emissions possibly changes the sign of the absolute global temperature potential.

We have not explicitly taken this into account as this effect is not included in the simple climate model with carbon cycle used to calculate the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. We mention this now in the manuscript in Sect. 2.3 where we list the impacts not taken into account, and added:

"We also do not take into account the indirect impact of increased O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (from NO<sub>x</sub> emissions) on the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake by vegetation (Sitch et al., 2007; Collins et al., 2010)."

NO<sub>x</sub> emissions influence aerosol formation by modifying the abundance of oxidants (Shindell et al., 2009). In principal, this is taken into account to some extent as the aerosol distributions for 2000 have been calculated with the INCA-AER model which both treats aerosols and gases to ensure coherence between gas-phase chemistry and aerosol dynamics as well as possible interactions between gases and aerosol particles. For later years there might be disagreement, as we have just scaled the aerosol perturbation fields from the year 2000 with the global SO<sub>2</sub> emissions, whereas a change in ratio between NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> emissions might possibly also affect the aerosol distribution.

3. *For the statement: "These models are currently able to reproduce the temperature change observed in the 20th century, and confidence exists in the quality of their projections of future climate change." Specify the magnitude of confidence and please supply a reference.*

For this, we will refer to IPCC (2007, Chap. 8). They argue that climate models have been demonstrated to reproduce observed features of recent climate and past climate changes, and indicate that there is considerable confidence that AOGCMs

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provide credible quantitative estimates of future climate change. This confidence is stronger at continental and larger scales than regional scales, and higher for some climate variables (e.g., temperature) than for others (e.g., precipitation).

We have added this reference and mention this shortly. The text is now:

"These models are currently able to reproduce the temperature change observed in the 20th century, and confidence exists in the quality of their projections of future climate change (IPCC, 2007, Chap. 8). This confidence is stronger at continental than regional scales, and higher for variables as temperature than for precipitation."

4. *The statement "We slightly modify the data between the year 1990 and 2010 to obtain a smooth transition between total observed CO<sub>2</sub> concentration until 2000 and the total modeled CO<sub>2</sub> concentration from 2000 onwards." Please offer more quantitative replacement for 'slightly modify'.*

With the simple carbon-cycle model, one can calculate the evolution of the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> burden when the anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are known. Based on best estimates for the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the 19th and 20th century, and based on scenarios for the 21st century, the expected CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is calculated. For the 19th and 20th century best estimates for the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration exist, based on direct observations or proxies. Comparing them with the results from the carbon-cycle model showed good correspondence over the 20th century, with a deviation of 3.5ppmv at around 1990–2000. Whereas we used for the 21st century the results from the simple carbon-cycle model in the AOGCM, we preferred to use the observed values for the 19th and 20th century. To avoid a small discontinuity in the prescribed CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in CNRM-CM3.3 around the year 2000, we decided to make a gradual transition from the observed to the modeled CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

We have replaced the text by:

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"In our simulation, we use observed CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations until 2000 and the SCM modeled CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from 2000 onwards. To avoid a discontinuity due to a small difference of around 3.5 ppmv between the observed and modeled CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations around 2000, we phase out this transition over the period 1990–2010."

5. *Why is the simple formula for CO<sub>2</sub> RF shown (equation 1) if the model's radiation scheme determines the radiative forcing for the imposed CO<sub>2</sub> concentration changes?*

The impact of CO<sub>2</sub> is accurately taken into account by the models radiative transfer calculation. The CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcing based on the simplified formula is added only as illustration for comparison with the radiative forcing of other forcing agents. The actual on-line CO<sub>2</sub> forcing is not a separate output variable of the model.

We mention this now shortly in the text in Sect. 2.2.1. In the text was already quoted between brackets:

"(Note that the radiative forcing in the AOGCM simulations are computed using the model's radiation scheme, rather than this simple formula.)".

To make it clearer, we replace in the sentence "it is possible to calculate the corresponding radiative forcing" the word "calculate" by "estimate".

