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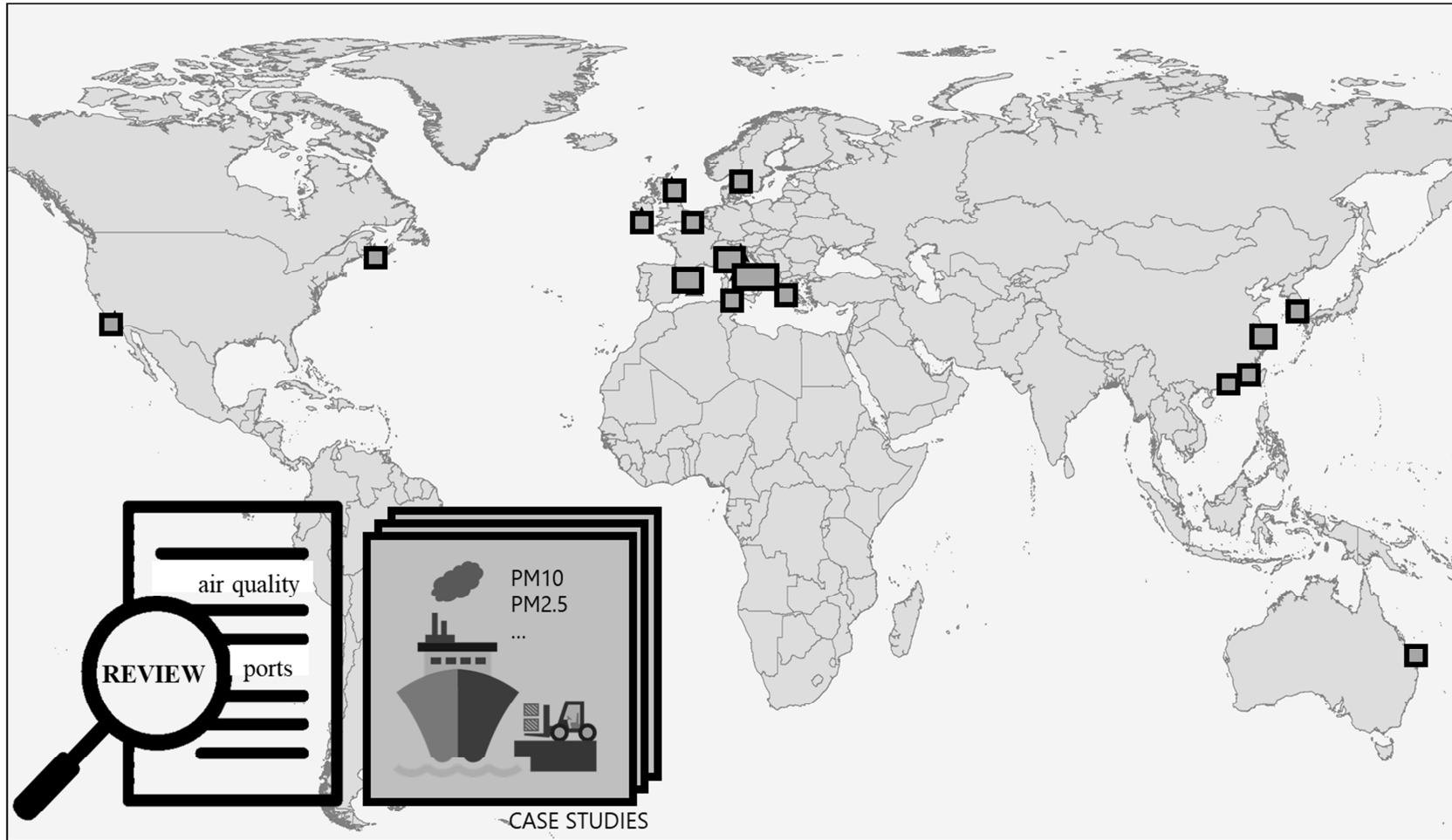
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Impact of harbour activities on local air quality: a review

Sandra Sorte, Vera Rodrigues, Carlos Borrego, Alexandra Monteiro

CESAM, Department of Environment and Planning, University of Aveiro, 3810-193 Aveiro, Portugal.

*Corresponding author: ssss@ua.pt, Tel: +351 234370220, Fax: +351 234 370309

Abstract

Several harbour activities cause negative environmental impacts in the harbours' surrounding areas, namely the degradation of air quality. This paper intends to comprehensively review the status of the air quality measured in harbour areas. The published studies show a limited number of available air quality monitoring data in harbours areas, mostly located in Europe (71 %). Measured concentrations of the main air pollutants were compiled and intercompared, for different countries worldwide allowing a large spatial representativeness. The higher NO₂ and PM₁₀ concentrations were found in Europe - ranging between 12-107 µg/m³ and 2-50 µg/m³, respectively, while the higher concentrations of PM_{2.5} were found in Asia (25 - 70 µg/m³). In addition, the lower levels of SO₂ monitored in recent years suggest that current mitigation strategies adopted across Europe were very efficient in promoting the reduction of SO₂ concentrations.

Part of the reviewed studies also estimated the contributions from ship emissions to PM concentration through the application of source apportionment methods, with an average of 5-15 %. In some specific harbour areas in Asia, ships can contribute up to 7 to 26 % to the local fine particulate matter concentrations. This review confirms that emissions from the maritime transport sector should be considered as a significant source of particulate matter in harbour areas, since this pollutant concentrations are frequently exceeding the established standard legal limit values. Therefore, the results from this review boost the implementation of mitigation measures, aiming to reduce, in particular, particulate matter emissions.

Capsule

A review was performed focused on air quality over harbour areas, concluding that shipping activities have a significant contribution to PM and NO₂ emissions: the highest concentrations of NO₂ and PM₁₀ are found in European harbours, ranging between 12 - 107 µg/m³ and 2-50 µg/m³, respectively, while the highest PM_{2.5} concentrations were found in Asia, ranging from 25 to 70 µg/m³.

34

35 **Keywords:** ports; ships; air pollution; SO₂, NO₂, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}; source apportionment; PMF

36

37 1. Introduction

38 Maritime transport has been growing due to the globalisation of manufacturing activities and
39 the increase of international trade and tourism (Zhao et al., 2013), making harbours key
40 contributors to the social and economic development worldwide (Agrawal et al., 2008; Eyring
41 et al., 2010). In coastal areas, there is a rising concern about the impact of maritime transport
42 and related activities on local air quality. In cases where harbours are located near densely
43 populated urban areas, emissions from ships may have a strong impact, affecting human
44 health of coastal communities and the environment (e.g. Isakson et al., 2001; Sorte et al.
45 2018). The growth of ship movements and consequent release of air pollutants called also
46 the attention to this emission source. Sulphur oxides (SO_x), nitrogen oxides (NO_x),
47 particulate matter (PM), carbon monoxide (CO) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
48 (PAHs) are emitted to the atmosphere as a direct result of maritime activities. According to
49 global annual estimates, around 70% of the ships' global emissions are within 400 km of the
50 coast, but they still contribute to the degradation of air quality in coastal areas and harbour
51 cities (Viana et al., 2014; Monteiro et al., 2018, Ramacher et al., 2019).

