

1 **Title**

2 Underwater noise emissions from ships during 2014-2020

3  
4 **Authors**

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19  
20 **Abstract**

21  
22 This paper reports the input of underwater noise energy trend in global shipping, based  
23 on bottom-up modeling of individual ships. In terms of energy, we predict the doubling  
24 of global shipping noise emissions every six years, on average, but there are large  
25 regional differences. Shipping noise emissions increase rapidly in Arctic areas, the  
26 Norwegian Sea and Pacific Ocean. The largest contributors are the Containerships,  
27 Bulk Cargo and Tankers vessels which emit almost 80% of the underwater shipping  
28 noise energy. The COVID-19 pandemic changed vessel traffic patterns and our  
29 modeling indicates a reduction of 24% in shipping noise energy in the 63 Hz  $\frac{1}{3}$  octave  
30 band. This reduction was largest in the Arctic, Greenland Sea, and the Gulf of  
31 California, temporarily disrupting the increasing pre-pandemic noise trend. However,  
32 in some sea areas, such as the Yellow Sea and Eastern China Sea the emitted noise  
33 energy was only slightly reduced. In global scale, COVID-19 pandemic reduced the  
34 underwater shipping noise emissions close to 2017 levels, but it is expected that the  
35 increasing trend of underwater noise will continue when the global economy recovers.

36  
37 **Keywords**

38 Shipping, underwater noise, emissions, noise sources, source modeling

39  
40 **Highlights**

- 41
- 42 • Global underwater noise emissions from shipping doubled in just six years
  - 43 • Underwater noise emissions from ships increase rapidly in Arctic areas
  - 44 • A large variability exists in shipping noise emission trends of different regions
  - 45 • COVID-19 pandemic decreased shipping noise emissions back to 2017 levels
  - 46 • Containerships are the largest contributor to shipping noise emissions

47 **Introduction**

48

49 The disruption of shipping after the notorious September 11<sup>th</sup> attack on the World Trade  
50 Center in 2001 was labeled as “An irreproducible experiment” considering how marine  
51 life reacted to an unexpected silent period in North American sea regions(Rolland et  
52 al., 2012). In 2020, global COVID-19 pandemic brought with it a global disruption,  
53 which changed the traffic patterns of shipping and ground almost the whole cruise  
54 sector to a halt. It is expected that this global disruption of movement of goods and  
55 passengers have a widespread effect in the shipping sector. Regional lockdown periods  
56 and travel restrictions reflect strongly on ship movements, especially those  
57 concentrated on passenger traffic. While the Sep 11<sup>th</sup> 2001 events led to marine traffic  
58 restrictions mostly concentrated in North American coastal regions, the ongoing  
59 COVID-19 has global consequences. It is not currently known how marine life reacted  
60 to this unexpected change in shipping intensity of 2020, but it is widely recognized that  
61 noise impact on marine life ranges from masking of communication, stress to  
62 behavioral changes and may ultimately lead to adverse effects on population  
63 level(Duarte et al., 2021).

64 Many of the subsectors of shipping respond differently to disruptions such as COVID-  
65 19. Further, the timing of regional lockdowns inevitably reflects on the shipping  
66 patterns, but these may occur in different seasons which implies the spread of the  
67 pandemic throughout the various parts of the world. In general, the United Nations  
68 Conference for Trade and Development (UNCTAD) (UNCTAD, 2020) recently  
69 projected a large trade contraction for 2020, which eclipses even the economic crisis of  
70 2008. Regardless of the overall view of the maritime trade and some of its  
71 subsectors(Notteboom et al., 2021), a comprehensive view on shipping noise is  
72 missing. Since various shipping sectors have non-uniform response to the pandemic,  
73 also the contributions to shipping noise will differ.

