1	The Interactive Relationship between Air Travel and Climate
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22	Manuscript submitted to Nature Climate Change
23	July 14, 2014

24 The airline industry closely monitors the midlatitude jet stream for short term planning of 25 flight paths and arrival times. In addition to passenger safety and on-time metrics, this is 26 due to the acute sensitivity of airline profits to fuel cost and consumption. U.S. carriers spent \$47 billion on jet fuel in 2011ⁱ, compared to a total industry operating revenue of 27 \$192 billion ⁱⁱ. Beyond the time scale of synoptic weather, the El Nino-Southern Oscillation 28 29 (ENSO) and Arctic Oscillation (AO) modulate the strength and position of the Aleutian low 30 and Pacific high on interannual time scales, which influence the tendency of the exit region 31 of the midlatitude Pacific jet stream to extend, retract, and meander poleward and equatorward ¹⁻³. The impact of global aviation on climate change has been studied for 32 33 decades due to the radiative forcing of emitted greenhouse gases, contrails, and other effects ^{4,5}. The impact of climate variability on air travel, however, has only recently come 34 into focus and primarily in terms of turbulence ^{6,7}. Shifting attention to flight durations, 35 36 here we show that 88% of the interannual variance in domestic flight durations over the 37 Pacific sector is explained by a linear combination of ENSO and the AO. Further, we 38 extend our analysis to CMIP5 model projections to quantify and discuss a new feedback to 39 anthropogenic climate change.

The northeastern subtropical Pacific between Hawaii and the U.S. mainland is a major corridor of long-distance commercial air travel. Flying times ⁱⁱⁱ between Honolulu (HNL) and Los Angeles (LAX), San Francisco (SFO), and Seattle–Tacoma (SEA) from 1995 through 2013 by four major carriers (United Airlines [UA], American Airlines [AA], Delta Airlines [DL], and Hawaiian Airlines [HA]) are analyzed and compared with observed ⁸ daily zonal winds at roughly cruising altitude (300 mb) (Fig. 1a). To isolate the signal associated with atmospheric variability (as opposed to systematic changes in traffic, technology or policy), rather than 47 analyzing flying times in one direction or the other, the *difference* between westbound and 48 eastbound flying times (ΔT) of each route is computed. There is substantial seasonal-to-49 interannual variability of ΔT (~1 hour), which is remarkably consistent between airlines and 50 across routes (Fig. 1b). For example, the ΔT records for the HNL-LAX route exhibit correlations 51 of 0.91 (DL vs. HA) to 0.95 (UA vs. DL). ΔT records for a given route are also significantly 52 correlated with other routes for the same airline; the HNL-LAX route is correlated 0.86 with 53 HNL-SFO, and HNL-SFO is correlated 0.65 with HNL-SEA. Moreover, correlations are very 54 high between HNL-LAX and additional routes that extend well onto the continent: 0.81 for 55 HNL-DEN (Denver), 0.82 for HNL-DFW (Dallas-Fort Worth), 0.75 for HNL-ORD (Chicago 56 O'Hare), and 0.73 for HNL-ATL (Atlanta).

57 That the observed fluctuations in flying times are synchronous throughout the region 58 regardless of airline or route suggests a common driver, which we hypothesize to be internal 59 climate variability. Correlations of observed atmospheric anomalies with a representative ΔT 60 record (UA HNL-LAX; mean seasonal cycle also removed) reveals the dominant large-scale 61 mechanism. ΔT is anomalously large (*i.e.*, eastbound flights are shorter and westbound flights are 62 longer) when the 300-mb westerly wind between Hawaii and the mainland is anomalously strong 63 (Fig. 2a). Zonal wind correlations of opposite sign immediately poleward and equatorward are a 64 clear manifestation of a cyclonic (anticyclonic) tropospheric circulation anomaly poleward 65 (equatorward) of the airline route (Fig. 2b). This pattern of upper-level zonal wind and midtropospheric geopotential height is consistent with the leading modes of Pacific jet stream 66 variability recently identified ⁹, and project strongly onto those of ENSO (El Nino phase) and the 67 68 AO (negative phase) (Fig. S1).

69 To facilitate analysis of the observed temporal covariability of 300-mb zonal wind and 70 ΔT , an index is constructed as the spatially averaged 300-mb zonal wind between Hawaii and the 71 U.S. mainland $(u_{300mb}; box shown in Fig. 2a)$. The mean seasonal cycle of u_{300mb} explains 72 virtually all of the mean seasonality of flying time between Los Angeles and Honolulu (r=0.98; 73 Fig. S2), with similar results for the other routes. The correlations between u_{300mb} and ΔT are 74 very high across all time scales down to the highest frequency fluctuations associated with 75 synoptic weather variability (Fig. 3a). After removing the mean seasonal cycle of both data sets, 76 u_{300mb} explains 73% of the total daily variance of ΔT and 91% of the interannual variance. Thus, 77 the atmosphere's well-known influence on aviation readily transcends from weather to climate 78 scales.