52 Despite the progress achieved in the last decades regarding air pollution control owing to the
53 application of strict measures to reduce emissions, several countries are still facing air
54 pollution episodes with regular exceedances of the European Union (EU) limits and World
55 Health Organization (WHO) guidelines. In particular, the latest official air quality data
56 released by the European Environment Agency (EEA) in 2018 indicate 19 % of PM₁₀
57 concentrations above the EU daily limit value considering the reporting air quality monitoring
58 stations in 10 of the 28 EU Member countries (EU-28); PM_{2.5} concentrations above the EU
59 annual legal limit value were recorded at 5 % of the air quality stations in four Member
60 countries and four other reporting countries (EEA, 2018).

61 Furthermore, according to the latest urban air quality database published by the WHO, the
62 great majority of cities worldwide are exceeding the WHO's Air Quality Guideline levels for
63 PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} (WHO, 2016). The summary report of this database discusses the PM₁₀
64 levels for available worldwide mega-cities for the last available year in the period 2011-2015.
65 The available data show several mega-cities exceeding the WHO's AQG levels: Delhi
66 recorded annual average concentrations of PM₁₀ above 200 µg/m³; the cities of Cairo and

67 Dhaka reported PM_{10} concentrations above $150 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, while the cities of Mumbai, Beijing
68 and Kolkata reported PM_{10} concentrations above $100 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

69 Strict regulations aiming to control and prevent air pollution from shipping transport were
70 introduced in the Marine Pollution Convention (MARPOL) Annex VI by the International
71 Maritime Organization (IMO) and entered into force in 2005. Many countries have ratified this
72 protocol to limit NO_x and SO_2 emissions from ships. Several coastal areas have been
73 classified as Sulfur Emission Control Areas (SECA), namely the Baltic Sea, the North Sea,
74 the English Channel and the coastal waters around the United States of America and
75 Canada. Within SECA areas the sulfur content in marine fuels is limited and was set at 1.5 %
76 until 2010, 1 % between 2010 and 2015, and 0.1 % from 2015 (Jonson et al., 2019; Karl et
77 al., 2019; Maragkogianni et al., 2016). Moreover, the European Union has established a legal
78 requirement limiting at 0.1 % the sulfur content in fuels used for ships at berth in harbours,
79 implemented since 2010. International legislation to reduce shipping emissions worldwide is
80 mainly focused on the use of low-sulphur content fuel (Ledoux et al., 2018; Schembari et al.,
81 2012; Xu et al., 2018; Contini et al., 2015). Recently, some the Representative Concentration
82 Pathway (RCP) scenarios have been proposed including alternative assumptions
83 on pollution control, in an effort to better understand the role of air pollution control in terms
84 of reference scenario development and the co-benefits from climate policies (see for
85 example Rao et al., 2013; Chuwah et al., 2013).

86 Air pollutant emissions in harbours come from different sources, from manoeuvring ships to
87 the activity at the dock and at berthing ship. In addition, emissions are also generated while
88 vessels are at berth since not all types of vessels switch off the main engines (Jahangiri et
89 al., 2018; Nunes et al., 2017). Emissions due to harbour-related activities represent only a
90 small fraction of the global emissions associated with shipping (Sorte et al., 2019).
91 Additionally to the emission sources, many harbours are situated in topographically complex
92 terrain, with limited or inadequately atmospheric dispersion conditions. In addition, coastal
93 sites display specific meteorological patterns with individual and complex characteristics,
94 mainly due to the temporal and spatial scales of the meteorological circulations on those
95 areas, like sea-breezes (Sorte et al., 2019). These specific meteorological patterns of coastal
96 areas, such as land-sea breezes, have a high impact on dispersion, transformation, removal
97 and accumulation of air pollutants (Anjos et al., 2019). The contribution of ship emissions to
98 local air quality, with specific focus on atmospheric aerosol, has been investigated using
99 numerical models (Gariazzo et al., 2007; Marmer et al., 2009), experimental campaigns (Ault

100 et al., 2010; Contini et al., 2011; Jonsson et al., 2011) or using receptor models based on the
101 identification of chemical tracers associated with ship emissions (Viana et al., 2009; Pandolfi
102 et al., 2011; Cesari et al., 2014; Contini et al., 2015).

103 Ship emissions in harbours can have a significant impact on local air quality, population
104 exposure and therefore human health in urban areas. Some studies found a high impact
105 from local shipping emissions on NO₂ exposure in the harbour area of three Baltic Sea
106 harbour cities (50–80 %). While the exposure in the closest urban areas was lower (3 – 14 %
107 on average). Therefore, the impact of shipping emissions was more accentuated closer to
108 the harbour areas and downwind (Ramacher et al., 2019). In some coastal areas, the
109 contribution of shipping emissions to particulate matter pollution is of high importance, e.g.
110 from 5 to 20% (Dalsøren et al., 2009). Several studies found that ship emissions can have
111 important effects on air quality and exposure of coastal communities in Europe, Asia or North
112 America, in locations with high levels of ship traffic, often located near urban and industrial
113 centres (Pandolfi et al., 2011; Contini et al., 2011; Cesari et al., 2014; Viana et al., 2014;
114 Ramacher et al., 2019).

115 Exposure to air pollution has been associated with severe health pathologies, including
116 asthma, lung cancer, cardiovascular diseases, and heart attacks. Ship emissions, in
117 particular, have been associated with those pathologies (Quaranta et al., 2012; Tian et al.,
118 2013; Corbett et al., 2007; Sofiev et al., 2018). For instance, PM emissions from marine
119 vessels activities have been related to an increase of hospitalizations due to cardiovascular
120 episodes (Tian et al 2013; Papaefthimiou et al., 2016). The impact of ship emissions on
121 human health has been estimated in approximately 60,000 annual deaths at global scale,
122 with severe impacts in coastal regions, mostly along European, East Asian, and South Asian
123 coastal areas (Corbett et al., 2007). A more recent study shows that low-sulphur marine fuels
124 will still account for 250,000 annual deaths in 2020 due to the increase in the transport by
125 sea, despite the implemented low-sulphur regulations (Sofiev et al., 2018). Furthermore,
126 population exposure to NO₂ ship emissions was found to be consistently associated with total
127 non-accidental mortality, and specific cardiovascular mortality in the harbour of Gothenburg
128 in the Baltic Sea (Stockfelt et al., 2015). Ship exhaust is also one of the major sources of SO₂
129 emissions in Hong Kong, contributing to 36% of the ambient SO₂ concentrations, measured
130 by equipment located close to the major shipping harbours (Kwai Chung and Tsing Yi) (Yau
131 et al., 2012). Kilburn et al. (2012) show that emissions from ocean-going vessels are

132 associated with 519 premature deaths per year in the Pearl River Delta region, with the
133 majority occurring in Hong Kong.

