

UNDERSTANDING FUEL SAVING AND CLEAN FUEL STRATEGIES TOWARDS GREEN MARITIME

Van Nhanh Nguyen  ¹


Krzysztof Rudzki  ²

Marek Dzida  ³

Nguyen Dang Khoa Pham  ⁴

Minh Tuan Pham ^{5*}

Phuoc Quy Phong Nguyen  ⁴

Phuong Nguyen Xuan  ^{4*}

¹ Institute of Engineering, HUTECH University, Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam

² Gdynia Maritime University, Faculty of Marine Engineering, Poland

³ Gdansk University of Technology, Poland

⁴ PATET Research Group, Ho Chi Minh City University of Transport, Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam

⁵ School of Mechanical Engineering, Hanoi University of Science and Technology, Hanoi, Viet Nam

* Corresponding authors: phuong@ut.edu.vn (Phuong Nguyen Xuan)
tuan.phamminh@hust.edu.vn (Minh Tuan Pham)

ABSTRACT

Due to recent emission-associated regulations imposed on marine fuel, ship owners have been forced to seek alternate fuels, in order to meet the new limits. The aim of achieving low-carbon shipping by the year 2050, has meant that alternative marine fuels, as well as various technological and operational initiatives, need to be taken into account. This article evaluates and examines recent clean fuels and novel clean technologies for vessels. The alternative fuels are classified as low-carbon fuels, carbon-free fuels, and carbon neutral fuels, based on their properties. Fuel properties, the status of technological development, and existing challenges are also summarised in this paper. Furthermore, researchers have also investigated energy-saving devices and discovered that zero-carbon and virtually zero-carbon clean fuels, together with clean production, might play an important part in shipping, despite the commercial impracticability of existing costs and infrastructure. More interestingly, the transition to marine fuel is known to be a lengthy process; thus, early consensus-building, as well as action-adoption, in the maritime community is critical for meeting the expectations and aims of sustainable marine transportation.

Keywords: Marine engine; Alternative fuel; Green maritime; Fuel savings; Low-carbon strategy

INTRODUCTION

As to meet climate change goals, as well as reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, it is crucial for the shipping industry to drastically decarbonise and transition to an eco-friendlier future [1], [2]effectively promoted the marine low sulfur diesel fuel (MLSD). Obviously, important international protocols and events, as well as academic and government agendas, all contribute to triggering and responding to the issues which this sector encounters as it strives to become more environmentally friendly and sustainable [3], [4]Most importantly, awareness of the definition of ,decarbonisation'

is critical, since it refers to the ,reduction or entire removal of CO₂ emissions' according to reports of International Maritime Organization (IMO) [5], [6]. The fourth GHG Survey, which was released in August 2020, established significant goals for the shipping industry, including a 50% reduction in yearly GHG emissions by 2050, compared with those in 2008 [7], [8]. It is not hard to see that the IMO will attempt to reach the above-mentioned goals by using energy efficiency approaches and novel methods such as using alternative fuels that could be applied in the short, medium, and long-term [9], [10]. Fig. 1 shows the IMO's ship-enhancement strategy for reducing CO₂ emissions between 2013 and 2050 [11].

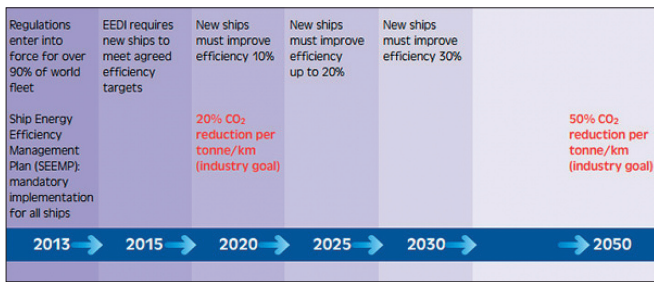


Fig. 1. IMO agreement for reduction of CO₂ emission from ships [11]

In fact, international shipping's decarbonisation has been slow because of the sector's stakeholders' disparate and diversified aspirations and interests. Arguments at the IMO have been marked by sharp disagreement over how and whether this field should conform with the Paris Agreement's aims. The existing IMO GHG reduction roadmap suggested a slow decision-making process in the implementation of critical actions and regulations [12], [13]. With no precise, ambitious, and enforceable aims, the industry would have no motivation to invest in low-carbon techniques on a large scale. This could be explained by the significant risk and uncertainty related to investment in low-carbon methods, which are generally more expensive. As a result, policy uncertainty might hinder innovation in low-carbon techniques and fuels. Regarding the primary factors impeding progress in establishing an aggressive target, the lack of rigorous investigations, analysing the technical feasibility of decarbonising international maritime transportation, was mentioned, particularly in light of the Paris Agreement's more ambitious target of 1.5°C temperature limitation [14]. Significantly, shipping was identified as a substantial source of anthropogenic NO_x and SO_x emissions in recent research, accounting for 15% and 13% of global NO_x and SO_x emissions, respectively [15]–[18]. Furthermore, maritime shipping is also known as the principal source of black carbon in the Arctic Circle [19], as well as a considerable source of CO₂ and particulate matter, released through human activities [20]. For the aforementioned reasons, the IMO established goals targeted at gradually decreasing the ships and ports' carbon intensity, with general goals of decarbonising the marine field by the end of the century [21]–[23]. It has been noted that stakeholder-led initiatives, along with the regulations mentioned above, were compelling ship-owners to change their operational practices, to install on-board air contamination control devices, such as SO_x scrubbers and selective catalytic reduction, as well as to diversify their fuel categories to include alternative low-carbon and low-sulphur fuels [24], [25]. Hence, the newly discovered demand for alternative fuels offers exciting potential for investment in the expansion and diversification of the blend of maritime fuels [26].

The combination of improvements in energy efficiency and a shift to energy carriers with low or zero-carbon could lead to a high probability of achieving very low (even zero) GHG emissions discharged from shipping [27]. Electricity, biofuels, and electrofuels derived from renewable sources of energy (e.g. solar, wind and biomass) are examples of energy carriers that emit little or no GHG during their life cycle [28], [29]. Energy

efficient approaches, on the other hand, are those that need to go hand-in-hand with operational measures, such as:

- capacity utilisation and voyage optimisation,
- technical approaches,
- enhancements in hull design and changes in propulsion and power systems.

The emission reduction potential of various strategies have been examined and the findings show that one of the best and most gratifying approaches to achieve the required potential emission reduction is a shift to alternative fuels and the use of energy-saving techniques [30], [31]. The primary goal for this work was to look at the role of alternative fuels, as well as energy-saving measures, in decarbonising maritime transportation, which requires providing not only short-term GHG reductions but also engine solutions and tank arrangements, that could easily be adjusted to run on fuels with very low or zero carbon (if available) and are efficient in utilising fuel or technological ship operation solutions, to decrease GHG emissions.

SOLUTIONS TO MANAGE CO₂ EMISSION FROM SHIPS

Previous studies have asserted that a target of at least 50% emissions reduction should be possible at zero net cost by 2030, if low-cost energy savings were to be fully exploited in supporting investments in more costly solutions [32]. The above difference, between the energy efficiency potential and the level of realised energy efficiency, is referred to as the energy efficiency gap [33], [34]. This is an important issue that needs to be thoroughly considered if the shipping industry is to make a substantial effort in working towards a low-carbon future for global maritime transport [35], [36]. Indeed, if all available energy efficiency and carbon mitigation measures are to be implemented, the projected growth in shipping activities could achieve remarkable results, in terms of decreasing energy demands and zero-net reduction in CO₂ emissions. In other words, the reduction in emissions achieved by measures taken by various shipping companies effectively cancels out the growth in energy consumption resulting from the sector's growth [37]–[39]. To further highlight the sector's role in combating climate change, the European Commission has recently called for the global shipping industry to set a target for 2050: to achieve 40-50% CO₂ emissions reduction compared to 2005 levels [40].

Indeed, the problem of handling CO₂ emissions in current world shipping conditions is not only a technological one, but is intertwined with highly sophisticated and multifaceted governmental factors. As the main intergovernmental body governing international maritime activities, the IMO adopted two key policy measures during the 62nd meeting of its Maritime Environment Protection Committee (MEPC) in July 2011. More importantly, in order to lower CO₂ emissions released from ocean-going vessels, the EEDI (Energy Efficiency Design Index), applying exclusively to novel vessels, and the SEEMP (Ship Energy Efficiency Management Plan) needed to persuade vessel owners and operators to take CO₂ emission-cutting

measures for their fleet. Unfortunately, the rise in emissions is likely to continue, despite these actions [41]. While emission reduction is affected by other actors (e.g. port authorities) [42], [43], a substantial portion of the expected reduction is likely to come from improvements in ship compliance to the standards set by SEEMP (i.e. operational and retrofit measures to increase ship energy efficiency) [41]. When considering the goal of CO₂ emissions reduction in the shipping industry, the entire vessel and its operation should be subjected to analysis. Therefore, detailed discussions are provided on emission reduction strategies through reviewing emission control mechanisms for marine diesel engines, as the main ship engine propulsion, using the concept of EEDI given in Eq. (1). This indicates the amount of CO₂ emissions from diesel engines with CF as the conversion coefficient for CO₂ [44].

$$\text{EEDI}(\text{g}(\text{CO}_2/\text{ton}/\text{mile})) = \frac{\text{Engine power (kW)} \times \text{Fuel consumption rate (g/kWh)} \times \text{CF}}{\text{DWT (ton)} \times \text{Speed (mile/h)}} \quad (1)$$

In fact, the IMO implemented various technical methods to achieve the long-term goal of reducing GHG, which included the EEDI and SEEMP [45]. Notably, the EEDI required all vessels built after 2013 to have a certain minimum energy efficiency, assessed in grams of CO₂ emitted per capacity-mile. Indeed, EEDI was a regulatory measure designed to reduce the carbon intensity and enhance operating efficiency of a ship; nevertheless, the EEDI only concentrated on gate-to-gate ship emissions [46]. Significantly, critics expressed concerns that the EEDI might understate carbon reductions [47] and comprehensive systems analysis, such as the production of feedstock, raw materials acquisition, and the conversion and consumption of fuel in maritime vessels, was essential to evaluate the environmental impacts on a broad scale, as well as the advantages of alternative marine fuels [48], [49]. This life cycle viewpoint captured environmental externalities that traditional measurements could not and it could assist in offsetting unforeseen environmental implications of marine fuel usage, such as transferring environmental challenges between supply chain segments or pollutant classifications. While EEDI established performance criteria for novel ship design and construction, the SEEMP primarily addressed energy-saving options at the operating level of both current and new ships over 400 GRT. Similar to EEDI, SEEMP was made mandatory, requiring fleet owners and companies to take immediate action to improve the energy efficiency of their operations following a four-step process: i) planning, ii) implementation, iii) monitoring, and iv) self-evaluation and improvement. Moreover, the IMO created the EEOI (Energy Efficiency Operational Indicator) as an operational measuring tool to assess the energy efficiency and CO₂ emissions of vessels, in order to monitor compliance with SEEMP. Lower EEOI values indicate better ship energy efficiency and are calculated by Eq. (2):

$$\text{EEOI} = \frac{\text{Eactual CO}_2 \text{ emission}}{\text{performed transport work}} \quad (2)$$

More interestingly, with the creation of the EEOI, vessel owners and operators could access an indicator used to monitor individual ship operations in real time. As a result, any prospective alterations to the ship's structural design and operation could be evaluated according to their effects on the general efficiency performance. Although the EEOI was usually used to evaluate the energy efficiency of vessels under the SEEMP framework, there was controversy in the shipping industry because utilising such an indicator to compare ship performance was thought to be incorrect and inaccurate [50]. The IMO introduced the IMO Data Collection System in MEPC.278 (70), which came into force in 2018. This data collection system provides information about the fuel consumption of vessels. Measuring the actual transport work, in terms of tonne miles, requires information about the distance travelled and the cargo mass. The cargo on the ships is generally viewed as sensitive information and so this information is not included in the DCS. Therefore, the Annual Efficiency Ratio (AER), known to be a simple component, quantified the vessels' energy efficiency regarding GHG emissions per transportation work, which assumed a constant cargo value based on the ship's deadweight tonnage.

$$\text{AER} = \frac{\text{actual CO}_2 \text{ emission}}{\text{DWT} \times \text{distance}} \quad (3)$$

In order to comprehensively evaluate the reduction measures of GHG emissions, the 5th GHG Working Group and MEPC-74 discussed the methods of approach to reduce GHG emissions given in Table 1.