79 The 19-year records of observed u_{300mb} (and thus ΔT) share substantial variance with 80 large-scale modes of tropical and high-latitude climate variability, particularly ENSO and the 81 AO (Fig. 3c). For example, the largest positive anomalies are coincident with major El Nino 82 events (including 1997-98 and 2009-10), while the leveling off at the peak of such anomalies is 83 akin to the AO record. The interannual variability of ΔT is correlated 0.91 with ENSO at a 2-3 84 month lag, and -0.48 with the AO (no significant lag). Indeed, a simple least squares multiple 85 linear regression using the NINO3.4 and AO indices as independent variables is able to capture 86 82% of the variance of the observed $u300_{mb}$ index – 88% (r=0.94) if NINO3.4 is allowed to lead 87 by 60 days (Fig. 3d). It is highly plausible that propagating modes of intraseasonal variability 88 such as the Madden-Julian Oscillation (MJO) also have a strong impact on air travel in this 89 region, particularly at higher frequencies than those shown in Fig. 3c-d.

Although the relationship between the durations of westbound and eastbound legs of a
given route is inverse and strong, careful analysis of the total flying time by route (westbound leg

plus eastbound leg; ΣT) reveals a small but nonzero residual (Fig. S3)^{iv}. This implies that 92 93 changes in flying times and thus fuel consumption, CO₂ emissions, etc. do not entirely cancel out 94 as 300-mb zonal winds change either as part of internal, oscillatory atmospheric variability or in 95 response to radiative forcing. In 2011, U.S. carriers purchased jet fuel at ~\$3 per gal^v. There are ~30,000 U.S. domestic flights per day vi. Assuming each flight has a counterpart in the opposite 96 97 direction, there are 15,000 individual routes flown per day. If the total flying time by route (ΣT) 98 increased by just one minute for every route, there would be a total of 250 additional flying hours 99 per day, or ~91,000 additional flying hours per year, spelling potentially billions of additional 100 dollars spent on jet fuel and a significant increase in the contribution to global radiative forcing 101 by the airline industry. It is therefore essential, as a matter of understanding feedbacks between 102 climate and society, to characterize and understand the response of the 300-mb wind field to 103 radiative forcing.

104 Analyzing the predicted response of 300-mb zonal winds to increased radiative forcing by 34 GCMs included in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project, Phase 5 (CMIP5)¹⁰ paints 105 an uncertain future (Fig. 4a). Under the 8.5 W m⁻² IPCC forcing experiment (RCP8.5), roughly 106 107 one third of GCMs predict a poleward shift of the annual mean position of the jet (Fig. 4c), one 108 fifth predict an equatorward shift (Fig. 4d), and the remaining half predict only a very small or 109 insignificant change in the latitudinal position or strength of the annual mean jet. However, the 110 most robust aspect of the projected change in the annual mean 300-mb zonal wind field over the 111 North Pacific – consistent across half of the GCMs – is a zonal extension of the jet exit region into the corridor between Hawaii and the U.S. mainland $(1.6 \pm 0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1} \text{ local increase in mean})$ 112 113 annual 300-mb zonal wind $[u_{300mb} \text{ index}]$ (Fig. 4e). The multi-model ensemble projections 114 shown in Fig. 4 based on CMIP5 models are highly consistent with a previous assessment of

CMIP3 models ^{11,12} and further underscore the importance of GCMs to reliable predict the future 115 116 state of the tropical Pacific Ocean. Based on the observed empirical relationships discussed 117 above, such a change in upper level winds would result in ~3.7 additional flying hours per daily 118 round-trip, per carrier, per comparable route, per year. Assuming twice-daily round-trip flights, 119 four carriers, and just three comparable routes (*i.e.*, HNL to/from LAX, SFO, and SEA) yields 89 120 additional flying hours per year, which amounts to roughly 320,000 gal additional jet fuel consumed per year vii, ~\$1 million in additional fuel costs, and 3.1 million kg CO₂ emitted per 121 122 year viii. Multi-model projections focusing on the boreal winter season (Dec.-Jan.), which is the 123 season of maximum climatological jet development, are much larger and more robust across 124 models (Fig. 4b). The multi-model median change in 300-mb zonal wind between Hawaii and the U.S. mainland (u_{300mb} index) during boreal winter is 5.0 ± 1.4 m s⁻¹ (accounting for 69 125 126 additional flying hours, 247,000 gal additional jet fuel consumed, \$741,000 additional fuel cost, 127 and 2.4 million kg CO₂ emitted *per winter* under the same assumptions).

