1 **Enhanced emission of intermediate/semi-volatile organic matters in both gas and**

2 **particle phases from ship exhausts with low-sulfur fuels**

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25 **Abstract**

26 The widespread utilization of low-sulfur fuels in compliance with global sulfur

27 limit regulations has significantly mitigated the emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and

28 particulate matter (PM) on ships. However, significant uncertainties still persist

29   regarding the impact on intermediate/semi-volatile organic compounds (I/SVOCs).

30   Therefore, on-board test of I/SVOCs from three ocean-going vessels (OGVs) and four

31   inland cargo ships (ICSs) with low-sulfur fuels (< 0.50% m/m) in China were carried

32   out in this study. Results showed that the emission factors of total I/SVOCs were 881 ±

33   487, 1181 ± 421 and 1834 ± 667 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ for OGVs with heavy fuel oil (HFO),

34   marine gas oil (MGO) and ICSs with 0# diesel, respectively. The transition from low-

35   sulfur content (< 0.50% m/m) to ultra-low-sulfur content (< 0.10% m/m) fuels had

36   evidently enhanced the emission factor of I/SVOCs, with non-ignorable contribution

37   from particle-phase I/SVOCs, thereby further amplifying the secondary organic aerosol

38   formation potential (SOAFP). Fuel type, engine type, and operating conditions

39   comprehensively influenced the emission factor level, compositions, and volatility

40   distribution of I/SVOCs. Notably, a substantial proportion of fatty acids had been

41   identified in ship exhausts, necessitating heightened attention. Furthermore, organic

42   diagnostic markers of hopanes, in conjunction with the $C_{18:0}$ to $C_{14:0}$ acid ratio, could

43   be considered as potential markers for HFO exhausts. The findings suggest that there is

44   a necessity to optimize the implementation of a global policy on ultra-low-sulfur oil in

45   the near future.

46   **Keywords:** ship emission, I/SVOCs, low-sulfur fuel, SOAFP

47   **1 Introduction**

48   Ship transportation plays a critical role in global trade, as it accounts for over 80%

49   of the total cargo transport worldwide due to its substantial carrying capacity and cost-

50   effectiveness (Zhang et al., 2016;Zhang et al., 2021). Consequently, the expansion of

51   the global economy has led to an increasing impact on air quality, human health, and

52   various other aspects due to the emission of gaseous and particulate pollutants from

53   ship exhausts (Zhang et al., 2018a;Zhang et al., 2014;Liu et al., 2022). Over the past

54   two decades, extensive studies have been carried out on the characteristics of various

55   vessel pollutants, including sulfur dioxide (SO_2), nitrogen oxide (NO_x), particulate

56   matter (PM), carbon dioxide (CO_2) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) (Davis et

57   al., 2001;Liu et al., 2022). Results show that shipping emissions are responsible for 2%-

5% of fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) (Kramel et al., 2021); CO_2 from ships accounts

for around 3% of the total global CO_2 emission (Faber et al., 2020); while the NO_x from

ships contributes approximately 15% of the total global atmospheric NO_x emission

(Faber et al., 2020). Besides, the employment of high-sulfur fuel (HSF, $\geq 0.50\%$ m/m)

has resulted in a significant emission of SO_2 from ship exhausts, which accounts for

approximately 14% of global anthropogenic SO_2 emissions (Zhou et al., 2019).

Specifically, the consumption of heavy fuel oil constitutes 70% of total ship fuel usage

(International Maritime Organization, 2016), which is primarily responsible for the

majority of SO_2 emissions associated with global shipping. This has considerable

effects on coastal regions and the marine environment.

Given all this, the International Maritime Organization (IMO, additional

abbreviations and their corresponding full names are provided in Supplementary Table

S1) has been continuously revising the International Convention for the Prevention of

Pollution from Ships (MARPOL) since 1997, progressively imposing stricter sulfur

limits on marine fuels. Following the guidelines of Annex VI to the MARPOL, the limit

for sulfur content in ship fuels has been set at 0.50% (m/m) since 2020 globally, or

alternative measures such as exhaust scrubbers must be employed (International

Maritime Organization, 2016). In designated Sulfur Emission Control Areas (SECAs,

including the North Sea, the Baltic Sea, North America and the United States

Caribbean), this limit has been further restricted to below 0.10% (m/m) since 2015. In

certain SECAs, the utilization of exhaust scrubbers as an alternative treatment method

to low-sulfur fuel is not even acceptable. Numerous countries are undergoing a

transition in their shipping practices, shifting from high-sulfur fuels to low-sulfur or

ultra-low sulfur alternatives (Liu et al., 2019;Zhang et al., 2024;Zhang et al., 2021).

Within China, emission standards vary across regions, with specific requirements

tailored to each area. Typically, the fuel oil regulations of China may mandate vessels

to maintain sulfur content at below either 0.50% (m/m) in SECAs since 2019 or 0.10%

(m/m) in inland areas and specific control regions since 2020 when utilizing fuel. In

brief, the global mandatory use of ultra-low sulfur content fuel (< 0.1% m/m) or alternative measures is an inevitable trend in the near future.

Previous studies have indicated that the low-sulfur fuel regulation is an effective measure for reducing SO_2 and PM mass emission in many countries. For example, Lehtoranta et al. (2019) demonstrate that the change of fuel from high-sulfur to lower-sulfur has significantly decreased the PM emissions. The global shipping emissions have been quantified by Sofiev et al. (2018) using the Ship Traffic Emissions Assessment Model (STEAM). Their finding reveals a positive correlation between the implementation of sulfur reduced fuel strategy and reductions in both SO_2 and PM levels. However, even though studies have shown that the low-sulfur fuel policy may reduce emissions of PM and SO_2, it could lead to increase of VOCs and intermediate volatile organic compounds (IVOCs) (Sofiev et al., 2018;He et al., 2022a;Shen et al., 2023;Liu et al., 2022). The impact of fuel quality on organic compounds, such as VOCs and intermediate/semi-volatile organic compounds (I/SVOCs), remains significant uncertainty.

VOCs have been getting lots of interests due to their crucial role as common precursors of secondary organic aerosols (SOAs) and ozone (O_3) (Shen et al., 2023;Hui et al., 2019). Additionally, the aging process of VOCs and the resulting intermediates also play pivotal role in SOA formation (He et al., 2023; Srivastava et al., 2022). Recently, numerous studies have unveiled a substantial gap between measured SOAs and theoretical calculated SOAs, with the primary cause being attributed to the neglect of I/SVOCs (Fang et al., 2021;Knote et al., 2015). For example, the study conducted by An et al. (2023) integrates an emission inventory of I/SVOCs into the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) modeling system to simulate the characteristics of primary organic aerosols (POA) and SOAs originating from various sources within the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region. Their findings reveal a significant 148% increase in predicted SOA concentrations. Wu et al. (2019) employ Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry (WRF-Chem) to organize the 2010

I/SVOCs emission inventory in Pearl River Delta (PRD) region of China, revealing a substantial 161% increase in SOA concentration. However, there is still a significant dearth of measured I/SVOCs from various sources, leading to substantial uncertainty in the estimation of inventory and estimation of SOAs. Clarifying the contribution of I/SVOCs from different sources to SOA formation is crucial for a comprehensive understanding of their role in atmospheric processes and their impact on air quality (He et al., 2024; Srivastava et al., 2022).

In recent years, several studies have reported measured data of organic compounds with varying volatility emitted from ships. Although progress has been achieved in shipping I/SVOCs measurement, a comprehensive understanding of their characteristics and their contribution to SOA formation remains insufficient, particularly in light of increasingly stringent global emission control regulations. Previous studies mainly focus on gas-phase VOCs and IVOCs, which might underestimate the emissions of particle-phase I/SVOCs (Huang et al., 2018a;Zhang et al., 2018b;Zhang et al., 2024). Particulate I/SVOCs can also form SOA after being transferred to the gaseous state through evaporation and undergoing atmospheric oxidation (Srivastava et al., 2022;Liu et al., 2022). And the qualitative analysis of particle-phase I/SVOCs in ship exhaust focuses more on detecting and evaluating of n-alkanes and 16 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) based on limited previous studies, with little emphasis on other species of I/SVOCs (Liang et al., 2022;Perrone et al., 2014). In brief, there is a lack of simultaneous measurement data on detailed low-volatility organic compounds in both gas and particle phases, which could be beneficial to the accurate evaluation of SOA and O_3 formation potentials. Moreover, the effects resulting from the implementation of low-sulfur fuel policies on shipping I/SVOC emission characteristics remain unclear, particularly regarding the utilization of ultra-low sulfur fuels ($\leq$0.1%, m/m). There is an urgent need to update emission factors and component profiles of full-volatility particulate organic compounds, as this is crucial for reducing uncertainties in I/SVOCs inventory estimation and providing fundamental

142 data for formulating optimal emission control policies for ships, considering their

143 comprehensive impacts on various pollutants.

144 Therefore, typical ocean-going vessels (OGVs) and inland cargo ships (ICSs) with

145 different types of fuels in China were selected for on-board measurement in this study.

