



1 **Impacts of shipping emissions on ozone pollution in China**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 With the Two Phases of Clean Air Actions in China, the shipping sector has emerged as a
11 significant source with substantial emission reduction potential compared to land-based
12 anthropogenic sectors. Therefore, understanding the contribution of shipping emissions to
13 ozone (O₃) pollution is therefore essential for advancing China's air pollution control efforts.
14 In this study, a coupled framework including a chemical transport model with machine learning
15 techniques was developed to systematically investigate the interannual and seasonal impacts of
16 shipping emissions on O₃ concentrations across China during the period from 2016 to 2020,
17 and explore mechanisms of shipping emissions influence O₃ formation. Results indicate that
18 shipping emissions increases O₃ concentrations by a five-year average of 3.5 ppb nationwide,
19 exhibiting significant spatial and temporal heterogeneity across different regions and seasons.
20 Although significant differences exist between the emissions of ocean vessels and inland
21 vessels, their contributions to O₃ formation are becoming increasingly comparable. Solely
22 controlling shipping emissions may not necessarily result in effective O₃ mitigation. Instead,
23 coordinated reductions targeting both shipping and land-based anthropogenic sources, along
24 with region-specific and targeted emission control strategies, are critical for achieving
25 substantial improvements in O₃ pollution mitigation.

26



1 Introduction

Over the past decades, China's rapid industrialization and urbanization have boost the economy but also exacerbated air pollution (Zhang et al., 2019). To address air pollution and the health burden from anthropogenic emissions, China introduced the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan in 2013 (Zheng et al., 2018). Although a serious of stringent measures have greatly improved PM_{2.5} pollution in China, ozone (O₃) pollution has become increasingly prominent (Liu et al., 2023). Numerous epidemiological studies have shown that ground-level O₃ pollution leads to a range of adverse health effects, including increased incidence and mortality of respiratory diseases (Ito et al., 2005; Jerrett et al., 2009; Tao et al., 2012). Therefore, the health benefits achieved by reducing PM_{2.5} pollution are partially offset by the increase in O₃ pollution (Xie et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021), indicating a need to explore strategies to mitigate O₃ pollution in China.

With the promotion of China's emission control actions, the potential for further reductions from land anthropogenic emissions has diminished, while the shipping sector has shown considerable potential. Ships emit both gaseous and particulate pollutants, including sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), particulate matter, and volatile organic compound (VOC). As the largest maritime trading nation, China has a higher share of shipping emissions among anthropogenic sources compared to international levels (Fu et al., 2017; Yi et al., 2025). Currently, shipping emission controls in China focus on reducing SO₂ and PM emissions through the adoption of low-sulfur fuels (Wang et al., 2021). With increasing trade volumes, however, shipping NO_x and VOC emissions continue to rise, and the use of low-sulfur fuel may further increase VOC emissions (Wu et al., 2020). Therefore, clarifying the historical and current contribution of shipping emissions to the formation of O₃ is critical important for further pollution control in China.

Previous studies have quantified the impacts of shipping emissions on O₃ pollution in China, particularly in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl River Delta (PRD), and Bohai Rim Area (BRA) (Wang et al., 2019; Fu et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2024). However, these studies predominantly focused on coastal areas, while the potential inland impacts are not well studied. Research has indicated that the air quality effects of inland shipping should not be neglected (Huang et al., 2022; Luo et al., 2024). The formation of O₃ exhibits strong spatial heterogeneity and is influenced by multiple factors, such as meteorological conditions and the emission intensities from both shipping and land-based sources. Currently, there is a lack of comprehensive studies employing a unified methodology to assess the nationwide impact of shipping emissions on ozone. Furthermore, previous studies were limited to restricted timeframes, resulting in a deficiency in comprehensive assessments of multi-year scenarios that encompass coordinated variations in both land and shipping emissions.

O₃ is generated by photochemical reactions between NO_x and VOC under solar radiation, thus, the impacts of shipping emissions on O₃ concentrations are attributed by the nonlinear response of O₃ to changes in NO_x and VOC emissions (P. Wang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017). However, previous studies commonly used the zero-out method to assess ship's impacts by comparing scenario differences simulated by chemical transport models, which does not fully involve the nonlinear response of O₃ to its precursors and would result in considerable



uncertainty in the evaluations. Furthermore, although model-based assessments can generate large amounts of simulation data to investigate the impacts of shipping emissions, current analyses struggle to struggles the mechanism of how shipping emissions contribute to ozone formation from these simulation big data (Luo et al., 2025).

In this study, we conducted source-oriented chemical transport model with a spatial resolution of 36 km×36 km, to investigate the annual and seasonal impacts of shipping emissions on O₃ concentrations in China, especially for key coastal and inland regions from 2016 to 2020. We also allocate culpabilities of shipping emissions from ocean-going vessels (OGVs), coastal vessels (CVs), and river vessels (RVs) on O₃ pollution to identify the influences of regionally differentiated shipping emission control policies. Furthermore, an explainable machine learning model was applied to explore how shipping emissions affect the formation of O₃ based on five-years simulated data. Our study provides a nationwide and long-term analysis of the impacts shipping emissions on China's O₃ pollution, and provide new insights for shipping control measures in the future.