Tab. 1. Measures for reducing GHG emission of IMO [51]

Measures	Main measure	Remarks
Technical measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Energy efficiency such as light advanced materials, waste heat recovery, optimisation of design, improvement of propulsion devices, reduction of friction. Green/renewable/alternative energy such as biofuels, H₂, NH₃, LNG, fuel cell, renewable energy sources (solar, wind, wave and tide, geothermal); electricity. 	EEDI framework
Operational measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Optimisation of ship speed and size, improvement of ship-port interface, enhancement of on-shore power. 	SEEMP/EEOI/EEXI
Market-based measures (MBM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emission trading, efficiency incentive, GHG fund or tax. 	MBM

APPLICATION OF CLEAN AND RENEWABLE ENERGY FOR SHIPS

Reducing the reliance of marine vessels on fossil fuels is part of the strategy to attain a more sustainable and low-carbon future for the global shipping industry. This is achieved via introducing alternative and cleaner fuel options to power ships [52], [53]. Ship propulsion systems (aboard commercial ships) are mostly powered by gas turbines, diesel engines, or steam, in which diesel engines accounts for the vast bulk of the available fleet [54]. In spite of their rarity, electric generators running on diesel and oil-fired boilers can be observed on

several vessels. Besides this, several kinds of vessel propulsion power systems, including gas turbines, traditional reciprocating internal combustion engines, and boilers, are investigated in the following section, for the employment of low-carbon fuels, and with the aim of replacing traditional fossil fuels. Researchers have shown interest in the possible applications of more appealing alternative fuels (such as H₂, LNG, ammonia, and biofuels) in propulsion systems of vessels and such prospective low-carbon fuels have been examined in the laboratory, as well as at pilot scales. It was noted that the fuel coefficient is determined by the carbon concentration (CC, m/m) of the fuel; this is the product of the carbon concentration and carbon fuel coefficient ($C_{FF} = C_{FC} \cdot CC$) [55]. Fig. 2a illustrates the coefficients for various alternative and marine fuels. Among the fuels used for ships, Bouman et al. [30] discovered that biofuels had the single greatest potential in lowering CO₂ emissions among all the methods investigated. Fig. 2b depicts the life cycle GHG

emissions of a variety of bio-based fuel and fossil-fuel approaches and these are documented in the paper as a series of boxplots. In spite of the wide range of results, biofuels showed a considerable ability to decrease life cycle GHG emissions, when compared to HFO, as well as fossil alternatives [56].

LNG

Because liquefied natural gas (LNG) has low carbon content, it is considered a potentially appealing fuel for the maritime sector. Furthermore, methane (CH₄) is the primary chemical molecule found in natural gas, which contains a higher density of energy compared to diesel fuel derived from petroleum [63], [64]. In addition, natural gas is known to be a cleaner-burning fuel compared with diesel and HFO because it emits less SO_x, NO_x, and PM [26], [65]. Apart from that, because LNG has high energy density, compared to other hydrocarbons or

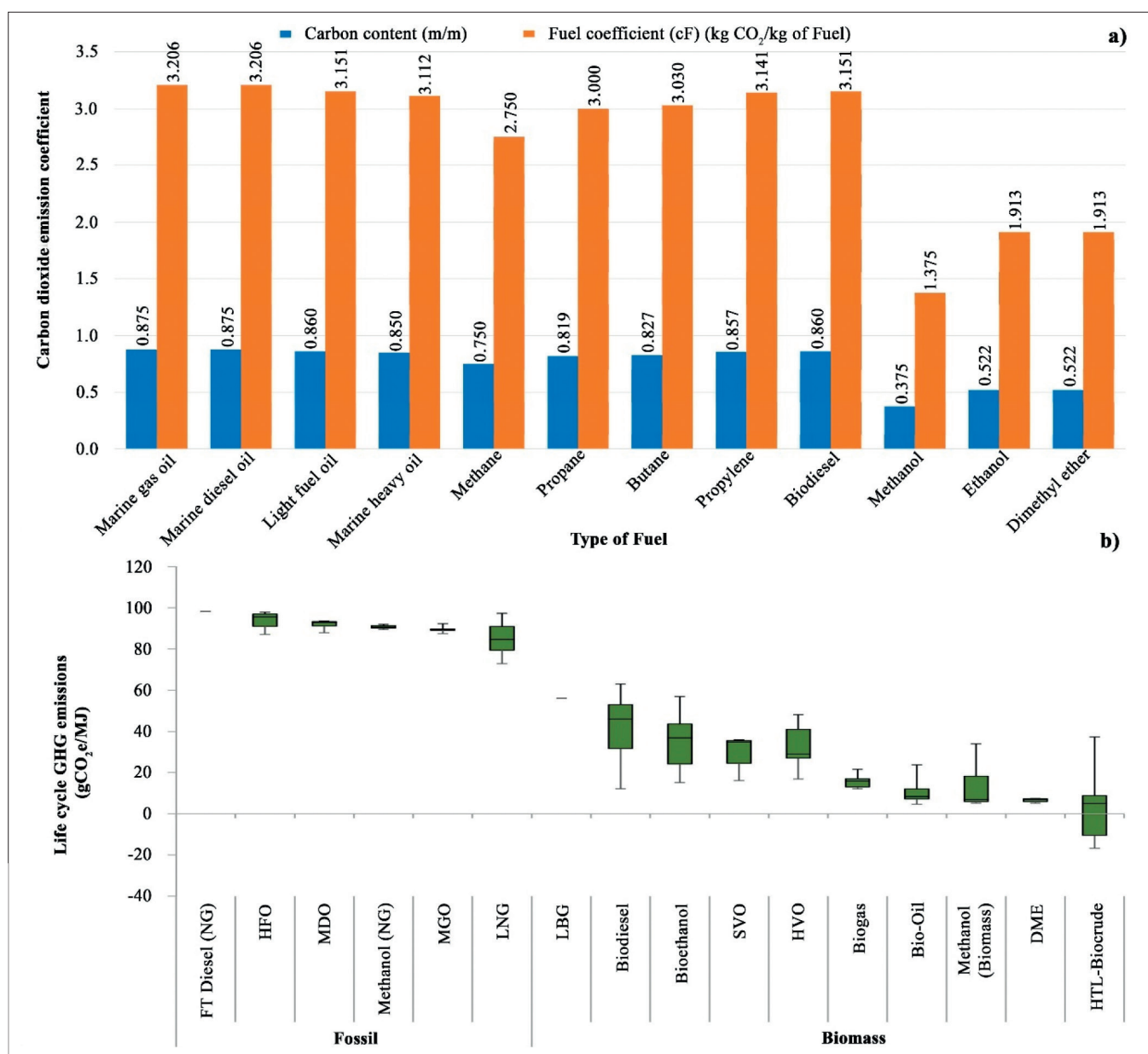


Fig. 2. (a) – CO₂ emission coefficient for various fuels used for ships [55]; (b) – Life cycle GHG emissions of various fuel types used for ships [56]–[62]

alcohol-sourced fuels, it plays a vital part in progressing the final aims. Indeed, LNG was identified as the best fossil alternative for the replacement of MGO and HFO, since it emits 30% less GHG and contains no NO_x or SO_x [66]. It should be noted that, although the first ship running on LNG was built in 2000, there are now 55 operating around the world; because of ECA laws, their activities are primarily in North America (38%) and Europe (57%). More importantly, for internal combustion engines running on LNG, the gas has to be stored at a temperature of -162°C [67], [68]. Nonetheless, LNG is still mostly derived from fossil fuels, so bio-LNG was suggested as a potential renewable decarbonisation source, in the document. In fact, biomass could be converted into biomethane in two ways: thermochemical gasification, known as bio-synthetic natural gas (bio-SNG), and bio-methane [69], [70], which can be liquefied and stored in tanks, to be utilised in LNG terminals [71].

The conversion of the main engine of a vessel from diesel fuel to dual-fuel (diesel and LNG) is capable of lowering CO₂ emissions by up to 10% [72]. Anderson et al. [73] studied the emission properties of a ship running on LNG with four dual-fuel engines rated as 30,400 kW at various loads. LNG's CO₂ emissions were reported to be lower, compared to those of marine fuel oils. The combustion of LNG, on the other hand, caused greater HC and CO emissions. Li et al. [74] obtained similar results with a maritime dual-fuel diesel engine at high speeds. Thus, LNG not only has a good environmental impact because of its lower CO₂ emissions, but it also brings a significant cost benefit [72], [75]. In addition, evaluating the environmental advantages of switching from HFO to natural gas by changing the average emission parameters of NO_x, SO_x, PM, and CO₂, for both LNG and HFO, for diesel engines with two strokes and using the same power and operating hours (in the case of an engine running on dual-fuel) were also found in studies of Banawan et al. [72] and Gerilla et al. [76]. With the use of statistical analysis, researchers discovered that switching from HFO to LNG reduced PM, SO_x, CO₂, and NO_x emissions by approximately 96%, 98%, 11%, and 86%, respectively [77].

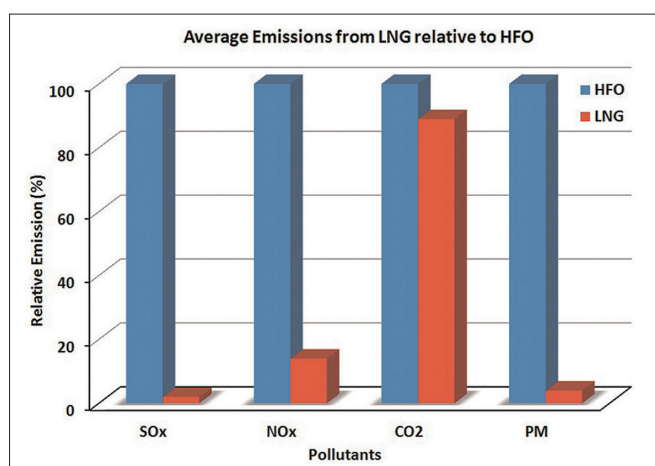


Fig. 3. Pollutants from ships using LNG compared to HFO [77]

More significantly, because of the costlier propulsion plant, related technology and procurement issues, the capital expenses for LNG-powered vessels are likely to be greater than those for

conventionally powered ones. Interestingly, the LNG tank was considered the most expensive component of the additional expenditure required for all ships. According to market sources, the additional capital cost could range from 5-20 million USD, based on the tank and engine capacity [78], [79]. The key elements affecting payback time included (i) - ECA exposure, and (ii) - the price of LNG fuel. Even though the limit of global sulphur in the year 2020 or 2025 would enhance the business case, by requiring mandatory compliance for the whole journey, the uncertainty of the LNG fuel's availability and pricing makes vessel owners and operators cautious. In general, the additional expenses for a ship running on LNG (mostly applying to merchant ships like tankers, bulkers, and containers) was 15-30% of the cost of a newly built conventional ship [79]. In spite of the regulatory momentum, most major impediments to LNG adoption as a marine bunker are the financial and commercial uncertainties related to the LNG fuel price and its availability (bunkering facilities), and the considerable additional investment required. According to the current market status, the only ships that are likely to apply LNG as a fuel are those running on fixed routes such as containerships, or RoRo, and rather large ships participating in regional trades, particularly in ECAs [78], [80], [81]. Furthermore, the global sulphur restriction, which would come into effect in 2025, as well as the EU's sulphur limit for EU waters (2020), bolstered LNG's position as a marine fuel. When the afore-mentioned laws took effect, it was envisaged that larger ocean-going ships (namely tankers and bulkers) would investigate LNG as a compliance choice [79], [82].

BIODIESEL

As reported, biodiesel is considered to be one of the renewable sources of alternative energy and it has been studied by the world's oil industry because demand for fossil fuel is increasing, leading to high prices [83], [84]. Interestingly, biodiesel has nearly the same functional features as fossil fuels but is environmentally friendly, so it is regarded as a superior alternative [85]–[87]. Besides the sustainability of biodiesel production, its benefits also include a significant reduction in carbon emissions, more environment related job opportunities, a reduction in the requirement for imported fossil fuel, and a decrease in fuel costs. Furthermore, biodiesel can be used in diesel engines directly, with no modification required although some drawbacks of biodiesel should be overcome [88], [89]. It is easy to see why biodiesel gained favour as a greener alternative fuel and, recently, most scientists and researchers utilised edible and non-edible feedstocks to create more cost-effective bio-based diesel mixtures and boost the physicochemical features of the blends [90]–[93].