146 Gas-phase and particle-phase I/SVOCs were collected synchronously from ship

147 exhausts with different low-sulfur fuels under different engine conditions. A

148 comprehensive analysis was conducted on the emission factor, volatility, profile, and

149 influence factors of I/SVOCs. Besides, the SOA formation potential (SOAFP) of

150 I/SVOCs from the test ships were also estimated based on the measured data.

151 **2 Material and methods**

152 **2.1 Test Ships and Fuels**

153 On-board test of seven typical Chinese cargo ships have been carried out in this

154 study, including three large ocean-going vessels and four small inland cargo ships.

155 Detailed comprehensive parameters of the test ships can be found in Table S2. The

156 OGVs were equipped with two types of engines, one was two-stroke main engine (ME)

157 and the other was four-stroke auxiliary engine (AE). Meanwhile, the ICSs only had one

158 four-stroke main engine. Low-sulfur content heavy fuel oil (HFO) and ultra-low-sulfur

159 marine gas oil (MGO) were used as fuels of OGVs, while 0# diesel with ultra-low-

160 sulfur content was used for ICS engines. The detailed parameters of fuels used in this

161 study are shown in Table 1. It should be acknowledged that all those fuels complied

162 with the latest regulations issued by both IMO and China. The engines tested in this

163 study were not equipped with any aftertreatment devices.

164 Table 1 Parameters of the fuels used in the test ships.

	Unit	OGV1 /HFO	OGV1 /MGO	OGV2 /HFO	OGV2 /MGO	OGV3 /HFO	OGV3 /MGO	ICS /0# diesel
Gross calorific value	MJ kg^{-1}	44.21	45.76	42.62	45.72	43.08	45.64	
Net calorific value	MJ kg^{-1}	41.45	42.75	40.28	42.71	40.61	42.66	
Kinematic viscosity	(50°C), mm^2/s	44.04						
Kinematic	(20°C),		5.216	152.3	4.724	161.1	5.363	

viscosity	mm^2/s							
Moisture	%m	0.03	N.D.	0.09	N.D.	0.12	N.D.	
Ash	%m							
Sulfur (S)	%m	0.50	0.03	0.43	0.02	0.43	0.05	N.D.
Carbon (C)	%m	86.62	80.80	82.4	79.6	69.9	66.5	85.5
Hydrogen (H)	%m	11.33	8.15	9.68	12.3	11.3	10.61	
Nitrogen (N)	%m	N.D.	N.D.	0.39	N.D.	2.36	N.D.	
Oxygen (O)	%m	0.36	N.D.	1.53	0.59	1.34	0.73	
Vanadium (V)	mg kg^{-1}			N.D.	0.20	4.00	N.D.	
Nickel (Ni)	mg kg^{-1}			16.0	0.10	15.0	N.D.	
Sodium (Na)	mg kg^{-1}			6.00	0.10	8.00	0.10	
Lead (Pb)	mg kg^{-1}			N.D.	0.30	N.D.	N.D.	
Zinc (Zn)	mg kg^{-1}			2.00	0.40	8.00	0.20	
Aluminum + Silicon (Al + Si)	mg kg^{-1}			8.00	0.80	12.0	0.90	

2.2 Sampling system

Real-world measurement of pollutants from vessels under different operating conditions were conducted by a combined sampling system in this study. Vessel exhaust in sampling was passed through a dilution system followed by various connected samplers (Figure S1). Detailed information was described in previous studies (Zhang et al., 2016;Zhang et al., 2024). Briefly, two separate sampling pipes were utilized to direct emissions from the main engine and auxiliary engine stacks, respectively. A flue gas analyzer probe (Testo 350, testo, Germany) was then inserted into the sampling pipe to directly measure gaseous pollutants for online data collection (CO_2, O_2, CO, NO, NO_2, SO_2). Another probe was used to extract flue gas for dilution. PM samples (total suspended particles) were collected using particulate samplers, while gas samples were obtained by employing polyurethane foam. In this study, the dilution ratios varied from 1 to 10 according to operating conditions. A total of 64 sets of gas-phase and particle-phase I/SVOCs samples were collected in this study, involving various engine types, fuels, and operating modes (Table S3). Offline samples were wrapped in prebaked aluminum foil and stored at -20°C until analysis. Additionally, all samples were analyzed within two weeks of sampling.

2.3 Chemical analysis

Organic matters in both gas-phase and particle-phase samples in this study were analyzed by a gas chromatography - mass spectrometry (GC-MS, Agilent GC

185   7890B/MS 5977B, HP-5MS). Prior to analysis, the organic fraction was subjected to

186   the analytical method of N, O-bis (trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA)

187   derivatization and spiked with internal standard (tridecane, 3.024 ng/uL). The

188   qualitative analysis was conducted using the National Institute of Standards and

189   Technology (NIST) standard organic mass spectral library queries, in conjunction with

190   their standard compound retention time. Detailed information of analysis and detection

191   process has been described elsewhere (Li et al., 2020;Li et al., 2016).

192   A total of 76 specific I/SVOC species were identified and quantified in this study,

193   including 24 n-alkanes (C_{12}-C_{36}), 16 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), 8

194   oxygenated polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (OPAHs), 17 acids (13 fatty acids and 3

195   benzoic acids) and 11 hopanes. Detailed information about the identified I/SVOC

196   species were presented in Table S4. Furthermore, the quantification of branched alkanes

197   (b-alkanes) and unresolved complex mixtures (UCMs) were conducted using a

198   procedure described by previous studies (Zhao et al., 2016;Zhao et al., 2014). Given

199   the good linear relationship between carbon number and volatility of n-alkanes, relative

200   response factor (RRF) of n-alkanes were used as the surrogate for b-alkanes and UCMs

201   to estimate their concentrations. The volatility classification of each substance is

202   distinguished based on its carbon number. Generally, compounds with carbon numbers

203   of 12–22 (C_{12}-C_{22}) are classified as IVOCs, while those with carbon numbers of 23–36

204   (C_{23}-C_{36}) are considered SVOCs (Zhao et al., 2014;Fujitani et al., 2020).

205   **2.4 Emission Factor**

206   Fuel-based emission factors were provided and discussed in this study using the

207   carbon balance method. It is assumed that, under ideal conditions, all carbon in the fuel

208   will undergo complete conversion into carbon present in CO_2, CO, organic carbon (OC),

209   and elemental carbon (EC) following combustion. OC and EC were analyzed using an

210   OC/EC analyzer (Model 4, Sunshine Lab). The CO_2 emission factor was derived using

211   the following formula.:

212 $$EF_{CO_2} = \frac{c_F \times \Delta(CO_2)}{\Delta(c_{CO_2}) + \Delta(c_{CO}) + \Delta(c_{OC}) + \Delta(c_{EC})} \quad (1)$$

213   where EF_{CO_2} is the emission factor of CO_2 (g (kg fuel)[-1]); $\Delta(CO_2)$ indicates the

214   CO_2 mass level after adjustment for environmental background (g m^{-3}); and c_F is the

215   carbon content of fuel (g (kg fuel)[-1]) ; $\Delta(c_{CO_2})$, $\Delta(c_{CO})$, $\Delta(c_{OC})$ and $\Delta(c_{EC})$ represent

216   the mass carbon concentrations of CO_2, CO, OC and EC following the deduction of the

217   background (g m^{-3}), respectively.

218    $$EF_x = \frac{\Delta X_x}{\Delta CO_2} \times \frac{M_x}{M_{CO_2}} \times EF_{CO_2} \quad (2)$$

219   where EF_x (g (kg fuel)[-1]) represents the emission factor for species

220   x ; ΔX_x and ΔCO_2 (mol m^{-3}) are the concentrations of species x and CO_2 after

221   background correcting; and M_x and M_{CO_2} express the molecular weights of species x

222   and CO_2, respectively.

223   **2.5 SOA formation potential**

224   The organic compounds in this study were categorized into two classes based on

225   volatility: Bin12-22 were defined as IVOCs, and Bin23-36 were defined as SVOCs,

226   corresponding to C12-22 and C23-36, respectively. The equation utilized for the

227   estimation of SOA production via IVOCs in this study is as follows:

228    $$\Delta SOA_{IVOCs} = \sum_j [HC_j] \left(1 - e^{-k_{OH,j}[OH]\Delta t}\right) \times Y_j \quad (3)$$

229   where $[HC_j]$ represents the concentration of IVOCs species involved in the

230   reaction, Y_j is the yield coefficient of IVOCs species, and k_{OH} is the OH reaction rate

231   constant of precursor j at 25°C (cm[3]·molecules[-1]·s^{-1}); [OH] is the OH concentration

232   (molecules·cm^{-3}), which is assumed in this study to be 1.5×10^6 molecules·cm^{-3}; Δt is

233   the photochemical age (h); and Y_j is the SOA mass yield of precursor j. And the OH

234   reaction rate constants (cm[3] molec[-1] s^{-1}) and SOA yields used in this study were the

235   same as Zhao et al. (2016), which reacted (Δt) after 48 h photo-oxidation at the OA

236   concentration of 9 μg/m^{3}, the specific values of Y_j and k_{OH} under different

237   environmental conditions were obtained from the simulation study of smoke chamber

238   (Table S5-S6).