128 Given the observed dependence of flight durations on 300-mb zonal winds (Fig. 3), as 129 germane to airline operations may be the level of variability of 300-mb winds- analogous to 130 volatility in a market or in the price of raw materials. How is the amplitude of daily-scale 131 (synoptic) variability of u_{300mb} modulated seasonally and interannually? How is the amplitude of 132 lower-frequency variability (i.e., the amplitude of the seasonal cycle and the magnitude of 133 interannual anomalies) projected to change in the response to radiative forcing? It is well known 134 that synoptic-scale weather variability is significantly more energetic during wintertime (Fig. 135 5a); so, too, is the daily-scale variability in flying times (Fig. 5b). At the interannual time scale, 136 the daily-scale variance in u_{300mb} also proves to be modulated by the phase of the AO; the 137 variance of u_{300mb} is anomalously large when the AO is in a negative phase (Fig. 5c, d). IPCC

138 syntheses of GCM projections include a trend toward the positive phase of the AO over the course of this century in response to radiative forcing^{4,13}, implying that the 300-mb zonal winds 139 140 in this region may become less variable on a day-to-day basis in the future. However, the annual 141 cycle of u_{300mb} is projected to become stronger under the RCP8.5 forcing experiment (Fig. 5e), 142 which is consistent with the projected trend in u_{300mb} being greatest during boreal winter- the 143 season of maximum climatological u_{300mb} (Fig. 5g, h). The CMIP5 projections analyzed herein 144 do not include a robust change in the amplitude of interannual variability of u_{300mb} (Fig. 5f), 145 which is also consistent with IPCC syntheses noting the lack of robust changes in the amplitude 146 of ENSO and AO.

147 It is clear that the acute sensitivity of the commercial airline industry to atmospheric 148 variability extends beyond "weather"- to the seasonal and interannual ("climate") time scales. 149 Synoptic weather patterns, the annual cycle of solar forcing, and modes of interannual climate 150 variability such as ENSO and the AO control the strength and variance of flight level winds, and 151 flight level winds appear to be the overwhelmingly dominant predictor of flight durations. 152 Climate mechanisms that dictate the variability of flight durations in other busy regions such as 153 the North Atlantic, Europe, and Asia are likely to differ in details from those identified herein but 154 still probably boil down to what controls flight level winds between airports. While much of the 155 discussion of the relationship between climate change and air travel focuses on the contribution 156 of global aviation to radiative forcing (greenhouse gases and contrails), the findings presented 157 herein suggest more complex feedbacks. In particular, radiatively forced changes in circulation 158 have the potential to influence the rate of consumption of fossil fuels by the airline industry, thus 159 feeding back onto the global radiative forcing and resultant changes in circulation.

160 Figure Legends

161 Figure 1 | Overview map and airline time series. a, Airline routes between Honolulu (HNL) 162 and Los Angeles (LAX), San Francisco (SFO), and Seattle-Tacoma (SEA) International Airports 163 superimposed upon the annual mean 300-mb zonal wind field (NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis, 1995-2013). The zonal wind field is contoured every 2.5 m s⁻¹. **b**, Time series of the flying time 164 165 differences between westbound and eastbound legs (ΔT) for the HNL-SEA, HNL-SFO, and 166 HNL-LAX routes. Colors in each panel of **b** denote airline (blue for United, red for American, 167 green for Delta, and cyan for Hawaiian). A 31-day running mean was applied to all time series. 168 No HNL-SEA data were available from United or American.

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Figure 3 | Flying time, wind, and climate. **a**, Daily, **b**, monthly and **c**, annually smoothed HNL-LAX (United) flying time difference (ΔT ; blue) and u_{300mb} index (black). The u_{300mb} index is defined as the spatially averaged 300-mb zonal wind over the box shown in Fig. 2a. The inset to **a** shows daily ΔT and u_{300mb} time series for the year 2009. u_{300mb} vs. ΔT correlation coefficients associated with daily, monthly, and annually smothed time series are 0.86, 0.91, and 0.95, respectively. Also shown in **c** are annually smoothed NINO3.4 (dark gray) and AO (light gray; inverted) climate indices. Correlations associated with NINO3.4 are 0.86 and 0.85 for u_{300mb} and ΔT , respectively (the maximum lead-lag correlation of NINO3.4 and ΔT is 0.91 with NINO3.4 leading by ~2.5 months). Correlations associated with the AO are -0.53 and -0.48 for u_{300mb} and ΔT , respectively. **d**, Observed (gray) and reconstructed (black) annually smoothed u_{300mb} index based on least-squares multiple linear regression with the NINO3.4 (leading by 60 days) and AO indices as independent variables.