6. *It is not obvious to me why the 2 different ozone methodologies are applied in this particular study and not use only the 3-D fixed fields only from the CTM QUANTIFY studies that may be more consistent with the off-line aerosol fields used anyway? For example, in the dynamical run the NO<sub>x</sub> and CO concentration distributions have been determined using different dynamics and radiation than the resultant O<sub>3</sub>. At the same time, I am confused by the non-CO<sub>2</sub> and non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* definitions. In Section 2.3 'Experiments', these are defined as non-CO<sub>2</sub> = dynamical ozone and non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* = fixed*

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*ozone (or consistent with CTM aerosol forcings). Then in section 3.2 'TOA Forcing', "With this method we obtain from the non-CO<sub>2</sub> simulations the summed impact from contrails and aerosols, and from the non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* simulations the summed impact from O<sub>3</sub>, contrails and aerosols. By taking the difference between these approaches one can also derive the separate O<sub>3</sub> impact." Is this because in non-CO<sub>2</sub>, the dynamical O<sub>3</sub> is not coupled to the model radiation scheme? Then, why include this dynamical O<sub>3</sub>? Why not just run an aerosol-only non-CO<sub>2</sub> simulation? Related, in terms of the aviation results in Figure 10, I do not understand why (1) there is local cooling at high latitudes for aviation non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* towards the end of the century and (2) non-CO<sub>2</sub> is more warming towards the end of the century than non-CO<sub>2</sub>\*. Does not seem consistent with the forcings presented in other studies (e.g. Lee et al., 2009; 2010).*

We try to address the different concerns.

*How is O<sub>3</sub> radiatively taken into account?*

In the non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* simulation, the O<sub>3</sub> seen by the radiative transfer code is the sum of the free-running O<sub>3</sub> (varying in time and space) plus a monthly mean 3-D perturbation from transport. In the non-CO<sub>2</sub> simulation, the O<sub>3</sub> seen by the radiative transfer code is just the free-running O<sub>3</sub>, which contains an extra source or sink-term driven by the external 3-D NO<sub>x</sub> perturbations from transport. During the model integrations, we also calculated for diagnostic purposes the radiative transfer where we left out some of the climate forcings. Comparison with the standard TOA radiative fluxes allows to calculate the radiative forcing of these climate forcings. In the non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* simulations, we left out the O<sub>3</sub>, aerosol and contrail contribution from the transport sector, which allows us to obtain an idea of the summed RF of these climate forcings. In the non-CO<sub>2</sub> simulation (with dynamical O<sub>3</sub>), we left out the aerosol and contrail contribution from the transport sectors. We were not able to take out the transport contribution on O<sub>3</sub> during the model integration.

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We have combined the estimates from these two different simulations to obtain the RF from the (fixed) O<sub>3</sub> approach.

*Why the dynamical O<sub>3</sub> formulation?*

In general, by modeling the source and destruction terms of O<sub>3</sub> together with its transport (advection, turbulence and convection), we presume that a realistic distribution of O<sub>3</sub> can be obtained, possibly allowing for certain feedbacks between meteorology and O<sub>3</sub> (in the original parametrization, source and sinks terms are calculated taking into account the local O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratio, the overhead O<sub>3</sub> column, temperature and dry deposition rates). In the dynamical approach, we also take into account the impact of NO<sub>x</sub> in the description of source (or sink) terms for O<sub>3</sub>. Although the distribution of NO<sub>x</sub> is prescribed as a monthly mean distribution, we assume that the dynamical approach still increases the realism of the O<sub>3</sub> distribution as the lifetime of NO<sub>x</sub> in the troposphere is shorter than the lifetime of O<sub>3</sub>. We admit, however, that O<sub>3</sub> perturbations and aerosol perturbation are treated with a different methodology. But even for the non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* case we lack some consistency between the aerosol and the O<sub>3</sub> perturbation field as they are calculated using year 2000 and 2003 meteorology, respectively.

*Why not just run an aerosol only simulation?*

We agree that it would have been useful to make a separate aerosol simulation. However, in order to limit the number of simulations, we have decided to separate between CO<sub>2</sub> and non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcings, and to investigate the difference between the fixed and dynamical O<sub>3</sub> approach.