239   The equation for estimating SOA yield based on SVOCs is as follows:

$$\Delta SOA_{SVOCs} = \sum_j (\Delta X_j \cdot Y_j) \quad (4)$$

where ΔX_j is the reaction mass of the compound in the j interval after partitioning, based on its saturation concentration, and Y_j is the respective SOA yield. The study employed a conservative calculation method and identified the UCM as the n-alkane component with the lowest SOA yield. Additionally, the yield coefficients of C23 and higher, which were not included in the relevant parameters, were cautiously replaced with those of C22.

2.6 Quality Assurance and Quality Control

PAHs stipulated by EPA in the United States were used for recovery experiments, and the recovery rate of PAHs was 82% ~ 115%. Before conducting GC-MS measurements, n-hexane was injected prior to each measurement in order to ensure a stable baseline and clean column. Subsequently, standard samples were introduced into the instrument for calibration purposes. The quantitative error of the target compound concentration was ensured to be less than 5% by randomly re-testing one sample after every 20 samples. Moreover, the calibration of target compounds was performed through simultaneous measurement of blank samples to eliminate any potential experimental contamination.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Emission factors for total I/SVOCs (EF$_{I/SVOCs}$)

Figure 1 presents the total EF$_{I/SVOCs}$ in both gas and particle phases for OGVs and ICSs under different engine types and fuels. Obviously, OGVs had lower I/SVOCs emission factors than ICSs. The average total EF$_{IVOCs}$ of OGVs and ICSs were 512 ± 292 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ and 784 ± 517 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$, respectively. While the average total EF$_{SVOCs}$ of OGVs and ICSs were 520 ± 268 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ and 1050 ± 817 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$, respectively. The ICSs with 0# diesel exhibited the highest level of IVOC emissions (784 ± 587 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$), followed by OGVs with MGO (651 ± 367 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$), while OGVs with HFO showed the lowest levels (373 ± 218 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$). When it came to SVOCs, ICSs with 0# diesel (1050 ± 817 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$) was still the highest,

268   followed by OGVs with MGO (530 ± 170 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$), and OGVs with HFO (509

269     $\pm$ 365 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$) still showed the lowest level. It could be seen that the switch of

270   fuels from HFO to MGO had enhanced both the emission of IVOCs and SVOCs.

271   Recently, IVOCs from ships have gained more and more attentions. The average

272   EF_{IVOCs} in this study exhibited a comparable yet slightly diminished level when

273   compared to previous on-board measurement results obtained from OGVs. For instance,

274   Huang et al. (2018a) quantified the IVOCs from an OGV and showed that the total

275   EF_{IVOCs} was 1003 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$. The average EF_{IVOCs} from low-sulfur fuel was 2.4

276   times higher than that from high-sulfur fuel. The IVOCs data measured from the same

277   tested OGVs in this study were also provided by Liu et al. (2022), revealing EF_{IVOCs} of

278   1830.5 and 1494.4 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ for MGO and HFO, respectively. It is noting that the

279   EF_{IVOCs} measured in this study was lower compared with results from Liu et al. (2022),

280   which was mainly due to different analysis methods. The thermo desorption - gas

281   chromatography /mass spectrometry (TD-GC/MS) method was employed for the

282   analysis of IVOCs extracted from adsorption tubes in the study conducted by Liu et al.

283   (2022). While in order to maximize the identification of species, this study employed

284   organic solvent extraction coupled with BSTFA derivatization method; however, it is

285   important to note that this approach may potentially underestimate the total IVOCs.

286   Other studies also reported EF_{IVOCs} from different ship engines with different fuels. For

287   instance, Lou et al. (2019) conducted a study on the gaseous IVOCs emitted from a

288   main ship engine using HFO, and demonstrated that the EF_{IVOCs} ranged from 20.2 to

289   201 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ on average. Moreover, Su et al. (2020) conducted a series of tests on

290   fuels of waste cooking oil (WCO) and MGO at the auxiliary engine test bench. They

291   found that the total EF_{IVOCs} of MGO and WCO were 2.33 ± 0.43 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ and 1.47

292     $\pm$ 0.17 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$, respectively at the 75% of engine load. The findings from these

293   studies have demonstrated that the emission of IVOCs from ships can be influenced by

294   a multitude of influence factors, encompassing vessel types, fuel compositions, and

295   navigation conditions. However, limited research has been conducted on the

comprehensive emission factor of SVOCs and their constituents emitted from ships, which also needs to gain more attention due to their non-negligible contribution to SOA and O_3 formation (Robinson et al., 2007).

Figure 1 also illustrates the gas-particle partitioning of I/SVOCs from ship exhausts in this study under low dilution ratios. Results showed that almost all I/SVOCs in gas-phase had higher emission levels compared to particle-phase except for SVOCs in HFO-ME. Previous studies focused on gaseous I/SVOC emissions of ship exhausts and indicated that the gas-phase I/SVOCs played a crucial role in atmospheric chemical reactions and aerosol formation processes (Liu et al., 2022;Lou et al., 2019). However, the contribution of I/SVOCs from particles still could not be ignored. For example, the contribution of particle-phase I/SVOCs to the total I/SVOCs could reach 16%-50% in this study. Previous study has shown that they could continue to contribute to the formation of SOA and O_3 largely through evaporation and oxidation in the atmosphere (Drozd et al., 2021). Even though particle-phase reactions generally occur slower than gas-phase reactions due to limitations imposed by oxidant diffusion and absorption into aerosols (An et al., 2023), it still could be implied that particle-phase I/SVOCs were similarly important precursors of SOA and O_3. The emissions of total I/SVOCs from ships in both gas and particle phases should be thoroughly considered, as this could potentially enhance the accuracy of simulation results for the formation of SOA and O_3.

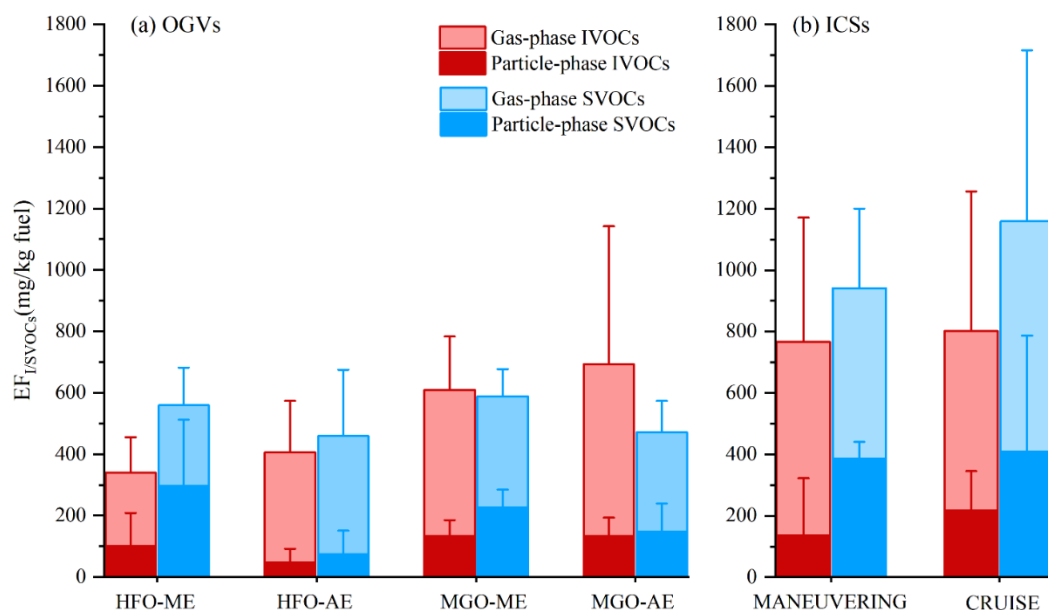



Figure 1 Emission factors of I/SVOCs in both gas-phase and particle-phase for OGVs and ICSs

3.2 Influence factors of I/SVOCs

The EFs for I/SVOCs emitted from ship exhausts exhibited significant variations under real-world conditions, as illustrated in Figure 1. In order to explore the impact of low sulfur fuel policy on I/SVOCs, $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ with different oil products (HFO, MGO, and 0# diesel) were given and discussed in this study (seen in Figure 2 (a)). Besides, $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ across diverse engine types (main engine (ME) and auxiliary engine (AE)), as well as various operating conditions (25%-90% operating modes of OGVs, cruise and maneuvering of ICSs) were also investigated (seen in Figure 2 (b) and (c)). Results showed that fuel type had considerable impact on the emission of I/SVOCs (Figure 2 (a)). $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ with 0# diesel presented the highest levels, followed by MGO, while HFO had the lowest $EF_{I/SVOCs}$. The mean $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ of 0# diesel, MGO, and HFO were 1834 ± 667, 1181 ± 421 and 881 ± 487 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$, respectively. The observation was noteworthy that a decrease in sulfur content of the fuel corresponded to an increase in $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ levels, as demonstrated by this study. Furthermore, relevant studies have also shown that the transition from high-sulfur to low-sulfur fuels resulted in an elevation of emission factors for both VOCs and IVOCs. For instance, Wu et al. (2020)

334   reported a 15-fold increase in EF_{VOCs} following the transition from high-sulfur (>0.5%

335   m/m) to low-sulfur fuels, subsequent to the implementation of the low-sulfur policy.