74 The use of Automatic Identification System (AIS) has been used in various noise  
75 studies(Garrett et al., 2016; J. P. Jalkanen et al., 2018; Leaper, 2019; McKenna et al.,  
76 2012; Mustonen et al., 2019; Prins et al., 2016), but to our knowledge mostly to identify  
77 vessels and compute distances to hydrophones and not for global reporting of shipping  
78 noise. Currently available modeling tools may help to extend the noise reporting to the  
79 global domain but require validation measurements(Karasalo et al., 2017; Macgillivray  
80 and de Jong, 2021) and careful calibration to produce a realistic description of noise. A  
81 detailed breakdown of shipping contribution to greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) has  
82 been regularly done for atmospheric pollutants(Faber et al., 2020), but similar level of  
83 detail is also available for noise modeling. The source modeling efforts may provide  
84 insight on the environmental pressures, such as shipping noise, but this is not enough  
85 to conduct a comprehensive impact analysis.

86 A commonly used method in ecology is to assess the environmental impact based on a  
87 pollutant that spreads into the environment making part of the species habitat effected.  
88 This method consists of several steps where the first is to characterize the properties of  
89 the pollutant source; both the source strength and the spatial and temporal scales must  
90 be estimated. By applying a threshold dose response the impact on habitat can be  
91 estimated(Duarte et al., 2021).

92 This habitat methodology differs from assessments on humans, which are based on  
93 population distributions. The reason is that in the oceans the uncertainties of population  
94 densities are usually high whilst information on humans is often quantifiable. Further,  
95 population densities obtained by observations might be biased by anthropogenic  
96 influence and not reflect the undisturbed state of the environment. A complicating  
97 factor with underwater noise is the fact that sound is a natural occurring and sound  
98 sensitive species are evolved to deal with its presence in contrary to a chemical  
99 pollutant. This implies that not all anthropogenic noise is necessarily harmful to the  
100 environment.

101 For underwater noise, attempts have been made to describe the anthropogenic  
102 contributions(Hildebrand, 2009; Miksis-Olds and Nichols, 2016), especially  
103 shipping(Gervaise et al., 2015; Hatch et al., 2008; Leaper, 2019; McKenna et al., 2012;  
104 Sertlek et al., 2019), but these are rarely available at global level. One of the first  
105 regional attempts to systematically map a regional soundscape was made in the BIAS  
106 project for the Baltic Sea (Mustonen et al., 2019). During the full year of 2014,  
107 continuous measurements of sound levels were performed at 38 locations in the Baltic  
108 Sea. These measurements were used to calibrate an acoustic model that produced  
109 monthly statistics in the form of soundscape maps based on AIS and Vessel Monitoring  
110 System (VMS) data. The study was limited to soundscape maps for the frequencies 63,  
111 125 and 2000 kHz. Farcas et al (Farcas et al., 2020) studied the excess levels related to  
112 masking in the North Sea and produced total noise and ship noise excess maps based  
113 on AIS data. Their approach followed the BIAS methodology but expanded the  
114 investigating with a thorough frequency analysis. The study was however, limited to  
115 the coastal area where AIS coverage was assumed to be satisfying. Pennino et. al  
116 (Pennino et al., 2017) combined habitat modelling and ship traffic to assess the impact  
117 on the bottlenose dolphin, striped dolphin and fin whale, in the Bonifacio Strait by  
118 investigating the overlap between mammal habitat and spatial distribution of ships. This  
119 study did not make use of either noise propagation modeling or dose response as  
120 outlined above but identified hot-spot areas where overlaps were large.

