MARITIME STRATEGIC EVALUATION FOR ISRAEL 2021/22

Chief Editor: **Prof. Shaul Chorev** Editor: **Dr. Ziv Rubinovitz**





Maritime Policy & Strategy Research Cente המרכז לחקר מדיניות ואסטרטגיה ימית

Black Carbon Emissions from Ships in Israeli Ports Merav Gonen¹

Introduction

Ships are vital to global trade. They transport approximately 90% of all world trade and are the most efficient means of transport for transporting goods. Despite the advantages and importance of the shipping sector, emissions of air pollutants from ships include substances which are harmful to health and to the environment. The emission of pollutants into the air is partly caused due to the poor quality of fuel used by the shipping sector. The main pollutants emitted from ships include gases such as nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur oxides (SO_x), and particulate matter (PM). One of the particulate substances is black carbon, which is emitted during incomplete combustion of fossil fuels, and is the main component in soot. It is estimated that each year some eight million tons of black carbon are emitted into the atmosphere from different sources of combustion, of which the shipping sector is estimated to emit approximately 130,000 tons. Besides the detrimental impacts on health, black carbon has climate impacts as well. It is the second cause, after carbon dioxide, of global warming from the shipping sector.

An analysis of global ship traffic shows that a substantial part of ship emissions takes place close to shore or to shipping lanes. The estimate, and it is estimated that 80% of all ship emissions occur within a range of up to 400 km from the coastline. The most significant ship activity segment, in the context of health impacts is the segment in which the ship is berthed in port. Since ports are mostly located close to cities and population centers, ship emissions occurring while the ship is berthed in the port area have a more significant impact on the air quality around the port and on the health of the population living in the nearby city. Studies show that in port cities, the port activity contributes 50% of the total particulate emissions in the urban area.

Emissions of Air pollutants from the shipping sector

Ships are considered to be the most efficient means of transport in terms of tons of goods transported per ton of fuel. Also, compared with other means of transport such as trucks or airplanes, ships emit the least carbon dioxide in terms of gram per

¹ This article is based on research done as part of Master's Degree studies in the Department of Natural Resources and Environmental Management. The author wishes to thank Prof. Ofira Ayalon and Chief Engineer Asher Kadosh for their assistance this article.

ton cargo transported per kilometer. However, when it comes to air pollutants, the shipping sector's contribution is greater. Ship emissions equal, and even exceed, the emissions from land transport: sulfur dioxide emissions from ships are 1.6 to 2.7 times greater than the same emissions from land transport, and nitrogen dioxide and particulate emissions are slightly lower or equal to those from road vehicles (Corbett et al., 1999). Generally speaking, total ship emissions are increasing due to the growth in the volume of global trade, where approximately 90% of the global trade is transported by sea. In addition, regulatory measures taken in the land transport sector (emissions standards for cars and trucks) to reduce air pollutants have resulted in the relative decline in emissions from the land transport sector. Therefore, the relative contribution of the shipping sector to the total greenhouse gas emissions and other pollutant emissions of the whole transport sector has increased. In the European Union, regulations led to reduced emissions from land transport over the past two decades, thus it is estimated that the total emissions of SO_x and NO_x from the shipping sector will exceed the total emissions from landbased sources (figure 1a). The United States' Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) also estimates that shipping contributes 14% to the total NO_x emissions in the USA and that the contribution of the shipping sector to particulate emissions from diesel is approximately 45% (ICCT, 2007).





NO_x emissions estimate in the EU – land-based sources versus international shipping





Globally, ships are responsible for 14–31% of all nitrogen oxides (NO_x) emissions and for 4–9% of all sulfur oxides (SO_x) emissions. It should be noted that in the past decade, the International Maritime Organization has adopted regulations intended to reduce air emissions of sulfur oxides and nitrogen oxides from ships. The regulations

adopted, as part of the MARPOL Convention, gradually limited the sulfur content in fuels used by ships to 3.5% sulfur beginning in 2012 and subsequently to 0.5% sulfur from 2020. In addition, limits on the nitrogen oxide emissions from ship engines were also imposed, depending on the year the ship was built. Moreover, in areas declared as "emission control areas", a more stringent emission limit is imposed (0.1% sulfur). These restrictions on the shipping sector have been introduced gradually over many years but did not yield a significant emissions reduction due to the growth in the shipping sector. It is hoped that we will see the effects of the regulations after 2020, in SO_x emissions reductions, following the coming into effect of the sulfur content limit in fuels as well as the introduction of emissions control areas in North America and Europe (the Baltic Sea, the North Sea).

Particulate air emissions from the shipping sector

In addition to the air pollutants emitted from ships, which include gases such as nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and sulfur oxides (SO_x) , ships also emit particles. Particulate Matter (PM) air pollution usually consists of metals, black carbon, organic carbon, ammonia, sulfates, nitrates, and soil particles (dust). Particulate air pollution from Diesel engines is considered to be more harmful than other sources and it contains a relatively large quantity of black carbon.