336   Zhang et al. (2021), Huang et al. (2018a) and Liu et al. (2022) also found negative

337   correlations between sulfur content in fuel and IVOC emissions from ships. Study by

338   An et al. (2023) in the Yangtze River Delta region found that both I/SVOCs and non-

339   methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs) with low-sulfur oil had higher emission factors,

340   which resulted in a high SOA formation potential. This meant that even though the use

341   of lower sulfur content of fuels contributed to significant reduction in SO_x and PM

342   emissions and mitigated their impact on environment. It also could lead to higher

343   emissions of full-volatility organics during combustion, which had negative impacts on

344   the formation of SOA and O_3 that further affected human health.

345   Fuel compositions could directly affect the emission characteristics of I/SVOCs.

346   During the combustion of fuel, the generation of I/SVOCs could involve complex

347   processes, such as pyrolysis of organic matters, dehydrogenation, oxygenation and

348   incomplete combustion (Akherati et al., 2019;Zhao et al., 2014). A large portion of

349   I/SVOCs derived directly from incomplete combustion of fuel (Zhang et al., 2016;Liu

350   et al., 2022). The main components of 0# diesel are typically hydrocarbons, including

351   alkanes, cycloalkanes, and aromatic hydrocarbons. These components are mostly

352   within the range of I/SVOCs, mainly composed of complex hydrocarbons ranging from

353   C_{12} to C_{22} (Alam et al., 2018). The similar compositions of 0# diesel to I/SVOCs might

354   be the primary reason for its highest emission levels. MGO and HFO both belong to

355   marine fuel oil (Corbin et al., 2018). MGO is a kind of light marine diesel, while HFO

356   refers to the black, viscous residue left after distilling lighter fractions such as gasoline,

357   kerosene, and diesel from crude oil, or a blend of the black, viscous residue with lighter

358   fractions (Schüppel and Gräbner, 2024). HFO are categorized into HSF and low-sulfur

359   fuel (LSF). HSF were generally utilized before low-sulfur standards were introduced,

360   while LSF have been adopted since these standards were enacted, enabling compliance

361   with stricter environmental regulations through reduced sulfur content. Unless

otherwise specified, HFO in this study refers to LSF-HFO. Referred to the measured organic compositions of MGO and HFO from Liu et al. (2022), it could be seen that MGO had higher n-alkanes but lower PAHs compared with HFO. This was also one main reason for the higher $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ for MGO than HFO. Moreover, sulfides play a catalytic role in combustion, reducing the ignition temperature of the fuel (Ju and Jeon, 2022). The ignition point of low-sulfur fuel is comparatively higher than that of high-sulfur fuel, thereby necessitating elevated temperatures and increased oxygen input to achieve complete combustion (Dinamarca et al., 2014;Drozd et al., 2019). Therefore, the incomplete combustion might be enhanced for low-sulfur fuel at similar engine loads (Zhao et al., 2015), leading to greater production of I/SVOCs for low-sulfur fuel. To further elucidate the impact of reduced sulfur content on combustion efficiency, we calculated the modified combustion efficiencies (MCE) for various fuel types (Figure S2). The results indicated a notable decline in MCE values as the sulfur content decreased, suggesting that incomplete combustion was a key factor contributing to the elevated levels of I/SVOCs in low-sulfur fuels.

The operating condition was another important factor that affected ship I/SVOCs emissions. During actual navigation of OGVs, the operating modes were ranging from engine load of 25% to 90%. In this study, the operating modes were categorized into three distinct levels: low mode for engine loads below 50%, medium mode for loads between 50% and 75%, and high mode for loads exceeding 75%. As for the ICSs, because the time for departure and docking could be neglected compared with long-distance cargo transportation, cruise and maneuvering were selected according to the actual operating conditions. The engine operating load was higher in cruise mode (classified as high mode) compared with maneuvering (medium mode). It could be seen from Figure 2 (b) that the average emission factors (EFs) of I/SVOCs in this study followed a relatively ascending order across operating modes: 1098 ± 305 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ in low, 1542 ± 465 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ in medium and 1457 ± 276 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ in high operating modes, respectively in this study, revealing significantly elevated emissions

390   at both medium and high loads compared to low-load conditions. This trend was

391   consistent with PM emission patterns reported by Zhang et al. (2021), but notably

392   diverged from the characteristics of ship-emitted IVOCs, which reached its lowest

393   value under medium-load conditions in prior studies (Zhao et al., 2014;Huang et al.,

394   2018b). This discrepancy could be attributed to the dominance of SVOCs over IVOCs

395   in this study. Operating modes affect the combustion state in engines and the air-fuel

396   ratio during the combustion process, thereby influencing exhaust emissions

397   (Shrivastava and Nath Verma, 2020). The air-fuel ratio exhibits a decreasing trend with

398   increasing engine load, which induces more pronounced incomplete combustion within

399   the cylinder, thereby establishing a direct causative relationship with elevated total

400   I/SVOC emissions. (Zhang et al., 2021; Watson et al., 1994). The high operating mode

401   is associated with reduced fuel diffusion and combustion time, leading to a partial

402   oxygen deficiency within the cylinder, thereby resulting in an increased generation of

403   I/SVOCs (Zhao et al., 2016;Liu et al., 2022). The investigation of methodologies for

404   optimizing engine design and control systems to achieve enhanced combustion

405   efficiency under different operating conditions, thus reducing emissions, is of great

406   significance.

407   Engine type also led to difference of I/SVOC emissions from ships. There were

408   two types of engines on the OGVs, which were low-speed engines (LSE) for the main

409   engines (ME) and medium-speed engines (MSE) for the auxiliary engines (AE). While

410   only one type engine on the ICSs as the main engines, which were high-speed engines

411   (HSE) (seen in Table S1). The findings indicated that there were no statistically

412   significant differences in the $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ among various engines. Typically, medium-

413   speed engines exhibit lower combustion efficiencies than low-speed engines, leading

414   to higher I/SVOC emissions (Wu et al., 2020;Liu et al., 2022). However, because as

415   AEs, the MSEs used in this study were almost operated in medium loads that always

416   presented the lowest pollutants as described above, which resulted in the lowest

417   I/SVOC emissions as well. This finding suggested that the influence of operating

418 conditions offset that of engine type, ultimately resulting in similar levels of

419 EFI/SVOCs for the MSE compared to the LSE. $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ for ICSs with high-speed

420 engines presented the highest level $(1370 \pm 382$ mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$). As previously

421 mentioned, high-speed engines typically exhibit lower combustion efficiencies

422 compared to other engine types (Wu et al., 2020), while the utilization of low-sulfur

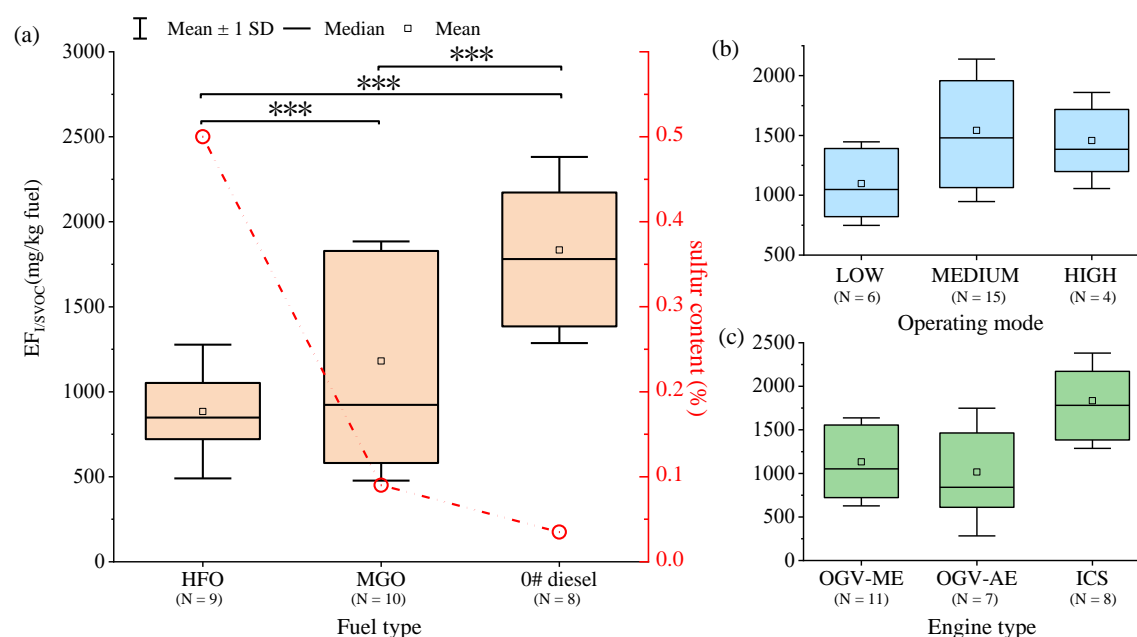
423 fuel also results in elevated levels of $EF_{I/SVOCs}$. Therefore, both the engine type and fuel

424 type used for ICSs jointly caused the highest $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ in this study. In summary, fuel

425 types determine emission compositions, while engine type and operating conditions

426 affect combustion efficiency and reaction paths. These factors interact, thereby leading

427 to varying degrees of incomplete combustion, ultimately resulting in complex I/SVOCs

428 emissions.