121 Considering the increasing trend of ship traffic, it is unlikely that shipping noise would  
122 decrease unless incentives or regulatory steps are introduced. Underwater noise  
123 emissions from ships are currently not regulated, but they are recognized as an arising  
124 environmental problem.(IMO, 2014; Matthews et al., 2018) The necessary background  
125 studies for policy changes are lacking. For example, the awareness of global underwater  
126 noise emissions from shipping in recent years is largely missing, which makes it  
127 difficult to assess the costs and benefits of potential changes to current policies. Long-  
128 term observations of shipping noise covering large sea regions are only starting to  
129 emerge, even if wide scale monitoring has been done routinely for military purposes.  
130 Vessel noise decreases with vessel speed, which has been suggested as one of the  
131 methods to reduce vessel fuel consumption and emissions(Leaper, 2019; Leaper et al.,  
132 2014; MacGillivray et al., 2019). This may not apply to all ship types, because not all  
133 ships adjust their speed by altering propeller rotation speed.

134 The aims of this paper include: **First**, provide a view to current underwater noise  
135 emissions from ships, together with the impacts of COVID-19 pandemic to vessel  
136 noise. **Second**, to generate datasets for spatial distribution of shipping noise emissions  
137 and its long-term trend by sea region. **Third**, analyze traffic pattern changes and ship  
138 type contributions to underwater noise emissions.

139 The approach presented in this paper can be applied routinely for any marine location  
140 with AIS data coverage, thereby enabling further research of noise propagation and its  
141 impacts on marine life.

## 142 **Materials and Methods**

143  
144 The Ship Traffic Emission Abatement Model (STEAM) of Finnish Meteorological  
145 Institute (FMI) was used in this work (Jalkanen et al., 2009, 2012; J. P. Jalkanen et al.,  
146 2018; Johansson et al., 2017, 2013). Input data for the model, the vessel activity and  
147 fleet description, were obtained from Automatic Identification System (AIS) data  
148 provided by Orbcomm Ltd. and IHS Markit, respectively. The STEAM model predicts  
149 instantaneous vessel power use, based on ship identity, vessel description and speed  
150 indicated by AIS position reports. The model describes the overall state of the vessels  
151 and their engines considering relevant environmental regulations. Previously, this  
152 approach has been used to estimate emissions to air, discharges to the sea and  
153 underwater noise emissions.

154  
155 The Orbcomm AIS dataset used for vessel activity description consisted of 3.1 billion  
156 AIS position reports each year (average of message counts each year during the period  
157 2014-2020) and includes data from both terrestrial and satellite AIS receivers. The use  
158 of AIS equipment is compulsory for large ships, but optional for small vessels or those  
159 operating on national waters. The global dataset used in this study includes AIS  
160 reporting of large IMO registered ships as well as those of small vessels, but not all  
161 waterborne traffic is required to use an AIS transponder. The description of noise from  
162 small vessels is likely to be underestimated in our approach.

163  
164 STEAM estimates vessel noise source levels using the Wittekind noise source model  
165 (J.-P. Jalkanen et al., 2018; Wittekind, 2014) which describes low- and high frequency  
166 cavitation and machinery contributions separately. In the Wittekind model, vessel speed  
167 affects the noise source levels and the model predicts significant increase if cavitation  
168 inception speed (CIS) is exceeded. The Wittekind model requires determination of  
169 vibrating engine mass, engine-mounting type, number of operating engines, vessel  
170 displacement and most importantly, the cavitation inception speed as input. The use of  
171 commercially available databases of ship technical descriptions offers a more complete  
172 description of each vessel than what is available in AIS data itself (Macgillivray and de  
173 Jong, 2021). Most of the required parameters for the Wittekind noise model are readily  
174 available for the model. The key benefits of the used modeling approach include: **a)** the  
175 use of transponder data from AIS, which describes the ship activity as a function of  
176 time; **b)** updates of global underwater noise emission inventories, which can be reported  
177 annually; **c)** realistic description of noise as a function of vessel physical and technical  
178 description and **d)** construction of noise scenarios, which allow testing of vessel based  
179 mitigation options.