*Why is there a local cooling at high latitudes for aviation non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* towards the end of the century? Why is there more warming for the non-CO<sub>2</sub> than for non-CO<sub>2</sub> at*

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*the end of the century?*

The differences between the non-CO<sub>2</sub> and non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* impact are caused by the stronger O<sub>3</sub> perturbation in the non-CO<sub>2</sub> approach. These differences are strongest for aviation (see Fig. 6). The O<sub>3</sub> perturbation in the dynamical O<sub>3</sub> approach is additionally more shifted northward than the fixed O<sub>3</sub> perturbation: one can see a much stronger gradient in the NO<sub>x</sub> perturbation than in the O<sub>3</sub> one (see Fig. 3).

The cooling at high latitudes for non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* is probably caused by the increase in SO<sub>4</sub> from aviation at around 2050 (see SO<sub>2</sub> emission scenario in Table 4 and the aviation SO<sub>4</sub> distribution in Fig. 3). The impact from sulfate in our model is stronger than, e.g., in Balkanski et al. (2010). This cooling becomes visible in the non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* case as the forcing from O<sub>3</sub> is probably weaker than in the non-CO<sub>2</sub> case. This can also be seen in the RF distributions in Fig. 8.f, where the aerosol plus contrail forcing from aviation is mainly positive, except for some regions of low aviation traffic (see Fig. 2) in the NH in the period 2046–2065 at low latitudes over the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean, but also close to the north pole. This figure also illustrates that contrail and sulfate forcing do not have the same geographical pattern. This might be a consequence of the fact that the aerosol perturbation fields have been generated using meteorological data from year 2000, while the contrail (but also the NO<sub>x</sub>, CO and O<sub>3</sub>) perturbations have been generated using ECMWF data from the year 2003. Also different life times for sulfate and contrails might contribute to the observed differences. Finally, the fact that only for 2000 aerosol distribution estimates were available, might contribute to the observed impact. For O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, 3-D distributions are available for the years 2000, 2025 and 2050. For SO<sub>4</sub> however, the perturbation in 2050, e.g., is based on the year 2000 perturbation (but scaled to the year 2050 global emission totals). Therefore our modeled SO<sub>4</sub> distribution still has a strong N-S gradient, whereas it is assumed that this gradient will reduce in the 21st century.

Finally, when looking directly at the temperature impact one must be aware that there

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are large uncertainties in the temperature response in the 60°N–90°N region (see 95 % confidence interval in Fig. 11.i).

In the text, a possible explanation was given in Sect. 3.3 on P19795, l23–25: "This local negative impact is possibly a consequence of the over-estimated sulfate (see the aviation sulfate distribution in Fig. 3.c) and underestimated O<sub>3</sub> impacts."

Earlier in Sect. 3.3. there was the sentence on P19793, l8–9:

"For the non-CO<sub>2</sub> impact from aviation we see a strong difference between the non-CO<sub>2</sub> and non-CO<sub>2</sub>\* approaches."

We add now: "..., caused by the rather different O<sub>3</sub> perturbations (see Fig. 6)."

*7. The scenario for the future projections assumes large growth in aviation and large decrease in road vehicles 2100–2000. Is it realistic that aviation will increase in global source strength by a factor of 7–10 across this time period without efforts by humanity to mitigate emissions? What about NO<sub>x</sub> stringency rule?*

The SRES scenario A1B is a scenario with strong technological renewal, where changes are assumed to be more economically driven than by climate change or environmental concern. The SRES scenario B1 is an environmentally more optimistic scenario than scenario A1B and takes into account, e.g., rapid introduction of clean and resource-efficient technologies. Specifically for aviation, a mitigation option scenario B1 ACARE (Advisory Council for Aeronautical Research in Europe, Owen et al. (2010)) has been developed and studied where the assumed increase in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions is much lower. The B1 ACARE scenario for aviation still shows an increase in the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over the period 2000–2025, but already a strong reduction over the period 2025–2050 (see Hodnebrog et al., 2011). Lee et al. (2009) created two different aviation emission scenarios for the same underlying SRES scenario A1B GDP, assuming two different levels of NO<sub>x</sub> technology. Our emission estimates correspond with the case where it is assumed that advances in airframe and engine

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technology will be typical and market-driven. In their second case more emphasis will be placed on reducing NO<sub>x</sub> levels to the slight detriment of CO<sub>2</sub> emission levels.