430 Figure 2 Box-whisker plots of total $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ for the tested ships under (a) different

431 fuel types, (b) different operating modes, and (c) different engine types. N represents

432 the number of samples. Significant differences between samples were determined using

433 an independent samples T-test. The error bars represent the standard deviation of the

434 measured values, while *** indicates a significance level of $p < 0.001$.

435 **3.3 Chemical compositions and profiles of I/SVOCs**

436 **3.3.1 Chemical compositions of I/SVOCs**

437 The chemical compositions (speciated I/SVOCs and UCM) of I/SVOCs emitted

438   from OGVs and ICSs under various operating conditions are presented in Figure 3. The

439   speciated I/SVOCs included n-alkanes, branched alkanes (b-alkanes), (O)PAHs,

440   hopanes and acids. In general, UCM and b-alkanes dominated the total I/SVOCs from

441   ship exhausts, contributing 83.4% to 89.8% of the total I/SVOCs (speciated + UCMs).

442   The emissions of acids and n-alkanes were also noteworthy, accounting for an average

443   of 6.51% and 4.61% of the total I/SVOCs, respectively. Previous studies also have

444   noted the relatively high proportion of n-alkanes in I/SVOCs from shipping emission

445   sources (Huang et al., 2018a;He et al., 2022a). However, there is limited data available

446   on organic acids, particularly those emitted by shipping activities. PAHs, hopanes, and

447   benzoic acids collectively contribute only about 1% to the overall emissions, indicating

448   their relatively minor role. However, even though these substances only constituted a

449   small proportion of the overall emissions, the environmental and health effects still

450   demanded in-depth research and vigilance due to their strong toxicity and bio-

451   accumulative nature (He et al., 2022b;Mochida et al., 2003).

452   It is noteworthy that both the EFs and proportions of fatty acids in the total

453   I/SVOCs were found to be remarkably high in this study, as previously mentioned. This

454   finding aligns with the results reported by Huang et al. (2018a) and Wang et al. (2023),

455   where n-fatty acids were identified as a significant component of chemical

456   compositions derived from an OGV exhaust. However, there is still very little research

457   on fatty acids from shipping emissions. Fatty acids are a category of organic compounds

458   with carboxyl groups and relatively long carbon chains, playing essential physiological

459   roles within organisms. Prolonged exposure to elevated levels of fatty acid pollutants

460   has been linked to the development of respiratory, immune, and cardiovascular

461   disorders (He et al., 2022a;He et al., 2022b). Studies have indicated that fatty acids can

462   constitute a substantial portion of the organic matter in atmospheric aerosols, especially

463   in marine aerosols (Hu et al., 2023;Mochida et al., 2003;Kawamura et al., 2017). For

464   example, research in the North Pacific had shown that fatty acids could account for 10%

465   to 30% of organic carbon (Mochida et al., 2003;Mochida et al., 2002). In addition, low-

466 molecular-weight fatty acids ($C_{14:0}$-$C_{19:0}$) have been increasing in the North Pacific in

467 recent years (Hu et al., 2023). The content of fatty acids in marine aerosols was

468 relatively high, yet their specific sources were often attributed to biomass burning and

469 biological emissions in the past (Hu et al., 2023;Kawamura et al., 2010). It could be

470 inferred from the results in this study that shipping emission might be one significant

471 potential contributor to the fatty acids in marine aerosols. Besides, the EF of fatty acids

472 were found to be higher in ship exhausts fueled by MGO and 0# diesel compared to

473 HFO, which aligns with the findings of Huang et al. (2018a) indicating that the average

474 EF of n-fatty acids from LSF was 6.7 times greater than that from HSF. Consequently,

475 the forthcoming implementation of a globally uniform ultra-low-sulfur oil policy may

476 potentially lead to an elevated release of fatty acids, particularly in coastal and inland

477 regions. Given studies on acid pollutants from ship exhausts were relatively scarce or

478 they had been overlooked due to limitations in sampling and detection methods, further

479 investigation is warranted to enhance the comprehension of the characteristics and

480 influences of acidic emissions derived from ship exhausts.

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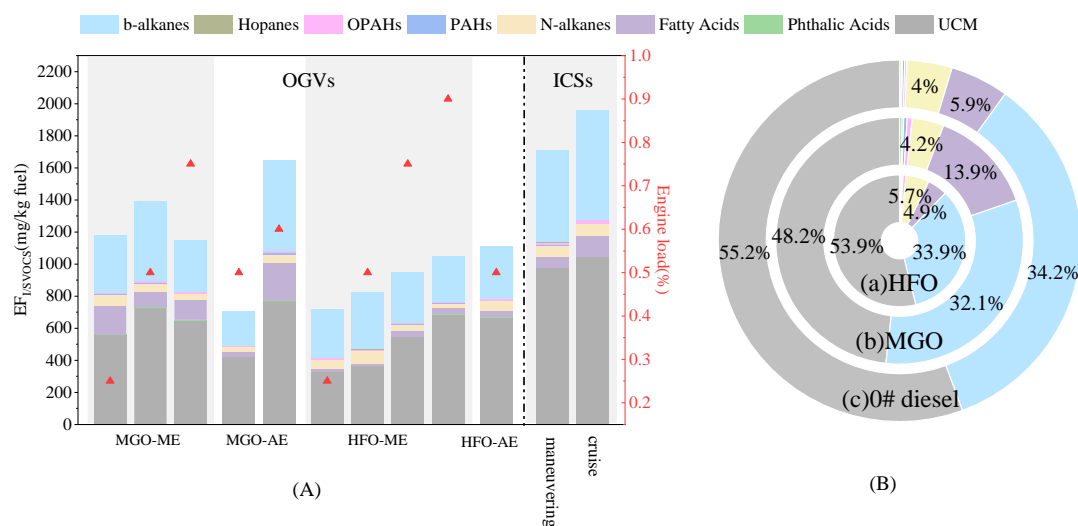
482 Figure 3 Chemical compositions of I/SVOCs from the tested ships, (A) emission

483 factors (mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$) and (B) fractional contributions (%). The red triangles represent

484 the engine load.

485 As mentioned above, the total $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ of ship exhausts was significantly

486 influenced by fuel type. The average emission factors of the primary chemical

compositions of I/SVOCs under various fuel conditions are presented in Table 2. Results demonstrated that the EFs of the majority of organic compounds in ship emissions exhibited an upward trend as the sulfur content in fuels decreased. Specifically, emission factors of UCM, branched alkanes and (O)PAHs for 0# diesel were much higher than the other two fuels, with HFO having the lowest values. While in terms of n-alkanes, the average total EFs of n-alkanes in these fuel types were 72.9 $\pm$ 28.1 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$(0# diesel), 50.1 $\pm$ 15.1 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$(HFO) and 49.2 $\pm$ 11.2 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$(MGO), respectively, indicating a slight deviation from the findings of Liu et al. (2022) regarding the higher EF$_{n\text{-alkanes}}$ in MGO compared to HFO. This might be explained by that not only n-alkanes in IVOCs, but also SVOCs were detected in this study. Compared with IVOCs referring from C_{12} to C_{22}, SVOCs (C_{22}-C_{36}) from HFO had higher emission factor values due to the higher carbon chains than MGO (details also have been shown in Section 3.4), which offset the higher EF$_{n\text{-alkanes}}$ caused by IVOCs (seen in Figure 1). Besides, compared with the other two types of fuels, MGO emitted higher emission factor level of acids. MGO is a blend of straight-run light distillate diesel and secondary processed diesel from crude oil (Ahn et al., 2021), which may contain a considerable amount of impurities, which could be a reason for its higher content of acidic substances. However, hopanes from HFO presented the highest emission factor level, which was one rare category of organic matters that decreased with the improvement of fuel quality. The details will be discussed in Section 3.3.2.

Table 2 Average emission factors of main chemical compositions of I/SVOCs under different fuels (mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$)).

Fuel Type	UCM	B-alkanes	Acids	N-alkanes	(O)PAHs	Hopanes
HFO	492±137	299±17.5	27.7±10.6	50.1±15.1	9.47±3.1	2.99±1.01
MGO	608±109	379±112	129±57.7	49.2±11.2	12.9±5.3	2.41±0.88
0# diesel	1010±134	628±55.7	99.5±33.9	72.9±28.1	21.4±3.3	1.88±0.82

3.3.2 Profiles of I/SVOCs

Detailed profiles of organic compounds from ship exhausts are of great significance for source identification. The profile characteristics of the identified

512   organic compounds, including fatty acids, n-alkanes, PAHs, OPAHs, and hopanes

513   measured from the three types of ships in this study are presented in Figure 4. Results

514   showed that fatty acids with 11-18 carbon numbers ($C_{11:0-18:0}$ and $C_{18:1}$) were the main

515   acids emitted from ships, especially n-C_{14} and n-C_{18}. In addition, it showed that HFO

516   had a significantly lower proportion of Dodecanoic ($C_{12:0}$) and Tetradecanoic ($C_{14:0}$)

517   compared with 0# diesel and MGO, while the proportion of Octadecanoic ($C_{18:0}$) in 0#

518   diesel was lower than other fuels. The $C_{18:0}$ to $C_{14:0}$ ratios of HFO, MGO and 0# diesel

519   were 3.7 ± 1.0, 0.3 ± 0.2 and 0.1 ± 0.4, respectively. This $C_{18:0}$ to $C_{14:0}$ ratio decreased

520   significantly with the decrease of sulfur content of the fuel. Besides, the average

521   proportion of fatty acids containing an even number of carbons ($88.05\% \pm 3.7\%$) in this

522   study was significantly higher than that of fatty acids with an odd number of carbons.

