



Impact of shipping
emissions: scenarios
for 2030

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The impact of shipping emissions on air pollution in the Greater North Sea region – Part 2: Scenarios for 2030

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Abstract

Scenarios for future shipping emissions in the North Sea have been developed in the framework of the Clean North Sea Shipping project. The effects of changing NO_x and SO_2 emissions were investigated with the chemistry transport model CMAQ for the year 2030 in the North Sea area. It has been found that, compared to today, the contribution of shipping to the NO_2 and O_3 concentrations will increase due to the expected enhanced traffic by more than 20 and 5%, respectively, by 2030 if no regulation for further emission reductions will be implemented in the North Sea area. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ will decrease slightly because the sulphur contents in ship fuels will be reduced as international regulations foresee. The effects differ largely between regions, seasons and date of the implementation of stricter regulations for NO_x emissions from new built ships.

1 Introduction

Shipping is an important contributor to air pollution in coastal areas. More than 90% of the global trade is done with ships. The total global transport work by ships (in tonne miles) has been tripled since the mid 1980s (Smith et al., 2014), corresponding to an average growth rate of $4\% \text{ year}^{-1}$, and the forecasts for the future are in the same order of magnitude (Smith et al., 2014). The North Sea is one of the areas with the highest ship densities in the world. Europe's three biggest harbours in Rotterdam, Hamburg and Antwerp are located in the North Sea region. At any time about 3000 ships are sailing in the North Sea (Aulinger et al., 2015). This steady increase in number and size of ships leads to an increasing contribution of ships to air pollution in North Sea coastal areas (Matthias et al., 2010; Hammingh et al., 2012; Jalkanen et al., 2012; Aulinger et al., 2015). Compared to other modes of transport like trucks or trains, shipping is very efficient in terms of fuel use per ton mile. However, NO_x , SO_2 and PM emissions are comparably high because of less strict regulations for the emissions of these pollutants from ships. This problem has already been recognized years ago lead-

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5 estimate the effect of these technologies and of legislation on NO_x and SO_2 emissions from ships, emission scenarios were developed for the year 2030. These scenarios consider the same development of the world fleet and different developments in legislation and the use of alternative fuels. The basis is a detailed emission inventory for the year 2011 which is built upon AIS (Automatic Identification System) ship positions and a detailed ship characteristics data base (Aulinger et al., 2015). The scenarios are implemented as modified emission inventories for the year 2030. The inventories serve as input for the chemistry transport model CMAQ that is setup for the North Sea region. CMAQ calculates transport and transformation of the emitted pollutants and finally yields concentration maps that illustrate the impact of shipping emissions on the air quality in the North Sea region.

2 Ship emission inventories

2.1 Reference emissions

15 The basis for the ship fleet and the ship movements on the North Sea is a data set with AIS positions of ships for the entire year 2011 combined with a ship characteristics data base that includes all ships given in the AIS data set. The data is used to calculate the energy demand of individual ships depending on the installed engine and their actual velocity. From this, fuel use as well as NO_x , SO_2 , CO_2 , CO , Hydrocarbon (HC), and Particulate Matter (PM) emissions are calculated with load-dependent emission factors for the different species. For the first time, load dependent emission factors resulting from test bed measurements of about 250 different ship engines were used to calculate a ship emission inventory. For the details, the reader is directed to the accompanying paper by Aulinger et al. (2015).

2.2 Scenario description

The purpose of scenarios is to describe plausible and possible future developments. Scenarios are often used to describe the boundaries of possible future situations, e.g. a worst case and a best case. In our study we decided to create scenarios that describe the future development of policy and technology regarding exhaust gas emissions from ships in the North Sea area. We adopted the methodology described in (Eyring et al., 2005) for our scenarios and distinguish between traffic demand and future technological and legislative developments. However, because we focus on the implementation of a NO_x emission control area in the North Sea, we take only one scenario for the fleet development into account as a basis as it is described in publications from IMO (Buhaug et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2014) and Det Norske Veritas (Det Norske Veritas, 2012). Taking multiple possible developments of the world trade into account would add too much complexity to the scenarios.

In brief, our fleet development scenario assumes an increase in the number of bigger ships while the number of smaller ships decreases in the North Sea area. This leads to an increase in ship number by $1.0\% \text{ year}^{-1}$ and an increase in transported cargo of $2.5\% \text{ year}^{-1}$. Additional to this increase in ship number it is assumed that per year 2.5% of all ships are replaced by new ones, no matter of what size they are. The main techniques under investigation are Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) as an alternative fuel for shipping and end-of-the-pipe technologies like scrubbers and Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR) to reduce sulphur dioxide and nitrogen oxide emissions.

The main drivers for changes in the use of ship fuels and in the amount of emissions to air are on the one hand regulations, and here mainly what is written in MARPOL Annex VI (International Maritime Organisation, 2008), and on the other hand the price of different fuels. Therefore, the main scenarios include strict and less strict legislations as one axis and the price of LNG compared to Marine Gas Oil (MGO) or Heavy Fuel Oil (HFO) as the second axis. Some regulations in MARPOL Annex VI (those related to NO_x emissions) are only valid for newly built ships after a certain date, depending on

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the region where the ECA is located. The earliest date when Tier III NO_x regulations will come into force is 1 January 2016. For the North Sea and the Baltic Sea, it is likely that Tier III NO_x regulations will be implemented significantly later than 2016.

Because the NO_x regulations apply only to new ships means that it needs some time until a considerably higher number of ships in the fleet will have reduced NO_x emissions. Those regulations related to the sulphur content in ship fuels apply to all ships, and should have immediate effects on the total emissions of sulphur oxides. To particularly take into account the long term effects of new ships following Tier III regulations, the year 2030 is used in the scenarios as target year. The development of the world fleet until 2030 compared to the reference year 2011 is considered.

These drivers are combined into six scenarios that can be arranged in a coordinate system with legislation on the x axis and LNG price on the y axis (see Fig. 1). Different implementation dates for NO_x Tier III rules (2016 and 2021) are chosen.

The stories behind these scenarios can be described as follows:

2.2.1 Scenario No ECA

The global economy suffers from low GDP growth rates and in order to avoid additional costs for the shipping industry some regulations will not be implemented (global SO_x limit, NO_x limits in ECAs). This can be considered as the worst case scenario, however 0.1 % S in fuels in ECAs will still be implemented.

2.2.2 Scenarios ECA SCR 16 and ECA SCR 21

All regulations currently given in MARPOL Annex VI will be in force. The global sulphur limit of 0.5 % S in fuel will be in force by 2020, in ECAs a sulphur limit of 0.1 % S will be implemented since 2015. A NO_x emission control area will be implemented in the North and Baltic Seas. Two different years, 2016 and 2021, are considered as implementation dates. LNG is expensive and the LNG infrastructure is not built up to provide LNG to many ships. Therefore ship owners will prefer low sulphur fuels and catalysts (SCR)

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or exhaust gas recirculation systems (EGR) to comply with the rules. Some will use scrubbers only, if they do not have to follow the Tier III regulations (older ships).