One of the reasons for the pollutant emissions from ships is the fact that ships use a relatively poor quality of fuel, known as Heavy Fuel Oil (HFO) or Residual Oil. This type of fuel, (also known as "mazut") is produced at the bottom of the refining process. It is the heaviest commercial fuel that can be extracted from crude oil. It is heavier than gasoline and kerosene. HFO is cheaper than other fuels but it is considered the most polluting. This type of fuel contains more sulfur, aromatic hydrocarbons and ash, which reduce the efficiency of the combustion, and cause increased pollutant emissions, including black carbon (IMO BLG 17/Inf 7, 2012). According to data from the International Maritime Organization, in 2018 the global shipping fleet consumed 339 million tons of fuel, 79% of which were Heavy Fuel Oil. (223 million tons HFO, 102 million tons MDO,² 11 million tons LNG³), (IMO MEPC 75/7/15, 2020).

The particulate air pollution is classified by the diameter of the particles, which may vary from tenths of a micron to tens of microns. Particles smaller than 10 microns in diameter are called PM10. There is another classification of PM1 for finer particles less than 1 micron in diameter. Black carbon belongs in this category. The smaller

² Marine Diesel Oil – MDO

³ Liquefied Natural Gas – LNG

the diameter of the particles, the deeper they penetrate the respiratory tracts. The black carbon particles are very fine particles, sometimes even having a diameter of 0.1 microns. They are able to penetrate into the lungs and into the bloodstream.

Black carbon and its effects on climate, agriculture, and health

Black Carbon (BC) is a carbonaceous substance consisting of particles less than 1 micron (PM1) in diameter. It is produced during incomplete combustion of carbonbased fossil fuels. In scientific literature, the definition of black carbon differentiates it from other forms of carbon due to its unique physiological properties: 1) it strongly absorbs visible light; 2) it is refractory; 3) it is insoluble in water or in organic solvents; 4) it exists in the air as an aerosol (aggregates of small carbon spherules), (Bond et al., 2013). Black carbon has been declared by the United Nations World Health Organization to be carcinogenic.

In the western world, Diesel engines are the main source of particulate emissions. Diesel engines have a relatively high proportion of particulate emission per unit of energy, and the black carbon component in these emissions is high. An estimate of the total global emissions of black carbon for 2013 totaled 7,500,000 tons (Bond et al., 2013). On a global scale, the transport sector is responsible for 19% of all black carbon emissions, mostly (90%) from diesel engines. The share of shipping sector in diesel engine emissions is 3.9% to 5.7%. It is estimated that the annual emissions of black carbon from the shipping sector is approximately 130,000 tons per year (Eyring et al., 2010). Both the IMO and the researchers agree that black carbon emissions from ships are being underestimated. It is estimated that black carbon emissions from shipping will continue to increase and will even triple by 2050 compared with 2004, despite the low-sulfur fuel regulations (Corbett et al., 2010).

The effects of black carbon on climate

Black carbon exists in the atmosphere as particles. It is the main component in soot. Although it is not a greenhouse gas (GHG), it still has an impact on the Earth's radiation balance: black carbon particles have a warming effect due to its property to absorb solar radiation. In addition, when it deposited on snow, it darkens it and alters the melting patterns due to a reduction of the "albedo effect", which is the reflectivity of solar radiation (white surfaces have a high albedo effect). Black carbon also affects the creation of clouds and atmospheric stability in the high strata (Hansen & Nazarenko, 2004). The global warming potential (GWP) of 1 ton black carbon over a period of 100 years is 900 (the range is between 120 and 1800 due to uncertainty over the effect on climate) (Bond et al., 2013). In other words, in order

to achieve the same effect as 1 ton of black carbon on global warming for a period of 100 years, 900 tons of carbon dioxide are required. The global warming potential of 1 ton of black carbon over a period of 20 years is much higher, 3,200 (3,200 times more than CO₂). (Figure 2)



Figure 2: The potential global warming contribution of black carbon, Source: Bond et al., 2013

A recent study done by the International Maritime Organization on greenhouse gas emissions from ships, found that the total greenhouse gas emissions of the shipping sector in terms of ton of CO_2 Equivalent, (meaning the impact of a specific pollutant relative to the impact of 1 ton of carbon dioxide), totaled 1076 million tons in 2018, reflecting an increase of 9.6% compared with 2012. The shipping sector's share of the total global emissions from anthropogenic sources increased from 2.76% to 2.89%.

The main contributor in terms of climate-affecting emissions from the shipping sector is carbon dioxide – 91% of the total emissions, and the second in its effect is black carbon, which amounts to 6.8% of the emissions. Black Carbon emissions from shipping increased by 12% between 2012-2018 (IMO MEPC 75/7/15, 2020). Therefore, black carbon is regarded as the second contributor to global warming, after carbon dioxide, from the shipping sector.