In fact, the study of biodiesel fuel in the marine field has been ongoing since 1998. The Great Lakes Environment Research Group conducted extensive biodiesel testing on board the NOAA Huron Explorer research ship, which was the first US vessel powered by alternative fuel and operated entirely without the use of petroleum products [94]. After eight years, the Great Lakes Maritime Research Institute conducted investigations on various technical issues related to the biodiesel fuel employed in marine engines. They stated that biodiesel served as a solvent and

might harm the rubber and elastomer components used in the engine. Moreover, in 2003, the Annis Water Research Institute carried out another investigation on Detroit and Cummins' diesel-fuelled engines, utilising the same feedstock. They claimed that using B20 soybean would have a small effect on the engine, while causing no harm to machinery equipment [95]. The BioMer Canada research team employed neat bio-based diesel on several sizes of marine ships, in October 2004; their testing resulted in a successful outcome, with a rise in engine performance of 2-3% with the use of bio-derived diesel [96]. Moreover, BV energy tested biodiesel on a MAN diesel engine with 975-kW, placed on a luxury boat in 2007. Consequently, they stressed that before transitioning from marine gasoline to bio-originated diesel, fuel filters should constantly be adjusted and fuel tanks should be cleaned [97]. The Royal Caribbean Cruise Line fleet's biodiesel initiative began with the testing of 5-100% bio-based diesel on their GE LM2500 gas turbine. The findings showed that biodiesel gasoline, soot and other pollutants greatly decreased [98], [99]. Notably, MAN Diesel Company, which is a global designer and engine manufacturer, has been working with biodiesel since 1994. They investigated various biodiesel feedstocks in order to figure out the best fuel for their engines. In Copenhagen, Denmark, the first biodiesel experiment on their low-speed engines with two strokes was conducted in 2006 [100]. In 2007, MAN Diesel utilised palm biodiesel in their medium speed engine with four strokes in Belgium, marking a new milestone. MAN Diesel currently offers a large selection of marine engines which can be ideally used with biodiesel fuel with no changes. Apart from that, Rolls-Royce, the world's largest maker of medium-speed engines, indicated that they had no experience with bio-derived diesel on their engines, but biodiesel needed to be suitable for marine engines in general. In addition, following multiple buyer requests, they wanted to devote greater attention to alternative fuel in future [94]. Caterpillar Incorporated, a marine engine manufacturer in the US, has considerable experience with the use of biodiesel. Investigations on Caterpillar ferry engines suggested that biodiesel could be utilised smoothly in the short term. Hence, additional research was conducted to determine the potential implications of using bio-derived diesel in marine engines in the long run. Most of Caterpillar's novel and older marine diesel engines could now employ up to 30% biodiesel with no adjustment [65], [99].

METHANOL

Methanol is another widely used alcoholic fuel [101], [102]. Indeed, methanol can be manufactured from natural gas or derived by gasifying biomass on an industrial scale. Because of its low CO₂ and other air pollution emissions, methanol, especially bio-methanol, was seen as a more environmentally friendly and more sustainable fuel for the maritime sector [103]. In the case of large marine engines, not only the transformation of existing engines, but also the fabrication of novel dual-fuel engines, aiming to operate methanol, was completed successfully in a few cases [104], [105]. In fact, methanol was extensively examined and utilised in spark-ignited car engines for many years, with minimal modifications necessary [106]. These days, bio-methanol and

bio-ethanol generation from biomass could take advantage of a well-established supply network. Nonetheless, there are still economic hurdles that have to be solved in order to allow the afore-mentioned alternative fuels to compete with conventional petroleum-originated fuels [106]. More importantly, since the world's supply of alcoholic fuels taken from renewable resources has increased, bio-methanol and bio-ethanol have tremendous potential in the shipping sector. However, more storage space would be required because methanol has a lower energy density than fossil fuels. As reported, there are presently 13 ships running on methanol worldwide [107]. Methanol combustion, as the major fuel employed to power marine boats, has been observed to release less CO₂ and other air contaminants than HFO or MGO [108], [109]. In 2015, the MS Stena Germanica became the first marine ship to be powered by recovered methanol.

After investigating the use of methanol in a diesel engine with dual-fuel mode operations, Song et al. [110] gained great fuel economy and engine power, as well as lower levels of particulate and nitrous oxide emissions. Furthermore, Wärtsilä, a marine engine manufacturer, studied different methanol combustion methods for engine conversion on the Stena Germanica ferry and chose one in which the methanol was burnt using a moderate amount of pilot fuel [111]. Since 2015, retrofitted engines based on this design have been functioning satisfactorily [111]. The MAN engine manufacturers also tested methanol in low speed two-stroke LGI engines, employing a pilot fuel ignition approach, and the experiments were deemed a success. In 2016, the engines were mounted aboard seven novel chemical tankers [112]. In fact, methanol engines installed in smaller ships (pilot boats, road ferries, and commuter ferries) were not yet commercially viable but were being developed. Some proposals for the use of methanol in small marine engines (with power ranging from 250 to 1200 kW) were evaluated as part of the Swedish study project SUMMETH [113]. The 'Billion Miles' company, located in Singapore, developed a 100% methanol engine for harbour craft, with the prototype engine being assessed at a technical readiness level of 8-9 of 10 [114]. Therefore, various engine manufacturers, programmes and other efforts have evaluated methanol engines for marine applications, including large and small engines, with promising technical outcomes [106]. In assessing the potential application of methanol/ethanol as alternative fuels for marine vessels, an evaluation was conducted by the European Maritime Safety Agency on the benefits and challenges of these resources, in terms of the technical, operational, and economic factors, supply availability, environmental impacts, and safety regulations [115]. Despite the potential positive environmental effects, both methanol and ethanol still face considerable obstacles in their application to marine vessels, due to the lack of adequate safety instructions, operational experience, and capable infrastructure to satisfy the need for bunkering.

HYDROGEN AND HYDROGEN CARRIERS

Because of the near-zero emissions (such as PM, CO₂, and SO₂, etc.) throughout the combustion process, hydrogen (H₂) is regarded as a clean type of fuel and so it has the potential to become a cleaner alternative to traditional fossil fuels [116].

Moreover, H₂ fuel could be used in boilers, gas turbines, and internal combustion engines [117]–[119]. Spark-ignition engines, in particular, could better tolerate H₂ fuel because the temperature of auto-ignition is really high (about 585°C) [120], [121].

All of the existing major shipping fuels are hydrocarbons. The H₂/carbon ratio is considered to be an important factor since a greater proportion can lead to a fuel that is more energy-efficient and discharges fewer CO₂ emissions [122], [123]. Thus, H₂ or H₂ carriers could become a zero-emission alternative for future transport [124]–[126]. Currently, the majority of vessels utilise combustion technologies in the form of diesel engines. Although H₂ could be utilised to power a diesel engine, retrofitting would necessitate major changes due to the dissimilar combustion rates of H₂ compared to the currently employed fuels [127]. However, with the proper infrastructure, de-Troya et al. [128] proposed that H₂ engine performance might outperform oil-derived fuels because of its high gravitational energy density and flammability. Significantly, a fuel cell was considered the most efficient way to extract energy from H₂. Several small vessels running on H₂ have been built with relatively low energy consumption, e.g. the Energy Observer or the Hamburg Ferry [129], [130].

In the shipping industry, H₂ has been the focus of studies into viable ship engine types, investigating the benefits from the fuel's increased power density, as well as the lower emissions of pollutants. More importantly, taking the evaluation of the life cycle into consideration, H₂ utilised in marine transportation (even as a fuel employed in a dual-fuel engine mixed with other types of fossil fuel) was observed to have the potential to decrease CO₂ emissions by up to 40% per unit of transport task [131]. Even though H₂ is largely accepted in maritime fuel cell applications, the applications of marine motors powered by H₂ remain rare. Wärtsilä tested spark-ignited engines fuelled by LNG and H₂ in two modes, including single fuel and dual fuel, and discovered that current dual-fuel marine engines could only operate with the largest amount of 25% H₂ mixture with no modification [132]. Hence, the engine had to be modified if the H₂ ratios exceeded 25%. CMB's passenger ship 'Hydroville' has been recognised as the first sea-going ship fitted with dual-fuel engines, such as H₂ and diesel, in the world. More intriguingly, HyMethShip created a technique for ships to use H₂ and generate methanol through storing only methanol and CO₂ aboard, with the goal of eliminating the obstacles related to storing H₂ [133]. For liquefied H₂ storage, it demonstrated that the tank capacity for liquid H₂ was double that of LNG. Hence, with engine technologies based on methanol, the disadvantage mentioned above for H₂ marine engines can be solved, as shown in Fig. 4.

Ammonia had a pre-existing worldwide supply chain but mostly in the field of fertilisers, with a total annual production of 176 million tons in 2018 [134]. As a result, pre-existing worldwide safety regulations were considered advantageous and production scaling might be less difficult. Current ammonia generation methods typically employ fossil fuels to generate H₂ feedstock, followed by the Haber-Bosch process, which is extremely energy intensive because high pressures (20 MPa) and high temperatures (500°C) are required [135]–[137]. Consequently, ammonia generation now comprises 2% of the

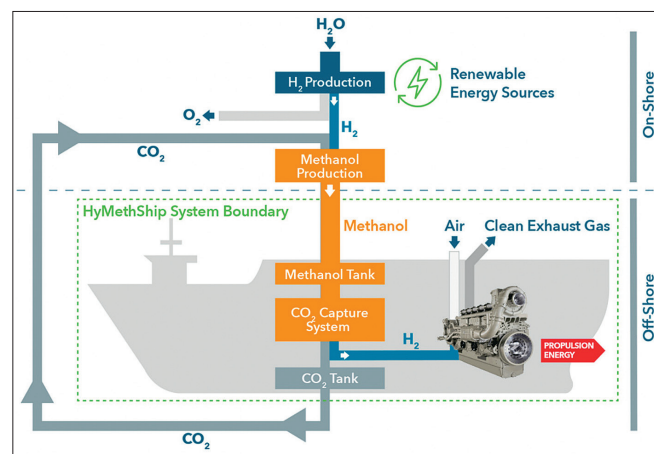


Fig. 4. HyMethShip with the engine running on H₂ and integrated in a methanol production system [133]

world's energy consumption and 1% of CO₂ emissions, making it the most energy-consuming chemical product [136]. Thus, expanding ammonia manufacturing for applications in maritime propulsion might lead to an enormous increase in emissions, unless the process can be decarbonised [130].

In dual-fuel mode, diesel fuel is mixed with ammonia fuel in order to start combustion and ammonia is partially broken to create a H₂ gas mixture. Even though ammonia can be utilised directly as a fuel in fuel cells under high temperature, the ammonia cracking process has broadened its applicability in internal combustion engines [138]. Furthermore, the ability to partially split ammonia allows internal combustion engines to operate more flexibly. In terms of maritime transportation, employing ammonia as a marine fuel in traditional marine engines is still being researched and developed, but with limited uses [139]. Indeed, the power which could be produced by a four-stroke diesel engine with ammonia acting as the fuel could match that produced by the same engine when fed conventional diesel fuel [140]. More interestingly, the world's largest diesel engine manufacturer has been developing a two-stroke diesel engine that would run on ammonia as its principal fuel [141]. According to the statistics released by the European Transportation and Environment Group, the quantity of ammonia needed for conventional marine engines aboard vessels would be in the region of 1230 MWh annually by 2050 [142]. Moreover, Bicer et al. [143] highlighted the overall environmental benefits of employing ammonia in traditional marine diesel engines without providing any particular results. Meanwhile, MAERSK [144] has stated, in a technical report, that ammonia could become one of the greatest positioned fuels for conventional marine power factories to achieve zero net emission goals.

LPG

It should be noted that the components of LPG are similar to those of LNG; however, unlike LNG, LPG liquefies at an ambient temperature and steady pressure, without the necessity for low-temperature cooling to -162°C. Apart from that, LPG has been demonstrated to be economically attractive, in terms of shorter payback periods [145], [146], lower investment expense,

and less vulnerability to fuel price variations [147], [148]. Furthermore, because most materials employed in fuel supply systems and LPG storage tanks are considered appropriate for ammonia storage, it is conceivable to reduce the compulsory methods for future conversion into ammonia fuel storage tanks [149]. There are significant commercial examples of its use in huge vessels utilising the ME-LGIP engine, built by MAN-ES and powered by LPG fuel [147], [150]. According to the World LPG Association, 71 LPG-fuelled ships were scheduled to be in operation by 2022. As for vessels of small and medium size, technological development and commercialisation is underway, with a focus on small boat outboard motors in the US and Europe. Despite this, the level of development of LPG engines that could be commercialised for ships of small to medium size, is still low [151]. In terms of volume, the small and medium vessel market is equivalent to the large vessel industry; however, it copes with significant technological challenges in the deployment of LPG in vessels, [152].