523   Previous studies have demonstrated a robust distribution of fatty acids with even-

524   numbered carbon chains in marine aerosols, exhibiting distinct peaks at n-C_{16} and n-

525   C_{18} (Hu et al., 2023;Kawamura et al., 2017;Mochida et al., 2002), thereby providing

526   further evidence that ship exhaust emissions constitute a significant source of fatty acids

527   in marine aerosols. Given the limited availability of studies on single-source acids, it is

528   imperative to gather additional evidence regarding acid pollution resulting from ship

529   transportation emissions. This will enhance our comprehension of the magnitude of the

530   issue and the environmental and human health implications associated with these

531   emissions.

532   The n-alkane profiles of the three types of fuels in this study (depicted in Figure

533   4) clearly indicated that low carbon number n-alkanes exhibit dominance. N-

534   nonadecane (C_{19}) was the highest compositions for both HFO and MGO. While 0#

535   diesel exhibited a peak at heptadecane (C_{17}), which was mainly caused by the

536   characteristic of fuel compositions. Significant variations were observed in the

537   emissions of n-alkanes from other non-internal combustion engine sources, such as high

538   composition of n-octacosane (C_{29}) and apparent odd-carbon advantages in biomass

539   emissions (Hu et al., 2023;Perrone et al., 2014); high compositions in C_{23} and C_{21} for

540 coal combustion (Duan et al., 2010;Xie et al., 2009).

541   The PAH profiles associated with different fuel types in this study exhibited

542 similar patterns to those observed by Liu et al. (2022), wherein low molecular weight

543 PAHs were found to constitute a relatively higher proportion. The major compounds in

544 this study were Phenanthrene (Phe), Pyrene (Pyr), Fluorene (Flu), Chrysene (Chr) and

545 Benzo[a]pyrene (Bap), aligning with the conclusions of previous studies (Zhang et al.,

546 2016;Zhang et al., 2014). PAHs from 0# diesel had higher proportion of Pyr and lower

547 proportion of Bap compared with the other two types of fuels. Besides, high proportions

548 of 1-Naphthaldehyd (1-Nap) and Anthraquinone (ATQ) in OPAHs were also revealed

549 from ship exhausts in this study, with 1-NAP for 0# diesel having the highest level.

550 Most of the PAHs and OPAHs emitted in this study were low molecular weight tricyclic

551 and tetracyclic substances, accounting for 94.7% to 96.9% of total OPAHs + PAHs, and

552 $6.6\% \pm 2.1\%$, $6.7\% \pm 1.7\%$ and $10.1\% \pm 5.9\%$ of the total speciated I/SVOC profile in

553 HFO, MGO and 0# diesel, respectively. The present study observed a positive

554 correlation between the decrease in sulfur content and an increase in OPAHs + PAHs

555 with smaller ring numbers emitted from ship exhausts, while conversely, higher ring

556 compounds exhibited a negative relationship. Specifically, 1-Nap accounted for

557 significantly higher proportion of OPAHs + PAHs in 0# diesel (70.4% ± 1.2%) than in

558 MGO (47.9% ± 7.3%) and HFO (36.6% ± 15.2%). As the sulfur content decreased, both

559 the emission factor level and proportion of 1-NAP exhibited an increasing trend.

560   Hopanes are found mainly in coal, fuel oils and lubricants and are generally

561 regarded as molecular markers of fossil fuel combustion sources due to their stable

562 chemical property (Cass, 1998). In this study, C_{29ab} and C_{30ab} were the main hopanes

563 emitted from ships, accounting for 67.1% ± 5.5% of the total hopanes. In addition, C_{31ab}

564 $_S$, $C_{31ab\ R}$ and $C_{32ab\ S}$ also showed non-ignorable contributions in ship emissions.

565 Different from n-alkanes and (O)PAHs, among the fuels, hopanes presented the highest

566 proportions from exhausts of HFO, followed by MGO, while 0# diesel showed the

567 lowest levels. This finding was consistent with the results reported by Sippula et al.

568 (2014), which demonstrated that HFO operation yields higher concentrations of

569 hopanes compared to diesel fuel. The primary reason for this disparity was attributed

570 to the presence of hopanes in HFO, whereas lubrication oil served as the sole source of

571 these compounds during diesel fuel operation (Kleeman et al., 2008). Given vanadium

572 and nickel cannot continue to be typical tracers of ship exhausts with low-sulfur content

573 HFO (Yu et al., 2021), organic diagnostic characteristics such as hopanes coupled with

574 the ratio of $C_{18:0}$ to $C_{14:0}$ could be considered as potential markers of HFO exhausts.

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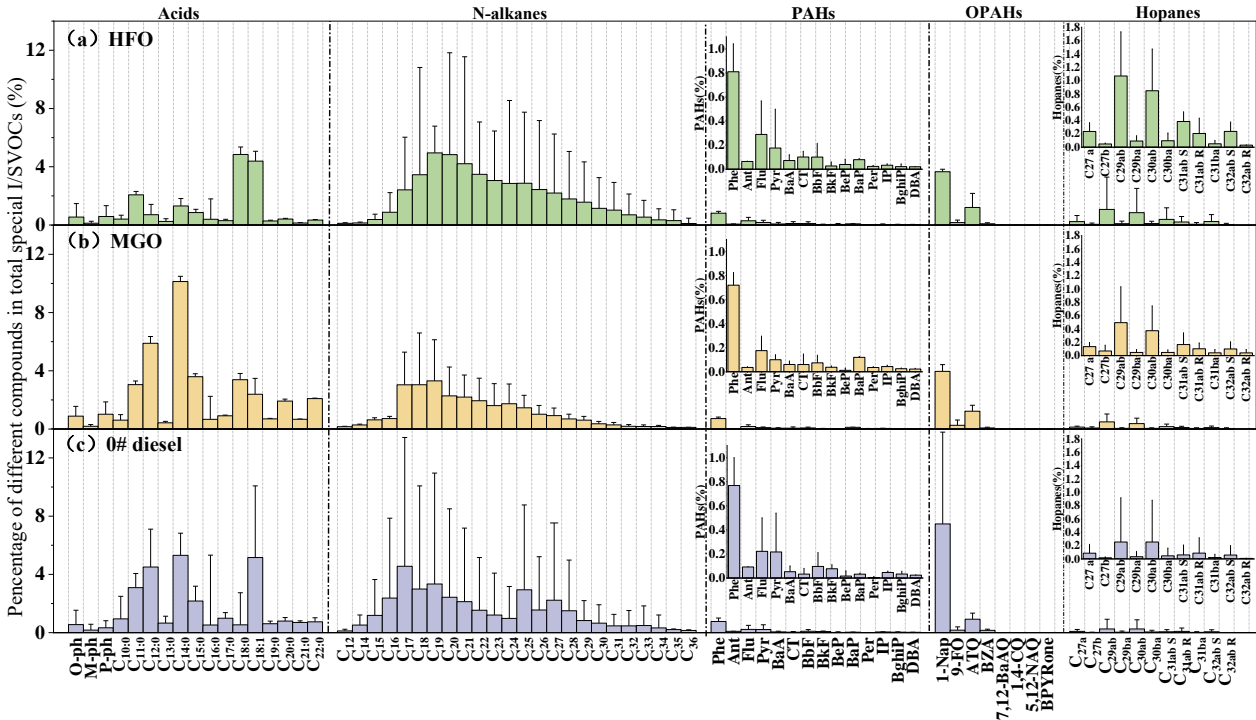
576 Figure 4 Profiles of I/SVOCs in ship exhausts under different fuels

577

578 **3.4 Volatility Distribution of I/SVOCs**

579 Volatility distribution of I/SVOCs from ships is shown in Figure 5, 24 Bins were

580 divided using n-alkanes as an indicator. What needs to illustrate was that the effective

581 saturation concentration (C*) of n-alkanes in each bin was used as a surrogate value to

582 discuss the volatility distribution of I/SVOCs (Zhao et al., 2016;Zhao et al., 2014).

583 The employed experimental method of solvent extraction in this study should be

584 acknowledged for its potential to underestimate highly volatile organic compounds.

585 However, in the meantime, this method could also effectively identify and quantify as

586   many I/SVOC species as possible. Figure 5 shows the proportion of I/SVOCs in each

587   volatile bin to further investigate the effects of different factors on I/SVOCs.