Recently, climate scientists have begun focusing research not only on greenhouse gases but also on aerosol particles (solid or liquid particles suspended in the air), and in particular black carbon, as one of the anthropogenic sources of global warming. Understanding the full range of impacts of black carbon on global warming is still a work in progress, however as opposed to carbon dioxide, which remains in the atmosphere for hundreds of years, black carbon has a relatively short life span in the

atmosphere – between days and weeks. Therefore, black carbon is considered to be an SLCF (short lived climate forcer). This means that the measures for reducing black carbon emissions could have an immediate contribution towards reducing global warming (UNEP & WMO UNEP/GC/26/INF/209, 2011).

The effects of black carbon on health

Black carbon is a particulate air pollutant, meaning air pollution which is caused by microscopic particles of a fluid or solid (as opposed to gaseous air pollution). Particulate air pollution severely affects health since the smaller the diameter of the particles, the deeper they penetrate the respiratory tracts, damaging the lung tissue, degrading respiratory function and increased morbidity of cardiopulmonary disease and cancer. The World Health Organization has defined particulate matter pollution of PM2.5 as being the environmental factor which poses the greatest health hazard (WHO, 2012). Black carbon is one of the components of particulate pollution and it is a universal indicator of the amount of harmful particles from combustion sources. There is scientific evidence of the negative health impacts of the carbonaceous component of the particles. It has been found that black carbon is a better indicator than PM for measuring the negative health impacts of respiratory particles. (Schaap & Denier van der Gon, 2007). Studies show that black carbon has negative health impacts compared with other PM2.5 components (Smith et al., 2009). To date there are not enough toxicological or epidemiological studies able to quantitatively estimate the difference between the health impacts of particles in general and those of black carbon. It is estimated that particulate emissions cause approximately 60,000 premature deaths per year as a result of cardiopulmonary diseases and cancer (Eyring et al., 2010). The average risk of premature death from cardiac diseases is 0.6% per 10 microgram exposure to black carbon (COMEAP, 2006).

To conclude, black carbon is the second most important cause of global warming from the shipping sector, and in terms of warming potential, it causes thousands of times greater warming than a ton of CO₂. Black carbon also has negative health impacts. It is the main harmful component in particulate air pollution and is a cause of illness and death. In addition, black carbon is the main climatic pollutant, harming agricultural crops. Therefore, decision-makers need to address black carbon emissions.

International regulation on black carbon

Until recently, black carbon has not been addressed separately in international conventions or regional agreements, neither were its emissions measured separately.

Instead, it was included generally under particulate air pollution. Following the growing interest over the health impacts of black carbon as a particulate air pollutant, as well as a climate factor, black carbon has begun to receive specific reference as an air pollutant in several frameworks. At the moment, this is evident only in recommendations and there are no regulations yet which specifically reduce or limit black carbon emissions. The International Maritime Organization has been holding discussions on this issue for several years as part of the Marine Environment Protection Committee. It is worth noting that black carbon emissions were addressed for the first time in a study conducted by the International Maritime Organization to estimate the greenhouse gas emissions from international shipping for 2020, due to recognition of its impacts. Following is a review of the current references to black carbon in some international conventions and agreements:

The Gutenberg Protocol was amended in 2012 so that countries' commitments to emissions reduction will also include black carbon. This protocol is part of the UNECE CLRTAP – Convention on LongRange Transboundary Air Pollution. This means the setting of a new standard in the international policy on air pollution, which for the first time includes reference to black carbon. Once the protocol came into effect, the parties to the convention were required to report their national inventory of black carbon emissions. Although the Protocol includes a recommendation to countries to take measures to reduce black carbon emissions, there is no actual commitment to reduce emissions. The United States and the European Union countries are also signatories to this convention.

Annex VI to MARPOL 73/78 Regulations for the Prevention of Air Pollution from Ships, 1997, deals with reduction of air emissions from ships and includes reference to SO_x and NO_x emissions. The annex to the convention does not refer to the required reduction of particulates at all or to black carbon specifically. Limiting the sulfur content in fuels reduces sulfur particulate emissions.

In 2011, the Arctic Council (an intergovernmental forum of the countries bordering the Arctic: Canada, Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Sweden, Norway, Russia and the United States) recommended that member states implement measures to reduce emissions of black carbon. The recommendations include reference to several sectors, which emit black carbon, including the shipping sector. These are voluntary technical measures to reduce emissions from shipping in the Arctic region.

Following numerous position papers that were submitted to the International Maritime Organization regarding black carbon emissions from shipping, and the growing concern with the effects of black carbon on the Arctic region, in November

2020 the Marine Environment Protection Committee approved an amendment to the MARPOL Convention. The amendment prohibits the use and carriage of Heavy Fuel Oil in ships sailing in the Arctic region. Heavy Fuel Oil is regarded to be an environmental hazard both in terms of a potential oil spill and in terms of the emissions of air pollutants, including black carbon, which is also one of the causes of global warming and melting of snow and ice. The prohibition is expected to come into effect in 2024, however it includes many exemptions, which enable certain types of ships to use Heavy Fuel Oil until 2029. This is a first step towards limiting black carbon emissions from ships and reducing its environmental impacts in sensitive regions like the Arctic.