2.2.3 Scenarios ECA LNG 16 and ECA LNG 21

The legislation is the same as in scenarios ECA SCR 16 and ECA SCR 21 but LNG will be the cheaper solution to comply with the rules. In 2030, about 6000 ships in the North Sea will run on LNG. Ships that sail more than 50 % of the time in the North and Baltic Seas will preferably use LNG. Some newer ships will also be retrofitted with LNG engines.

2.2.4 Scenario ECA opt

This is built on scenario ECA SCR but it assumes that the strict rules for NO_x emissions for new-buildings will also apply to older ships in 2030. They will then be retrofitted with exhaust gas cleaning systems in order to follow these rules. This is regarded as the best case scenario and illustrates the reduction potential. However, exhaust gas cleaning systems increase the fuel consumption, so the fuel use in this scenario will be higher than in the previous scenarios in which only parts of the ships are equipped with exhaust gas cleaning.

2.3 Future shipping emissions

The emission inventories that were constructed as input for the CMAQ model were developed from the ship emission inventory for 2011 which is based on AIS data and ship characteristics data. First, the fleet development was applied. Then, the new emissions were calculated by using modified emission factors for the specific emissions of the ships. All emission factors are given in g kWh^{-1} for the different substances under investigation, they have been reduced depending on the scenario and taking into account the age of the different ships in the scenarios ECA SCR and ECA LNG. In particular, in all scenarios it has been taken into account that a fraction of the older

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bouring section of the NE Atlantic, covering approximately half of the central European domain (see the red box in Fig. 4).

3.2 COSMO-CLM

The meteorological fields that drive the chemistry transport model were simulated with the COSMO-CLM mesoscale meteorological model (version 4.8) for the year 2008 (Geyer, 2014) using NCEP forcing data (Kalnay et al., 1996). This year was chosen because it does not contain very unusual meteorological conditions in Europe and can therefore be used to represent typical weather conditions in Europe. The same meteorological fields were used for the scenario runs, i.e. projected changes due to climate change were not considered in order to avoid a mixture of effects, from emissions and meteorological data, in the resulting concentrations of air pollutants.

COSMO-CLM is the climate version of the regional scale meteorological community model COSMO (Rockel et al., 2008), originally developed by Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD) (Steppeler et al., 2003; Schaettler et al., 2008). It has been run on a $0.22^\circ \times 0.22^\circ$ grid using 40 vertical layers up to 20 hPa for entire Europe. COSMO-CLM uses the TERRA-ML land surface model (Schrodin and Heise, 2001), a TKE closure scheme for the planetary boundary layer (Doms, 2011; Doms et al., 2011), cloud microphysics after Seifert and Beheng (2001, 2006), the Tiedtke scheme (Tiedtke, 1989) for cumulus clouds and a long wave radiation scheme following Ritter and Geleyn (1992). The meteorological fields were afterwards processed to match the CMAQ grid. As far as possible, CMAQ uses the information that is provided by the meteorological input fields to calculate transport, transformation and loss of all gas phase and particulate species. The impact of the meteorological fields on the output of the chemistry transport model was investigated in detail in the articles by Matthias et al. (2009) and Bieser et al. (2011a).

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3.3 Boundary conditions

Chemical boundary conditions for the outer model domain were taken from monthly means of the TM5 global chemistry transport model system (Huijnen et al., 2010) and were provided by the Dutch Royal Meteorological Institute (KNMI). The model results have been interpolated in time and space to provide daily boundary conditions for the 72 km × 72 km CMAQ grid for Europe. Boundary conditions for the nested 24 km × 24 km grid were calculated on hourly basis from the outer coarse grid. They were kept the same for all scenarios in order to restrict the analysis of the effects of emission changes on shipping in North Western Europe.

3.4 Land based emissions

The model runs were performed with full emissions from all relevant sources in the model domain. Land based emissions in hourly temporal resolution were produced with SMOKE EU (Bieser et al., 2011a) for the year 2011. They are based on officially reported EMEP emissions which are distributed in time and space using appropriate surrogates like population density, street maps or land use. Point sources were considered as far as information from the European point source emission register was available. The vertical distribution of the emissions was calculated online with the SMOKE model, the results are given by Bieser et al. (2011b). The land based emissions were kept constant for all scenario model runs. Therefore the impact of reduced land based emissions, which can be expected for Europe in the year 2030, was not considered here. This was done to keep the the analysis clear and discuss only the effects of shipping instead of mixing it up with reductions of land based sources.

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4 Impact of shipping on concentrations of pollutants

4.1 Situation today

The results for today's air pollution due to shipping serve as a reference case for this study. They are discussed in detail in the accompanying paper by Aulinger et al. (2015). In brief it can be said that ships contribute significant amounts to the concentrations of NO₂, particle bound nitrate (NO₃⁻ (p)) and particle bound sulphate (SO₄²⁻ (p)). In summer, ozone is enhanced, too. High contributions from shipping to the NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations are restricted to the open sea and the coastal areas in the southern North Sea and in Denmark (see the reference case in Figs. 5 and A1). Nitrate and sulphate aerosol particles as well as ozone are secondary pollutants. They are transported far more inland but their relative contribution to concentrations at the coast is lower compared to NO₂ and SO₂.

There are large differences between summer and winter. As a photochemical pollutant, ozone is only increased during the summer months. The situation is similar for sulphate and nitrate aerosol. Both are formed via oxidation path ways that include the photochemically formed OH radical. Therefore, the conversion rate of SO₂ into SO₄²⁻ (p) and of NO₂ into NO₃⁻ (p) in summer is higher than in winter. This leads to higher contributions of shipping emissions to the concentrations of these aerosol components in summer. On the other hand, total nitrate aerosol concentrations are much lower in summer compared to winter, because the gas-to-particle partitioning between HNO₃ and NO₃⁻ (p) is temperature dependent with higher particulate nitrate concentrations at low temperatures.

4.2 Scenarios for the North Sea in 2030

We mainly discuss the consequences of changes in the NO_x emissions from ships because here we see the main differences between the scenarios (Fig. 2). Additionally, the strict rules for SO₂ came into force in the North Sea ECA on 1 January 2015, and

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the less strict Tier I and Tier II regulations. Very few ships older than 30 years will not have to comply with any of the NO_x regulations. As a consequence, the contribution of ships to average NO_2 concentrations will be higher than in the case with Tier III regulations from 2016 onwards (Fig. 5d). In large parts of the North Sea the contribution of shipping to NO_2 concentrations will be higher than today.

Scenario ECA SCR 16 on average still shows a moderate increase in the NO_2 concentrations caused by ships compared to the situation today (Fig. 5d). While in the English Channel and the southern North Sea the concentrations decrease by a few percent only, they decrease by more than 10 % in the north western parts of the North Sea and in particular at the British, Norwegian and Swedish coast. This is caused by the fact that the traffic to the main North Sea ports in Rotterdam, Hamburg and Antwerp will still increase and ships will become bigger, resulting in a rather small concentration decrease in the English Channel. Today, smaller and older ships travel to the smaller harbours in the North Sea area. However, many of them will be replaced after 2016, which means that a large fraction of those ships will comply with Tier III. This will lead to a reduction of the contribution of shipping emissions to NO_2 concentrations in the central and northern part of the North Sea.