134 In summary, maritime transport can have a high contribution to air quality degradation of
135 coastal areas, in terms of global and regional air pollution. Additionally, shipping activities
136 can have a strong impact on local air quality of harbours. Therefore, the main goal of this
137 paper is to thoroughly review and assess the current status of air quality over harbour areas
138 through measured data analysis. Despite their impact on air quality, air pollutant emissions
139 data from shipping activities are very scarce in the available literature. In order to summarise
140 the available data, this review focuses mainly on particulate matter emissions, as well as
141 some gaseous pollutants, namely the NO₂, SO₂ and PAH. The paper is organised as follows:
142 Section 2 describes the selected case studies; Section 3 presents the impact of harbour
143 areas activities on ambient SO₂, NO₂, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} concentrations; Section 4 compiles the
144 published results of ship emissions' contributions based on receptor modelling tools and
145 Section 5 presents the summary and conclusions.

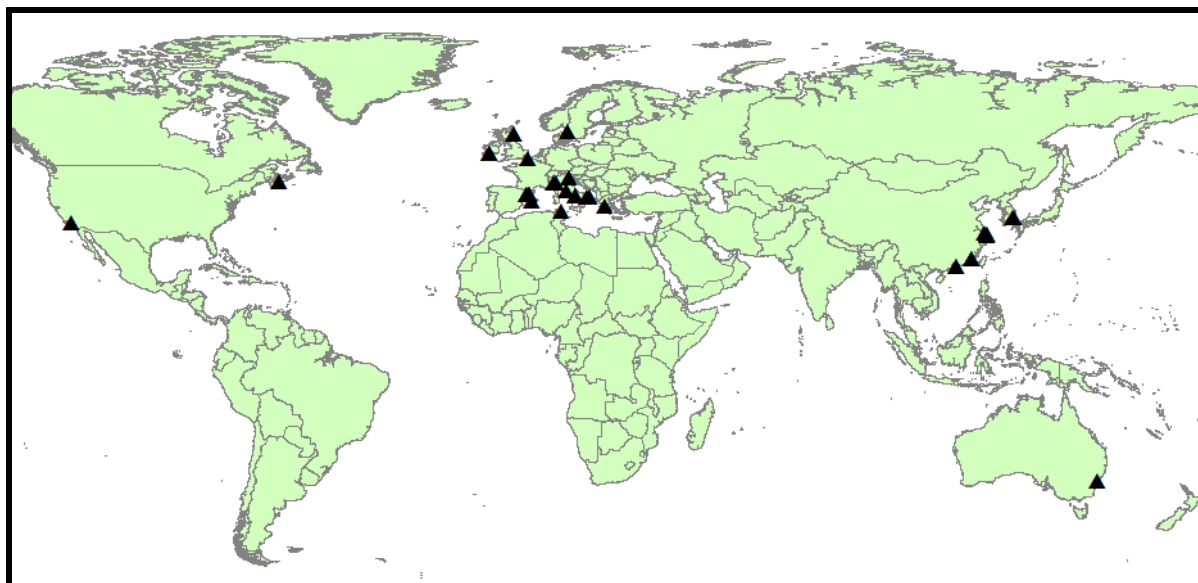
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147 **2. Air quality in harbours: case studies**

148 A literature survey was conducted using cross-discipline platforms for research support in
149 different areas - Science Direct, Scopus, and the Web of Science. A set of relevant keywords
150 were used, namely 'air quality', 'harbour activities', 'harbour activities and related
151 atmospheric emissions', 'ports', 'source apportionment', 'coastal areas', 'air pollution in
152 coastal areas/ cities'.

153 Figure 1 shows all the selected case studies focusing on air quality in harbour and/or harbour
154 city areas.

155



156

157 Figure 1. Location of the analysed published studies focusing on air quality over harbours.

158

159 Figure 1 presents the compiled case studies, in a total of 66, 9 % located in North America,
160 18 % in Asia, 2 % in Australia and the remaining 71 % case studies are located in Europe.161 These 71 % case studies are mainly placed in the Mediterranean and North Baltic seas. To
162 the best of the authors knowledge, there is any available study focusing on air quality over
163 harbour areas in South America countries.

164

165 **3. Air quality in harbours: current status**166 Table 1 identifies the analysed case studies focusing on air quality, summarizing the mean
167 concentrations of the selected pollutants – NO₂, SO₂, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} – followed by the
168 corresponding measurement period.

169

170 Table 1. List of the selected case studies focusing on air quality over harbour areas, together
171 with the mean concentrations of SO₂, NO₂, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} recorded for each case study,
172 during a specific period.

	Reference	Case study	Period	NO ₂ (µg/m ³)	SO ₂ (µg/m ³)	PM _{2.5} (µg/m ³)	PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)
Europe	Ledoux et al. (2018)	Calais harbour (France)	2014.1 - 2014.4	22.0	3.1	NA	25.3
	Isakson et al. (2001)	Göteborg harbour (Sweden)	1998.6 - 1998.7	12.0	4.5	NA	NA
	Amato et al. (2009)	Barcelona urban (Spain)	2005- 2007	NA	NA	27.7	40.0

Pérez et al. (2016)		2011.02 - 2011.12	NA	NA	18.0	27.0
Schembari et al. (2012)	Barcelona harbour (Spain)	2009.8 - 2009.10	31.0	7.1	NA	NA
		2010.8 - 2010.10	27.6	4.2	NA	NA
Pérez et al. (2016)		2011.02 - 2011.12	NA	NA	18.0	35.0
Schembari et al. (2012)	Palma de Mallorca urban (Spain)	2009.8 - 2009.10	53.9	14.1	NA	NA
		2010.8 - 2010.10	76.1	3.9	NA	NA
Alastuey et al. (2007)	Tarragona harbour (Spain)	2004.09 - 2005.09	NA	NA	NA	40.1
	Tarragona urban (Spain)	2001	NA	NA	NA	37.4
Pandolfi et al. (2011)	Algeciras urban-industrial (Spain)	2003 - 2007	NA	NA	24.2	37.2
Merico et al. (2016)	Brindisi harbour (Italy)	2014.7 - 2014.8	18.8	3.1	12.6	NA
Merico et al. (2019)	Bari harbour (Italy)	2016	NA	0.83	1.48	1.66
Donateo et al. (2014)	Brindisi harbour (Italy)	2012.06 - 2012.10	NA	NA	16.7	NA
Salameh et al. (2015)	Barcelona urban (Spain)	2011-2012	NA	NA	19	27
	Marseille urban (France)	2011-2012	NA	NA	17	31
	Genoa urban (Italy)	2011-2012	NA	NA	14	23
	Venice urban (Italy)	2011-2012	NA	NA	30	36
	Thessaloniki urban (Greece)	2011-2012	NA	NA	37	46
Gariazzo et al. (2007)	Taranto urban (Italy)	2004	44.6	6.0	NA	50.0
Schembari et al. (2012)	Savona harbour (Italy)	2009.8 - 2009.10	14.3	47.2	NA	NA
		2010.8 - 2010.10	14.9	1.6	NA	NA
	Civitavecchia harbour (Italy)	2009.8 - 2009.10	19.4	10.7	NA	NA
		2010.8 - 2010.10	21.2	1.6	NA	NA
Prati et al. (2015)	Naples urban (Italy)	2012.4	44.1	5.7	NA	27.1
		2012.11	38.8	10.6	NA	31.8
Bove et al. (2014)	Genoa urban (Italy)	2011.5 - 2011.10	NA	NA	12.9	NA
Murena et al. (2018)	Naples urban (Italy)	2016	56.2	NA	NA	NA
Contini et al. (2011)	Venice Lagoon harbour (Italy)	2007.3 - 2007.11	NA	NA	17.0	29.1
Merico et al. (2017)	Venice Lagoon harbour (Italy)	2002.3 - 2002.4	NA	NA	NA	62