Nowadays, utilising LPG as an alternative fuel for internal combustion engines has gained popularity, despite the fact that LPG plays a trivial role in the marine industry and the shipping domain. The vast majority of diesel engines continue to use CNG and LNG as alternative fuels [153]. Nevertheless, since the 2020 IMO mandate was put into effect, LPG has received some attention because the use of LPG in marine engines powered by mono fuel lowered CO₂ emissions by roughly 10-20%, although a diesel-powered marine engine has greater thermal efficiency. Speaking of dual-fuel marine engines, it was noted that a small amount of diesel fuel is still utilised to start the ignition before switching to LPG combustion [146]. As reported, marine engines can operate using up to 3% diesel and 97% LPG fuel, resulting in low CO₂ emissions. More importantly, dual-fuel diesel engines were thought to be more efficient since they have excellent performance and dependability when compared to diesel engines that only run on diesel fuel. Wärtsilä and MAN

undertook an investigation, employing LPG for tri-fuel engines that were powered by LNG, diesel, and LPG, according to a recent report. Furthermore, Wärtsilä conducted the first experiment on a container vessel with 7300 TEU. Even though these studies were preliminary, applying LPG could be a viable method for decreasing CO₂ emissions [154]. More intriguingly, the MAN B&W engine manufacturer developed a method to reduce CO₂ emissions by using both ammonia and LPG in marine engines [155]; they claim that a small adjustment to the LPG system for applying ammonia would be made, as depicted in Fig. 5.

ENERGY AND FUEL SAVINGS FOR SHIPS

As a general assumption, the relationship between the required power and the speed of the ship can be portrayed in a cubic function. For example, a 10% decrease in the ship's speed corresponds to a 27% drop in the amount of required power. Hence, it is logical to assume that by decreasing the design speed one could save on potential fuel consumption and CO₂ emissions from ships. Moreover, maintaining slower engine speeds can provide better propeller efficiency and further realise additional cost savings. As a potential strategy in reducing shipping emissions, ports can establish regulations and policy incentives to reduce vessel speeds upon entering ports that could result in lower fuel consumption and emissions [156]. Indeed, decreasing ship speed can result in an approximately 8-20% reduction in CO₂ emissions [157]. Other studies have also reached similar conclusions, in which reducing speed by as much as 10% and 20% leads to a potential fuel saving of 15-20% and 40%, respectively [158], [159]. A recent study by Ammar [160] investigated the effects of ship speed on the reduction of CO₂ emissions and the cost-effectiveness of a RO-RO cargo vessel. They indicated that approximately 78.39% of CO₂ emissions, with 287.6 \$/ton CO₂ cost-effectiveness, could be reduced when

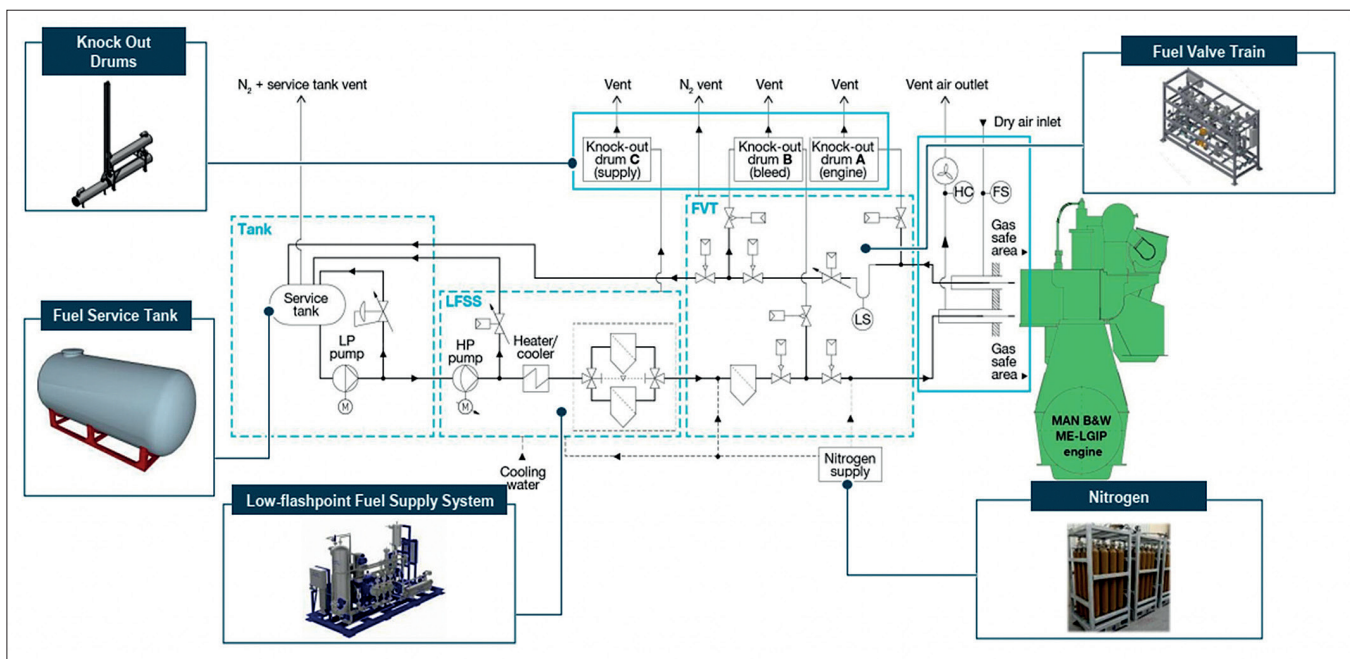


Fig. 5. Scheme of LPG and ammonia system for marine engine suggested by MAN B&W [155]

the ship speed decreased by 40%. In order for the optimisation strategy for ship speed to achieve minimum emissions in the port area, Chang et al. [161] presented a method to estimate the most suitable ship speed. They detected that 12 knots can be considered as the optimised speed to attain both low CO₂ emissions and cost-effectiveness, as shown in Fig. 6a. When combining the slow speed approach with power supply from the onshore grid, potential emission reductions can be as high as 71-91%, as ships are subjected to a 20 nautical mile speed limit within the designated area of the Port of Kaohsiung, Taiwan [161].

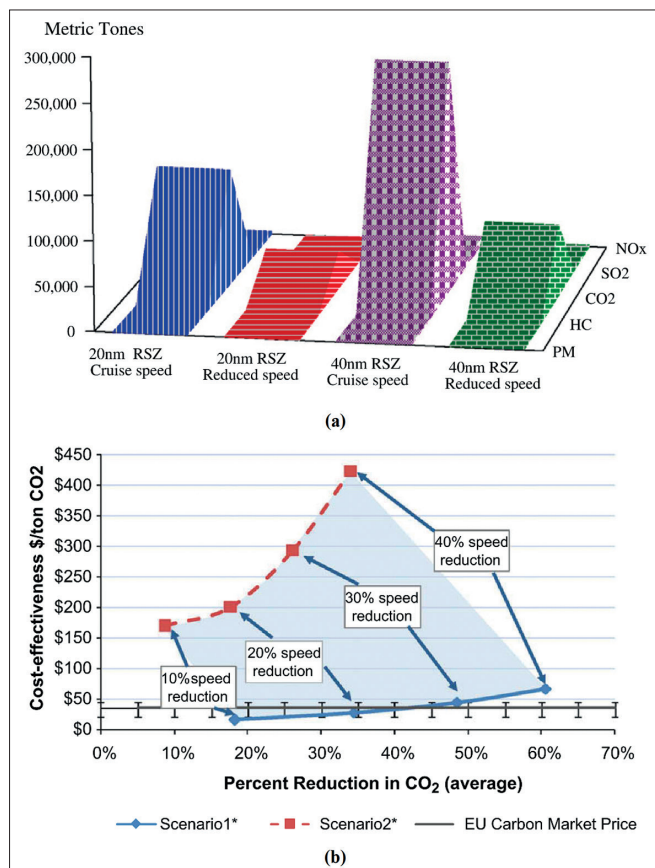


Fig. 6. (a) – Effects of the reduction of ship speed in the reduced speed-zone on emissions [161]; (b) – The marginal reduced-cost for CO₂ emissions using the change in total profit from the reduction of ship speed [162]

Moreover, Woo et al. [163] investigated the impacts of the slow steaming process on CO₂ emissions in liner shipping. They also found that more CO₂ emissions could be decreased in the case of reducing the voyage speed. More importantly, they found that around 90% CO₂ emissions could be reduced on the Asia/Europe route when the ship was operated within a speed range of 15-17 knots. Finally, the optimised result of voyage speed for CO₂ emission data and operating cost was 17.4 knots. According to Yun et al. [164], reducing speed from 24 to 8 knots could obtain up to 48.4% in CO₂ emissions reduction. However, the reduction of ship speed could negatively affect profit. Therefore, Corbett et al. [162] developed a profit-maximising function by incorporating costs relating to the ship speed reduction. They found that \$150/ton for a fuel tax, combined with a reduction of ship speed of about 20–30%, resulted in a maximised reduction

of CO₂ emissions of ships in US ports (Fig. 6b). In general, the reduction of speed, as well as the application of slow steaming to the ship operations in the port area, is considered a feasible approach to reduce CO₂ emissions. The effects of speed reduction or slow steaming of the ship on the decrease of CO₂ emissions in the port area are given in Table 2.

Tab. 2. Reduction level of CO₂ emissions in the port area by the application of speed reduction or slow steaming of the ship

Route/Ports	Applied strategies	CO ₂ emission reduction level	References
Asia/North America	Slow steaming/ Speed reduction	29,400.10 ³ tons	[165], [166]
North Atlantic		5778.10 ³ tons	
Australasia/Oceania		6275.10 ³ tons	
Latin America/Caribbean		16,200.10 ³ tons	
Middle East/South Asia		22,900.10 ³ tons	
Shanghai to Rotterdam		5000.10 ³ tons	[167]
Various ports		0 – 60%	[14], [30], [168]
Kaohsiung Port Taiwan		14% for the bulk vessel; 41% for container vessel	[169]
Port of Gothenburg		50 – 80%	[170]
North Europe-Asia		37%	[171]
Port of Rotterdam		6300 tons	[172]
Taichung Port		20 tons/1000 kW of ship power	[173]

Regarding the management of operational efficiency and emissions at the ship-port interface, measures are considered for the ports that ships are scheduled to arrive at and allowed to moor, also known as ports of call. Studies have provided comparisons of shipping GHG emissions to port emissions in the Port of Barcelona [174]: 63–78% of port emissions in the Port of Oslo [175], 61% in the Port of Gothenburg, 66% in the Port of Osaka, 8% in the Port of Sydney, 18% in the ports of Long Beach [176], and 53% of GHG emissions from the ships at berth in San Pedro Bay [177]. For UK ports, emissions from ships at berth have been observed to be ten times higher than emissions from port operations. Hence, it is suggested that ports should pay more attention and make more of an effort to reduce shipping emissions [178]. The potential of reducing shipping emissions depends on the frequency of port revisits for each vessel. The greater the number of ship calls for a particular ship, the greater the opportunity for emission reduction [176].

In most cases, the order of ships arriving and berthing at ports generally follows a first-come-first-served basis, which could lead to longer turnaround times and higher shipping emissions. In their study, Styhre et al. [176] examined four different ports and observed between 8-88% of GHG emissions from ships docking at these ports. Hence, they recommended reducing turnaround time as a potential strategy in achieving lower GHG

emissions from ports. According to Moon et al. [179], a 30% reduction in turnaround time can reduce CO₂ emissions by up to 37%. In contrast, when turnaround time increases by the same percentage, annual CO₂ emissions are observed to rise by 30.7%. In the case of Johnson et al. [180], their analysis showed that a decrease of 1-4 hours in turnaround time can yield 2-8% in energy savings. Additionally, supportive port policies can facilitate the transition toward shorter ship turnaround times in ports. Other factors that can influence turnaround time include CHE efficiency and mooring operation time [164], [178], [181], [182]. In their study, Navamuel et al. [183] found that the use of an automated mooring system could reduce up to 97% in CO₂ emissions from mooring, when analysing such activities in Ro-Ro/Pax terminals. In Piris et al. [184], automated mooring systems were proposed for the Santander port, which would reduce CO₂ emissions by as much as 76%. The application of automated mooring systems have also been found among major ports in European countries, including Finland, the Netherlands, and Denmark [183]. In another study, Gibbs et al. [178] examined the integration of virtual arrival assistance to enable the exchange of information and communication in optimising the accuracy of arrival and berthing time, vessel speed reduction, and slow steaming. The authors cited a maximum potential fuel saving of up to 27%, while the average figures could be between 12-20%. Several studies have also supported the use of ‘virtual arrival’ as an effective strategy in reducing shipping emissions [172], [182], [185], [186].