Working groups were formed within the Environment Committee of the International Maritime Organization to identify possible reduction measures for black carbon. It will take a few years (if ever) before an operational regulatory decision is reached on emissions of black carbon.

As discussed, the shipping sector uses large diesel engines, which emit many pollutants, including black carbon. To better understand the emissions from the shipping sector, we shall review which features of a ship influence these emissions.

Ship characteristics which influence black carbon emissions

The ship emissions of black carbon particles are influenced both by the type of engine and the engine load (as a function of the ship's activity) and by the type of fuel being used. Black carbon emission levels are by the following factors:

- 1. The type of engine installed on the ship: slow speed diesel (SSD), medium speed diesel (MSD), high speed diesel (HSD). 2-stroke engine or 4-stroke engine.
- 2. The specific engine load as a function of ship activity. The engine load is affected by the cargo and the weather conditions (winds and currents).
- 3. The vessel type container ships, bulk carriers, tankers, cruise ships etc.
- 4. The type of fuel used on the ship Heavy Fuel Oil (HFO), marine diesel oil (MDO) or liquefied natural gas (LNG).
- 5. Source of the emissions main engine/auxiliary engine/boiler.

An overall calculation of the total black carbon emissions of the global fleet by type of ship (figure 4) shows that the container ship category accounts for 26% of the total emissions, the bulk carriers account for 18.6% of the total emissions, the oil tanker category accounts for 15% of the total emissions and the cruise ships account for 6.1% of the total emissions.



Figure 3: "Emission intensity" of black carbon (tons) per ship per year. Source: ICCT, 2017. Cruise ship, container ship, vehicle ship, oil tanker, refrigerated bulk



Figure 4: Share of black carbon emissions by ship type. Source: ICCT, 2017

Cruise ships are responsible for 6% of black carbon emissions (the relative contribution of cruise ships to the total emissions is disproportionate to their part of the global fleet as they account for only 1% of all the ships in the global fleet). It is estimated that a cruise ship emits on average 0.34 kg black carbon per ton of fuel it consumes while container ships and tankers emit on average 0.26 kg black carbon per ton of fuel consumed. When looking at the "emission intensity", which is calculated as the total amount of black carbon one ship emits per year, it was found that a cruise ship emits the most black carbon per year – 10 tons black carbon per ship per year, three

times as much as a container ship, which emits 3.5 tons of black carbon per ship per year. In comparison, one cruise ship emits a quantity of black carbon in one year equals to 4,200 trucks under the Euro 5 standard, which travel 100,000 km per year.

The explanation is that a cruise ship consumes large quantities of energy to provide its electricity needs since it is a "floating hotel" serving thousands of passengers that need electricity to operate electricity systems, such as air conditioning in the rooms etc.

Emissions while in port

A ship's activity can be divided into four main operational stages:

- 1. Cruising between ports, usually on the high seas
- 2. Maneuvering entering/departing from port
- 3. Berthing/Hoteling at port to load or unload
- 4. Anchorage outside port, usually while waiting before entering the port

As figure 5 shows, ships spend on average half of the time in non-cruising operational modes, i.e., maneuvering, anchorage or berthing – these stages take place in or near the port area.



Figure 5: Dwell time in each operational mode by ship type Source: 2020 GHG STUDY IMO

Most commonly, ship emissions are measured during their cruise mode, where most of the fuel consumption takes place and, therefore, also a large proportion of the emissions. At the same time, the emissions which occur in the other operational modes – while in or near the port, are worth examination due to their potential impact on the port surroundings.

In the context of its health impacts on the population near the port, the most significant operational mode, is the Berthing/Hoteling stage due to air emissions from ships therefore it is very important to understand the emissions profile throughout this stage. First, for most of the ship's dwell time in the port (except during maneuvering), the main engine is turned off and therefore emissions are mainly from the auxiliary engine and the boiler. Although the share of emissions from the auxiliary engines while berthing is between 2% and 6% of the total ship emissions, when looking regionally and locally at the port area, studies have shown that emissions from the auxiliary engines while berthing in port account for 40% of the total particulate emissions in port (Xiao et al., 2018).

We shall describe the nature of the emissions according to emission source (type of engine) in each of the ship's operational modes:

Cruising – the ship mainly uses its main engine at cruise speed. In this mode, the engine, the auxiliary engine and the boiler are at optimal operating load and there are less emissions.

Maneuvering – when the ship approaches port, it slows and the main engine operates at low load, the auxiliary engines run at maximum load to provide the electricity needs for the ship's systems. The boiler, too, starts running. The fuel consumption in this mode is highest for the auxiliary engine and low for the main engine and the boiler. Studies show that due to non-optimal load on the engines, the maneuvering mode can create 3 to 6 times as much pollution compared to cruise mode or hoteling mode.