	Manousakas et al (2017)	Venice urban (Italy)	2012	NA	NA	12.4	NA
	Healy et al. (2010)	Cork harbour (Ireland)	2008.5 - 2008.8	NA	NA	9.7	NA
	Hellebust et al. (2010)		2007.5 - 2008.4	NA	NA	2.8	4.6
	Marr et al (2007)	Aberdeen urban (Scotland)	2003.5 - 2003.8	80.8	NA	NA	NA
			2003.11 - 2004.5	107.2	NA	NA	NA
		Aberdeen harbour (Scotland)	2003.5 - 2003.8	56.4	NA	NA	NA
			2003.11 - 2004.5	92.1	NA	NA	NA
	Gregoris et al. (2016)	Venice harbour (Italy)	2009	NA	NA	19.5	NA
		Venice harbour (Italy)	2012	NA	NA	12.4	NA
Africa	Schembari et al. (2012)	Tunis harbour (Tunisia)	2009	20.5	7.6	NA	NA
			2010	27.1	9.2	NA	NA
Asia	Zhao et al (2013)	Shanghai harbour (China)	2010	63.7	29.4	62.6	NA
	Xu et al (2018)	Xiamen harbour (China)	2015.4 - 2016.1	NA	NA	51.9	NA
		Xiamen urban (China)	2015.4 - 2016.1	NA	NA	46.4	NA
	Mamoudou et al. (2018)	Yangshan harbour (China)	2016	NA	NA	44.0	NA
	Jeong et al. (2017)	Busan urban (Korea)	2013	NA	NA	26.1	NA
	Lang et al (2017)	Qinhuangdao urban (China)	2014.4 - 2015.1	NA	NA	70.1	NA
	Yau et al. (2013)	Tsing Yi urban (Hong Kong)	2009.8 - 2009.11	NA	NA	25.2	NA
	Yau et al. (2013)	Tsing Yi urban (Hong Kong)	2010.1 - 2010.3	NA	NA	35.5	NA
	Tao et al. (2017)	Zhuhai urban (China)	2014 - 2015	NA	NA	45.0	NA
Oceania	Broome et al. (2016)	Sydney urban (Australia)	2010 - 2011	NA	NA	7	16.4
North America	Moore et al. (2009)	San Pedro harbour (California)	2007	NA	NA	13.8	43.1
	Moore et al. (2009)	San Pedro urban (California)	2007	NA	NA	16.3	35.6
	Tao et al. (2013)	Oakland harbour (California)	2008.7-2009.6	NA	NA	7.1	NA

173 NA = not available

174 The average ambient NO₂ concentrations associated with shipping levels ranges between 12
175 µg/m³ and 107 µg/m³, depending on the measurement period, with the highest values located
176 in Scotland, Spain and China. Several exceedances of the annual limit value of nitrogen
177 dioxide (NO₂) were recorded in urban areas close to population clusters, such as Taranto
178 and Naples. In some studies, the air pollution levels were lower around the harbour, when
179 compared with the surrounding urban area. For instance, the case study of Aberdeen
180 showed lower concentrations of NO₂ around the harbour than the concentrations registered
181 in the city centre (Marr et al., 2007). The authors of the study identified as probable cause
182 the height of the emission source, considering the top of the ferry hoppers and the oil service
183 vessels. This is enough to spread the hot emissions in a very effective way, not detected
184 locally at a ground level, but affecting further the neighbour urban area (Marr et al., 2007).
185 Similarly, in Gothenburg, during summer time, the averaged concentrations measured at an
186 averaged distance of 800 m from the ships of NO₂, in-line with the ship's plume, indicate an
187 average concentration of NO₂ 12 µg/m³ above the urban background levels, while for SO₂
188 this value was 4.5, for background levels of 11.3 and 1.6 µg/m³, respectively (Isakson et al.,
189 2001).

190 The relatively low values of SO₂ may be due to the efforts of the EU and IMO to restrict ship
191 emissions. 45 % of the harbours reviewed were located under emission control areas, mainly
192 across the coast of Europe, United States of America and European North Sea. The SO₂
193 concentrations measured in the different case studies range from 0.83 to 47.2 µg/m³,
194 considering the distinct sampling periods for different cases. All studies carried in European
195 countries reported a low SO₂ concentration in conjunction with the impact of the EU directive
196 2005/33/EC, which regulates the SO₂ ship emissions in EU harbours from January 2010 on.
197 The concentration of SO₂ decreased significantly from 2009 to 2010 in EU harbours: 41 % in
198 Barcelona, 72% in Palma de Mallorca, 97% in Savona and 85 % in Civitavecchia (Schembari
199 et al. 2012). Moreover, there is also evidence in other European harbours that this strategy
200 contributed to lower SO₂ concentrations, namely at Calais, France (Ledoux et al., 2018),
201 Brindisi, Italy (Merico et al., 2016; Donateo et al., 2014) and Bari, Italy (Merico et al., 2019).
202 Mamoudou et al. (2018) show evidence of a noticeable improvement of air quality in
203 Yangshan harbour due to the control measures of ship emissions employed in the Yangtze
204 River Delta region (Mamoudou et al., 2018). Some studies showed also that low-sulphur
205 fuels could reduce the shipping contribution to PM_{2.5} concentration in harbour areas (Contini
206 et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2016), but with limited effects on metals and PAHs concentrations

207 (Gregoris et al., 2016). Hong Kong harbour is subject to IMO regulation and a voluntary low
208 sulphur program. The study focus on Brindisi (Donateo et al., 2014) indicates the impact on
209 SO₂ concentrations of manoeuvring during the ship's arrival and/or departure. On the other
210 hand, the hoteling phase had limited effects on SO₂ concentration, probably due to the
211 mandatory use of low-sulphur content fuels in European harbours, together with the
212 differences between the auxiliary and main motor emissions, as well as the different engine
213 loads (Merico et al., 2016). No reduction was detected in the non-EU harbour of Tunis and
214 Shanghai (Schembari et al., 2012, Zhao et al., 2013).