We mention therefore in the manuscript in Sect. 5 (Conclusions) that our emission scenario is based on the SRES scenario A1B storyline for GDP development but that A1B is only one out of more GDP scenarios, and also alternative assumptions for the implementation of fuel efficiency and emission factors exist (Lee et al., 2009; Eyring et al., 2005).

Minor comments:

1. *Figure 8 - too much yellow, can you change colour bar to show more information in the figure?*

We have changed the colour bar.

2. *Figure 9 (RHS) the thin black lines are difficult to read, is it possible to change to light grey?*

At the moment, we have not yet changed the colour. We recognize that the density of the black lines is so high in this figure, that the results from the individual simulations are not distinguishable. We fear, however, that this might not improve by changing the curves in light grey.

3. *Include some evaluation/validation of the model contrail-cirrus model representation.*

For the evaluation/validation of the contrail parametrization, we would like to refer mainly to Myhre et al. (2009). In Myhre et al. (2009) one can find a comparison between the impact of contrails on the radiative transfer in CNRM-CM3.3 and the

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impact in other AGCMs or in detailed radiative transfer codes. Myhre et al. (2009) investigated the impact of the solar zenith angle on the TOA radiative forcing and found that the sign of the net RF due to contrails for various solar zenith angles is similar among most of the models. They also conclude that the pattern of geographical distribution of the RF for a homogeneous contrail cover is consistent between five models (including CNRM-CM3.3), but the magnitude is significantly different. They finally mention that there is a consistent pattern between the models with rather low RF values at high latitudes.

The parametrization in CNRM-CM3.3 used in the present study is different from the one used in Myhre et al. (2009) in two aspects. While in Myhre et al. (2009) the greybody emissivity formulation was replaced by a two-stream approximation in order to accommodate the prescribed optical properties of the contrail, this was not activated for the simulations presented here. This has some impact on the RF, as for a global 1% contrail cover the impact was reduced from  $0.190 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in Myhre et al. (2009, Fig. 5) to  $0.160 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  in our study (see Sect. 2.2.5). This has possibly also impacted the geographical distribution. Secondly, whereas in Myhre et al. (2009) contrails were confined between 10 and 11 km, in the simulation here we allowed contrails at different altitudes.

We have no separate experiments to estimate the temperature impact from contrails only. This response is not straightforward, e.g., regions for highest contrail cover do not necessarily correspond with highest RF regions: Ponater et al. (2006) found a southward shift of the maximal impact. Furthermore, the climate sensitivity to a contrail perturbation can be considerably smaller than the  $\text{CO}_2$  climate sensitivity (Ponater et al., 2005).

We now mention explicitly in Sect. 2.2.5 that CNRM-CM3.3 participated in the comparative study of Myhre et al. (2009). We mention the comparison of the global averaged RF and the spatial distribution of this forcing. Additionally, we corrected the

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value of 0.15 into  $0.19 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  from Myhre et al. (2009, Fig. 5).

The actual text is now:

"This value of  $0.16 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  corresponds well with the values mentioned in Myhre et al. (2009) which is a comparative study among different line by line radiative transfer codes and codes used in AGCMs, including the one used in CNRM-CM3.3. For an experiment with a 0.01 global contrail cover at 0.3 optical depth, where the grey body emissivity formulation had been replaced by a two-stream approximation in order to accommodate the prescribed optical properties of the contrail, a value of  $0.19 \text{ W m}^{-2}$  was reported for CNRM-CM3.3, close to the best estimate of  $0.163 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . Myhre et al. (2009) further mention that for this experiment they found a strong similarity in the spatial pattern of the radiative forcing among the models, with rather low values at high latitudes."

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