588 Obviously, fuel type had apparent impact on the overall trend of volatility distribution

589   of EF$_{I/SVOC}$, with similar volatility profiles of identical fuels (Figure 5 (a)). While

590 operating mode and engine type also affected the volatility distributions of I/SVOCs

591   (Figure 5 (b)). For example, for both HFO-ME and MGO-ME of OGVs, there were

592   maximum values in bin 29. The range and magnitude of this maximum region

593   increased with engine load, reaching its peak at 50% engine load and subsequently

594 declining at 75% engine load (Figure 5 (b)). The higher emissions of I/SVOCs in low-

595 speed and high-speed loads might be significantly influenced by the increase of these

596   low-volatile components.

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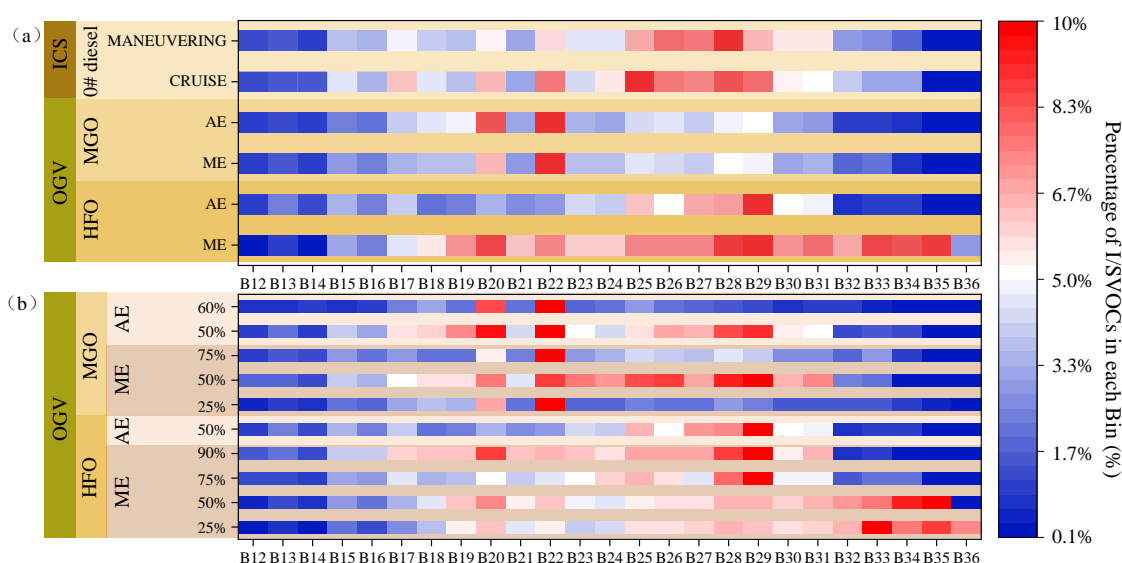
598   Figure 5 Split-bar heat plot of the I/SVOCs proportions in each volatile bin under

599 (a) different fuel types for different engines, and (b) different operating conditions

600 (25%-90% operating modes) for OGVs

601   In order to figure out the volatility distributions of detailed chemical compositions

602 of I/SVOCs from different fuels. The average volatility distributions of UCM, b-alkanes,

603 n-alkanes, PAHs, acids and hopanes based on the volatility basis set (VBS) framework

604 are given in Figure 6. Results revealed that the volatility distributions of UCM exhibited

605   distinct bimodal characteristics, with peak values occurring at log $C^* =$ -3 to -2 and log

606    $C^* =$ 3 to 4. Notably, the concentration was more pronounced in the low-volatility

607   region. Moreover, the bimodal characteristic of UCM in 0# diesel was more pronounced

608   compared to HFO and MGO. Additionally, HFO exhibited a higher proportion of low-

609   volatility UCM relative to 0# diesel and MGO. The volatile distributions of n-alkanes

610   exhibited a bimodal structure, with peaks occurring at log $C^* =$ -4 to -2 and log $C^* =$ 5

611   to 6, respectively. Furthermore, from HFO to MGO and finally to 0# diesel, the VBS

612   peak of n-alkanes progressively shifted towards the higher volatility range. This shift

613   could be attributed to the distinct characteristics of these fuels, where MGO and 0#

614   diesel had lower boiling points and contained fewer carbon atoms in their hydrocarbon

615   chains compared to HFO (Liu et al., 2022). The volatility distributions of other specific

616   I/SVOCs were consistent with their molecular sizes. (O)PAHs emitted from ships were

617   predominantly small molecules with high volatility, primarily enriched in the log C^*

618   range of 4 to 5. Acids were mainly concentrated in the higher volatility bins (log $C^* =$

619   0 to 5), whereas hopanes exhibited a primary concentration in the lower volatility

620   intervals. The compositions and physicochemical properties of different fuel types vary,

621   leading to differences in the volatile organic compounds they contain. Consequently,

622   the type of fuel played a significant role in determining the distribution of volatile

623   fractions for each individual I/SVOC component. The composition and combustion

624   efficiency of fuel are important factors affecting the emission and distribution of

625   I/SVOCs.

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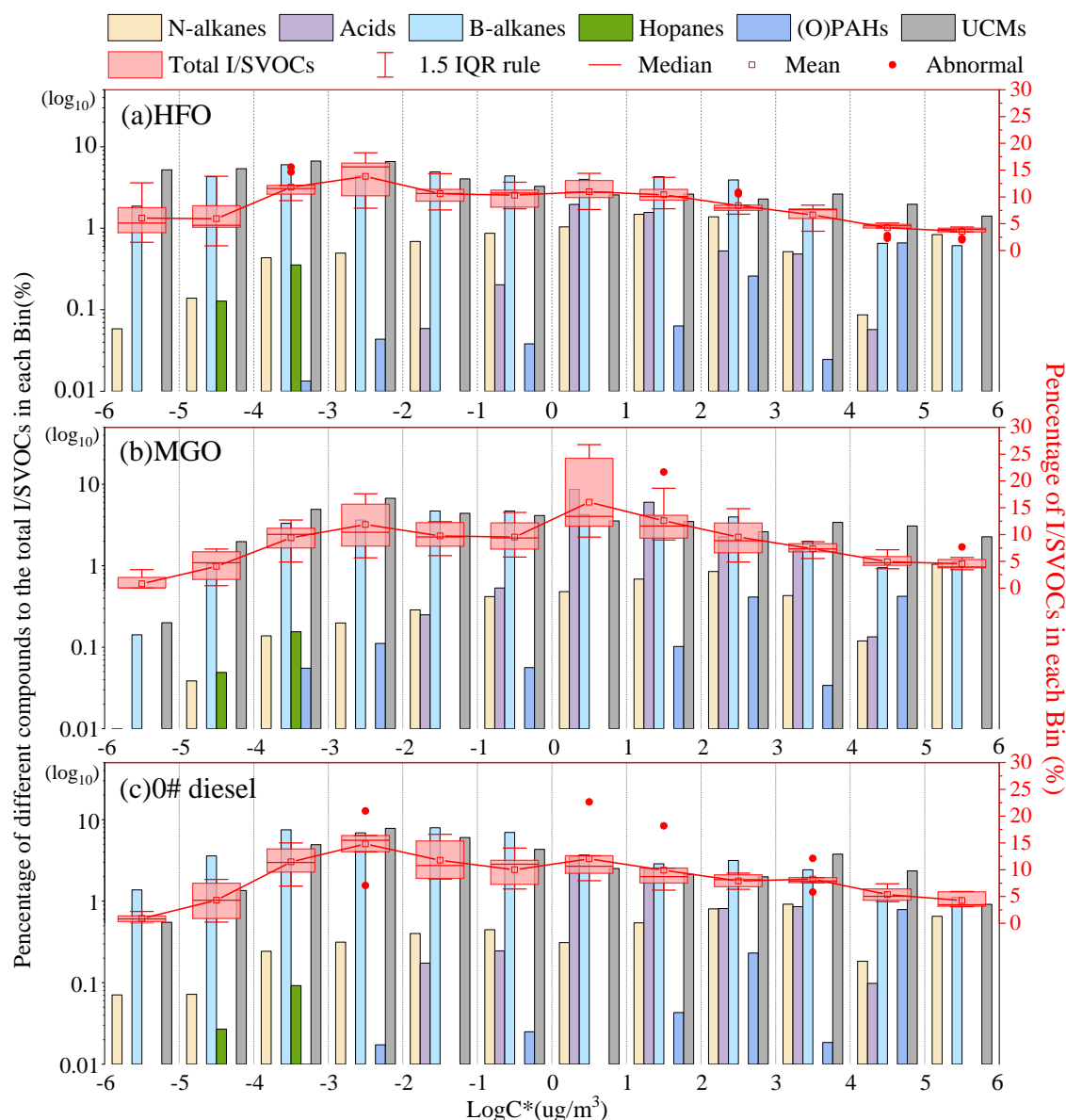