The contribution of shipping to NO_2 concentrations will be drastically reduced in the case of scenario ECA opt when all ships comply with Tier III rules for NO_x emissions (Fig. 5e). The simulations show a reduction of approximately 80 % all over the North Sea region compared to today.

All reductions in the contribution of shipping to NO_2 concentrations have a similar magnitude and regional distribution in winter and summer. On average the impact of shipping is slightly higher in winter compared to summer with a larger increase in scenario No ECA and ECA SCR 21 and a smaller decrease in scenario ECA SCR 16 and ECA opt. All maps for the winter case can be seen in the Appendix (Fig. A3).

Figure 6 shows a time series of the contribution of shipping to the daily average NO_2 concentrations at the coasts of Belgium and the Netherlands (see Fig. 4 for the region). Of the scenarios for 2030, scenario ECA SCR 16 shows a slight decrease in

the contribution of shipping to the NO₂ concentrations compared to today. If Tier III will be implemented in 2021 (scenario ECA SCR 21) or not at all until 2030 (scenario No ECA), the contribution of shipping to the NO₂ concentration will be higher than today. Large reductions of NO₂ from shipping, on some days more than 4 µg m⁻³, are only achieved when all ships and not only new-buildings follow the Tier III regulations. Time series for the other region are included in the Appendix (Fig. A6).

4.2.2 Nitrate aerosol

Nitrate aerosol (NO₃⁻ (p)) is formed in the atmosphere as a consequence of the oxidation of NO₂. The amount of aerosol particles formed highly depends on the presence of other pollutants, in particular on the availability of ammonia (NH₃). Ammonia mainly stems from agricultural activities. The regions with the highest ammonia emissions are western France, the Benelux countries, western Germany and Denmark. Particulate ammonium nitrate preferentially exists in winter, at low temperatures. At higher temperatures ammonium nitrate particles decompose into gaseous ammonia and nitric acid. Therefore, nitrate aerosol concentrations all over Europe are much lower in summer compared to winter. On the other hand, oxidation of NO₂ is much more effective in summer leading to a higher contribution of shipping to nitrate aerosol compared to winter.

In summer, the emission scenarios show very similar results for nitrate aerosol and for NO₂ (see Fig. 7). In scenario No ECA the contribution of shipping to nitrate aerosol concentrations increases by more than 30 % over sea and by 25 % or more in large areas of central Europe and in southern Scandinavia (Fig. 7b). In scenario ECA SCR 21 (Fig. 7c) large areas of the North Sea, and in particular northern France, show an increase in nitrate aerosol from shipping while in other areas the situation will remain unchanged. Scenario ECA SCR 16 (Fig. 7d) shows a decrease in the contribution of shipping to nitrate aerosol concentrations by 7–10 % in the north eastern part of the North Sea while in the south western part a small increase by 5–10 % can be observed.

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Again, in scenario ECA opt the contribution of shipping to nitrate aerosol will be reduced by 60–80 %.

In winter, nitrate aerosol concentrations are only marginally affected by shipping emissions. For this reason the results of the scenario runs do not show reliable patterns of changes in NO_3^- (p) concentrations caused by changing shipping emissions when given as relative changes. Therefore, they are not shown.

4.2.3 Ozone

NO_x emissions from ships have a strong influence on the atmospheric ozone concentrations. Ozone is formed out of NO_2 and atmospheric oxygen in the presence of sunlight. Volatile organic compounds (VOC) help to transform emitted NO into NO_2 , thereby enhancing the ozone formation significantly. On the other hand NO destroys ozone, leading to low ozone concentrations during night-time when no photolysis of NO_2 takes place. This leads to a strong diurnal cycle of the ozone concentration and a large difference between winter and summer levels with much higher ozone concentrations in the summer. Furthermore, increased NO_x emissions may cause additional ozone formation in presence of sufficiently high VOC concentrations. If the VOC levels are comparably low, more NO_x causes ozone destruction.

Here, we look at the impact of shipping emissions on the daily mean ozone values. Figure 8 shows maps of the distribution of changes in the contribution of ships to mean ozone concentration for the different scenarios. Figure 8a shows that shipping causes about $7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ additional ozone (summer average value) in large parts of the North Sea and in Denmark. On the other hand, there is only a small increase in ozone in the English Channel, where NO_x concentrations are high. The effect of ozone destruction by additional NO_x emissions under low VOC conditions can be clearly seen in scenario No ECA (Fig. 8b). Reductions in ozone concentrations caused by shipping emissions, by partly more than 80 %, are clearly noticeable in the English channel, the south western North Sea and the surrounding coast line. On the other hand, the ship-

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lower than for all other ships that comply with the 0.1 % S rule inside the North Sea area.

In Fig. 10 changes in the contribution from shipping to the SO₂ and SO₄ concentrations for the scenario ECA SCR 16 and ECA LNG 16 are shown for summer. In the ECA LNG 16 scenario sulphur dioxide and sulphate aerosol concentrations are even further reduced than in the ECA SCR 16 scenario. The reductions are between 40 and 60 % for the SCR case and between 60 and 80 % for the LNG case. The reductions are slightly higher for SO₂ compared to sulphate, however the reductions for sulphate are more widespread than those for SO₂. The results for the other scenarios are very close to those in Fig. 10 which is why they are not shown here. More maps are included in the Appendix (Figs. A1, A2, A4 and A5).

4.2.5 PM_{2.5}

Particulate matter with a diameter less than 2.5 µm (PM_{2.5}) originating from shipping emissions is mainly formed through a conversion of gaseous SO₂ and NO₂ into particulate nitrate (NO₃⁻ (p)) and sulphate (SO₄²⁻ (p)). The amount of these secondary aerosol components depends critically on the level of NH₃ emissions, which are a prerequisite for the formation of ammonium sulphate and ammonium nitrate in the atmosphere. The area where the highest contribution of shipping to the PM_{2.5} concentrations is noticeable is south east of the main shipping lanes, in North West France, Belgium, the Netherlands and North Germany. These are areas with high ammonia emissions from agricultural activities.

Reductions in the contribution of shipping to PM_{2.5} are visible in all scenarios (see Fig. 11). This is caused by the significant effect the sulphur reductions in the ship fuel has on sulphate aerosol concentrations. In scenario ECA opt the PM_{2.5} reduction is the largest. Here, also nitrate aerosol is significantly reduced.

The time series for PM_{2.5} concentrations and the respective reductions in the different scenarios can be seen for Northern Germany in Fig. 12. All scenarios except for No ECA show reductions in PM_{2.5} on almost all days. Again, the largest reductions can

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January 2015 for the North Sea and will be in place for all seas in 2020 (or the latest in 2025). This will significantly reduce the impact of shipping on SO₂ and sulphate aerosol concentrations. As a consequence of lower sulphate aerosol concentrations PM_{2.5} concentrations will also be reduced. The use of LNG as alternative fuel would further reduce sulphur emissions and therefore also SO₂ and PM_{2.5} concentrations.