Berthing and anchorage – while the ship is berthing in port to load or unload and also while the ship is at anchorage outside port waiting to enter the port, the main engines are turned off, the auxiliary engine and the boiler continue running to deliver electricity to the refrigerators, lighting, pumps, air conditioning etc., and for heating the fuel. In general cargo ships and tankers, which are required to run the ship's own installations and pumps when unloading, the auxiliary engine runs at high load and so does the boiler, if steam is used for the pumps. The fuel consumption in this mode is medium to high for the auxiliary engine and medium to high for the boiler.

Depending on the type of ship, while on anchorage the ship uses 30% to 50% of the energy used while cruising (Gobbi et al., 2020; Tzannatos, 2010).

A significant part of the global shipping traffic runs near trade routes and ports. 80% of the emissions of the shipping sector take place at distances of no more than 400 km from shore, therefore shipping traffic affects the coastal and port cities air quality (Corbett et al., 1999).

At the local and regional level, the shipping sector has a significant effect on air quality and health near trade routes and ports (Lack et al., 2008). The Mediterranean Sea is considered one of the global hot spots in terms of pollution from shipping due to the large volume of ship traffic. Therefore, air pollution caused by ships has a considerable impact on air quality in port cities in the Mediterranean (Eyring et al., 2010).

A study done in the Port of Barcelona (Pérez et al., 2016) found that the port activity contributes to 50–55% of the particulate emissions in the city. The fuel combustion-related emissions were higher in the port compared to the rest of the city (2.9 nanograms per cubic meter compared with 1 nanogram per cubic meter). Another study estimated that between 10% and 30% of the PM2.5 particulate emissions in Mediterranean port cities are originated from the shipping sector (Thunis et al., 2018). Ship and vehicle diesel engines in ports make a large contribution to the fine particulate emissions and to high concentrations of black carbon near the ports (Gobbi et al., 2020). Due to the proximity of the city to the port, it is expected that the maneuvering, loading/unloading and berthing activities of ships in the port will contribute to air pollution in the nearby city (Castells Sanabra et al., 2014).

The most relevant emissions to the area near the port are particulate emissions and SO_x emissions due to the harm these may cause while in their original form (meaning as a primary pollutant). The health impacts caused by these emissions are dependent on the proximity of the emission source and the receptor. For this reason, the population density around the emission source is critical (Castells Sanabra et al., 2014).

A report published by the Air Resources Board in California's Environmental Protection Agency (Air Resources Board, 2005) on the health impacts of emissions from ships' auxiliary engines at berth, found that communities near ports are exposed to elevated risks of cancer and other health impacts from diesel engines particulate emissions (Diesel PM) from ships at berth. An estimate made specifically for the ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach found that 20% of the total particulate

emissions from diesel engines originated from ships in the port (Hoteling emissions). In addition, when comparing the health impacts of the various types of activities near the port, which emit diesel particles, it was found that the impact of hoteling ships is the most significant in terms of the area impacted and in terms of the health risk to the population. The estimation of health risk to the population near the port is that 34% of the risk (61 deaths per year) is attributed to emissions caused by the activities of hoteling ships, compared with other activities in the port which emit diesel particles, such as emissions from ships while maneuvering in port or while cruising near the port, emissions from cargo handling equipment in the port and from the activities of trucks and trains in the port.

In view of the abovementioned findings, it appears that emissions from ships while hoteling in port have considerable effect on the air quality in the area surrounding the port. Therefore, a specific study on ship emissions during their operational mode while in port can be valuable. Another important aspect is that emissions from ships are not distributed evenly throughout the country. Rather, they are concentrated in port cities – and in Israel's case these are Haifa and Ashdod. Therefore ship-generated air pollution is of greater impact in the port cities.

Air pollution from ships in Israel

The Ministry of Environmental Protection conducts an "air emission inventory" which estimates all emissions sources that emit pollutants into the air. The air emission inventory is calculated for sectors that are significant sources of emissions. One of these is the transport sector. The methodology for preparing an emission inventory (Ministry of Environmental Protection, 2019) is based on the Pollutant Emission Inventory Guidebook, published by the European Environmental Protection Agency (EEA, 2020).

From Israel's air pollutant emission inventory of 2018, update 2020 we can examine the relative contribution of the shipping sector to the total air pollutant emission inventory in Israel. Table 1 details the share of vessels related emissions out of the total air pollutant emission inventory in Israel. Vessels in ports are responsible for 16% of the total air emissions of SO_x, and 8% of NO_x. For PM2.5, the shipping sector is responsible for 7% of all the emissions in Israel. It is important to note that in Israel there is no specific estimate for emissions of black carbon.