180  
181 The challenges of the chosen approach include an estimation of CIS and engine  
182 mounting parameters needed by the Wittekind noise source model, which cannot be  
183 obtained from available vessel databases. The approach used in this paper excludes the  
184 noise shipping generates during icebreaking, which can be significant, but it is mostly  
185 restricted to polar areas and dwarfed by the continuous shipping noise. It should also  
186 be stressed that noise energy maps presented in this paper do not include noise  
187 propagation but is equivalent to the energy of a noise source at one-meter distance from

188 the acoustic centre. When instantaneous noise is integrated over time, a noise energy  
189 map is obtained (J.-P. Jalkanen et al., 2018) which can be used to understand the  
190 geospatial distribution of vessel noise. This is a cumulative noise energy assessment  
191 with an integrating period of one year (total noise energy) or one day. The work reported  
192 in this paper involves description of noise sources and their time integration as an  
193 anthropogenic environmental pressure, which can be used as a basis for further work  
194 but should not be taken as a description of environmental state.

195  
196 In STEAM, there exists an option to generate output of shipping noise as point sources,  
197 but this feature was not used in the current work, because noise propagation studies  
198 were not conducted. The current dataset is for 2014-2020, but regular annual updates  
199 are possible in scales from local to global.  
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## Results and Discussion

### Geographical distribution of global shipping noise emissions

206 This work is based on the global modeling of noise energy output of individual ships.  
207 In the results, the noise energy is aggregated to daily grids with a resolution of 0.1  
208 degree (WGS84 coordinate system). The noise emissions were calculated as Gigajoules  
209 (1E9) of energy per time unit and sea area (J. P. Jalkanen et al., 2018). These gridded  
210 data were produced for 63, 125 and 2000 Hz center frequencies of 1/3 octave bands and  
211 the data generated are available for further study. All modeling was done at vessel level,  
212 which enabled studies of noise emissions by vessel type, age, flag state or size. In  
213 consecutive sections, the overall geographical distribution of shipping noise emissions,  
214 its temporal variation and changes caused by the COVID-19 pandemic are presented.  
215

216 *Fig 1. Global map of underwater noise emissions from ships in 2019 (63 Hz 1/3 octave band). The labeled areas*  
217 *are 1: Baffin Sea with Milne mining operations; 2: Kara Sea with Yamal gas fields; 3: Palmer basin research*  
218 *stations; 4: Galapagos Islands; 5: Socotra Island. Note the non-linearity of the color scale.*

219 In Figure 1, the geographical distribution of global underwater noise energy emissions  
220 from ships (63 Hz 1/3 octave band) is presented. The main shipping lanes, e.g. the ones  
221 from China via the Malacca Strait and Red Sea to Europe, have the highest noise inputs  
222 from shipping. Other noisy areas are the Gulf of Mexico and the shipping lanes from  
223 Malacca Strait towards Madagascar and South Africa. In the Arctic, both the the  
224 Barents and Kara seas have significant noise contributions from ships, most likely  
225 connected to oil and gas extraction at high latitudes, and to less extent, usage of the  
226 northern sea route. In addition, the noise energy emissions at Baffin Bay, likely  
227 connected to the increased Milne mining operations can be seen in Figure 1. Very few  
228 ships attempted sailing the northwest passage during 2019 (Halliday et al., 2017).  
229 Shipping noise in the Antarctic area is connected mostly to the service traffic of various  
230 research stations near Palmer Basin. There are very few places unaffected by shipping  
231 noise; even in the protected area of Galapagos Islands, there are indications of shipping  
232 noise patterns which connect the individual islands.  
233

234 In Figure 2, the difference of annual total noise energy from ships between years 2019  
235 and 2014 is shown. This has been done simply by subtracting the annual totals of 2019  
236 from the totals of 2014 (63Hz data). Therefore, negative values indicate a reduction of  
237 noise energy and positive values an increase, respectively. It can be seen from Figure 2  
238 that in most areas the annual shipping noise emissions have increased. However, there  
239 exist few places where emissions have reduced during the study period, such as parts  
240 of the Gulf of Oman, but this is likely a result of increasing political tension in the area  
241 than an attempt to reduce noise. The main shipping lane in that area was further south  
242 in 2019 than in 2014. Also, the noisiest areas in the shipping lane from Malacca Strait  
243 towards the southern tip of Madagascar has shifted closer to the islands of Reunion and  
244 Mauritius between 2014 and 2019, which has increased the shipping contributions in  
245 areas close to these two locations. Further, significant increase in underwater noise was  
246 observed from Asia-Europe traffic between the Horn of Africa and Socotra island.  
247