The major purpose of EEDI and the plan to manage vessel energy efficiency is to reduce CO₂ emissions discharged from maritime transportation [187], [188]. As shown in Table 1, the emissions reduction targets set by EEDI are listed by each implementation phase in the future. As required by EEDI standards, the IMO regulation requires ships to comply with a minimum of 20% emissions reduction by 2020, followed by a progressive increase to a 30% reduction target, beginning in 2025. Both the vessel’s structural design and operations are subject to these stringent efficiency requirements [46]. Even though the majority of current energy-saving potential is held within the improvements in the structural design of the vessel body, more attention is needed to focus on the efficient operation of marine engines and the potential use of alternative low-carbon forms of energy to power ships. Indeed, the tendency towards the reduction of CO₂ emissions in the world’s shipping industry was mostly driven by increasingly more stringent international rules and advancements in alternative fuel applications. Even though there is a long way to go to fully realise the practical implementations and wide adoption of zero or low-carbon fuel in powering marine vessel engines, the progress which has been made, in both the fuel and efficiency performance of current fossil-fuel-powered engines, is highly commendable and signals a positive future trend. Hence, advances in marine diesel engine efficiency improvements are critical in the current effort to achieve future emission reduction targets. It has been observed that, insofar as the EEDI served as a goal, it was not a particularly difficult one, since the EEDI achieved by newly-built vessels vastly exceeds the existing required EEDI, although they were not compulsory until 2025. This is particularly true of

general cargo vessels and containerships [189], [190]. Notably, the obtained scores frequently do not represent the employment of novel electrical or mechanical technology; however, they could be obtained simply by optimising traditional machinery or changing the hull design [189], [191], [192]. It has been noted that the influence of EEDI on reducing shipping emissions was predicted to be minor: only a negligible change in CO₂ emissions has been identified between non-EEDI and EEDI scenarios [193]. More importantly, the reference years or mandated reductions need to become more ambitious, for the EEDI law to have a greater impact. Besides EEDI, technological approaches cover the technologies used on vessels to help boost their energy efficiency [14]. The techniques described in Table 3 are usually regarded as the key technological methods to boost ship energy efficiency and are covered by a number of documents.

Tab. 3. Relationship between technological solutions and fuel saving level [14], [30], [194]–[201]

Technological solutions	Potential fuel savings
Light materials	Max 10%
Slender hull design	Max 15%
Improvement devices for propulsion	Max 25%
Bulbous bow	Max 7%
Lubrication	Max 9%
Waste heat recovery	Max 4%

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

The use of clean fuels for maritime applications was either confined to certain vessel types or non-existent, which limited the evaluation of alternative fuels from an environmental perspective. Obviously, this reduced the credibility of the results obtained because acquiring emissions data for such an application was incredibly difficult. Remarkably, the widespread use of clean fuels, including ammonia and H₂, might be hampered or delayed because of problems associated with these relatively novel fuels’ underdeveloped infrastructure and supply chains, particularly in the maritime industry; these include high production costs, requirements for special cryogenic storage, and high fuel transportation expenses.

It was necessary for HFO and MDO to be removed steadily and it was proposed that the advancement of vessels running on LNG, LPG ought to be cautious. Thus, power systems powered by H₂ and methanol could be regarded as a primary priority for future investigations and advancement, being the power resolutions for residential and short-sea shipping. Besides, double fuel compression ignition engines were recommended to be broadly applied in order to utilise H₂, methanol, biodiesels, or bioethanol as auxiliary and, after that, essential fuel. Indeed, certain flag, coastal and fuel-generating countries need to conduct more comprehensive life cycle evaluations of more alternative fuels as soon as possible. Infrastructure construction should consider the integrated use of raw materials and the recycled use of intermediate products, with the aim of producing by-products, alternative marine fuels and the cogeneration of power, heating

and cooling. It was noted that this was a significant way to lower manufacturing costs, one of the main factors limiting the widespread use of alternative marine fuels. Moreover, increasing fossil-free energy (namely solar, wind, and nuclear) in the global energy mix and increasing carbon capture, use and storage in the industrial sector on land, could directly mitigate the world's carbon emissions as well as alleviate lifecycle emissions and alternative fuel expenses. More importantly, future research assessing renewable sources of energy consisting of wind and solar power could assist in developing technological improvements to handle the obstacles that restrict the intense employment of the aforementioned energies, like energy storage resolutions, which might cause a decrease in GHG emissions released from maritime transport. Regarding the maritime community, agreement is more potent than divergent and, besides this, decisive action, with respect to the best potential methods, was more essential (as early as possible) compared to the option of waiting or hesitating. Likewise, legal frameworks at local and global scales, as well as financial incentives, need to be passed prior to other plans and, more significantly, countrywide or local regulations and pilot tasks should be prioritised.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This review article provides a general overview of various approaches for lowering CO₂ emissions from ships through thorough consideration of distinct low-carbon fuels, alternative clean renewable sources of energy, and supporting regulatory frameworks. Moreover, further implementation of intelligent energy management systems, energy conversion, consumption monitoring, and battery storage could promote the potential for energy savings.

Through powerful control and operational practices aimed towards a shipping industry that was low-carbon and sustainable, ship owners could obtain effective energy, emissions mitigation and expense savings. The further deployment of clever electricity control systems, electricity transformation, battery storage, and consumption tracking could improve energy savings. Remarkably, a systematic enhancement was needed in shipping enterprises to attain energy savings. The guidelines and regulations that did not focus on the goal of decreasing emissions and obtaining electricity performance needed changing. In fact, biofuels became an appealing choice, when combined with other fuels, owing to their outstanding commercial potential. Nonetheless, the large variety of biofuels available resulted in great diversity in emissions, prices, and usability of the resources mentioned above. In spite of the numerous benefits of biodiesel, some challenges still exist, including higher expenses of generation and feedstock, cold flow features, material compatibility, fuel stability, and a shortage of marine-grade criteria. Hence, in the preceding section, effective techniques and feasible resolutions were presented to achieve the aim of this alternative fuel utilisation in the maritime sector. Also, the introduction of a novel supply of feedstock from second and third generation bio-based diesel could alleviate generation expenses and fuel economy. Recently, there has been a surge in research into novel sources,

including algae and waste oil. Additionally, formal mandates from governmental and international organizations, like the IMO, could support and improve biodiesel applications in the maritime industry. Indeed, H₂ is still a viable future bunker fuel choice, since it produces more energy per unit mass, in comparison with traditional marine fuel, while emitting fewer GHGs. Nonetheless, several barriers, such as manufacturing expenses and the particular handling needs for storage and transportation, were observed, preventing the extensive use of H₂ fuel. More interestingly, ammonia is thought to be a useful H₂ storage medium because it has a greater volumetric H₂ density when compared to liquid H₂. Nevertheless, the quantity of GHG emissions related to the current ammonia manufacturing method is significant; alternative revolutionary technologies, including thermochemical processes and solid-state synthesis, are still being researched and developed. Because of their low volumetric energy densities, it was suggested that H₂, compressed natural gas, and ammonia were only suitable for domestic and short-distance transportation, while liquefied natural gas was preferred for long-distance shipping, when taking economic factors into account. In addition, one benefit of utilising ammonia fuel is that, with simple adjustments, it could readily be compatible with turbines, engines, and burners. Not only H₂ but ammonia also shows promise for totally replacing hydrocarbon fuels. In terms of both technological and economic perspectives, renewable methanol utilised in combination with a diesel engine, provided the best future world's shipping possibility. H₂ and ammonia are known as viable short-sea fuels; nonetheless, the technological routes that combine H₂ with low-temperature fuel cells and ammonia with diesel engines outperform those combining H₂ and diesel engines or ammonia with high temperature fuel cells. Obviously, the evolution of different technological paths and combinations of fuels and propulsion systems is unavoidable, and types of ships and shipping routes are considered critical elements in the majority of appropriate combinations between fuel and technology.

REFERENCES

1. Shell and Deloitte, "Decarbonising Shipping: All Hands on Deck." Shell International BV, 2020.
2. Z. Yang, Q. Tan, and P. Geng, "Combustion and Emissions Investigation on Low-Speed Two-Stroke Marine Diesel Engine with Low Sulfur Diesel Fuel," *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 26, no. 1, 2019, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2019-0017.
3. Z. Korczewski, "Energy and Emission Quality Ranking of Newly Produced Low-Sulphur Marine Fuels," *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 77–87, Dec. 2022, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2022-0045.
4. O. Konur, C. O. Colpan, and O. Y. Saatcioglu, "A comprehensive review on organic Rankine cycle systems used as waste heat recovery technologies for marine applications," *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, vol. 44, no. 2, pp. 4083–4122, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2022.2072981.

5. E. Abdelhameed and H. Tashima, "Experimental investigation on methane inert gas dilution effect on marine gas diesel engine performance and emissions," *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, vol. 44, no. 2, pp. 3584–3596, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2022.2067603.
6. G. Mallouppas and E. A. Yfantis, "Decarbonization in Shipping Industry: A Review of Research, Technology Development, and Innovation Proposals," *J. Mar. Sci. Eng.*, vol. 9, no. 4, p. 415, Apr. 2021, doi: 10.3390/jmse9040415.
7. IMO, "Fourth IMO GHG study 2020," 2020.
8. A. Romano and Z. Yang, "Decarbonisation of shipping: A state of the art survey for 2000–2020," *Ocean Coast. Manag.*, vol. 214, p. 105936, Nov. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2021.105936.
9. B. Bradley and R. Hoyland, "Decarbonisation and Shipping: International Maritime Organization Ambitions and Measures," 2020. .
10. A. T. Hoang and V. V. Pham, "A review on fuels used for marine diesel engines," *J. Mech. Eng. Res. Dev.*, vol. 41, no. 4, pp. 22–32, 2018.
11. International Chamber of Shipping, "Environmental Performance: IMO Agreement on Technical Regulations to Reduce Ships' CO₂," 2017. .
12. Z. Wan, A. el Makhoulfi, Y. Chen, and J. Tang, "Decarbonizing the international shipping industry: Solutions and policy recommendations," *Mar. Pollut. Bull.*, vol. 126, pp. 428–435, Jan. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.11.064.
13. O. Cherednichenko, S. Serbin, M. Tkach, J. Kowalski, and D. Chen, "Mathematical Modelling of Marine Power Plants with Thermochemical Fuel Treatment," *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 29, no. 3, pp. 99–108, Sep. 2022, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2022-0030.
14. R. A. Halim, L. Kirstein, O. Merk, and L. M. Martinez, "Decarbonization pathways for international maritime transport: A model-based policy impact assessment," *Sustain.*, 2018, doi: 10.3390/su10072243.
15. IMO, "Third IMO GHG Study 2014–Executive Summary and Final Report," London, UK, 2015.
16. G. Labeckas, S. Slavinskas, J. Rudnicki, and R. Zdraż, "The Effect of Oxygenated Diesel-N-Butanol Fuel Blends on Combustion, Performance, and Exhaust Emissions of a Turbocharged CRDI Diesel Engine," *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 108–120, Mar. 2018, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2018-0013.
17. A. T. Hoang, V. D. Tran, V. H. Dong, and A. T. Le, "An experimental analysis on physical properties and spray characteristics of an ultrasound-assisted emulsion of ultra-low-sulphur diesel and Jatropha-based biodiesel," *J. Mar. Eng. Technol.*, vol. 21, no. 2, pp. 73–81, Mar. 2022, doi: 10.1080/20464177.2019.1595355.
18. H. P. Nguyen, P. Q. P. Nguyen, D. K. P. Nguyen, V. D. Bui, and D. T. Nguyen, "Application of IoT Technologies in Seaport Management," *JOIV Int. J. Informatics Vis.*, vol. 7, no. 1, p. 228, Mar. 2023, doi: 10.30630/joiv.7.1.1697.
19. B. Comer, "Maritime Shipping: Black Carbon Issues at the International Maritime Organization," 2021, pp. 13–25.
20. A. Astito and S. Hamdoune, "Estimating carbon dioxide and particulate matter emissions from ships using automatic identification system data," *Int. J. Comput. Appl.*, vol. 88, no. 6, 2014.
21. A. S. Alamoush, A. I. Ölçer, and F. Ballini, "Ports' role in shipping decarbonisation: A common port incentive scheme for shipping greenhouse gas emissions reduction," *Clean. Logist. Supply Chain*, vol. 3, p. 100021, Mar. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.clscn.2021.100021.
22. S. Vakili, A. I. Ölçer, A. Schönborn, F. Ballini, and A. T. Hoang, "Energy-related clean and green framework for shipbuilding community towards zero-emissions: A strategic analysis from concept to case study," *Int. J. Energy Res.*, vol. 46, no. 14, pp. 20624–20649, Nov. 2022, doi: 10.1002/er.7649.
23. O. B. Inal, B. Zincir, and C. Deniz, "Investigation on the decarbonization of shipping: An approach to hydrogen and ammonia," *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 47, no. 45, pp. 19888–19900, May 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2022.01.189.
24. L. Mihanović, M. Jelić, G. Radica, and N. Račić, "EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION OF MARINE ENGINE EXHAUST EMISSIONS," *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, pp. 1–14, Dec. 2021, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2021.2013344.
25. V. D. Tran, A. T. Le, and A. T. Hoang, "An Experimental Study on the Performance Characteristics of a Diesel Engine Fueled with ULSD-Biodiesel Blends," *Int. J. Renew. Energy Dev.*, vol. 10, no. 2, pp. 183–190, 2021.
26. A. Al-Enazi, E. C. Okonkwo, Y. Bicer, and T. Al-Ansari, "A review of cleaner alternative fuels for maritime transportation," *Energy Reports*, vol. 7, pp. 1962–1985, Nov. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.egy.2021.03.036.
27. J. D. Ampah, A. A. Yusuf, S. Afrane, C. Jin, and H. Liu, "Reviewing two decades of cleaner alternative marine fuels: Towards IMO's decarbonization of the maritime transport sector," *J. Clean. Prod.*, vol. 320, p. 128871, Oct. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.128871.
28. A. D. Korberg, S. Brynolf, M. Grahn, and I. R. Skov,

“Techno-economic assessment of advanced fuels and propulsion systems in future fossil-free ships,” *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*, vol. 142, p. 110861, May 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.rser.2021.110861.