2 Methods

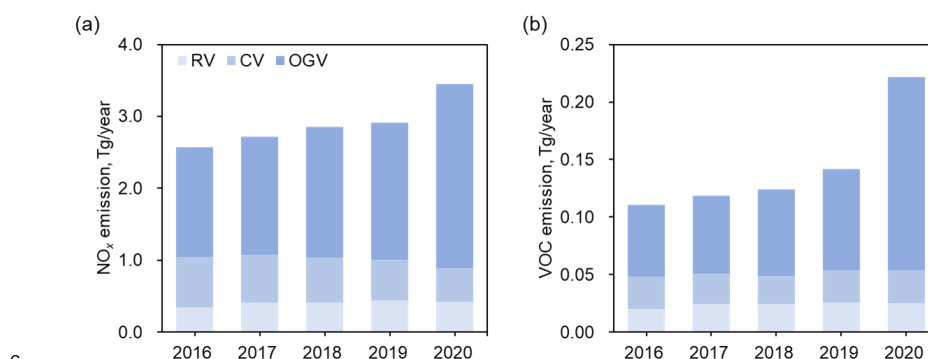
2.1 Shipping emissions

The Shipping Emission Inventory Model (SEIM v2.0) is a disaggregate dynamic method (Luo et al., 2025) driven by driven (a) the high-frequency ship Automatic Identification System (AIS) data, including signal time, coordinate location, navigational speed, and operating status, and (b) the integrated Ship Technical Specifications Database (STSD) (updated to 2020), which describes ship static properties, including vessel type, maximum designed speed, DWT and engine power. First, the originally collected raw AIS data and ship profile data from multiple sources are combined to form a ship activity database and STSD. Second, a route restoration module is applied for cross-land trajectory with a long distance in the AIS data, in which the 10 min linear interpolation will be applied on the shorted paths instead. Third, the instantaneous emission along with the movement of the ship's trajectory will be calculated based on the ship's static technical parameters, dynamic load changes, and extra parameters and factors. Finally, shipping emission inventory datasets will be established and used for visualization and analyses from multiple perspectives. In the SEIM, shipping emissions for both air pollutants (e.g., SO₂, PM, NO_x, CO and HC) and greenhouse gases (e.g., CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O) from the main engines, auxiliary engines and boilers were calculated, detailed information of SEIM is described in our previous study (Wang et al., 2021). Here, we calculated annual shipping emissions from 2016 to 2020 within 200 Nm from the Chinese mainland's territorial sea baseline.

In this study, vessels were classified as ocean-going vessels (OGVs), coastal vessels (CVs) and river vessels (RVs) for emission estimation according the following rules: (a) OGVs were identified by both valid IMO numbers and the Maritime Mobile Service Identity (MMSI) numbers, since they are mostly engaged in international trade following the management of the IMO. (b) RVs were identified by frequency distribution method based on the navigation trajectories for each vessel. Vessels with more than 50 % of the AIS signals throughout the entire year occurring on inland rivers (14–43° N, 104–130° E) were considered as RVs. (c) Finally, vessels that are not identified as OGVs or RVs are regarded as CVs. **Figure 1** shows



1 the interannual variation of shipping NO_x and VOC emissions from 2016 to 2020. Overall, the
2 increasing trade demands and total cargo throughput of Chinese ports led to elevated levels of
3 ship activities and consequently a sustained rise in shipping NO_x and VOC emissions, especially
4 for OGVs. Additionally, the shift to low-sulfur fuels, which are typically richer in short-chain
5 hydrocarbons (Wu et al., 2020), has contributed to a rise in shipping VOC emissions.



6
7 **Figure 1.** The interannual variation of shipping (a) NO_x and (b) VOC emissions from 2016 to
8 2020.

9 2.2 Air quality model

10 The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF, version 3.8.1)–Community Multiscale Air
11 Quality (CMAQ, version 5.4) model was applied to simulate the air quality in China during
12 January, April, July and November from 2016 to 2020, which represented winter, spring,
13 summer and fall, respectively, with 3 days of spin-up time for each run. As shown in **Figure**
14 **S1**, the modeling domain covered all of China and some parts of East Asia with a horizontal
15 resolution of $36 \text{ km} \times 36 \text{ km}$. Here, we have defined four key regions: BRA, YRD, PRD and
16 inland river areas (IRA), in which we focus on shipping-related O_3 pollution.

17 Here the year of 2018 was regarded as a typical meteorological year since the climate for
18 this year was relatively stable, and we used the meteorological filed of 2018 simulated by WRF
19 in our previous study (Zhao et al., 2022) to drive the CMAQ simulation from 2016 to 2020.
20 The first guess field and boundary conditions for WRF were generated from the 6 h NCEP FNL
21 Operational Model Global Tropospheric Analyses dataset. The four-dimensional data
22 assimilation (FDDA) was enabled using the NCEP ADP global surface and upper air
23 observational weather data (<http://rda.ucar.edu>, last access: 25 March 2023). WRF and CMAQ
24 used 32 vertical layers up to 100 hPa, and the lowest layer had a thickness of approximately
25 37 m. The major physical options in WRF included a Morrison two-moment microphysics
26 scheme (Morrison et al., 2009), a Kain–Fritsch cumulus cloud parameterization (Kain, 2004),
27 the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTM) longwave and shortwave radiation scheme
28 (Iacono et al., n.d.), the Pleim–Xiu Land Surface Model (Xiu and Pleim, 2001), and the
29 Asymmetric Convective Model version 3.0 for the PBL parameterization (Pleim, 2007). The
30 validation of WRF performance is shown in **Table S1**.