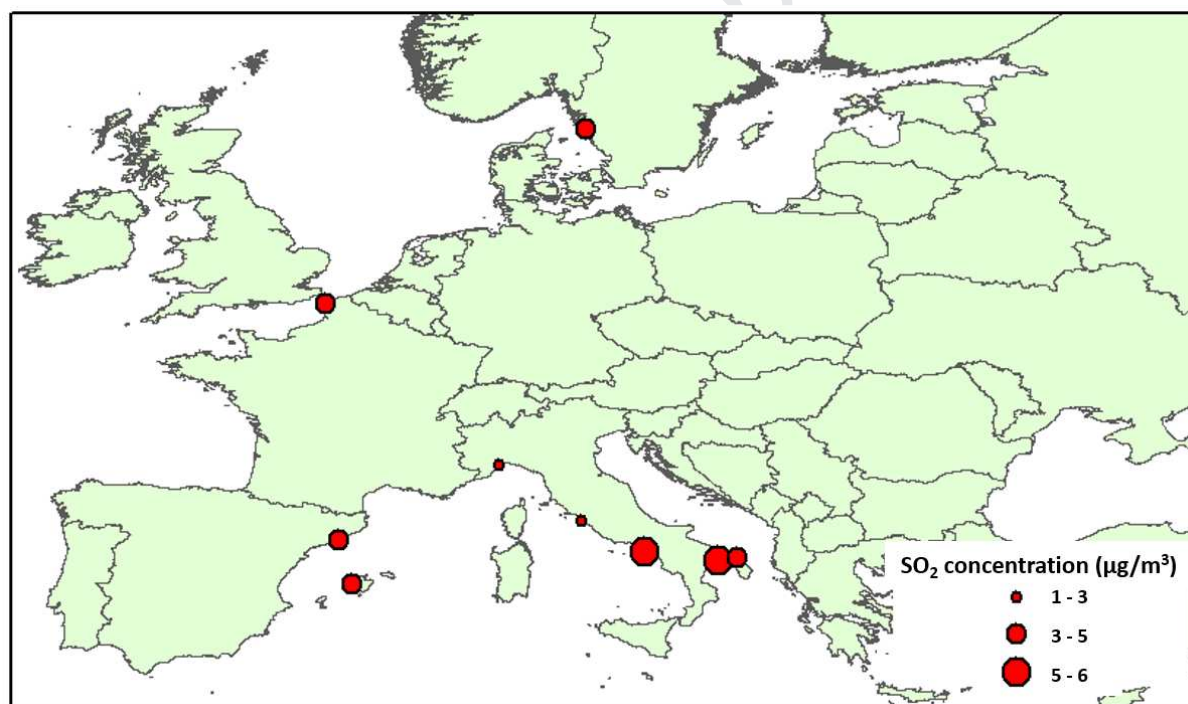
215 Some of these studies have also revealed that ship emissions contribute more to fine
216 particles, and especially to ultrafine particles, than to coarse aerosols (Viana et al., 2009 and
217 Saxe and Larsen, 2004). Primary particles emitted by ships are predominantly in the sub-
218 micron size fraction, which may support these results (Healy et al., 2009). Ship emissions
219 have been identified as contributors to an increase in particle concentrations and are thus
220 dominated as ultrafine particles (Reche et al., 2011). Murena et al. (2018) show that in the
221 coast of China the PM_{2.5} concentration at Xiamen harbour differed by less than 20 % from
222 values reported from other harbours such as Shanghai (62.6 µg/m³, Zhao et al., 2013).
223 Besides that, the PM_{2.5} concentration at this harbour was more than twice the concentration
224 found in other harbours such as Busan, Korea (Jeong et al., 2017), Brindisi, Italy (Cesari et
225 al., 2014) and Barcelona, Spain (Amato et al., 2009). In Shanghai (Zhao et al., 2013),
226 Xiamen (Xu et al., 2018) and Yangshan (Mamoudou et al., 2018) studies point out that ship
227 traffic has a non-negligible impact on primary particles in harbour and surrounding land
228 areas.

229 Despite being the most studied pollutants in the literature, PM, NO₂ and SO₂ are not the only
230 pollutants affecting air quality over harbour areas. An array of other compounds can be found
231 at significant concentrations around harbours. For instance, Vanadium (V) and nickel (Ni), as
232 well as BC (black carbon) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are typically emitted by
233 shipping activities and they are hazardous to human health. As an example, the urban area
234 of the harbour of Venice (Sacca San Biagio), has registered annual average values of 30.7
235 ng/m³ in 2009 and 6.3 ng/m³ in 2012 for gas and particulate PAHs together (Gregoris et al.,
236 2016). In comparison, the monitored air quality levels of the city showed values of 5.4 ng/m³
237 and 2.6 ng/m³, in 2009 and 2012, respectively. The same effect was observed in Brindisi by
238 applying the same double-sampling method (Donateo et al. 2014). Air coming from the
239 harbour/industrial sector was richer in PAHs (5.34 ng/m³) than air sampled from all directions

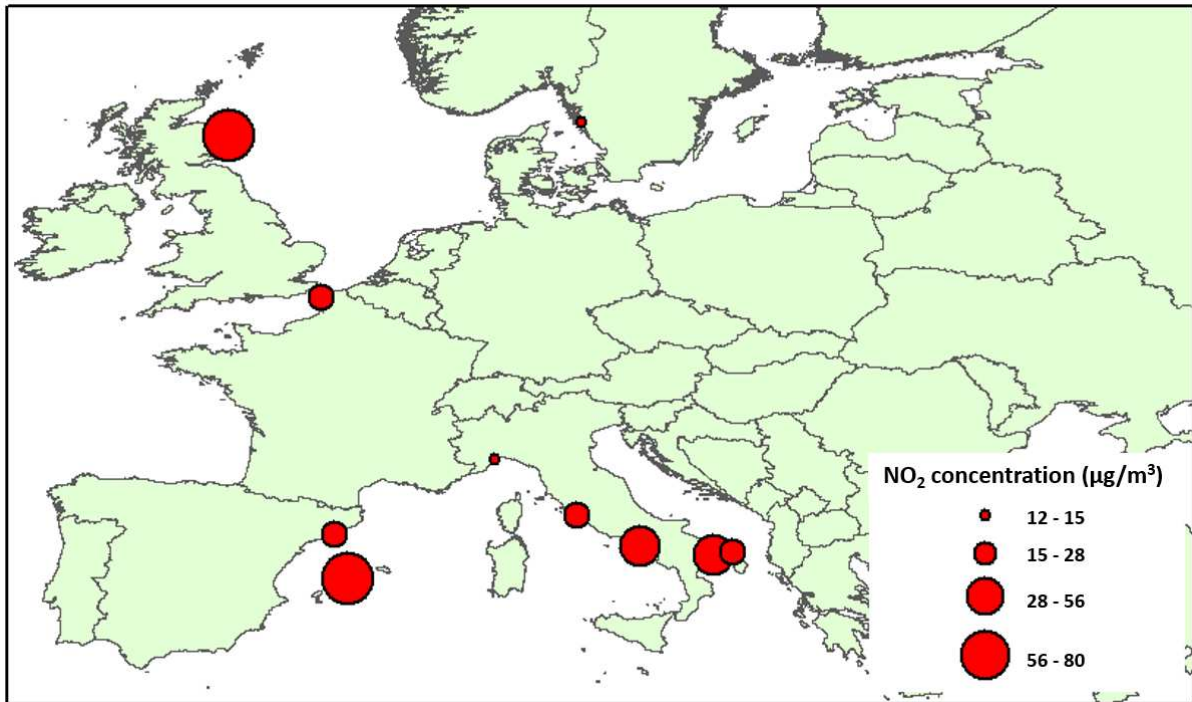
240 (3.89 ng/m³). This result is like the findings in other harbour cities such as Venice (Contini et
241 al. 2011).