Our model study shows that all effects of shipping emissions on air quality differ largely by region and season, depending on the pollutant in focus. Gaseous primary pollutants like NO₂ and SO₂ have a short life time. Consequently, their effects can mainly be seen close to the shipping lanes. Aerosols, which are formed through oxidation in the atmosphere can be transported over large distances. Contributions of shipping to nitrate, sulphate and PM_{2.5} concentrations can be seen far inland. For ozone, future emission reductions of NO_x could even lead to enhanced concentrations in regions that already today have high NO_x and low VOC concentrations like in the English Channel. However, this will depend on the future development of other NO_x emission sources, too. These were not taken into account here, as has been done for climate change neither, in order to focus on shipping effects and facilitate the interpretation of emission changes in this sector. Because it can be expected that all land based anthropogenic emissions in Europe will decrease considerably until 2030, the relative contribution of shipping emissions to pollution levels in the North Sea area might be even higher than demonstrated here.

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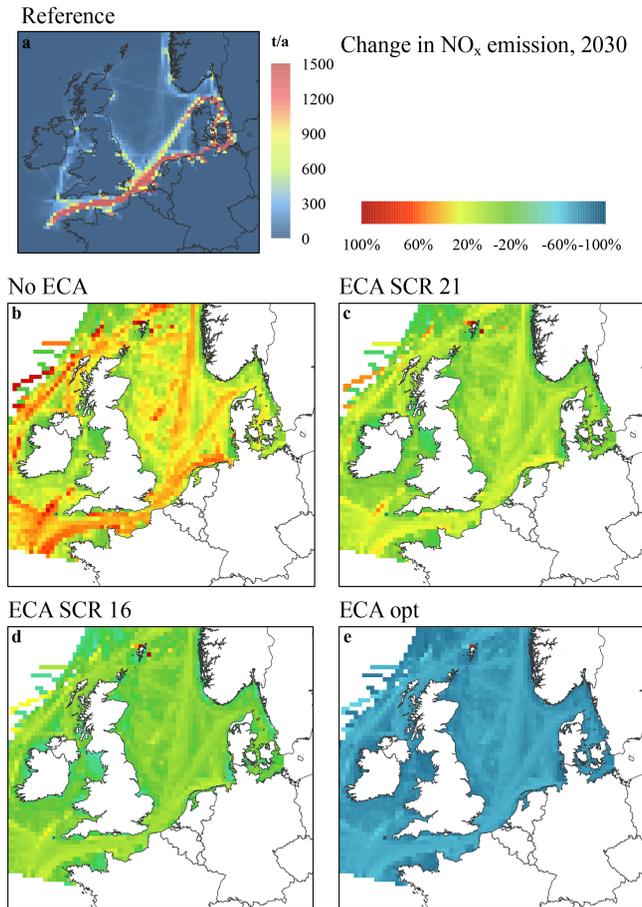



Figure 2. NO_x emissions from ships, **(a)** annual totals in t per grid cell of 24 km × 24 km. Emission changes for the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA LNG, **(d)** ECA SCR, and **(e)** ECA opt for 2030.

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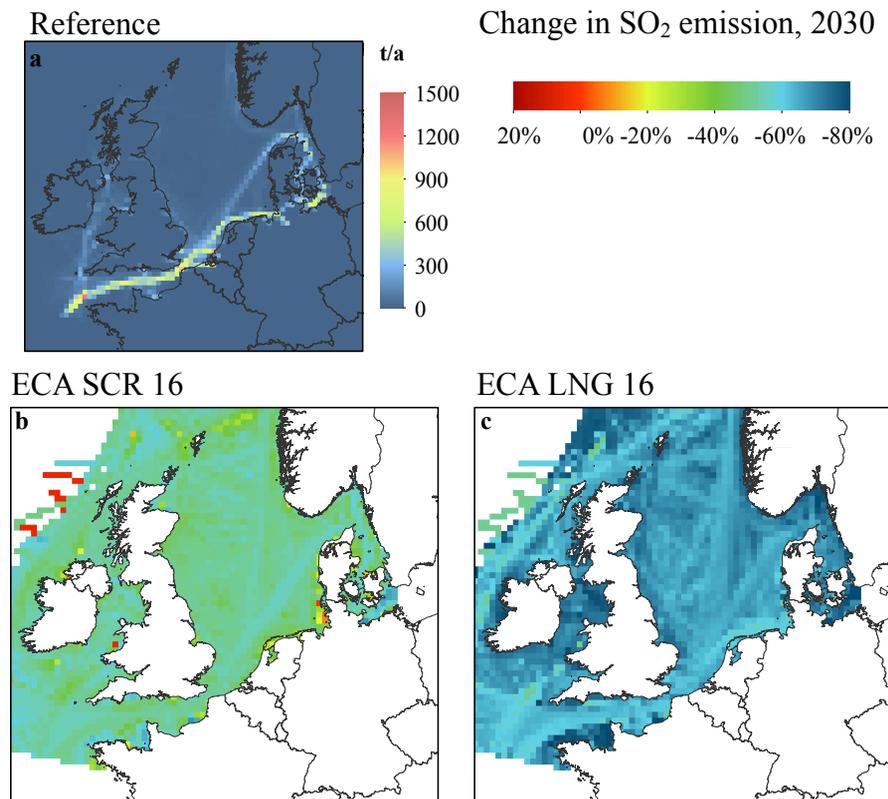


Figure 3. SO₂ emissions from ships, (a) annual totals in t per grid cell of 24 km×24 km. Emission changes for the scenarios (b) ECA SCR 16, and (c) ECA LNG 16 for 2030.

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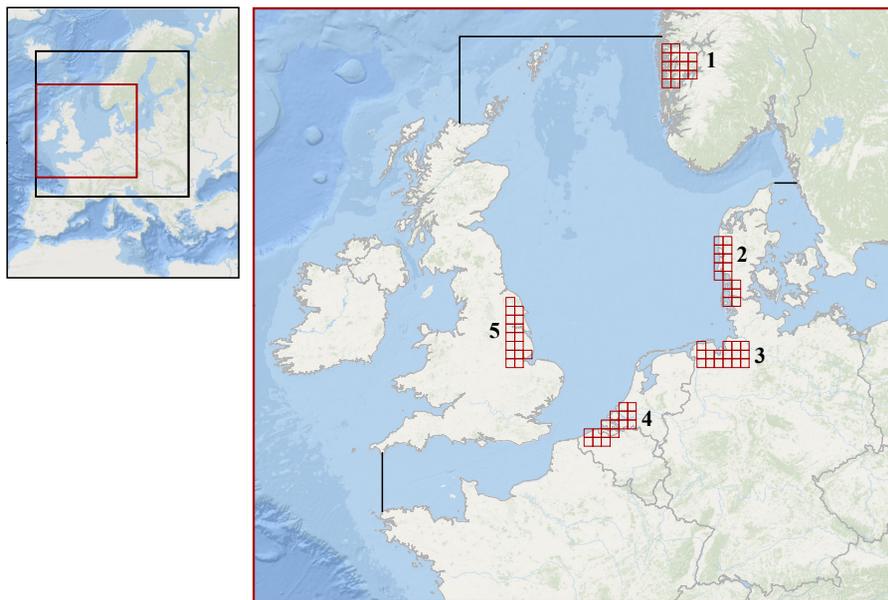


Figure 4. Left: modelling domains, outer domain with $72 \text{ km} \times 72 \text{ km}$ resolution (outer black line), inner domain with $24 \text{ km} \times 24 \text{ km}$ resolution (inner black line) and the evaluation area (red line). Right: evaluation area including the greater North Sea region illustrating also the five regions (namely 1 to 5) for which time series of pollutant concentrations have been derived from CMAQ modelling results.