Air pollutant emission inventory	NO _x	SOx	CO	Particulate matter, diameter less than 10 microns	Particulate matter, diameter less than 2.5 microns	Volatile organic compounds excluding Methane
Emissions from vessels (tons per year)	9,093	7,871	1,240	779	779	604
% of emissions from ships out of the total emissions of this pollutant	8%	16%	1%	5%	7%	2%

Table 1: Share of vessels out of the total air pollutant emission inventory in Israel

Source: air pollutant emission inventory 2018 update September 2020, the Ministry of Environmental Protection

The Ministry of Environmental Protection's emission inventory is detailed by cities in which the emission sources are located. To better understand the local effect of emissions from vessels in ports, the total emissions for the port cities of Haifa and Ashdod were examined, and the relative share of the emissions from vessels were calculated out of the total emissions in the city. As table 2 shows, particulate emissions PM2.5 in Haifa totaled 688 tons, of which 371 tons are attributed to emissions from vessels (54%). In Ashdod particulate emissions PM2.5 totaled 446 tons, of which 251 tons are attributed to emissions from vessels (56%).

Table 2: The relative contribution of vessels to the total emissions of PM2.5 particulate emissions in the port cities of Haifa and Ashdod



Source: air pollutant emission inventory 2018 update September 2020, the Ministry of Environmental Protection

From the above data it can be concluded that in Israel's port cities, emissions from vessels have an extremely significant contribution to air pollution – over half of the PM2.5 particulate emissions are attributed to vessel emissions.

In a study conducted in Israel for the Ministry of Environmental Protection (Barak et al., 2018), the extent of air pollution from vessels in the ports of Haifa and Ashdod was estimated. The study found that the air pollution generated by the vessels in the Haifa and Ashdod ports amounts to heavy pollution, similar in magnitude to

a large, diesel-powered power station. This study found that the majority of air pollution from ships in ports is caused from the hoteling stage due to the electricity consumption from the auxiliary engines. The study did not examine black carbon emissions. Only PM2.5 particulate emissions were measured and it was found that the hoteling stage in a terminal is responsible for 48–59% of the PM2.5 emissions, the maneuvering and waiting stage is responsible for 27 to 34% of these emissions, and the cruise stage is responsible for 14–18% of the emissions. This means that approximately 80% of the emissions take place within the port area (anchorage, maneuvering and waiting at distances of up to 10 km from port).

Measures for Reducing Black Carbon Emissions from Ships

In view of the negative impacts of black carbon on health and climate, as reviewed in this article, and the specific effect of ship emissions on air quality in port cities, it is necessary to address appropriate measures to reduce black carbon emissions from ships in general and in particular while ships are hoteling in ports.

There are several possible measures for reducing black carbon emissions. These include measures which will be taken on the ship and measures which will be taken on the shore or at the port. Following is a review of the possible measures for reducing black carbon emissions from ships:

Possible reduction measures on ship

Reduction measures on the ship can be divided into several categories: changes in types of fuels used or treatment of fuels, changes in the engine systems or in the ship structure and treatment of exhaust gases:

- Fuel type changing the fuel type used by the ships, using a less-polluting fuel such as distillate fuels, liquid natural gas (LNG), biodiesel and methanol, or treating the fuel.
- Structure and engine systems adaptation of the ship structure and engine systems to improve the efficiency of the fuel consumption, and operational means, such as Slow Steaming.
- Treatment of exhaust gases the gases emitted from the ship funnel can be treated by installing scrubbers, diesel particulate filters (DPF) (combined with low-sulfur and low-ash distillates) or by installing an electrostatic precipitator.

Possible reduction measures on shore or at port

In addition to the reduction measures above operated on the ship, there are additional measures which can be taken on the shore or at the port, and which are relevant to the reduction of emissions while the ship is hoteling in the port:

Possible emission reduction measures during the ship's hoteling in port include connecting the ship to an electricity power supply from the shore (Electric Shore Power) while docked in port, and on-shore capture & control systems which connects to the ship funnel to treat the ships exhaust emissions. In addition, it is possible to take regulatory measures at the regional level, for example prohibition on the use of Heavy Fuel Oil, and declaration of Emission Control Areas – ECA.

In addition, some voluntary practices on the part of the ports themselves are also possible. For example, reducing port fees for ships using clean fuels while hoteling (Hong Kong) as well as improving the operational interfaces between the ship and the port, such as optimization of JIT ship calls and reducing the ship's hoteling time in the port or on anchorage.

Recommendations for reducing emissions in Israeli Ports

In view of the health risks posed to the population living close to ports and shipping lanes due to emissions of black carbon from ships berthing in the ports or sailing nearby them, measures should be taken to reduce emissions from ships. The most efficient reduction measure which is aimed to reduce emissions from ships during the hoteling stage in the port, and which effectively reduces all types of emissions from ships, is to connect them to electric shore power. This measure can be aimed to the most polluting types of ships, for example cruise ships and container ships. As for bulk carriers, which have high emission rates due to their long hoteling time, other measures can be used to reduce emissions, such as connecting to a capture & control system. In addition, ports can take some operational measures to accelerate and improve the efficiency of unloading operations in order to reduce ships' hoteling time in port.