31 Atmospheric gas-phase chemistry in the CMAQ was simulated with the SAPRC07tic



1 chemical mechanism, and aerosols were predicted using the AERO7. The chemical boundary
2 conditions of CMAQ inputs were collected from the Community Atmosphere Model with
3 Chemistry (CAM-chem) simulation output of global tropospheric and stratospheric
4 compositions (Buchholz et al., 2019). In this study, the Integrated Source Apportionment
5 Method (ISAM) was applied to determine the source contribution to the ambient O₃
6 concentrations. We divided the emissions into five groups to trace them separately in the ISAM,
7 including the land-based anthropogenic emission (the mobiles, industry, power, domestic, and
8 agriculture) from the MEIC and the open burning emissions Cai et al (Cai et al., 2017), the RVs'
9 emission, the CVs' emission, the OGVs' emission, and the other emission (the nature sources
10 emission from the MEGANv3 and the anthropogenic emission from other countries within the
11 modeling domain from the MIX (Li et al., 2017), details of emissions are shown in **Table S2**.

12 We evaluated the simulated O₃ concentrations against ground-based observations for
13 model validation. Until the simulation time, a total of 1455 available observation sites in China
14 were used for O₃ validation. As shown in **Table S3**, the simulated O₃ agreed well with
15 observations, with the overall model performance within the performance criteria suggested by
16 Boylan and Russell (Boylan and Russell, 2006) (mean fractional bias (MFB) $\leq \pm 60\%$ and mean
17 fractional error (MFE) $\leq \pm 75\%$), while the model overestimated O₃ a little, mainly due to
18 uncertainties in emission inventory and unavoidable deficiencies during meteorological and air
19 quality simulation. Meteorological performance for simulated periods was described in our
20 previous study (Zhao et al., 2022).

21 **2.3 Explainable machine learning model**

22 Here, based on the simulated data from 2016 to 2020 using WRF-CMAQ-ISAM, the RF
23 model was used to simulated the monthly average O₃ concentration. In the RF model, the input
24 predictor variables included relative humidity, temperature, wind speed, wind direction, solar
25 radiation, land anthropogenic NO_x emissions, land anthropogenic VOC emissions, shipping
26 NO_x emission and shipping VOC emission. Notably, the emissions selected were the sum of
27 emissions from each grid and its eight neighboring grids.

28 To investigate the impact of shipping emissions on O₃ formation in different regions, we
29 trained four RF models specifically for the BRA, YRD, PRD, and IRA regions, respectively.
30 The simulation data from 2016 to 2019 were used as the training samples, while the simulation
31 data from 2020, under the scenario of the most significant changes in shipping emissions, used
32 as the test samples to validate the generalization capability of the RF models. By comparing the
33 root mean squared error (RMSE) for testing datasets across models with candidate parameter
34 combinations, we set mtry and NumTrees as 6 and 200 in RF, respectively. Additionally, the
35 10-fold cross-validation repeated 10 times was considered to evaluate the prediction
36 performance of our models. The total dataset was randomly divided into 10 subsets, where 9
37 subsets was used to train the model and another was applied for validation. As shown in **Figure**
38 **2**, averages of RMSE and correlation coefficient (R²) in the CV of the RF models were
39 2.12~2.47 ppb, and 0.90~0.98, respectively, indicating an acceptable performance.

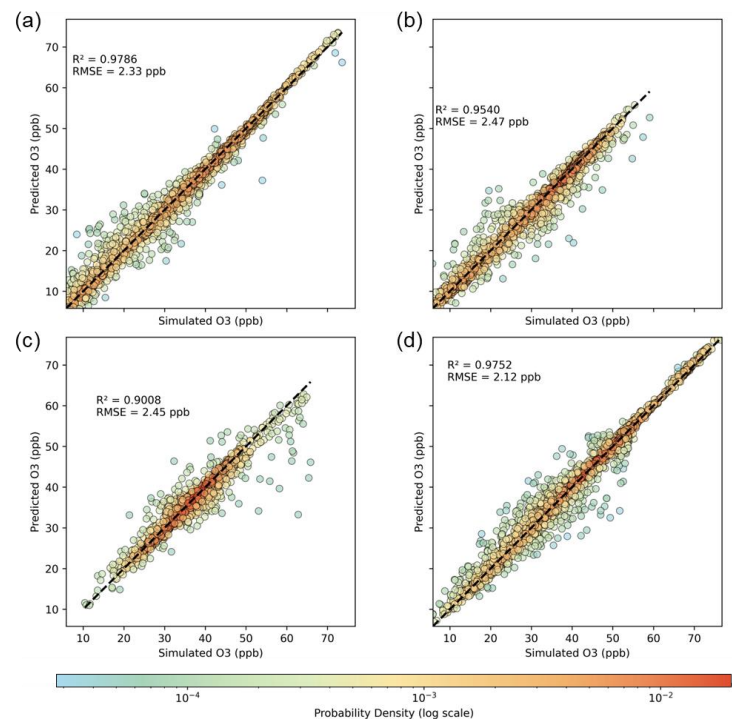


Figure 2. Performances of RF models for (a) BRA, (b) YRD, (c) PRD and (d) IRA.