242 In the particular case of Europe, the high number of available studies addressing marine
243 transport emissions and its related air quality denotes the relevance of this issue in Europe.
244 Figure 2 shows the geographical distribution of the case studies located in Europe and the
245 respective magnitude of the pollutant's concentration measured, regarding the pollutants
246 considered in this review: SO₂, NO₂, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}. Palma de Mallorca and Aberdeen
247 show the highest NO₂ levels, while for SO₂ the highest values are recorded in Civitavecchia
248 and Naples. In the case of Palma de Mallorca, data comes from a monitoring station located
249 in the city area; however, it will be influenced by the harbour zone. Regarding PM, Figure 2c)
250 and 2d) show a higher concentration measured in Mediterranean cities.

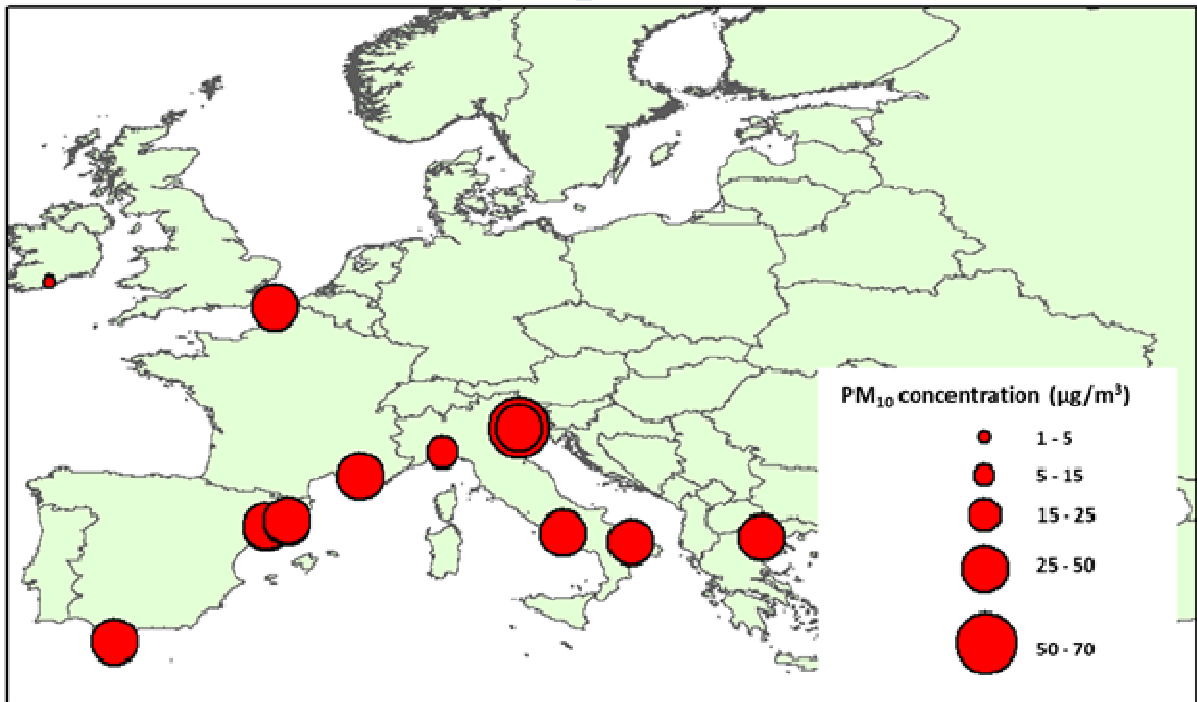
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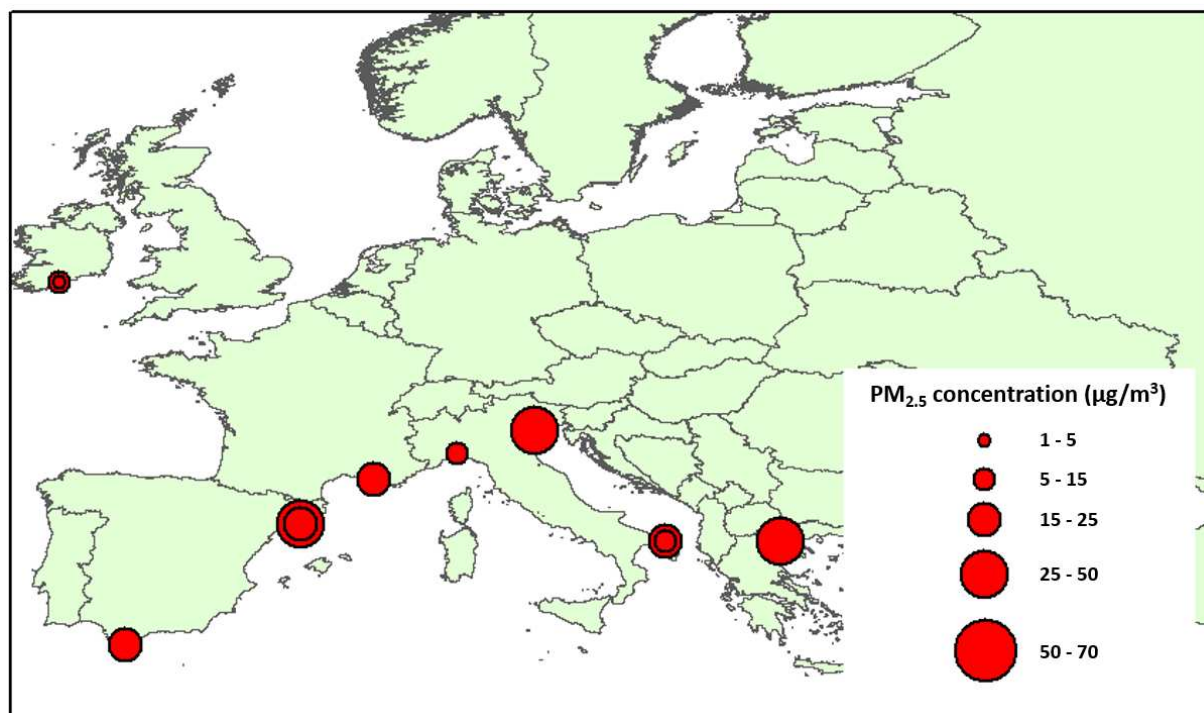
a)



b)



c)



d)

252 Figure 2. Average concentration values measured for each European case study, during the
 253 corresponding sampling period, for the distinct pollutants: a) SO₂, b) NO₂, c) PM₁₀ and d)
 254 PM_{2.5}.
 255

256 4. Contribution of ship emissions to PM

257 A set of studies addressed the contribution of shipping activities to PM values using source
 258 apportionment techniques. These studies focused mainly on the Mediterranean, Asia and
 259 North America city-harbours. These source apportionment studies presented different
 260 approaches, namely positive matrix factorization (PMF), main component analysis/absolute
 261 main component score (PCA/APCS), chemical mass balance (CMB), multiple linear
 262 regression (MLR) and V concentration (V).