29. W. Zeńczak and A. K. Gromadzińska, “Preliminary Analysis of the Use of Solid Biofuels in a Ship’s Power System,” *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 27, no. 4, pp. 67–79, Dec. 2020, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2020-0067.
30. E. A. Bouman, E. Lindstad, A. I. Riialand, and A. H. Strømman, “State-of-the-art technologies, measures, and potential for reducing GHG emissions from shipping – A review,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 52, pp. 408–421, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2017.03.022.
31. H. Zeraatgar and M. H. Ghaemi, “The Analysis of Overall Ship Fuel Consumption in Acceleration Manoeuvre Using Hull-Propeller-Engine Interaction Principles and Governor Features,” *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 26, no. 1, 2019, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2019-0018.
32. P. N. Hoffmann, M. S. Eide, and Ø. Endresen, “Effect of proposed CO₂ emission reduction scenarios on capital expenditure,” *Marit. Policy Manag.*, vol. 39, no. 4, pp. 443–460, Jul. 2012, doi: 10.1080/03088839.2012.690081.
33. A. B. Jaffe and R. N. Stavins, “The energy-efficiency gap What does it mean?,” *Energy Policy*, vol. 22, no. 10, pp. 804–810, Oct. 1994, doi: 10.1016/0301-4215(94)90138-4.
34. H. Johnson and K. Andersson, “The energy efficiency gap in shipping – Barriers to improvement,” *Int. Assoc. Marit. Econ. Annu. Conf.*, 2011.
35. K. Rudzki, P. Gomulka, and A. T. Hoang, “Optimization Model to Manage Ship Fuel Consumption and Navigation Time,” *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 29, no. 3, pp. 141–153, Sep. 2022, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2022-0034.
36. M. Feili, M. Hasanzadeh, H. Ghaebi, and E. Abdi Aghdam, “Comprehensive analysis of a novel cooling/electricity cogeneration system driven by waste heat of a marine diesel engine,” *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 7331–7346, Sep. 2022, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2022.2108167.
37. Ø. Buhaug et al., “Second IMO Greenhouse Gas Study 2009,” *Int. Marit. Organ.*, 2009.
38. M. S. Eide, T. Longva, P. Hoffmann, Ø. Endresen, and S. B. Dalsøren, “Future cost scenarios for reduction of ship CO₂ emissions,” *Marit. Policy Manag.*, vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 11–37, Jan. 2011, doi: 10.1080/03088839.2010.533711.
39. J. Faber et al., “Technical support for European action to reducing Greenhouse Gas Emissions from international maritime transport,” 2009.
40. E. C. EC, “White Paper: Roadmap to a Single European Transport Area–Towards a Competitive and Resource Efficient Transport System,” *COM (2011) 144 final [online]*. European Commission Brussels, 2011.
41. Z. Bazari and T. Longva, “Assessment of IMO Mandated Energy Efficiency Measures for International Shipping,” 2011.
42. A. Mellin and H. Rydhed, “Swedish ports’ attitudes towards regulations of the shipping sector’s emissions of CO₂,” *Marit. Policy Manag.*, vol. 38, no. 4, pp. 437–450, Jul. 2011, doi: 10.1080/03088839.2011.588261.
43. H. P. Nguyen, P. Q. P. Nguyen, and T. P. Nguyen, “Green Port Strategies in Developed Coastal Countries as Useful Lessons for the Path of Sustainable Development: A case study in Vietnam,” *Int. J. Renew. Energy Dev.*, vol. 11, no. 4, pp. 950–962, Nov. 2022, doi: 10.14710/ijred.2022.46539.
44. K. Takasaki, “CO₂ Reduction from Main Engine,” *J. Japan Inst. Mar. Eng. Eng.*, 2015, doi: 10.5988/jime.50.198.
45. L. Čampara, N. Hasanspahić, and S. Vujičić, “Overview of MARPOL ANNEX VI regulations for prevention of air pollution from marine diesel engines,” *SHS Web Conf.*, vol. 58, p. 01004, Dec. 2018, doi: 10.1051/shsconf/20185801004.
46. V. V. Pham, A. T. Hoang, and H. C. Do, “Analysis and evaluation of database for the selection of propulsion systems for tankers,” 2020, doi: 10.1063/5.0007655.
47. N. L. Trivyza, A. Rentizelas, and G. Theotokatos, “A Comparative Analysis of EEDI Versus Lifetime CO₂ Emissions,” *J. Mar. Sci. Eng.*, vol. 8, no. 1, p. 61, Jan. 2020, doi: 10.3390/jmse8010061.
48. Hwang, Jeong, Jung, Kim, and Zhou, “Life Cycle Assessment of LNG Fueled Vessel in Domestic Services,” *J. Mar. Sci. Eng.*, vol. 7, no. 10, p. 359, Oct. 2019, doi: 10.3390/jmse7100359.
49. M. H. Ghaemi and H. Zeraatgar, “Impact of Propeller Emergence on Hull, Propeller, Engine, and Fuel Consumption Performance in Regular Head Waves,” *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 29, no. 4, pp. 56–76, Dec. 2022, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2022-0044.
50. “Brief for Eu Member States,” pp. 1–9, 2013.
51. GloMEEP, “Ship Emissions Tool Kit (Guide No. 3), Development of a national Ship emissions reduction strategy,” 2018.
52. J. Z. Goldstein and J. P. George, “REDUCING NAVAL FOSSIL FUEL CONSUMPTION AT SEA IN THE 21ST CENTURY?” Monterey, CA; Naval Postgraduate School, 2021.
53. V. V. Pham and A. T. Hoang, “Technological perspective for reducing emissions from marine engines,” *Int. J. Adv. Sci.*

Eng. Inf. Technol., vol. 9, no. 6, pp. 1989–2000, 2019, doi: 10.18517/ijaseit.9.6.10429.

54. K. Rudzki and W. Tarelko, “A decision-making system supporting selection of commanded outputs for a ship’s propulsion system with a controllable pitch propeller,” *Ocean Eng.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.oceaneng.2016.09.018.
55. J. Herdzik, “Decarbonization of Marine Fuels—The Future of Shipping,” *Energies*, vol. 14, no. 14, p. 4311, Jul. 2021, doi: 10.3390/en14144311.
56. A. Foretich, G. G. Zaimes, T. R. Hawkins, and E. Newes, “Challenges and opportunities for alternative fuels in the maritime sector,” *Marit. Transp. Res.*, vol. 2, p. 100033, 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.martra.2021.100033.
57. H. Wang, D. Liu, and G. Dai, “Review of maritime transportation air emission pollution and policy analysis,” *J. Ocean Univ. China*, vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 283–290, Sep. 2009, doi: 10.1007/s11802-009-0283-6.
58. S. E. Tanzer, J. Posada, S. Geraedts, and A. Ramírez, “Lignocellulosic marine biofuel: Technoeconomic and environmental assessment for production in Brazil and Sweden,” *J. Clean. Prod.*, vol. 239, p. 117845, Dec. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.117845.
59. N. Pavlenko, B. Comer, Y. Zhou, N. Clark, and D. Rutherford, “The climate implications of using LNG as a marine fuel,” *Swedish Environ. Prot. Agency Stock. Sweden*, 2020.
60. TNO, “Environmental and Economic aspects of using LNG as a fuel for shipping in The Netherlands. Nederlandse Organisatie voor Toegepast Natuurwetenschappelijk Onderzoek (TNO) Report,” *Delft, TNO*, vol. 48, no. July 2015, pp. 1–48, 2011.
61. D. Lowell, H. Wang, and N. Lutsey, “Assessment of the fuel cycle impact of liquefied natural gas as used in international shipping,” *Int. Counc. Clean Transp.*, 2013.
62. S. Brynolf, E. Fridell, and K. Andersson, “Environmental assessment of marine fuels: liquefied natural gas, liquefied biogas, methanol and bio-methanol,” *J. Clean. Prod.*, vol. 74, pp. 86–95, 2014.
63. R. Zhao et al., “A Numerical and Experimental Study of Marine Hydrogen–Natural Gas–Diesel Tri–Fuel Engines,” *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 27, no. 4, pp. 80–90, Dec. 2020, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2020-0068.
64. J. Li, Y. Han, G. Mao, and P. Wang, “Optimization of exhaust emissions from marine engine fueled with LNG/diesel using response surface methodology,” *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, vol. 42, no. 12, pp. 1436–1448, Jun. 2020, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2019.1604859.
65. M. A. Fun-sang Cepeda, N. N. Pereira, S. Kahn, and J.-D. Caprace, “A review of the use of LNG versus HFO in maritime industry,” *Mar. Syst. Ocean Technol.*, vol. 14, no. 2–3, pp. 75–84, Sep. 2019, doi: 10.1007/s40868-019-00059-y.
66. P. Balcombe, I. Staffell, I. G. Kerdan, J. F. Speirs, N. P. Brandon, and A. D. Hawkes, “How can LNG-fuelled ships meet decarbonisation targets? An environmental and economic analysis,” *Energy*, vol. 227, p. 120462, Jul. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.energy.2021.120462.
67. A. Bernatik, P. Senovsky, and M. Pitt, “LNG as a potential alternative fuel – Safety and security of storage facilities,” *J. Loss Prev. Process Ind.*, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 19–24, Jan. 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.jlp.2010.08.003.
68. P. Balcombe et al., “How to decarbonise international shipping: Options for fuels, technologies and policies,” *Energy Conversion and Management*. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.enconman.2018.12.080.
69. D. Thrän et al., “Biomethane-status and factors affecting market development and trade,” 2014.
70. E. Wetterlund, “System studies of forest-based biomass gasification.” Linköping University Electronic Press, 2012.
71. V. A. dos Santos, P. Pereira da Silva, and L. M. V. Serrano, “The Maritime Sector and Its Problematic Decarbonization: A Systematic Review of the Contribution of Alternative Fuels,” *Energies*, vol. 15, no. 10, p. 3571, May 2022, doi: 10.3390/en15103571.
72. A. A. Banawan, M. M. El Gohary, and I. S. Sadek, “Environmental and economical benefits of changing from marine diesel oil to natural-gas fuel for short-voyage high-power passenger ships,” *Proc. Inst. Mech. Eng. Part M J. Eng. Marit. Environ.*, 2010, doi: 10.1243/14750902JEME181.
73. M. Anderson, K. Salo, and E. Fridell, “Particle- and Gaseous Emissions from an LNG Powered Ship,” *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2015, doi: 10.1021/acs.est.5b02678.
74. J. Li, B. Wu, and G. Mao, “Research on the performance and emission characteristics of the LNG-diesel marine engine,” *J. Nat. Gas Sci. Eng.*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.jngse.2015.09.036.
75. N. R. Ammar, “Environmental and cost-effectiveness comparison of dual fuel propulsion options for emissions reduction onboard lng carriers,” *Brodogradnja*, 2019, doi: 10.21278/brod70304.
76. G. P. Gerilla, K. Teknomo, and K. Hokao, “Environmental assessment of international transportation of products,” *J. East. Asia Soc. Transp. Stud.*, vol. 6, pp. 3167–3182, 2005.
77. M. M. Elgohary, I. S. Seddiek, and A. M. Salem, “Overview of

alternative fuels with emphasis on the potential of liquefied natural gas as future marine fuel,” *Proc. Inst. Mech. Eng. Part M J. Eng. Marit. Environ.*, 2015, doi: 10.1177/1475090214522778.