In order to identify the sensitivity and response relationship between prediction variables and results in the RF models, the SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP) technique, a game-theoretic framework introduced by Lundberg et al. (Lundberg et al., 2020; Lundberg and Lee, 2017), was employed to interpret the RF models using the Python scikit-learn library. The SHAP approach enables the quantification of both global and local influences of input variables on the model's predictions, thereby improving the interpretability of factors contributing to air pollution. Additionally, the study examined feature interactions, which can affect the model's predictive accuracy, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the intricate relationships among the variables.

3 Results and discussions

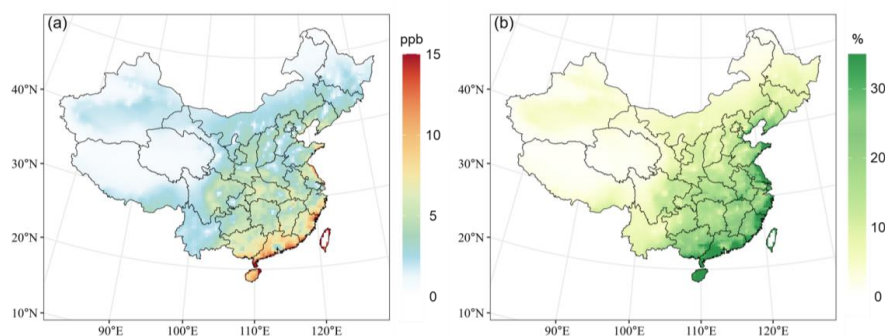
3.1 Annual O₃ impact from shipping emissions

Figure 3a shows the five-year average of shipping-related O₃, which is defined as the sum of O₃ concentration caused by emissions of OGVs, CVs, and RVs traced by CMAQ-ISAM. Overall, the shipping emissions increases O₃ concentrations by 3.5 ppb nationwide, showing a decrease trend from the southeast coast toward inland areas. This result is greater than the findings in other countries such as 1.97 ppb in Europe, and 2.08 ppb in the United States under ambient temperature and pressure (Sun et al., 2024). Due to the high coastal shipping emissions, the shipping-related O₃ could exceed 15 ppb in southeast coastal regions, especially in YRD and PRD, where maximum



values reach 25.4 ppb and 26.3 ppb, respectively. For the regions with low shipping emissions, the shipping-related O_3 is relatively low, not exceeding 5 ppb. For example, in IRA and BRA, the shipping-related O_3 is 3.9 ppb and 4.5 ppb respectively, but is slightly higher than the national average. Meteorological factors are just as important as anthropogenic emission influences in O_3 production (Liu et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024). The BRA and IRA have lower temperatures and weaker solar radiation compared to the YRD and PRD (Figure SX), which reduces the formation of hydroxyl radicals, weakening the atmospheric photochemical oxidizing capacity and ultimately limiting the O_3 production.

Figure 3b shows the five-year average of the relative contribution of shipping emissions to O_3 . Nationwide, the shipping emissions accounts for a 9.9% increase in O_3 , showing a similar decreasing trend of from the southeast coast to inland regions. This result is higher than 3.7% reported for the Mediterranean region in 2015 (Fink et al., 2023), but lower than the 12–21% reported in another European study for 2010 (Lupascu and Butler, 2019). Notably, some coastal cities exhibit particularly high values. For example, in PRD region, the relative shipping-related O_3 exceeds 30.4% in Shenzhen, Guangdong Province. The IRA is relatively low at 10.4%, mainly because of the higher background O_3 concentrations from land-based anthropogenic sources or O_3 already formed by chemical reactions at sea and subsequently transported inland by onshore winds (Cheng et al., 2023).



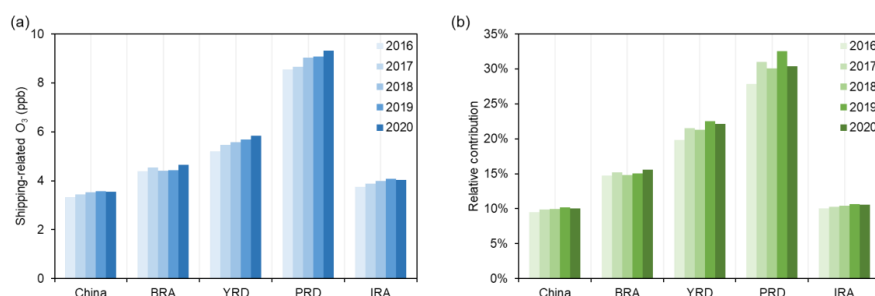
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Figure 3. Contributions of shipping emissions to the five-year average O_3 pollution, including (a) absolute contributions and (b) relative contributions. Maps created with MeteoInfoMap (<http://www.meteothink.org>).