263

264 Table 2 summarizes the contribution of shipping activities to PM concentrations found in
 265 each of those studies, with the respective sampling period, and method used. Other emission
 266 sectors (e.g. traffic, industry and natural sources) were also identified and quantified
 267 (available on Table S1 of the supplementary material).

268

269 Table 2. List of case studies using source-apportionment methods to estimate shipping
 270 contribution to PM values.

Reference	Location	Period	Method	PM	Shipping (%)
Saraga et al. (2019)	Thessaloniki harbour (Greece)	2011.6 – 2012.5	PMF	PM _{2.5}	13
	Thessaloniki harbour (Greece)	NA	PMF	PM _{2.5}	9
Scerri et al. 2018	Malta urban (Republic of Malta)	2016	PMF	PM _{2.5}	5
Manousakas et al (2017)	Patras harbour (Greece)	2011	PMF	PM _{2.5}	10
Manousakas et al (2017)	Patras harbour (Greece)	2011	PMF	PM ₁₀	15
Cesari et al. (2014)	Brindisi harbour (Italy)	2012.6 - 2012.10	PMF	PM _{2.5}	15.3*
Bove et al. (2014)	Genoa urban (Italy)	2011.5 - 2011.10	PMF	PM _{2.5}	11
Merico et al. (2017)	Brindisi urban (Italy)	2012	V	PM _{2.5}	2.8
Gregoris et al. (2016)	Venice harbour (Italy)	2007 - 2013	PMF	PM ₁₀	2.5
Gregoris et al. (2016)	Venice harbour (Italy)	2007 - 2013	PMF	PM _{2.5}	3.3
Merico et al (2017)	Rijeka harbour (Croatia)	2014	PMF	PM _{2.5}	10.5
Merico et al. (2017)	Rijeka urban (Croatia)	2012	V	PM _{2.5}	1.1
Merico et al. (2017)	Rijeka harbour (Croatia)	2013-2014	V	PM _{2.5}	0.5
Pérez et al. (2016)	Barcelona harbour (Spain)	2011.02 - 2011.12	PMF	PM _{2.5}	14
		2011.02 - 2011.12	PMF	PM ₁₀	8
	Barcelona urban (Spain)	2011.02 - 2011.12	PMF	PM ₁₀	4
		2011.02 - 2011.12	PMF	PM _{2.5}	6
Amato et al. (2009)		2003 -2007	PMF	PM _{2.5}	6-7
		2003 -2007	PMF	PM ₁₀	5
Pandolfi et al. (2011)	Gibraltar Strait urban (Spain)	2003 -2007	PMF	PM _{2.5}	5-10
		2003 -2007	PMF	PM ₁₀	3-7
Viana et al. (2009)	Melilla urban (Spain)	2007	PMF	PM _{2.5}	14
		2007	PMF	PM ₁₀	2-4
Alastuey et al. (2007)	Tarragona harbour (Spain)	2004.09 - 2005.09	FA	PM ₁₀	16

Europe

	Healy et al. (2010)	Cork harbour (Ireland)	2008.5 - 2008.8	PMF	PM _{2.5}	2
	Hellebust et al. (2010)		2007.5 - 2008.4	MLR	PM ₁₀	< 5*
	Healy et al. (2009)		2008.8	PMF	PM _{2.5}	2
Asia	Xu et al. (2018)	Xiamen harbour - industrial (China)	2015.4 - 2016.1	PMF	PM _{2.5}	26*
		Xiamen urban (China)	2015.4 - 2016.1	PMF	PM _{2.5}	13*
	Mamoudou et al. (2018)	Yangshan Island harbour (China)	2016	PMF	PM _{2.5}	2.4
	Mamoudou et al. (2018)	Yangshan Island harbour (China)	2016	V	PM _{2.5}	0.23
	Tao et al. (2017)	Zhuhai urban (China)	2014 -2015	PMF	PM _{2.5}	18
	Zhao et al. (2013)	Shanghai harbour (China)	2011	V	PM _{2.5}	4.23
	Jeong et al. (2017)	Busan urban (Korea)	2013	PMF	PM _{2.5}	7
			2013	CMB	PM _{2.5}	1
			2013	PCA/ APCS	PM _{2.5}	5
	Yau et al. (2013)	Kwai Chung and Tsing Yi urban (Hong Kong)	2009.8 - 2010.3	PMF	PM _{2.5}	19
2009.8 - 2010.3			PCA/ APCS	PM _{2.5}	25	
North America	Gibson et al. (2013)	Halifax urban (Canada)	2011.7 - 2011.8	PMF	PM _{2.5}	3
	Minguillón et al. (2008)	Angeles Long Beach harbour (California)	2007	CMB	PM _{2.5}	< 5
	Kuwayama et al. (2013)	Oakland harbour (California)	2010.3	PMF	EC	12
	Kuwayama et al. (2013)	Oakland harbour (California)	2010.4 – 2010.5	PMF	EC	29.2
	Agrawal et al. (2009)	Los Angeles harbour (California)	2004	V	PM _{2.5}	8.8

271 * Mixed industrial source and shipping

272

273 PMF is the most commonly used method for source-apportionment among the selected case
 274 studies. In the case study of Busan (Korea), it is possible to see the magnitude of source
 275 contribution estimates to PM levels, which differ significantly among PMF, CMB and
 276 PCA/APCS models (Jeong et al., 2017). Newly inter-comparison studies, which use different
 277 data sets (number of chemical species) and receptor models (PMF, CMB, PCA), suggest
 278 that the stability and robustness of the results depend on receptor models, bringing

279 significant differences in the magnitude of the contribution-source (Cesari et al., 2016; Belis
280 et al., 2014; Viana et al., 2008; Liang et al., 2016). Recently, Mamoudou et al. (2018) showed
281 that the V method significantly underestimated (in approximately $1.84 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) the contribution
282 of shipping emissions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations at Yangshan Harbor, when compared to the
283 PMF method.