78. I. Ø. Tvedten and S. Bauer, “Retrofitting towards a greener marine shipping future: Reassembling ship fuels and liquefied natural gas in Norway,” *Energy Res. Soc. Sci.*, vol. 86, p. 102423, 2022.
79. O. Schinas and M. Butler, “Feasibility and commercial considerations of LNG-fueled ships,” *Ocean Eng.*, 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.oceaneng.2016.04.031.
80. F. Burel, R. Taccani, and N. Zuliani, “Improving sustainability of maritime transport through utilization of Liquefied Natural Gas (LNG) for propulsion,” *Energy*, 2013, doi: 10.1016/j.energy.2013.05.002.
81. M. Acciaro, “Real option analysis for environmental compliance: LNG and emission control areas,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 28, pp. 41–50, May 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2013.12.007.
82. T. Iannaccone, G. Landucci, A. Tugnoli, E. Salzano, and V. Cozzani, “Sustainability of cruise ship fuel systems: Comparison among LNG and diesel technologies,” *J. Clean. Prod.*, vol. 260, p. 121069, 2020.
83. H. Hadiyanto, A. P. Aini, W. Widayat, K. Kusmiyati, A. Budiman, and A. Roesyadi, “Multi-Feedstocks Biodiesel Production from Esterification of Calophyllum inophyllum Oil, Castor Oil, Palm Oil and Waste Cooking Oil,” *Int. J. Renew. Energy Dev.*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 119–123, Feb. 2020, doi: 10.14710/ijred.9.1.119-123.
84. A. Kolakoti, M. Setiyo, and M. L. Rochman, “A green heterogeneous catalyst production and characterization for biodiesel production using RSM and ANN approach,” *Int. J. Renew. Energy Dev.*, vol. 11, no. 3, pp. 703–712, Aug. 2022, doi: 10.14710/ijred.2022.43627.
85. S. Mekhilef, S. Siga, and R. Saidur, “A review on palm oil biodiesel as a source of renewable fuel,” *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*, vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 1937–1949, May 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.rser.2010.12.012.
86. T. Kalyani, L. S. V. Prasad, and A. Kolakoti, “Biodiesel Production from a Naturally Grown Green Algae *Spirogyra* Using Heterogeneous Catalyst: An Approach to RSM Optimization Technique,” *Int. J. Renew. Energy Dev.*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 300–312, Mar. 2023, doi: 10.14710/ijred.2023.50065.
87. P. Sharma et al., “Experimental investigations on efficiency and instability of combustion process in a diesel engine fueled with ternary blends of hydrogen peroxide additive/biodiesel/diesel,” *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 5929–5950, Sep. 2022, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2022.2091692.
88. A. T. Hoang, “Combustion behavior, performance and emission characteristics of diesel engine fuelled with biodiesel containing cerium oxide nanoparticles: A review,” *Fuel Process. Technol.*, vol. 218, p. 106840, Jul. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.fuproc.2021.106840.
89. A. T. Hoang et al., “Rice bran oil-based biodiesel as a promising renewable fuel alternative to petrodiesel: A review,” *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.rser.2020.110204.
90. M. H. Jayed, H. H. Masjuki, R. Saidur, M. A. Kalam, and M. I. Jahirul, “Environmental aspects and challenges of oilseed produced biodiesel in Southeast Asia,” *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*, vol. 13, no. 9, pp. 2452–2462, Dec. 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.rser.2009.06.023.
91. Y. S. M. Altarazi et al., “Effects of biofuel on engines performance and emission characteristics: A review,” *Energy*, vol. 238, p. 121910, Jan. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.energy.2021.121910.
92. S. N et al., “Poultry fat biodiesel as a fuel substitute in diesel-ethanol blends for DI-CI engine: Experimental, modeling and optimization,” *Energy*, vol. 270, p. 126826, May 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.energy.2023.126826.
93. N. Jeyakumar et al., “Using Pithecellobium Dulce seed-derived biodiesel combined with Groundnut shell nanoparticles for diesel engines as a well-advised approach toward sustainable waste-to-energy management,” *Fuel*, vol. 337, p. 127164, Apr. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.fuel.2022.127164.
94. K. Kolwzan and M. Narewski, “Alternative fuels for marine applications,” *Latv. J. Chem.*, vol. 51, no. 4, p. 398, 2012.
95. AWRI, “The feasibility of fuelling the research vessel D.J. Angus and W.G. Jackson with biodiesel,” 2003.
96. C. Lagacé, “Biodiesel demonstration and assessment for tour boats in the old port of Montréal and Lachine canal national historic site,” 2005.
97. C.-W. C. Hsieh and C. Felby, “Biofuels for the marine shipping sector,” *IEA Bioenergy*, p. 86, 2017.
98. T. C. Holmseth, “Earthrace sets new world record,” *Biodiesel magazine*, 2008. .
99. C. W. Mohd Noor, M. M. Noor, and R. Mamat, “Biodiesel as alternative fuel for marine diesel engine applications: A review,” *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*, vol. 94, pp. 127–142, Oct. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.rser.2018.05.031.
100. MAN Diesel, “MAN B&W Stationary Engines: Alternative Fuel,” 2010.
101. A. Imran, M. Varman, H. H. Masjuki, and M. A. Kalam, “Review on alcohol fumigation on diesel engine: A viable

alternative dual fuel technology for satisfactory engine performance and reduction of environment concerning emission,” *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*. 2013, doi: 10.1016/j.rser.2013.05.070.

Internal Combustion Engines: SUMMETH-Sustainable Marine Methanol, Deliverable D3. 1,” 2018.

102. T. T. Truong, X. P. Nguyen, V. V. Pham, V. V. Le, A. T. Le, and V. T. Bui, “Effect of alcohol additives on diesel engine performance: a review,” *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, pp. 1–25, Dec. 2021, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2021.2011490.
103. D. Boopathi, S. Thiyagarajan, A. Sonthalia, P. Parthiban, S. Devanand, and V. Edwin Geo, “Effect of methanol fumigation on performance and emission characteristics in a waste cooking oil-fuelled single cylinder CI engine,” *Energy Sources, Part A Recover. Util. Environ. Eff.*, vol. 41, no. 9, pp. 1088–1096, May 2019, doi: 10.1080/15567036.2018.1539142.
104. S. Mayer, J. Sjöholm, T. Murakami, K. Shimada, and N. Kjemtrup, “Performance and emission results from the MAN B&W LGI Low-Speed Engine Operating on Methanol,” in *CIMAC Congress*, 2016, pp. 6–10.
105. T. Stojcevski, D. Jay, and L. Vicenzi, “Operation experience of world’s first methanol engine in a ferry installation,” in *Proceedings of the 28th CIMAC World Congress, Helsinki, Finland*, 2016, pp. 6–9.
106. M. Svanberg, J. Ellis, J. Lundgren, and I. Landälv, “Renewable methanol as a fuel for the shipping industry,” *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.*, vol. 94, pp. 1217–1228, 2018.
107. *Technology and Applications of Autonomous Underwater Vehicles*. 2002.
108. P. Gilbert, C. Walsh, M. Traut, U. Kesime, K. Pazouki, and A. Murphy, “Assessment of full life-cycle air emissions of alternative shipping fuels,” *J. Clean. Prod.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.10.165.
109. DNV GL, “Methanol as Marine Fuel: Environmental Benefits, Technology Readiness, and Economic Feasibility,” 2016.
110. R. Song, J. Liu, L. Wang, and S. Liu, “Performance and Emissions of a Diesel Engine Fuelled with Methanol,” *Energy & Fuels*, vol. 22, no. 6, pp. 3883–3888, Nov. 2008, doi: 10.1021/ef800492r.
111. T. Stojcevski, “Wärtsilä. Methanol as Engine Fuel: Challenges and Opportunities,” 2016.
112. MAN Energy Solutions, “The Methanol-fuelled MAN B&W LGIM Engine. Application, service experience and latest development of the ME-LGIM engine,” 2021.
113. M. Túner, P. Aakko-Saksa, and P. Molander, “Engine Technology, Research, and Development for Methanol in Internal Combustion Engines: SUMMETH-Sustainable Marine Methanol, Deliverable D3. 1,” 2018.
114. Bunkerworld, “Billion Miles targets methanol-fueled boats in Singapore from 2018,” 2017.
115. J. Ellis and K. Tanneberger, “Study on the use of ethyl and methyl alcohol as alternative fuels in shipping,” *Eur. Marit. Saf. Agency*, 2015.
116. I. A. Fernández, M. R. Gómez, J. R. Gómez, and L. M. López-González, “Generation of H₂ on Board Lng Vessels for Consumption in the Propulsion System,” *Polish Marit. Res.*, vol. 27, no. 1, 2020, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2020-0009.
117. A. T. Hoang and V. V. Pham, “A study on a solution to reduce emissions by using hydrogen as an alternative fuel for a diesel engine integrated exhaust gas recirculation,” in *AIP Conference Proceedings*, 2020, vol. 2235, no. 1, p. 20035.
118. S. Öberg, M. Odenberger, and F. Johnsson, “Exploring the competitiveness of hydrogen-fueled gas turbines in future energy systems,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 47, no. 1, pp. 624–644, Jan. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2021.10.035.
119. S. Verma, A. Suman, L. M. Das, S. C. Kaushik, and S. K. Tyagi, “A renewable pathway towards increased utilization of hydrogen in diesel engines,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 45, no. 8, pp. 5577–5587, Feb. 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2019.05.213.
120. A. Mohammadi, M. Shioji, Y. Nakai, W. Ishikura, and E. Tabo, “Performance and combustion characteristics of a direct injection SI hydrogen engine,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, 2007, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2006.06.005.
121. M. M. Roy, E. Tomita, N. Kawahara, Y. Harada, and A. Sakane, “Comparison of performance and emissions of a supercharged dual-fuel engine fueled by hydrogen and hydrogen-containing gaseous fuels,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2011.03.070.
122. B. Gopalakrishnan, N. Khanna, and D. Das, “Dark-Fermentative Biohydrogen Production,” in *Biohydrogen*, Elsevier, 2019, pp. 79–122.
123. T. X. Nguyen-Thi and T. M. T. Bui, “Effects of Injection Strategies on Mixture Formation and Combustion in a Spark-Ignition Engine Fueled with Syngas-Biogas-Hydrogen,” *Int. J. Renew. Energy Dev.*, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 118–128, Jan. 2023, doi: 10.14710/ijred.2023.49368.
124. I. P. Jain, “Hydrogen the fuel for 21st century,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 34, no. 17, pp. 7368–7378, Sep. 2009, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2009.05.093.
125. Y. Wang, K. S. Chen, J. Mishler, S. C. Cho, and X. C. Adroher, “A review of polymer electrolyte membrane fuel

cells: Technology, applications, and needs on fundamental research,” *Appl. Energy*, vol. 88, no. 4, pp. 981–1007, Apr. 2011, doi: 10.1016/j.apenergy.2010.09.030.

126. V. G. Bui, T. M. T. Bui, A. T. Hoang, S. Nižetić, T. X. Nguyen Thi, and A. V. Vo, “Hydrogen-Enriched Biogas Premixed Charge Combustion and Emissions in Direct Injection and Indirect Injection Diesel Dual Fueled Engines: A Comparative Study,” *J. Energy Resour. Technol.*, vol. 143, no. 12, Dec. 2021, doi: 10.1115/1.4051574.
127. C. WHITE, R. STEEPER, and A. LUTZ, “The hydrogen-fueled internal combustion engine: a technical review,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 31, no. 10, pp. 1292–1305, Aug. 2006, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2005.12.001.
128. J. J. De-Troya, C. Álvarez, C. Fernández-Garrido, and L. Carral, “Analysing the possibilities of using fuel cells in ships,” *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*. 2016, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2015.11.145.
129. Z. E. Ships, “One Hundred Passengers and Zero Emissions: The First Ever Passenger Vessel to Sail Propelled by Fuel Cells.” 2013.
130. C. J. McKinlay, S. R. Turnock, and D. A. Hudson, “Route to zero emission shipping: Hydrogen, ammonia or methanol?,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 46, no. 55, pp. 28282–28297, Aug. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2021.06.066.
131. Y. Bicer and I. Dincer, “Clean fuel options with hydrogen for sea transportation: A life cycle approach,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2017.10.157.
132. Fathom.world, “Is methanation the future of ship fuel?,” 2019. .
133. HyMethShip, “Hydrogen in combustion engines,” 2019.
134. F. Bird, A. Clarke, P. Davies, and E. Surkovic, *Ammonia : fuel and energy store*. 2020.
135. R. D. Milton *et al.*, “Bioelectrochemical Haber-Bosch Process: An Ammonia-Producing H₂/N₂ Fuel Cell,” *Angew. Chemie Int. Ed.*, vol. 56, no. 10, pp. 2680–2683, Mar. 2017, doi: 10.1002/anie.201612500.
136. V. Kyriakou, I. Garagounis, A. Vourros, E. Vasileiou, and M. Stoukides, “An Electrochemical Haber-Bosch Process,” *Joule*, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 142–158, Jan. 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.joule.2019.10.006.
137. R. F. Service, “Liquid sunshine,” 2018.
138. P. Dimitriou and R. Javaid, “A review of ammonia as a compression ignition engine fuel,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 45, no. 11, pp. 7098–7118, Feb. 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.ijhydene.2019.12.209.
139. I. S. Seddiek and N. R. Ammar, “Technical and eco-environmental analysis of blue/green ammonia-fueled RO/RO ships,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 114, p. 103547, Jan. 2023, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2022.103547.
140. N. De Vries, “Safe and Effective Application of Ammonia as a Marine Fuel Delft University of Technology,” 2019.
141. MAN, “Engineering the Future Two-Stroke Green-Ammonia Engine,” 2019.
142. F. Abbasov, “Roadmap to decarbonising European shipping,” 2018. .
143. Y. Bicer and I. Dincer, “Environmental impact categories of hydrogen and ammonia driven transoceanic maritime vehicles: A comparative evaluation,” *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 43, no. 9, pp. 4583–4596, 2018.
144. MAERSK, “PRESS RELEASE Alcohol , Biomethane and Ammonia are the best-positioned fuels to reach zero net emissions 24 October 2019,” 2019.
145. S.-J. Yeo, J. Kim, and W.-J. Lee, “Potential economic and environmental advantages of liquid petroleum gas as a marine fuel through analysis of registered ships in South Korea,” *J. Clean. Prod.*, vol. 330, p. 129955, Jan. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.129955.
146. S. Kjartansson, “A Feasibility Study on LPG as Marine Fuel,” 2012.
147. R. Laursen, “Ship operation using LPG and ammonia as fuel on MAN B&W dual fuel ME-LGIP engines,” 2018.
148. E. Lindstad, B. Lagemann, A. Riialand, G. M. Gamlem, and A. Valland, “Reduction of maritime GHG emissions and the potential role of E-fuels,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 101, p. 103075, Dec. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2021.103075.
149. B. Lagemann, E. Lindstad, K. Fagerholt, A. Riialand, and S. Ove Erikstad, “Optimal ship lifetime fuel and power system selection,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 102, p. 103145, Jan. 2022, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2021.103145.
150. S.-H. Han, H.-S. Kim, B.-U. Han, and D.-J. Lee, “LPG A Study on Fuel Supply System of LPG Propulsion VLGC ME-LGIP Engine,” *Bull. Soc. Nav. Archit. Korea*, vol. 56, no. 4, pp. 10–14, 2019.
151. B. Ashok, S. Denis Ashok, and C. Ramesh Kumar, “LPG diesel dual fuel engine – A critical review,” *Alexandria Eng. J.*, vol. 54, no. 2, pp. 105–126, Jun. 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.aej.2015.03.002.
152. K. W. Chun, M. Kim, and J.-J. Hur, “Development of a Marine LPG-Fueled High-Speed Engine for Electric