Figure 4 illustrates the interannual trend in shipping-related O_3 in key regions from 2016 to 2020. Overall, the shipping-related O_3 shows a slight upward trend, with an average annual growth rate of 0.54%, which is lower than the increases in shipping-related NO_x and VOC (**Figure 1**). This finding suggests that O_3 formation is not highly sensitive to ship emissions. Because O_3 is produced by photochemical reactions of NO_x and VOC in the presence of solar radiation, influenced by factors such as meteorological conditions, anthropogenic emissions, and long-range transport (Ye et al., 2023). Its response to shipping emissions is complex. The Chinese government's two phases of clean air actions (Phase I, 2013–2017; Phase II, 2018–2020) resulted in increasing trend of O_3 nationwide (Liu et al., 2023), and the relative contribution of shipping emissions to O_3 also rose



1 slightly during the same period.

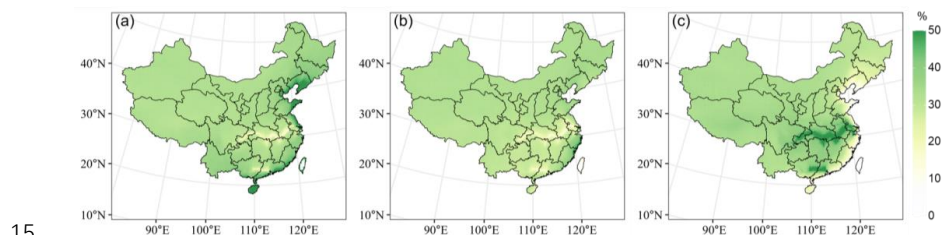


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3 **Figure 4.** The interannual trend in shipping-related O₃, including (a) absolute contributions and
4 (b) relative contributions, in key regions from 2016 to 2020.

5 3.2 Contribution of different types of vessels

6 We further investigated the relationship between O₃ pollution and shipping emissions from
7 sub-ship sectors. **Figure 5** shows the spatial distribution of the five-year average contribution of
8 emissions from different ship types to the shipping-related O₃. In coastal regions, OGVs contribute
9 most to the shipping-related O₃, accounting for more than 50% of such O₃ pollution. CVs are the
10 second-largest contributor to O₃ pollution with an average contribution of 20-30%, and contribute
11 up to 40% in the southern coastal regions near Zhejiang and Fujian Provinces. Due to the regional
12 transport and some RVs sail on coastal regions, contributions from RVs can also reach 20-30%. In
13 inland regions, RVs remain the main source of shipping-related O₃, with contributions in the middle
14 reaches of the Yangtze River reaching 50%.



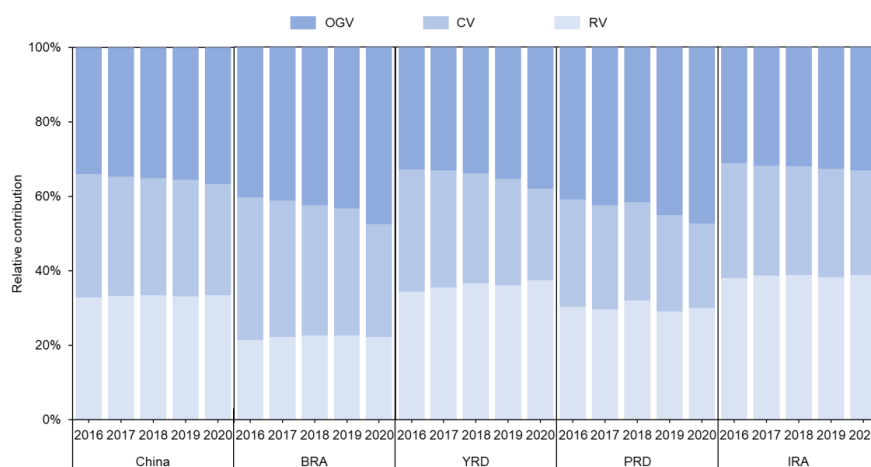
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16 **Figure 5.** Contributions of emissions from (a) OGVs, (b) CVs, and (c) RVs to the five-year
17 average shipping-related O₃ pollution. Maps created with MeteoInfoMap
18 (<http://www.meteothink.org>).

19 The interannual variation in the contribution of the different types of ship to shipping-related
20 O₃ between 2016 and 2020 for different regions is illustrated in **Figure 6**. Nationwide, the
21 contribution of OGVs and RVs increased by 2.7% and 0.6%, respectively, while the contribution of
22 CVs decreased by 3.3%. This pattern was observed in all coastal regions and IRA. The interannual
23 variation in the contribution of the different types of ship to shipping-related O₃ follows a similar
24 pattern to that of shipping-related NO_x and VOC (**Figure 1**), particularly NO_x emissions, which
25 shows an upward trend for OGVs and RVs but a downward trend for CVs. As a result, the difference



1 in the contribution of different types of ships to air quality is gradually narrowing. Notably, although
2 RVs emissions significantly less than those of OGVs and CVs, its contribution to O₃ is comparable
3 to that of other ship types, even exceeds that of CVs in some coastal regions. In addition, although
4 China has required certain categories of ships to install AIS equipment since 2010, a large part of
5 small RVs in China have not been equipped with AIS (Zhang et al., 2017), which is not considered
6 in this study. This result suggests the importance of paying greater attention to RVs in future
7 emission control strategies.