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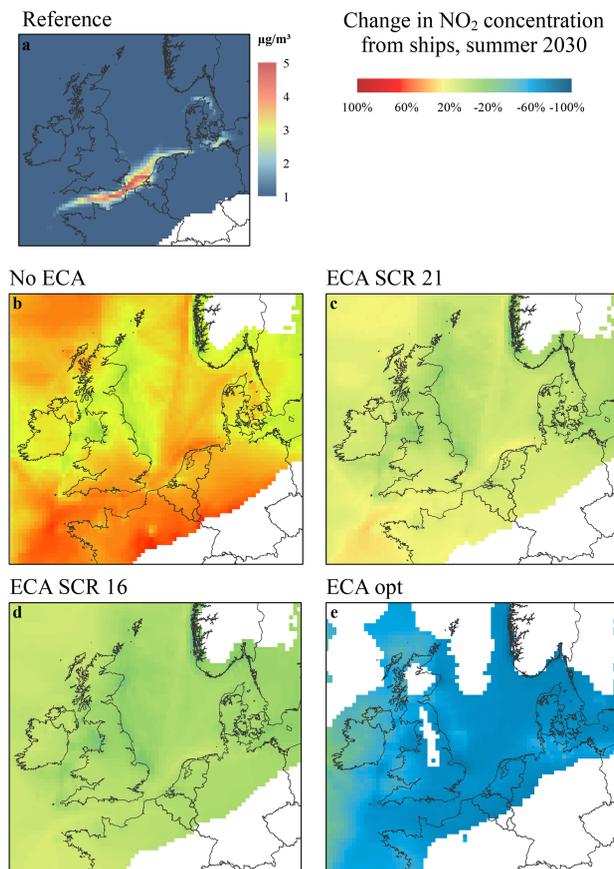


Figure 5. Contribution of shipping to the total NO₂ concentrations in summer (JJA) **(a)** today (Reference) and change in the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 21, **(d)** ECA SCR 16, **(e)** ECA opt.

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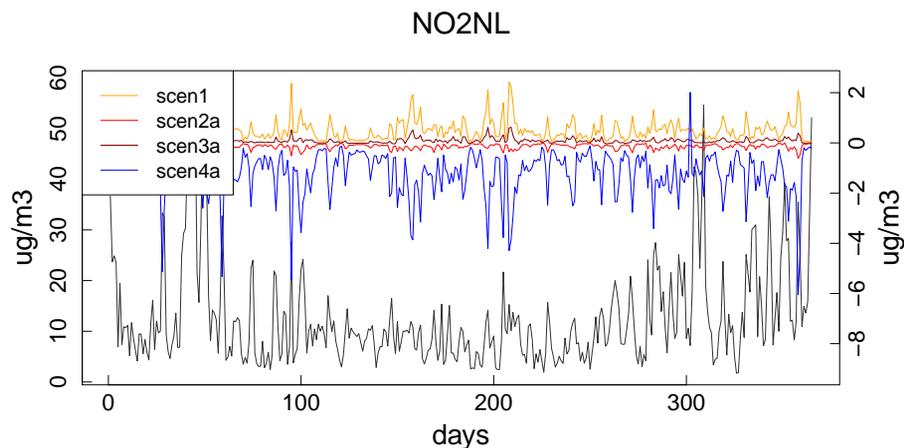


Figure 6. Time series of daily average NO₂ concentrations in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (black, left y axis) and the contribution of shipping to the NO₂ concentrations in the coastal areas of Belgium and the Netherlands (region 4) for all scenarios (colored, right y axis).

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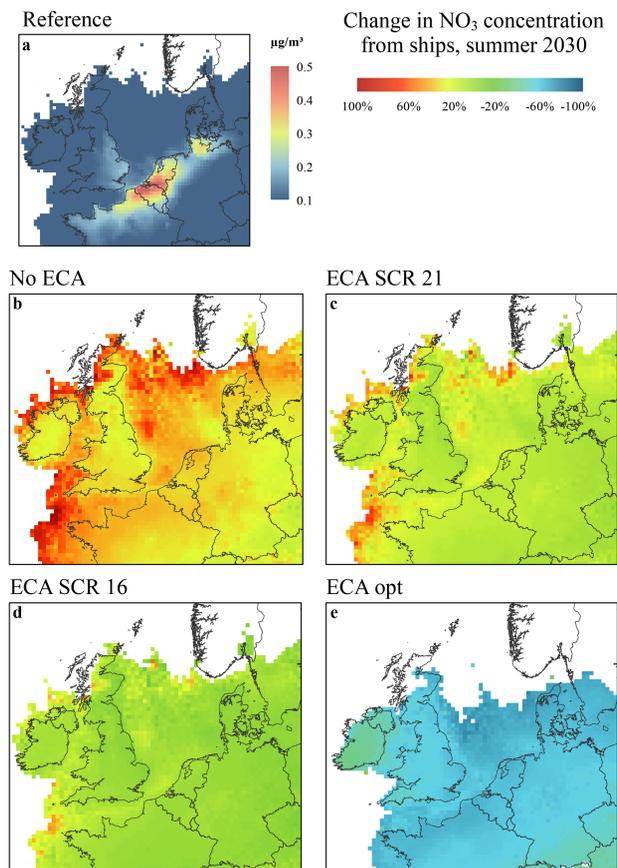


Figure 7. Contribution of shipping to the total NO₃⁻ concentrations in summer (JJA) **(a)** today (Reference) and change in the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 21, **(d)** ECA SCR 16, **(e)** ECA opt.

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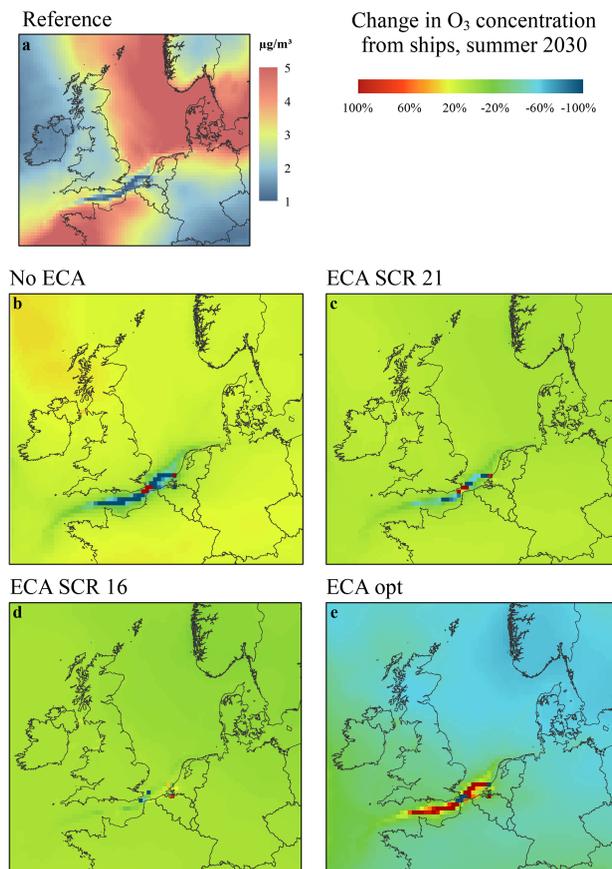


Figure 8. Contribution of shipping to the mean O₃ concentrations in summer (JJA) **(a)** today (Reference) and change in the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 21, **(d)** ECA SCR 16, **(e)** ECA opt.