Regarding reduction measures which are operated on the ship – although the International Maritime Organization has been discussing the issue of black carbon emissions reduction from ships, there are no regulations in place. Some ships have already installed exhaust gas scrubber (EGS) systems to reduce emissions of sulfur particles. While this is a less efficient option in terms of reducing black carbon emissions, it is technologically available and is already in use on ships. A more

efficient option for reducing black carbon emissions is a Diesel particulate filter (DPF), however it is not currently in commercial use on ships.

The type of fuels used by ships are also very relevant to emissions: Academic literature data indicates that the heavy fuel oil is four times as polluting than distillate fuels. Therefore, switching ships to using less polluting fuels is of extreme importance for emissions reduction. Switching to using LNG as a fuel is one of the most promising possibilities both in terms of the potential reduction in particulate emissions and in terms of technological availability, although currently there are very few such ships. Regarding alternative fuels such as biodiesel, methanol and ammonia – at this stage the technology has not sufficiently matured for commercial application in ships. The fuels are not available in the necessary quantities required nor does the coastal infrastructures required.

As part of the regulatory measures the State of Israel can take to reduce emissions, it is highly important that the Mediterranean Sea be designated an Emissions Control Area (ECA), which would enable imposition of more stringent restrictions on the fuels in use in the Mediterranean area in general and in Israel in particular. Thus, it is necessary to accelerate Israel's joining MARPOL Convention's Annex VI.

Sources

Aakko-Saksa, P. (2016). Black carbon measurements using different marine fuels. 28th CIMAC World Congress, June.

Air Resources Board. (2005). *Diesel Particulate Matter Exposure Assessment Study for the Ports of Los Angeles and Long Beach.*

Air Resources Board. (2007). Regulations to Reduce Emissions from Diesel Auxiliary Engines on Ocean-Going Vessels While At-Berth at a California Port (Issue October).

Air Resources Board. (2019). public hearing to consider the proposed control measur for ocean going vessels at berth, initial statement of reasons.

Barak, Y., Eyal, R., & Madar, D. (2018). *Feasibility Study for Reducing Marine Vessels' Air Pollution at Haifa and Ashdod ports*.

Ben Gedaliahu, Dubi, (24.11.2020), "From the Haifa Bay to the Persian Gulf: The interests behind the tender to privatize the Haifa Port", *Globes* [Hebrew].

Bilgili, L., Celebi, U. B., & Mert, T. (2015). Estimation of ship exhaust gas emissions. *Academic Journal of Science*, 4(1), 107–114.

Bond, T. C., Doherty, S. J., Fahey, D. W., Forster, P. M., Berntsen, T., Deangelo, B. J., Flanner, M. G., Ghan, S., Kärcher, B., Koch, D., Kinne, S., Kondo, Y., Quinn, P. K., Sarofim, M. C., Schultz, M.

G., Schulz, M., Venkataraman, C., Zhang, H., Zhang, S., ... Zender, C. S. (2013). Bounding the role of black carbon in the climate system: A scientific assessment. *Journal of Geophysical Research Atmospheres*, 118(11), 5380–5552.

Burney, J., & Ramanathan, V. (2014). Recent climate and air pollution impacts on indian agriculture. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 111(46), 16319–16324.

Castells Sanabra, M., Usabiaga Santamaría, J. J., & Martínez De Osés, F. X. (2014). Manoeuvring and hotelling external costs: enough for alternative energy sources? *Maritime Policy and Management*, 41(1), 42–60.

Committee on the Medical Effects of Air Pollution (COMEAP). (2006). Cardiovascular Disease and Air Pollution. In *Department of Health*.

Cooper, D. A. (2003). Exhaust emissions from ships at berth. *Atmospheric Environment*, 37(27), 3817–3830.

Corbett, J. J., Lack, D. A., Winebrake, J. J., Harder, S., Silberman, J. A., & Gold, M. (2010). Arctic shipping emissions inventories and future scenarios. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 10(19), 9689–9704.

Corbett, James J., Fischbeck, P. S., & Pandis, S. N. (1999). Global nitrogen and sulfur inventories for oceangoing ships. *Journal of Geophysical Research Atmospheres*, 104(D3), 3457–3470.

Eastern-Research-Group, & Energy & Environmental Research Associates. (2017). Shore Power Technology Assessment at U.S. Ports (Issue EPA-420-R-17-004).

EEA. (2020). EMEP/EEA air pollutant emission inventory guidebook 2019. (1.A.3.d. International maritime navigation): Vol. 1.A.3.d (Issue update oct 2020).

Eyring, V., Isaksen, I. S. A., Berntsen, T., Collins, W. J., Corbett, J. J., Endresen, O., Grainger, R. G., Moldanova, J., Schlager, H., & Stevenson, D. S. (2010). Transport impacts on atmosphere and climate: Shipping. *Atmospheric Environment*, 44(37), 4735–4771.