284 The maximum $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ contribution estimated by PMF for ship emissions was 26.1 % in
285 Xiamen, followed by Kwai Chung urban (19 %) and Zhuhai (18 %). For PM_{10} , the major
286 contributors were the harbours of Tarragona (16 %), followed by Patras (15 %) and
287 Barcelona (8 %). The ship emission contributions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ differed significantly between
288 European, Asian and North American harbour cities, ranging from 2-14 %, 1–25 % and 3-29
289 % of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, respectively. On the other hand, the ship emission contributions to PM_{10} in
290 Europe ranged between 3-16 %. In overall, a greater ship contribution was seen in East
291 Asian harbour cities compared to Europe, as a result of the presence of major hub harbours
292 in that part of the world. The contribution of ships clearly decreased at Yangshan harbour
293 due to the control measures of shipping emissions employed in the Yangtze River Delta,
294 while diesel engine exhaust from ships, as well as diesel vehicles, were still a significant
295 source in this harbour and nearshore areas (Mamoudou et al., 2018).

296 The source contribution to PM in urban areas is different from those in harbour cities. In
297 Xiamen's harbour, the industry and ship emissions contributions for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at
298 harbour/industrial areas were close to double (26 %) compared to the urban ones (13 %) and
299 were primarily caused by refined industrial activities and ship emissions (Xu et al., 2018).
300 The same behaviour was registered in Barcelona's harbour where the contribution of the
301 shipping emissions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (14 %) was approximately double of those at the urban area (6
302 %). The high concentration of mineral dust measured at the harbour area come from the
303 construction in a new harbour terminal, together with the manoeuvring of bulk solids and the
304 re-suspension of the street dust by light and heavy vehicles.

305 The contribution of other sources of emissions – traffic, industrial and natural – vary
306 according to the type of harbour, namely with the industrial or urban surrounding.

307 A higher traffic contribution for emissions of PM was registered in Europe compared to Asia,
308 with contributions ranging between 16 - 45 % and 7 - 22 %, respectively. The maximum
309 contribution from traffic to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emissions was estimated by PMF to be 45 % in Thessaloniki,
310 followed by Barcelona and Patras harbours (36 and 34 % respectively). For PM_{10} , traffic was
311 the main contributor, once again for urban-surrounded harbours; in this case Barcelona and

312 Tarragona, where traffic accounted for 40 and 34 % of PM_{10} emissions (Saraga et al., 2019;
313 Manousakas et al., 2017; Pérez et al., 2016; Alastuey et al., 2007). The elevated contribution
314 of traffic at the Thessaloniki and Tarragona harbours was attributed to the high number of
315 vehicles, trucks circulation, and the resuspension during dock's loading and unloading in the
316 harbour area (Saraga et al., 2019). However, the road traffic's contribution to the $PM_{2.5}$
317 emissions in Barcelona is very similar between the harbour surroundings and the urban area.
318 This is probably due to the localization of the harbour, with a similar high impact of vehicle
319 traffic in both monitoring sites, both situated close to the main roads in and out of the city
320 (Pérez et al. 2016). Contributions of PM components (EC) attributed to harbour truck
321 activities decreased from 56 to 23%, due to the control program, which meets the targets
322 defined in the Emission Reduction Plan for Ports and Goods Movement in California
323 (Kuwayama et al., 2013). After the implementation of the control program, harbour trucks and
324 ships accounted for approximately 23 and 29 % of the ambient EC concentrations at the
325 harbour, respectively.

326 Industry accounted for 16 % of $PM_{2.5}$ emissions in Brindisi, followed by 14 and 12 % in
327 Barcelona and Tarragona harbours, respectively. Regarding PM_{10} , once again industry was a
328 major contributor in the Tarragona (12 %) and Barcelona (8 %) harbours. Industry
329 contribution for PM emissions is higher in Asian harbour cities than in European ones, with a
330 maximum of 88 % registered in Yangshan Island, China (Mamoudou et al., 2018). This may
331 be due to the higher industrialization in China or Korea, compared to Europe. Another
332 explanation would be the difference in environmental legislation between Europe and Asia,
333 namely regarding the limit values of PM concentrations.

334 Natural sources of emissions include marine sea salt, African dust, soil resuspension, sea
335 spray and biomass burning/ fires (not domestic heating). The maximum $PM_{2.5}$ contribution
336 estimated by PMF from natural sources was 27 % of $PM_{2.5}$ in the Gibraltar harbour, followed
337 by Busan (18 %) and Barcelona urban (17 %) (Pérez et al. 2016; Pandolfi et al. 2011; Jeong
338 et al. 2017). This is probably due to the limited effect of industries in urban stations since
339 large industrial plants are usually placed in the outskirts of urban areas. Moreover, less
340 populated countries like Gibraltar show less traffic and/or less industrial activity, meaning that
341 a higher share of emissions would be attributed to natural sources (Pandolfi et al. 2011).
342 Contribution from natural sources was comparable between European and Asian harbour
343 cities, ranging from 2-27 % and 2-18 % of $PM_{2.5}$, respectively.

344

5. Summary and conclusions

The literature review performed in this paper aims to summarize the current knowledge on air quality status locally over harbour areas, focusing on several worldwide harbours. The increase, in the last decade, of available studies evaluating the impact of ship emissions denotes the relevance of this activity sector and its impacts on air quality and consequent human exposure. All the selected studies in this literature review agree on the relevant contribution of shipping and harbour activities in terms of atmospheric emissions and related concentrations of the main critical pollutants, namely PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, NO₂ and SO₂.

The selected studies indicate a large spatial variability of particulate matter and gaseous concentrations over distinct countries. For instance, the measured NO₂ concentrations ranged from 12 to 107 µg/m³, while the measured PM₁₀ concentrations varied between 2 and 62 µg/m³. The maximum concentrations for all the considered pollutants were found in European harbour areas (e.g. maximum concentrations of 107, 47, 37 and 62 µg/m³ for NO₂, SO₂, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, respectively), which is mainly due to the high number of available measurements, and not necessarily an indicator of the occurrence of more air pollution episodes over the European harbours. The largest concentrations of PM_{2.5} were found in Asia varying from 25 to 70 µg/m³. In addition, in some harbour areas, namely Thessaloniki, Patras, Genoa, Barcelona, Gibraltar and Tarragona, the shipping contribution to PM_{2.5} concentrations were quantified using source apportionment techniques, indicating a contribution from 10 up to 14 %.

This review highlights the relevance of the maritime transport sector on air pollutants emissions and its impact on air quality and human exposure, in particular over harbour urban areas. Current mitigation strategies in the European territory have proved their efficiency; with decreases of SO₂ concentrations in several harbours (the posterior reductions on the secondary PM are not totally quantified).

The outcomes of this literature review emphasize the further implementation of currently available measures, together with the implementation of new countermeasures especially focused on the emissions of primary particles. We believe that in the near future other studies will be made available, with new air quality data, from monitoring and/or modelling exercises, covering more air pollutants, and improving our current knowledge in this research field.

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- Maritime sector emissions are a main source of air pollution over harbour areas
- The highest concentrations of NO₂ and PM₁₀ are found in European harbours
- Recent mitigation strategies in the European territory have proved their efficiency
- PMF is the most common method for source-apportionment among all case studies

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