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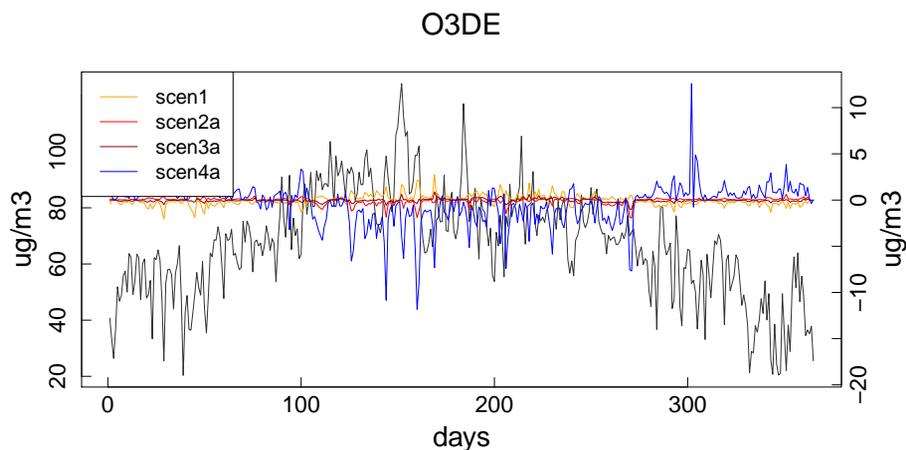


Figure 9. Time series of daily average ozone concentrations in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (shaded grey, left y axis) and the contribution of shipping to the ozone concentrations in the coastal areas of Germany (region 3) for all scenarios (right y axis). “noship” denotes the changes if all ship emissions were cut to zero

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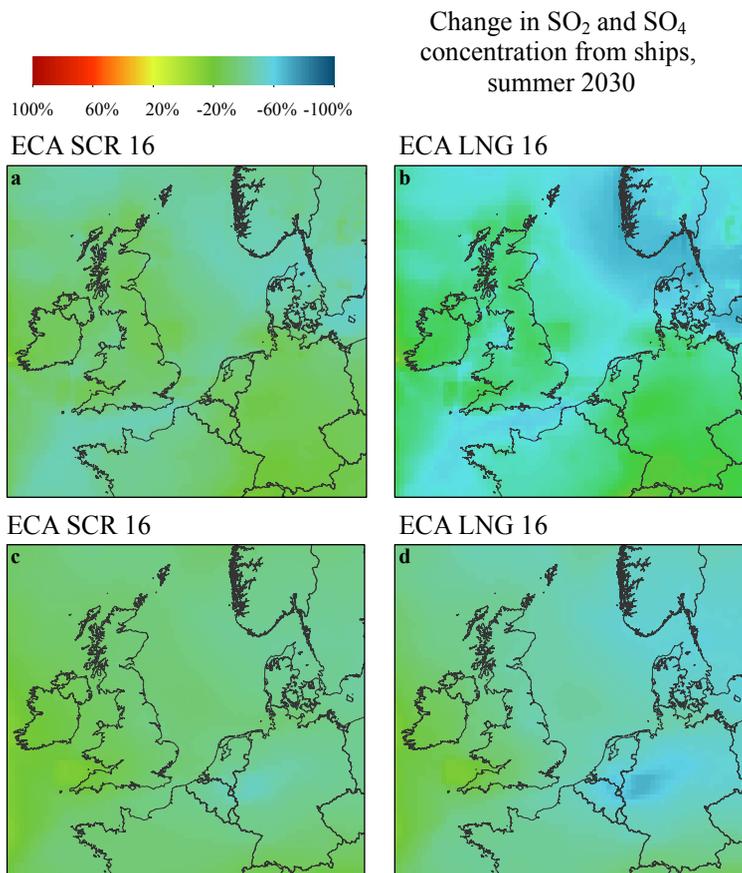


Figure 10. Change in the contribution of shipping to the total (**a** and **b**) SO₂ and (**c** and **d**) SO₄ concentrations in summer (JJA) for the scenarios ECA SCR 16 (left), ECA LNG 16 (right), in relation to the reference case. See Figs. A1 and A2 for the reference concentrations

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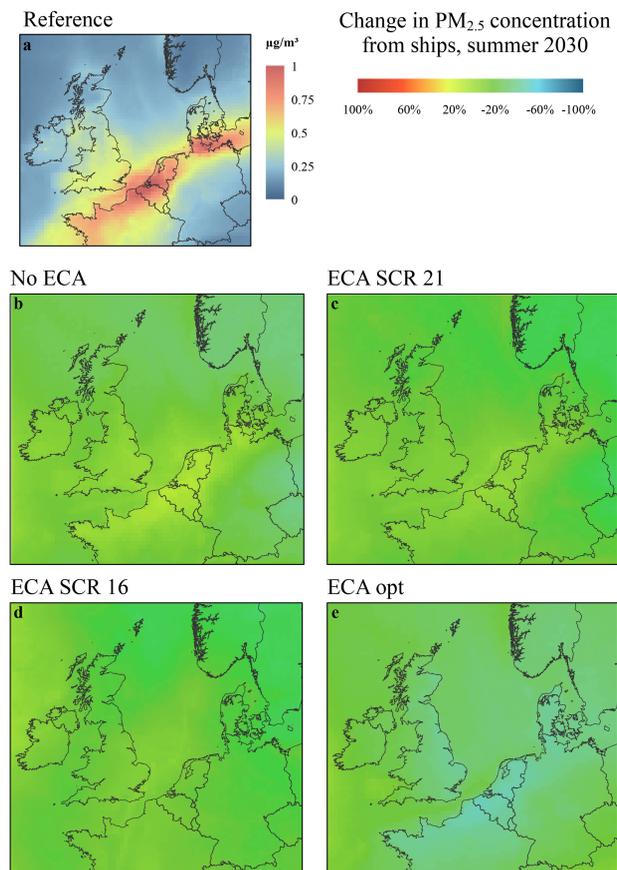


Figure 11. Contribution of shipping to the total $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in summer (JJA) **(a)** today (Reference) and change in the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 21, **(d)** ECA SCR 16, **(e)** ECA opt.