8

9 **Figure 6.** The interannual trend in Contributions of emissions from OGVs, CVs, and RVs to
10 shipping-related O₃ in key regions from 2016 to 2020.

11 3.3 Seasonal O₃ impact from shipping emissions

12 The seasonal variation in the contribution of ship emissions to O₃ concentrations across the
13 continent is shown in **Figure 7**, with January, April, July, and November representing winter, spring,
14 summer, and fall, respectively. The relative contributions of ship emissions to O₃ in different seasons
15 are presented in **Figure S3**. Overall, the contributions of ship emissions to O₃ concentrations in
16 China were 1.53 ppb (5.6%), 4.24 ppb (9.8%), 4.77 ppb (13.7%), and 2.41 ppb (7.9%) for January,
17 April, July, and November, respectively, which affected by the prevailing wind direction (**Figure**
18 **S4**) and atmospheric oxidizing properties.

19 For cold seasons, including winter and fall, the shipping-related O₃ remains relatively low,
20 primarily due to less irradiation and lower temperatures (**Figure S5**). Consequently, most
21 regions remain under 5 ppb, except in the south of YRA, especially Guangdong and Hainan
22 Provinces, where shipping-related O₃ exceeds 5 ppb (**Figure 7a and 7d**). During winter and
23 fall, when the wind direction is mainly north and northeast, shipping-related pollutants are
24 transported to the sea, limiting the accumulation of O₃ on land (Cheng et al., 2023). However,
25 shipping-related O₃ in fall is slightly higher than in winter, mainly because the persistent and
26 intense solar radiation after the rainy summer season enhances O₃ formation. Another reason
27 for this is that during the winter months, mainland China is under the influence of the
28 Mongolian High Pressure System, where continental winds reduce the shipping-related O₃



1 (Cheng et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2023).

2 Warm seasons generally include spring and summer. In spring, shipping-related O₃ is highest
3 in in coastal areas, particularly across Guangdong, Fujian, and Zhejiang Provinces, where it
4 exceeds 15 ppb (**Figure 7b**). During this season, increasing solar radiation and moderate
5 temperatures can enhance photochemical reactions, thereby promoting O₃ formation in these
6 coastal areas. In summer, shipping emissions significantly increased O₃ concentrations
7 nationwide (**Figure 7c**). Most coastal regions near the BRA and the PRD recorded levels above
8 10 ppb, while central China, located hundreds of kilometers from the coast, was still
9 significantly impacted with average level of around 10 ppb. This is primarily because central
10 China lies in a perennial monsoon region, where summer monsoons can carry shipping-related
11 air pollutants inland from coastal cities (Zheng et al., 2024). Notably, the impact of ship
12 emissions on O₃ in PRD reaches its highest contribution in spring rather than summer,
13 consistent with the results of previous studies (Cheng et al., 2023; Schwarzkopf et al., 2022).
14 The possible reason for this is that in PRD, particularly Fujian and Guangdong Provinces,
15 experiences high humidity and frequent precipitation in summer (**Figure S6**), which decreases
16 both O₃ concentrations and the impact of shipping emissions, even though high temperatures
17 can promote photochemical activity. Strong onshore winds also play a role in reducing the
18 influence of shipping emissions (Cheng et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2022).

19 These findings indicate that seasonal variations for shipping-related O₃ are driven by
20 meteorological factors, particularly changes in prevailing wind direction, which are crucial for the
21 diffusion and long-range transport of shipping emissions. Researchers suggest that the mixing
22 emissions between shipping and local anthropogenic emissions can amplify complicated O₃
23 chemical formation in coastal cities (R. Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, seasonal mitigation strategies
24 and a better understanding of regional monsoon dynamics and their interaction with local
25 anthropogenic emissions are crucial for effectively reducing shipping-related O₃ pollution.

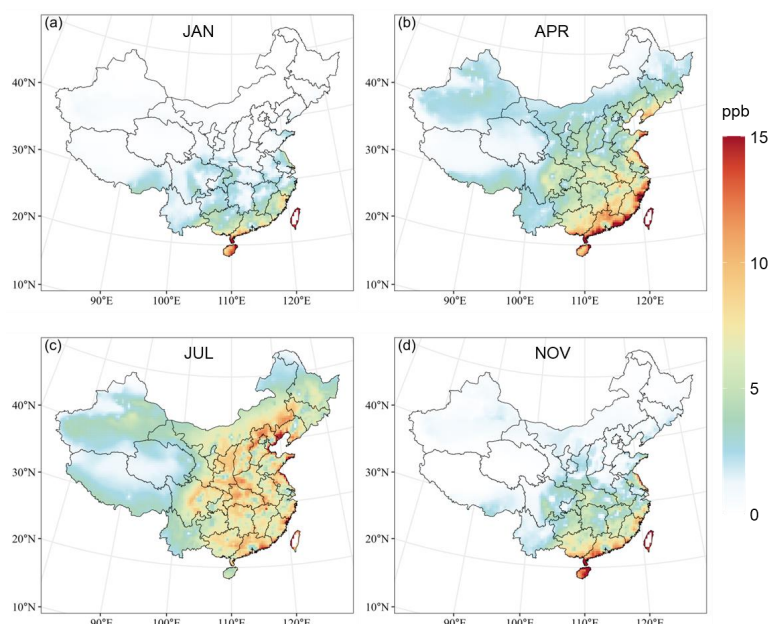


Figure 7. Contributions of shipping emissions to the seasonal mean O_3 concentrations for (a) winter (JAN), (b) spring (APR), (c) summer (JUL), and (d) fall (NOV). Maps created with MeteoInfoMap (<http://www.meteothink.org>).