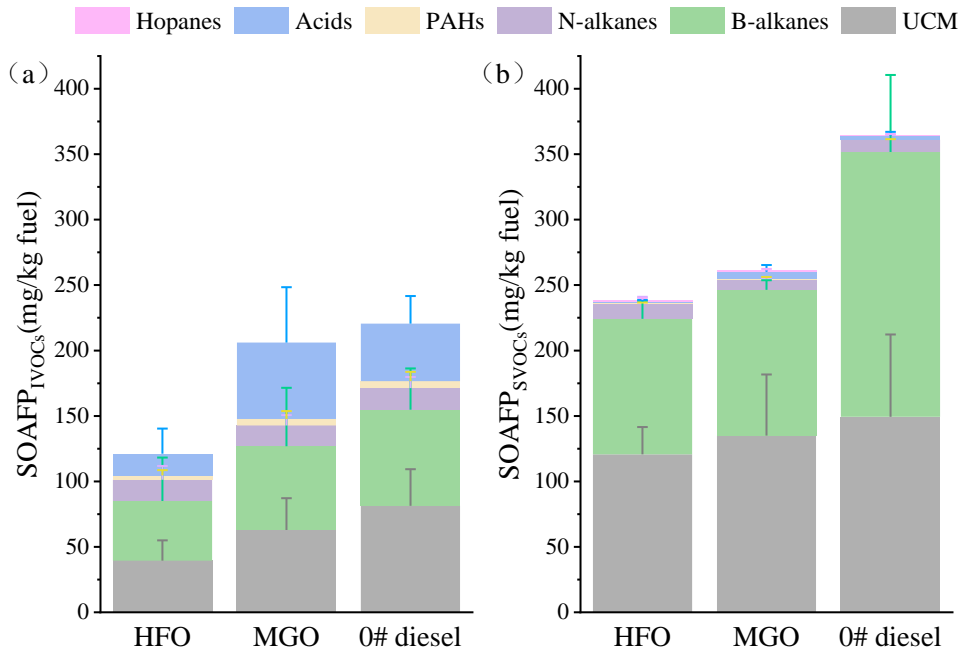
Figure 6 The volatility distributions of I/SVOCs based on the volatility basis set
(VBS) framework from different fuels

3.5 SOA formation potential of I/SVOCs

I/SVOCs have been proposed as crucial precursors of SOA (Murphy et al.,
2017;Hu et al., 2023). However, most of previous studies about ship exhausts focus on
the contribution of gas-phase IVOCs on SOA (Huang et al., 2018b;Liu et al., 2022), the
contributions from IVOCs and SVOCs in particle-phase have been neglected. The
comprehensive assessment of ship exhaust emissions, encompassing both gas-phase
and particle-phase I/SVOCs, was crucial for evaluating the overall impact on the
environment. This became particularly important in light of the implementation of low-

sulfur fuel policies, which had resulted in increased emissions of full-volatility organic compounds. Therefore, the SOAFPs of I/SVOCs from ships with different fuels were estimated (shown in Figure 7). Results showed that in terms of the total SOAFP evaluated from both IVOCs and SVOCs, 0# diesel and MGO with the lower sulfur content showed higher values, which could reach as high as 634 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ and 418 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$, respectively. In comparison, the SOAFP from HFO only had a lower value of 354 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$. For IVOCs, the use of low-sulfur 0# diesel and MGO could lead to higher SOAFP that reached 234 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ and 157 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ respectively, while HFO exhibited a significantly lower SOAFP level of only 101 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$. As for SVOCs, the SOAFPs of those three fuels were 400 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ for 0# diesel, 261 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ for MGO and 253 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$ for HFO. Previously, there has been limited research on SVOCs and their SOAFP, resulting in a scarcity of relevant comparative studies. Compared to diesel vehicles (430 ± 574 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$), gasoline vehicles (39 ± 79 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$) and nonroad machinery (424 ± 138 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$) reported in previous IVOC studies (Zhao et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2016;Qi et al., 2019), SOA emissions of total I/SVOCs from ships using 0# diesel exhibit significantly higher formation potential (634 mg (kg fuel)$^{-1}$). This discrepancy highlights critical knowledge gaps in current assessments, where the scarcity of research on SVOCs and their SOAFP has led to incomplete comparisons. Results from this study indicated that SOAFP could be enhanced with the decrease of sulfur content, the same as I/SVOCs emission factors. The major contribution to the total SOAFPs was observed from B-alkanes and UCM, accounting for 81.1%-87.8%, while the significance of acids, particularly IVOCs, should not be overlooked. Besides, SOAFPs from SVOCs were higher than that of IVOCs, no matter what types of fuels, which further indicated the importance of SVOCs. However, due the analysis method of I/SVOCs, the emission factor as well as SOAFP were underestimated in this study. More real-world measurement of chemically identifiable full-volatility organic matters should be carried out to figure out their emission characteristics and SOAFPs, especially for the ultra-

665 low-sulfur marine fuels, which could provide basis for the further establishment of ship

666 emission policies.

668 Figure 7. SOAFP from (a) IVOCs and (b) SVOCs.

4 Conclusions and atmospheric implications

670   The results revealed that $EF_{I/SVOCs}$ of ICSs were higher than OGVs. Furthermore,

671 a decreasing sulfur content in fuel was found to be associated with an increasing trend

672 in $EF_{I/SVOCs}$. Fuel quality, engine type, and engine load all exerted significant influences

673 on the emissions, compositions, and volatility distributions of I/SVOCs. Besides, the

674 most predominant I/SVOC components were UCM and b-alkanes, followed by acids

675 and n-alkanes. Notably, a significant presence of fatty acids was detected in ship

676 exhausts, warranting further attention, particularly towards fatty acids ranging from

677 C_{11}-C_{18} carbon numbers. It also found that organic diagnostic markers of hopanes, in

678 conjunction with the $C_{18:0}$ to $C_{14:0}$ acid ratio, could be considered as potential markers

679 for HFO exhausts. Moreover, the transition from low-sulfur content to ultra-low-sulfur

680 content fuels had also enhanced the secondary organic aerosol formation potential.

681   The findings of this study, along with previous research, suggest that a decrease in

682 sulfur content in fuels leads to a significant increase in emissions of full-volatility

683 organics from OGVs. This further exacerbates the SOAFP, which pose serious

684 environmental and health risks, particularly in densely populated coastal areas.

685 Therefore, there is a need for optimization of the implementation of an ultra-low-sulfur

686 oil policy. Due to data limitations, previous emission inventories for ships often

687 underestimated the emissions of organic matter, particularly from I/SVOCs. This

688 underestimation has led to an incomplete assessment of the contribution of ship

689 emissions to air quality, particularly in terms of SOA formation. Specifically, according

690 to existing emission inventories based on previous studies, the total IVOCs emissions

691 from non-road mobile sources amount to 238 Gg, with ships contributing 6.16% (14.7

692 Gg) of this total (Zhao et al., 2022). Assuming these ships use low-sulfur fuel (with a

693 sulfur content of below 0.5% (m/m)) and applying the emission factors from this study

694 for re-estimation, the unconsidered SVOCs would lead to an underestimation of 11.9

695 Gg pollutant emissions. If the sulfur content of the fuel is further reduced to 0.1% ultra-

696 low sulfur fuel oil (with a sulfur content of below 0.1% (m/m)), the revised IVOCs

697 emissions from ships would be 17.7 Gg, and SVOCs emissions would be 23.6 Gg,

698 representing a 64% increase in total emissions compared to using low-sulfur fuel.

699   Moreover, high proportions of acidic substances in I/SVOCs from ships were

700 found in this study, which extended the profiles of ship exhaust emissions. It also could

701 be inferred that organic diagnostic characteristics, such as hopanes, in combination with

702 the ratio of $C_{18:0}$ to $C_{14:0}$ could be considered as potential markers for HFO exhausts.

703 However, there were still limitations in this study that the experimental method used

704 might lead to the underestimation of highly volatile organic compounds. Besides, more

705 than half of the I/SVOCs still could not be identified in this study. Improved

706 experimental method needs to be considered to identify more full-volatility organic

707 substances with greater precision and accuracy in future study. Future research can

708 obtain more comprehensive and accurate organic component emission data by using

709 advanced methods such as comprehensive two-dimensional gas chromatography-mass

710 spectrometry (GC × GC-MS) and Orbitrap mass spectrometry. Considering the proven

711 effectiveness of after-treatment systems, such as diesel oxidation catalyst (DOC), diesel

712 particulate filter (DPF), and selective catalytic reduction (SCR), in reducing emissions

713 of full-volatility organic compounds (Reşitoğlu et al., 2015;Nadanakumar et al.,

714 2021;Biswas et al., 2009;Yashnik and Ismagilov, 2023;Hamada and Haneda, 2012),

715 these systems could be regarded as potential measures to mitigate the elevated levels of

716 I/SVOCs emitted by ships.

717 **Data availability:**

718 Datasets are available upon request to the corresponding author, Fan Zhang

719 (fzhang@geo.ecnu.edu.cn).

720 **Author contributions:**

721 FZ, GW, YZ, and YC conceptualized and designed the study; BX, ZL, XW, YW,

722 YH, MC, and YbC performed the measurements; FZ, RL, CW, LZ, and GW analyzed

723 the data. BX wrote the manuscript draft; All the authors reviewed, edited, and

724 contributed to the scientific discussion in the manuscript.

725 **Competing interests**

726 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing

727 interests.

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