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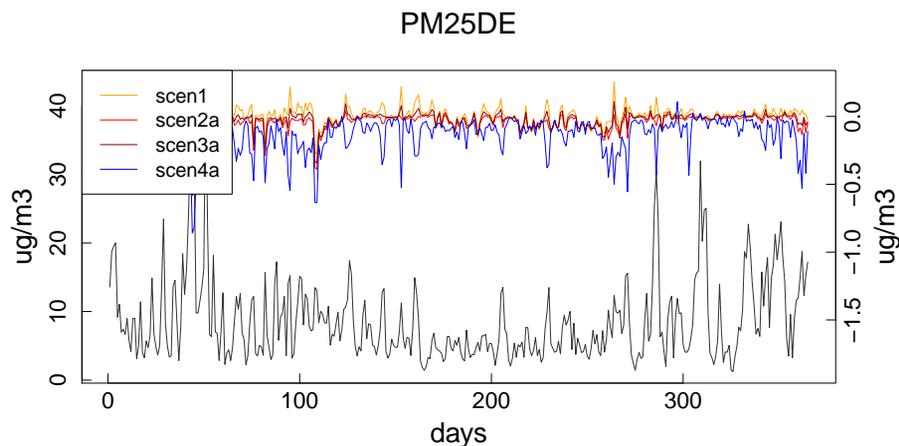


Figure 12. Time series of daily average PM_{2.5} concentrations in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (black, left y axis) and the contribution of shipping to the PM_{2.5} concentrations in the coastal areas of Germany (region 3) for the main scenarios (colored, right y axis).

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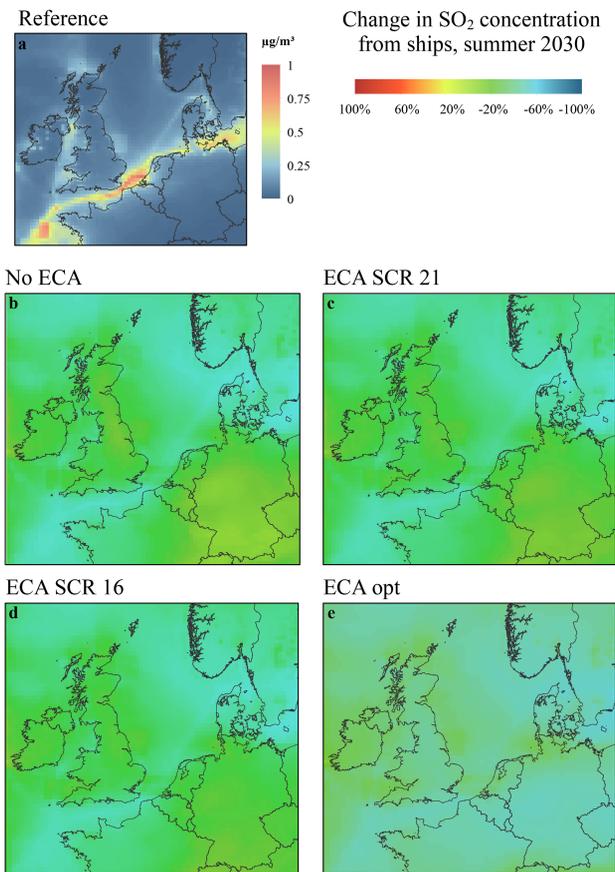


Figure A1. Change in the contribution of shipping to the total SO₂ concentrations in summer (JJA) compared to the reference case **(a)** for the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 16, **(d)** ECA SCR 21, and **(e)** ECA opt.

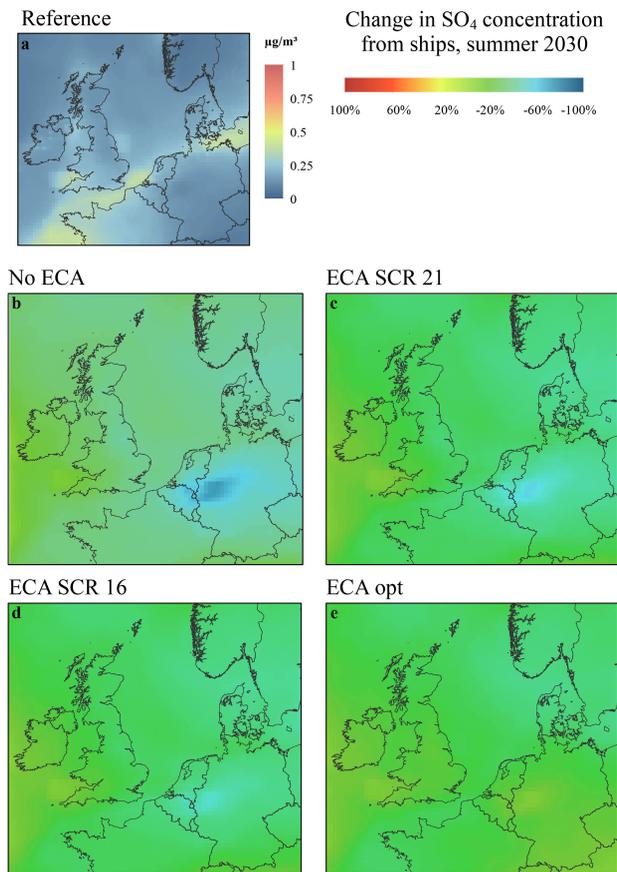


Figure A2. Change in the contribution of shipping to the total SO_4 concentrations in summer (JJA) compared to the reference case **(a)** for the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 16, **(d)** ECA SCR 21, and **(e)** ECA opt.

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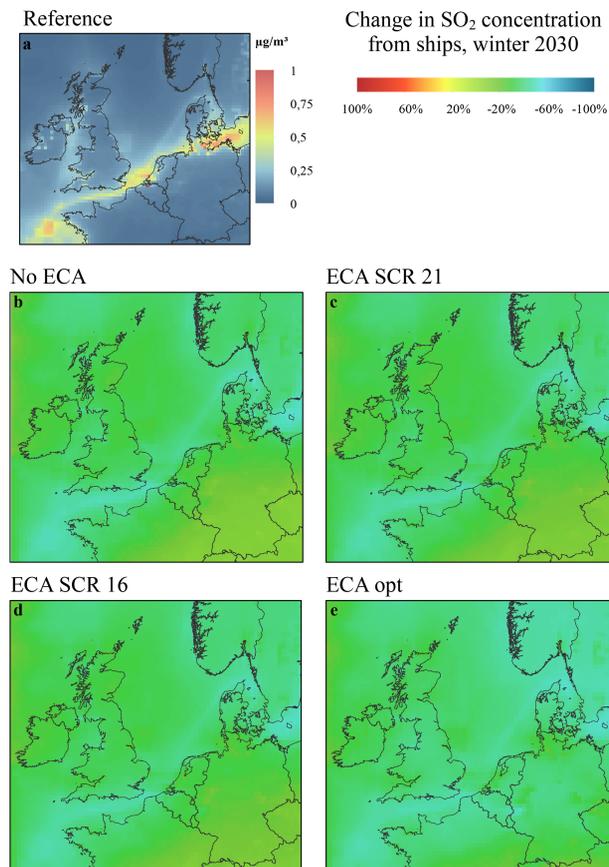


Figure A4. Change in the contribution of shipping to the total SO₂ concentrations in winter (DJF) compared to the reference case **(a)** for the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 16, **(d)** ECA SCR 21, and **(e)** ECA opt.