189 Figure 4 | Projected trends in mean flight level winds. a, CMIP5 multi-model (N=34) mean 190 trend in 300-mb zonal wind under the IPCC AR5 RCP8.5 future forcing experiment (2006-191 2100). For reference, the multi-model, annual mean 300-mb zonal wind field is also contoured in black (every 5 m s⁻¹ beginning at 5 m s⁻¹). **b**, As in **a** but for the boreal winter season (Dec.-Jan.). 192 193 c, As in a but including only those models that predict a northward shift of the Pacific jet stream 194 (N=13). d, As in a but including only those models that predict a southward shift of the Pacific 195 jet stream (N=6). e, As in a but including only those models that predict a pronounced southward 196 dip of the Pacific jet stream (N=17). The inset in **b** shows a histogram of projected trends in 300-197 mb zonal wind spatially averaged over the box shown (*i.e.*, the u_{300mb} index). The solid and 198 dashed vertical lines represent zero and the median projected u_{300mb} trend, respectively.

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208 Figure S1 | ENSO and Arctic Oscillation. Regression of Northern Hemisphere wintertime a,

- 209 300-mb zonal wind (m s⁻¹) and **b**, 500-mb geopotential height (m) on the NINO3.4 index from
- 210 the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis (1949-2010). c, d, As in a, b but for the the Arctic Oscillation (AO)
- 211 index.
- 212 Figure S2 | Annual cycles. a, Annual cycle of westbound (blue) and eastbound (red) flying time
- 213 (T) between HNL and LAX (United). b, Annual cycle of the flying time difference between
- 214 westbound and eastbound legs (ΔT) for the HNL-LAX route (United). **c**, As in **b** but for the flight
- 215 time sum. **d**, Annual cycle of the u_{300mb} index.
- Figure S3 | Flight time residual. **a**, Scatter diagram of the u_{300mb} index vs. the duration of westbound (blue) and eastbound (red) legs of the HNL-LAX route (United). **b**, As in **a** but for the u_{300mb} index vs. the flight time sum.

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222 Acknowledgements The authors thank B. Carmichael and B. Sharman of the National Center 223 for Atmospheric Research Aviation Applications Program, G. Compo of the Cooperative 224 Institute for Research in the Environmental Sciences, and D. Battisti of the University of 225 Washington Department of Atmospheric Sciences for helpful discussions. We acknowledge the 226 World Climate Research Programme's Working Group on Coupled Modelling, which is 227 responsible for CMIP5, and we thank the climate modeling groups for producing and making 228 available their model output. For CMIP5, the U.S. Department of Energy's Program for Climate 229 Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison provides coordinating support and led development of 230 software infrastructure in partnership with the Global Organization for Earth System Science 231 Portals. CMIP5 model output data acquired via the WHOI CMIP5 Community Storage Server, 232 Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA, USA from their website at http://cmip5.whoi.edu/ (WHOI internal use only). NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis data provided by the 233 234 NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD, USA, Boulder, Colorado, from their Web site at 235 http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/. K.B.K. acknowledges support from the Strategic Environmental 236 Research and Development Program, the WHOI Oceans and Climate Change Institute, and the 237 Alfred P. Sloan Foundation.

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Author Contributions K.B.K. and H.C.B. jointly conceived the study. K.B.K. conducted theanalyses and wrote the paper with input from all authors.

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Additional Information The authors declare no competing financial interests. Reprints and permissions information is available online at www.nature.com/reprints. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to K.B.K.

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Other Notes

ⁱ Bureau of Transportation Statistics, Research and Innovative Technology Administration, U.S. Department of Transportation.

ⁱⁱ MIT Global Airline Industry Program, Airline Data Project

⁽http://web.mit.edu/airlinedata/www/Revenue&Related.html).

ⁱⁱⁱ The BTS statistic "AirTime" is used, which is wheels up to wheels down.

^{iv} The sensitivity of westbound flight durations to u_{300} is greater than that of eastbound flights of the same route, so an increase in u_{300} lengthens the westbound flight by slightly more than it shortens the eastbound flight resulting in a net increase in total flying time (ΣT). The average sensitivity of ΣT to u_{300} for the flights analyzed is 0.38 minutes flying time per m s⁻¹ zonal wind. ^v Bureau of Transportation Statistics, Research and Innovative Technology Administration, U.S. Department of Transportation.

^{vi} National Air Traffic Controllers Association.

^{vii} Assume burn rate 1 gal per second. Varies depending on aircraft and many other variables.

^{viii} Assume emissions coefficient 9.6 kg CO₂ per gal (eia.gov/environment/emissions/co2_vol_mass.cfm).



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Anom. corr. of 300–mb zonal wind on HNL–LAX∆T Anom.



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