3.4 Effects of shipping emission on O_3 formation

Although the features in the RF model include both meteorological factors and emissions, this section focuses on impacts of anthropogenic emissions, especially shipping emissions, on O_3 pollution. **Figure 8** presents the SHAP summary plots for selected features in the RF model for BRA, YRD, PRD, and IRA, showing the magnitude, prevalence, and direction of each feature's impact on the model output (O_3 concentration). In the summary plot, the further a feature's SHAP value is from zero, the greater its influence; positive SHAP values indicate a positive contribution, while negative values indicate a negative effect. For example, in **Figure 8a**, land-based NO_x and VOC emissions both have a significant impact on O_3 formation in the BRA, with contributions of 16.8% and 11.0%, respectively, suggesting that the atmospheric chemistry in this area is significantly affected by land-based anthropogenic emissions. Moreover, lower NO_x and VOC emissions leads to higher SHAP values, indicating a negative correlation between land-based anthropogenic emissions and O_3 pollution. In the coastal areas of BRA, shipping emissions are much smaller than land-based emissions, therefore, contribute only approximately 2.9% to O_3 formation, and exhibit a similar negative correlation as land-based sources.

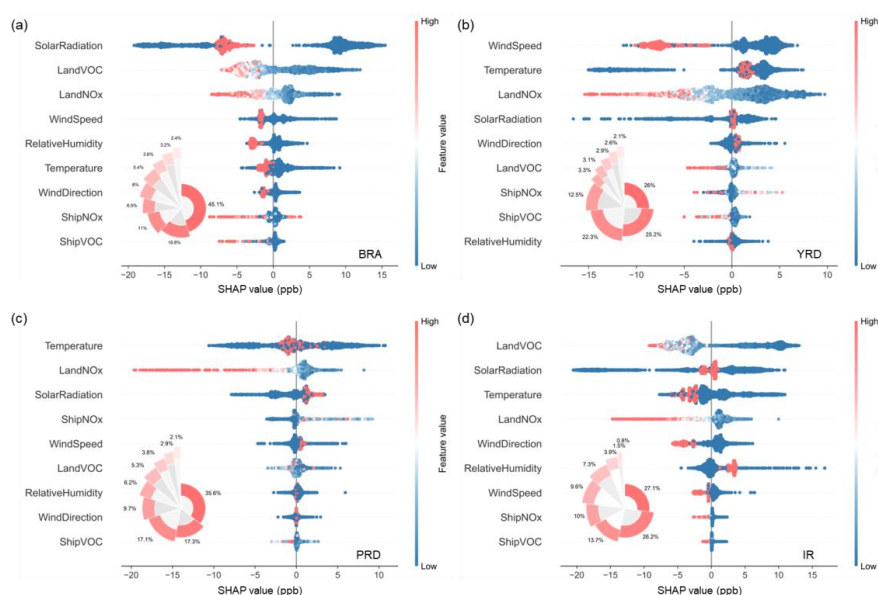
As the share of shipping emissions increases within total anthropogenic emissions in the coastal areas of YRD and PRD, the difference between the contributions of shipping and land-



1 based emissions to O₃ pollution regions decreases. Especially in the PRD, shipping NO_x
2 contributes up to 9.7%, exceeding the land-based VOC contribution of 5.3%. In the IRA,
3 emissions from inland vessels are much lower than those from ocean-going and coastal ships,
4 thus, shipping NO and VOC contributions only 1.5% and 0.8% to O₃ pollution, respectively.

5 For meteorological factors, the contributions of solar radiation (25.2%), temperature
6 (20.0%), wind speed (11.5%), and wind direction (4.9%), relative humidity (4.8%) to O₃
7 formation exhibit clear regional heterogeneity. Overall, meteorological influences are greater
8 than those of shipping emissions. This may be attributed to the highly complex physical and
9 chemical processes involved, including cloud–radiation interactions, air mass transport, and
10 water-related reactions.

11



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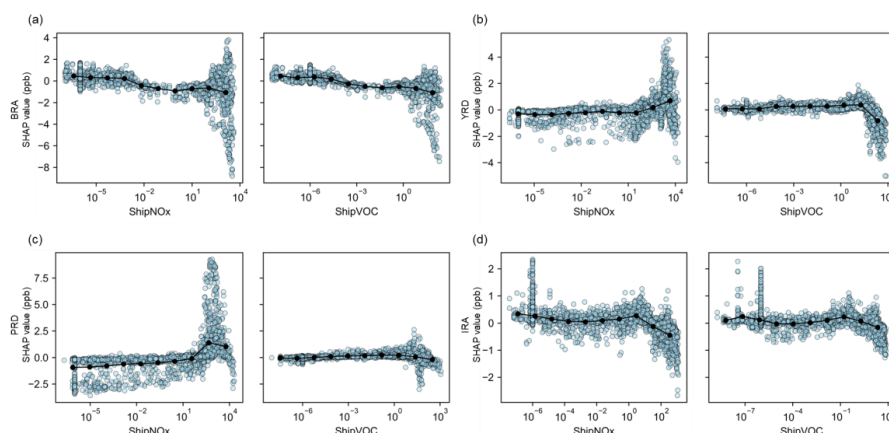
13 **Figure 8.** Feature importance results of the random forest regression model for (a) BRA, (b)
14 YRD, (c) PRD, and (d) IRA.