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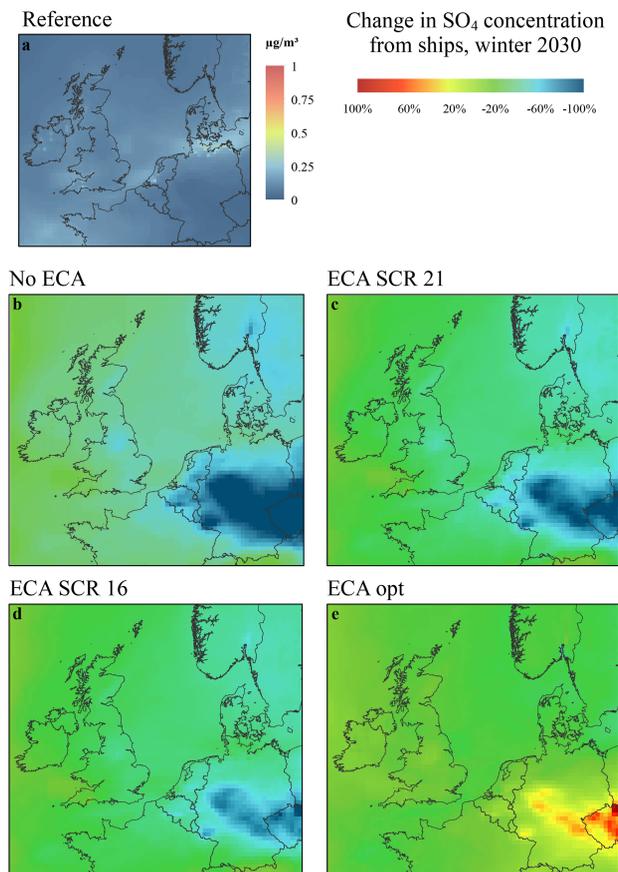


Figure A5. Change in the contribution of shipping to the total SO₄ concentrations in winter (DJF) compared to the reference case **(a)** for the scenarios **(b)** No ECA, **(c)** ECA SCR 16, **(d)** ECA SCR 21, and **(e)** ECA opt.

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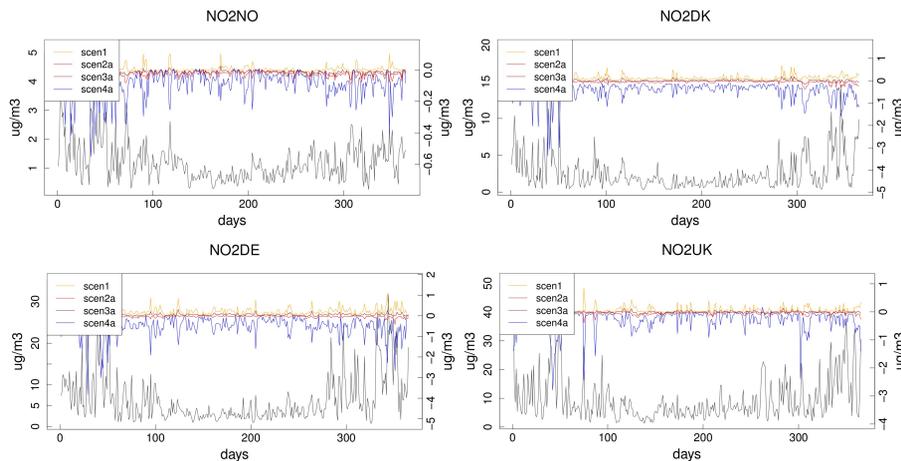


Figure A6. Time series of daily average NO₂ concentrations in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (black, left y axis) and the contribution of shipping to the NO₂ concentrations in the coastal areas of Norway (region 1), Denmark (region 2), Germany (region 3), and Great Britain (region 5) for all scenarios (right y axis).

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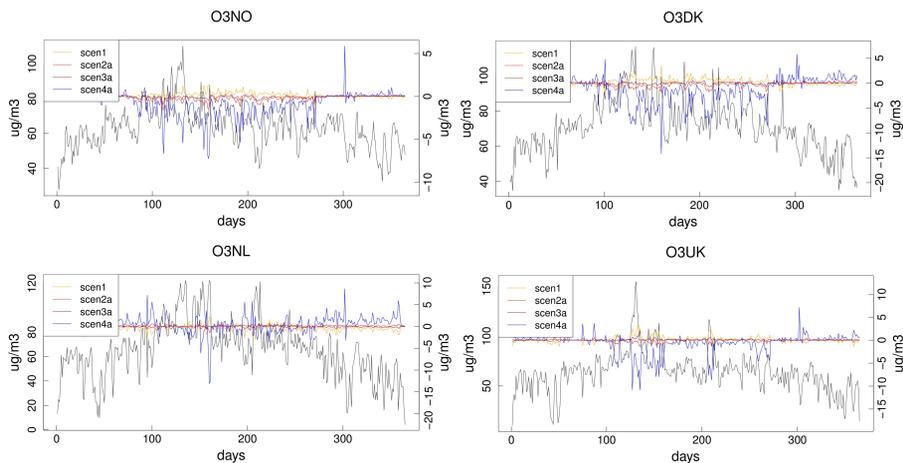


Figure A7. Time series of daily average O₃ concentrations in $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (black, left y axis) and the contribution of shipping to the O₃ concentrations in the coastal areas of Norway (region 1), Denmark (region 2), Belgium and the Netherlands (region 4), and Great Britain (region 5) for all scenarios (right y axis).

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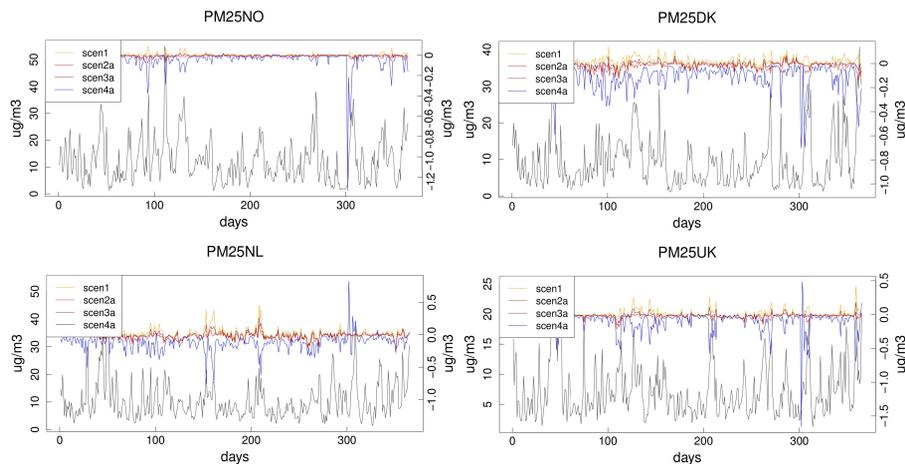


Figure A8. Time series of daily average PM_{2.5} concentrations in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (black, left y axis) and the contribution of shipping to the PM_{2.5} concentrations in the coastal areas of Norway (region 1), Denmark (region 2), Belgium and the Netherlands (region 4), and Great Britain (region 5) for all scenarios (right y axis).

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