Propulsion Systems,” *J. Mar. Sci. Eng.*, vol. 10, no. 10, p. 1498, Oct. 2022, doi: 10.3390/jmse10101498.

CO2 emissions from container shipping?,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 260–264, 2011.

153. B. Ashok, S. D. Ashok, and C. R. Kumar, “LPG diesel dual fuel engine—A critical review,” *Alexandria Eng. J.*, vol. 54, no. 2, pp. 105–126, 2015.
154. The WLPGA, “LPG for Marine Engines, The Marine Alternative Fuel,” Charles de Gaulle, France, 2017.
155. Michael Petersen and A. Eastern, “LPG as future bunker fuel,” 2019.
156. K. Cullinane and S. Cullinane, “Policy on reducing shipping emissions: implications for ‘green ports,’” *Green Ports*, pp. 35–62, 2019.
157. T. Zis, R. J. North, P. Angeloudis, W. Y. Ochieng, and M. G. H. Bell, “Evaluation of cold ironing and speed reduction policies to reduce ship emissions near and at ports,” *Marit. Econ. Logist.*, vol. 16, no. 4, pp. 371–398, 2014.
158. R. Bergqvist and J. Monios, “Green ports in theory and practice,” in *Green ports*, Elsevier, 2019, pp. 1–17.
159. F. Fung, Z. Zhu, R. Becque, and B. Finamore, “Prevention and control of shipping and Port Air emissions in china,” *NRDC white Pap.*, 2014.
160. N. R. Ammar, “Energy-and cost-efficiency analysis of greenhouse gas emission reduction using slow steaming of ships: case study RO-RO cargo vessel,” *Ships Offshore Struct.*, vol. 13, no. 8, pp. 868–876, 2018.
161. C. C. Chang and C. M. Wang, “Evaluating the effects of green port policy: Case study of Kaohsiung harbor in Taiwan,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, 2012, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2011.11.006.
162. J. J. Corbett, H. Wang, and J. J. Winebrake, “The effectiveness and costs of speed reductions on emissions from international shipping,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 14, no. 8, pp. 593–598, 2009.
163. J.-K. Woo and D. S.-H. Moon, “The effects of slow steaming on the environmental performance in liner shipping,” *Marit. Policy Manag.*, vol. 41, no. 2, pp. 176–191, 2014.
164. P. E. N. G. Yun, L. I. Xiangda, W. A. N. G. Wenyuan, L. I. U. Ke, and L. I. Chuan, “A simulation-based research on carbon emission mitigation strategies for green container terminals,” *Ocean Eng.*, vol. 163, pp. 288–298, Sep. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.oceaneng.2018.05.054.
165. Alphaliner, “<http://www.alphaliner.com/>,” 2010. .
166. P. Cariou, “Is slow steaming a sustainable means of reducing CO2 emissions from container shipping?,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 260–264, 2011.
167. M. Golias, M. Boile, S. Theofanis, and C. Efstathiou, “The berth-scheduling problem: Maximizing berth productivity and minimizing fuel consumption and emissions production,” *Transp. Res. Rec.*, vol. 2166, no. 1, pp. 20–27, 2010.
168. L. Kirstein, R. Halim, and O. Merk, “Decarbonising Maritime Transport.—Pathways to Zero-Carbon Shipping by 2035,” 2018.
169. C. C. Chang and C. W. Jhang, “Reducing speed and fuel transfer of the green flag incentive program in kaohsiung port taiwan,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 46, pp. 1–10, 2016.
170. H. Winnes, L. Styhre, and E. Fridell, “Reducing GHG emissions from ships in port areas,” *Res. Transp. Bus. Manag.*, 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.rtbm.2015.10.008.
171. C. Kontovas and H. N. Psaraftis, “Reduction of emissions along the maritime intermodal container chain: operational models and policies,” *Marit. Policy Manag.*, vol. 38, no. 4, pp. 451–469, 2011.
172. R. T. Poulsen, S. Ponte, and H. Sornn-Friese, “Environmental upgrading in global value chains: The potential and limitations of ports in the greening of maritime transport,” *Geoforum*, vol. 89, pp. 83–95, Feb. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.geoforum.2018.01.011.
173. Y.-T. Tsai, C.-J. Liang, K.-H. Huang, K.-H. Hung, C.-W. Jheng, and J.-J. Liang, “Self-management of greenhouse gas and air pollutant emissions in Taichung Port, Taiwan,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 63, pp. 576–587, 2018.
174. G. Villalba and E. D. Gemechu, “Estimating GHG emissions of marine ports—the case of Barcelona,” *Energy Policy*, vol. 39, no. 3, pp. 1363–1368, 2011.
175. S. López-Aparicio, D. Tønnesen, T. N. Thanh, and H. Neilson, “Shipping emissions in a Nordic port: Assessment of mitigation strategies,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2017.04.021.
176. L. Styhre, H. Winnes, J. Black, J. Lee, and H. Le-Griffin, “Greenhouse gas emissions from ships in ports – Case studies in four continents,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2017.04.033.
177. SPBB, “San Pedro Bay Ports Clean Air Action Plan Update. Port of Los Angeles and the Port of Long Beach,” 2017.
178. D. Gibbs, P. Rigot-Muller, J. Mangan, and C. Lalwani, “The

role of sea ports in end-to-end maritime transport chain emissions,” *Energy Policy*, vol. 64, pp. 337–348, 2014.

179. D. S. H. Moon and J. K. Woo, “The impact of port operations on efficient ship operation from both economic and environmental perspectives,” *Marit. Policy Manag.*, 2014, doi: 10.1080/03088839.2014.931607.
180. H. Johnson and L. Styhre, “Increased energy efficiency in short sea shipping through decreased time in port,” *Transp. Res. Part A Policy Pract.*, vol. 71, pp. 167–178, 2015.
181. M. Tichavska, B. Tovar, D. Gritsenko, L. Johansson, and J. P. Jalkanen, “Air emissions from ships in port: Does regulation make a difference?,” *Transp. Policy*, vol. 75, pp. 128–140, 2019.
182. A. Misra, K. Panchabikesan, S. K. Gowrishankar, E. Ayyasamy, and V. Ramalingam, “GHG emission accounting and mitigation strategies to reduce the carbon footprint in conventional port activities—a case of the Port of Chennai,” *Carbon Manag.*, vol. 8, no. 1, pp. 45–56, 2017.
183. E. Díaz-Ruiz-Navamuel, A. O. Piris, and C. A. Pérez-Labajos, “Reduction in CO₂ emissions in RoRo/Pax ports equipped with automatic mooring systems,” *Environ. Pollut.*, vol. 241, pp. 879–886, 2018.
184. A. Ortega Piris, E. Díaz-Ruiz-Navamuel, C. A. Pérez-Labajos, and J. Oria Chaveli, “Reduction of CO₂ emissions with automatic mooring systems. The case of the port of Santander,” *Atmos. Pollut. Res.*, 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.apr.2017.07.002.
185. P. Andersson and P. Ivehammar, “Green approaches at sea – The benefits of adjusting speed instead of anchoring,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2017.01.010.
186. International maritime organization, “Study of Emission Control and Energy Efficiency Measures for Ships in the Port Area,” *Clim. Chang. 2013 – Phys. Sci. Basis*, 2015.
187. A. Azetsu, “Regulation of GHG Emissions and Trend of Countermeasures,” *J. Japan Inst. Mar. Eng.*, vol. 51, no. 1, pp. 50–53, 2016, doi: 10.5988/jime.51.50.
188. V. V. Pham and A. T. Hoang, “Analyzing and selecting the typical propulsion systems for ocean supply vessels,” 2020, doi: 10.1109/ICACCS48705.2020.9074276.
189. J. Faber and M. Hoen, *Estimated Index Values of Ships 2009–2016: Analysis of the Design Efficiency of Ships that Have Entered the Fleet Since 2009*. CE Delft, 2017.
190. T. and Environment, “Statistical analysis of the energy efficiency performance (EEDI) of new ships built in 2013–2017.” 2018.
191. W. Tarelko, “The effect of hull biofouling on parameters characterising ship propulsion system efficiency,” *Polish Marit. Res.*, 2014, doi: 10.2478/pomr-2014-0038.
192. X. P. Nguyen, “A simulation study on the effects of hull form on aerodynamic performances of the ships,” in *Proceedings of the 2019 1st International Conference on Sustainable Manufacturing, Materials and Technologies*, 2020, p. 020015, doi: 10.1063/5.0000140.
193. T. Smith *et al.*, “CO₂ Emissions from International Shipping: Possible reduction targets and their associated pathways,” 2016.
194. T. Smith *et al.*, “CO₂ emissions from international shipping: Possible reduction targets and their associated pathways,” *UMAS London*, UK, 2016.
195. P. Gilbert, A. Bows-Larkin, S. Mander, and C. Walsh, “Technologies for the high seas: Meeting the climate challenge,” *Carbon Manag.*, 2014, doi: 10.1080/17583004.2015.1013676.
196. Institute of Marine Engineering Science and Technology (IMarEST), “MEPC 62/INF.7 – Reduction of GHG emissions from ships - Marginal Abatement Costs and Cost Effectiveness of Energy-Efficiency Measures,” 2011.
197. H. Lindstad and G. S. Eskeland, “Low carbon maritime transport: How speed, size and slenderness amounts to substantial capital energy substitution,” *Transp. Res. Part D Transp. Environ.*, vol. 41, pp. 244–256, Dec. 2015, doi: 10.1016/j.trd.2015.10.006.
198. N. Rehmatulla, J. Calleya, and T. Smith, “The implementation of technical energy efficiency and CO₂ emission reduction measures in shipping,” *Ocean Eng.*, vol. 139, pp. 184–197, Jul. 2017, doi: 10.1016/j.oceaneng.2017.04.029.
199. J. Carlton, J. Aldwinkle, and J. Anderson, “Future ship powering options: exploring alternative methods of ship propulsion,” *London R. Acad. Eng.*, 2013.
200. F. Tillig, W. Mao, and J. Ringsberg, “Systems modelling for energy-efficient shipping,” Chalmers University of Technology, 2015.
201. P. . Van Kluijven, L. Kwakernaak, F. Zoetmulder, M. Ruigrok, and K. de Bondt, “Contra-rotating propellers1,” *Int. Shipbuild. Prog.*, vol. 3, no. 25, pp. 459–473, 2018, doi: 10.3233/isp-1956-32501.