15 The dependence plot (**Figure. 9**) further quantifies how changes in shipping emissions
16 affect O₃ concentrations. Notably, due to the uneven distribution of shipping emissions, the x-
17 axis in **Figure. 9** is set to non-uniform intervals to better illustrate their impact. Overall, as
18 previously mentioned, changes in shipping NO_x and VOC emissions have a relatively minor
19 effect on regional O₃ levels—approximately between –2.5 ppb to 8 ppb—although there is clear
20 regional heterogeneity. In the BRA region, shipping emissions are negatively correlated with
21 O₃, with increases in shipping NO_x and VOC emissions leading to a reduction of about 1–2 ppb
22 in O₃. Differently, in the YRD and PRD, increases in shipping NO_x emissions slightly promote
23 O₃ formation—especially in the PRD region, where O₃ may increase by up to 3 ppb, which is
24 opposite to the impact of land-based NO_x emissions (**Figure. S7**). This difference may be



1 because, in the YRD and PRD, land-based NO_x emissions do not dominate the overall
2 anthropogenic emissions as they do in the BRA, allowing shipping NO_x to also influence
3 atmospheric chemistry. Furthermore, changes in shipping VOC emissions have almost no
4 impact, consistent with the effect of changes in land-based VOC emissions (**Figure. S7**). Only
5 when shipping VOC emissions increase dramatically in the YRD region is O_3 formation
6 suppressed—though such cases are rare, as reflected by the partially negative SHAP values for
7 shipping VOC emissions in **Figure. 8b**. In the IRA, similar to the BRA region, shipping
8 emissions are very small compared to land-based sources, so that changes in shipping NO_x and
9 VOC emissions have a similar negative effect on O_3 as those from land-based sources.

10 It should be noted that if one seeks to determine whether a given variable promotes or
11 suppresses O_3 pollution using machine learning methods, additional field observations,
12 experimental data, and corresponding simulation results may be required as supporting
13 evidence. Considering the interactions among variables, even if individual contributions are
14 small, the SHAP estimates for each explanatory variable are unlikely to perfectly reflect their
15 actual contributions in the underlying physical processes.



16
17 **Figure 9.** SHAP dependence plot for (a) BRA, (b) YRD, (c) PRD, and (d) IRA.

18 19 **4 Conclusion**

20 Overall, the shipping emissions increases O_3 concentrations by 3.5 ppb nationwide, with
21 a significant spatial and temporal heterogeneity. The air quality in Chinese coastal cities is
22 highly impacted by shipping emissions. For example, the relative shipping-related O_3 exceeds
23 26.3 ppb (30.4%) in PRD, while is relatively low at 3.9 ppb (10.4%) in IRA. Such pollution is
24 more serious in warm seasons with an average of 4.77 ppb (13.7%) nationwide in summer, due
25 to the increased solar radiation and moderate temperatures. although OGVs, CVs, and RVs
26 exhibit significant differences in their emissions, the difference in their contributions to O_3
27 pollution are diminishing and becoming relatively comparable on a national scale.

28 To mitigate O_3 pollution, it is important to coordinate the control of shipping emissions



1 with land-based emission sources. The results show that the impact of shipping NO_x and VOC
2 emissions on O_3 formation exhibits significant regional differences. In areas where land-based
3 emissions dominate, such as the BRA region, the impact of shipping emissions on O_3 pollution
4 is relatively small and shows a negative correlation. In contrast, in coastal regions such as the
5 YRD and PRD, where the share of land-based emissions has decreased, the contribution of
6 shipping emissions to O_3 formation becomes more significant. In particular, s shipping NO_x
7 emissions have become an important source of O_3 precursors in the PRD region. This regional
8 difference suggests that solely controlling shipping emissions may lead to unexpected
9 atmospheric chemical responses and, under certain conditions, could even cause an increase in
10 O_3 concentrations. Therefore, effective O_3 pollution control requires a coordinated reduction of
11 both land-based and shipping emissions, based on regional emission structures and atmospheric
12 oxidation characteristics. Further analysis reveals that meteorological conditions play an even
13 more critical role in regulating O_3 formation. Variables such as solar radiation, temperature,
14 wind speed, and relative humidity show strong sensitivity to changes in O_3 concentration and
15 also display clear regional differences. Therefore, it is recommended that differentiated and
16 refined joint control strategies be developed for different regions based on their specific
17 emission characteristics and meteorological conditions.

18 **Data availability**

19 Data used during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon
20 reasonable request.

21 **Code availability**

22 Codes used during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon
23 reasonable request.

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29 **Author Contributions**

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1 **Declaration of interests**

2 The authors declare no competing interests.

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