Gobbi, G. P., Di Liberto, L., & Barnaba, F. (2020). Impact of port emissions on EU-regulated and non-regulated air quality indicators: The case of Civitavecchia (Italy). *Science of the Total Environment*, 719, 134984.

Hansen, J., & Nazarenko, L. (2004). Soot climate forcing via snow and ice albedos. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 101(2), 423–428.

Hayut, Y. (2013). cold ironing- on shore power supply, [Hebrew].

ICCT. (2007). Air pollution and greenhouse gas emissions from ships.

ICCT. (2017). Black Carbon Emissions and Fuel Use in 2015. In International Council on Clean Transportation (ICCT).

IMO BLG 17/Inf 7. (2012). Investigation of appropriate control measures (abatement technologies) to reduce Black Carbon emissions from international shippin.

IMO MEPC 75/7/15. (2020). Fourth IMO Greenhouse Gas Study 2020-final report.

IMO PPR 4/9. (2016). Measurement data derived from the application of the draft Black Carbon Measurement Reporting Protocol.

IMO PPR7/8. (2019). Results of a Black Carbon measurement campaign with emphasis on the impact of the fuel oil quality on Black Carbon emissions.

Infospot (9.12.2019). "Innovative system for connecting ships to electricity will reduce air pollution in ports", [Hebrew].

Lack, D. A., & Corbett, J. J. (2012). Black carbon from ships: A review of the effects of ship speed, fuel quality and exhaust gas scrubbing. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 12(9), 3985–4000.

Lack, D. A., Thuesen, J., & Elliot, R. (2015). *Investigation of Appropraite Control Measures* (Abatament Technologies) to Reduce Black Carbon Emissions from International Shipping.

Lack, D., Lerner, B., Granier, C., Baynard, T., Lovejoy, E., Massoli, P., Ravishankara, A. R., & Williams, E. (2008). Light absorbing carbon emissions from commercial shipping. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 35(13).

MARPOL 73/78 Annex VI Regulations for the Prevention of Air Pollution from Ships, 664-E (1997).

Ministry of Environmental Protection, air pollutant emission inventory 2018 update September 2020 [Hebrew].

Ministry of Environmental Protection. (2019). *Methodology for estimating the air pollutant emission inventory* [Hebrew].

Ministry of Transport, Administration of Shipping and Ports. Statistical Yearbook Seamanship and Ports. (2019, 2020) [Hebrew].

Pérez, N., Pey, J., Reche, C., Cortés, J., Alastuey, A., & Querol, X. (2016). Impact of harbour emissions on ambient PM10 and PM2.5 in Barcelona (Spain): Evidences of secondary aerosol formation within the urban area. *Science of the Total Environment*, 571, 237–250.

REMPEC WG.45/Inf.9. (2019). Technical and feasibility study to examine the possibility of designation of the mediterranean sea or parts thereof as $SO_x ECA(s)$ under MARPOL Annex VI.

Schaap, M., & Denier van der Gon, H. A. C. (2007). On the variability of Black Smoke and carbonaceous aerosols in the Netherlands. *Atmospheric Environment*, 41(28), 5908–5920.

Shindell, D. T. (2016). Crop yield changes induced by emissions of individual climate-altering pollutants. *Earth's Future*, 4(8), 373–380.

Smith, K. R., Jerrett, M., Anderson, H. R., Burnett, R. T., Stone, V., Derwent, R., Atkinson, R. W., Cohen, A., Shonkoff, S. B., Krewski, D., Pope, C. A., Thun, M. J., & Thurston, G. (2009). Public health benefits of strategies to reduce greenhouse-gas emissions: health implications of short-lived greenhouse pollutants. *The Lancet*, 374(9707), 2091–2103.

Thunis, P., Degraeuwe, B., Pisoni, E., Trombetti, M., Peduzzi, E., Belis, C. A., Wilson, J., Clappier, A., & Vignati, E. (2018). PM2.5 source allocation in European cities: A SHERPA modelling study. *Atmospheric Environment*, 187(May), 93–106.

Tzannatos, E. (2010). Ship emissions and their externalities for the port of Piraeus - Greece. *Atmospheric Environment*, 44(3), 400–407.

UNEP & WMO UNEP/GC/26/INF/209. (2011). Integrated assessment of black carbon and tropospheric ozone: summary for decision makers.

WHO. (2012). Health effects of black carbon.

Xiao, Q., Li, M., Liu, H., Deng, F., Fu, M., Man, H., Jin, X., Liu, S., Lv, Z., & He, K. (2018). Characteristics of marine shipping emissions at berth: profiles for PM and VOCs. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 18, 9527–9545.

Zis, T., North, R. J., Angeloudis, P., Ochieng, W. Y., & Bell, M. G. H. (2014). Evaluation of cold ironing and speed reduction policies to reduce ship emissions near and at ports. *Maritime Economics and Logistics*, 16(4), 371–398.