248 *Figure 2 Changes in underwater noise energy emissions, 2014-2019, at 63Hz 1/3 octave band. This difference map*  
249 *illustrates the changes during this period. Red areas indicate increase in shipping noise and blue areas indicate a*  
250 *decrease.*

251 An increase in emitted noise was predicted for the South China Sea, Yellow Sea and  
252 the Mediterranean Sea. Despite some regional differences in underwater noise emission  
253 patterns, increased emissions were discovered in most sea areas from 2014 to 2019. At  
254 global level, the underwater noise emitted by ships has doubled in the period of six  
255 years for this frequency band, which is faster than often quoted +3dB/decade rate, and  
256 corresponding to doubling of energy, for the Northeast Pacific(McDonald et al., 2006).  
257 Eastern and Southeastern Asia regions have large underwater noise emissions,  
258 especially Singapore and Hong Kong-Shanghai shipping lanes indicate high  
259 contribution of ships to underwater noise.  
260

### 261 **Temporal distribution of global shipping noise emissions**

262 As shown previously(Jalkanen et al., 2013), there are seasonal patterns in regional ship  
263 exhaust emissions, but similar features are also observed for noise. The temporal profile  
264 of cargo traffic is different from that of passenger traffic, and these features are  
265 prominent in areas with dense passenger shipping. For example, in the Baltic Sea area,  
266 the summer season represents the maximum when passenger cruise traffic is at its  
267 highest and air emissions from ships are high. With noise emissions, the temporal  
268 variation can be as high as 20% at monthly level, using daily corrected values. Figure  
269 3 indicates the seasonal development of noise at global level and reports monthly totals  
270 for shipping noise emissions. It can be observed that the highest monthly emissions (for  
271 the 63Hz frequency at 1/3 octave band) mostly occur in Oct-Nov each year, but the  
272 overall trend throughout the whole 2014-2019 period is increasing. If the increasing  
273 trend is continued, global shipping noise energy emissions will double in a period of  
274 six years.

275  
276 *Figure 3 Monthly emissions of global underwater noise for the 63, 125 and 2000 Hz frequencies at third octave*  
277 *bands from Jan 2014 – Dec 2020. The global COVID-19 pandemic decreased the noise emissions significantly*  
278 *from Oct-Nov 2019 and onwards.*

279

### 280 **Impact of COVID-19 on shipping noise emissions**

281 The increasing trend observed for the 2014-2019 period for the global domain was  
282 broken by the COVID-19 pandemic. This caused a disruption in shipping activities,  
283 which, in turn, resulted to a decrease in reduced the noise emissions from ships nearly  
284 to 2017 levels. Recently, studies reporting decreased shipping noise in various areas  
285 have appeared (Čurović et al., 2021; Thomson and Barclay, 2020) which could be used  
286 to understand changes the pandemic introduced to underwater noise in different areas.  
287 These studies were conducted as hydrophone measurements for the first quarter of 2020  
288 indicated a reduction in vessel noise, which was attributed to the traffic reduction. It is  
289 expected that this decrease of underwater noise is only temporary and upon the recovery  
290 of the world economy, noise emissions will be increased again. This is probable unless  
291 vessel operation and fleet size changes as a response to greenhouse gas (GHG)  
292 reduction efforts.  
293

294 The reduction of underwater noise emissions from ships because of the global pandemic  
295 began in November 2019 (Figure 4). Global shipping noise energy reached its  
296 maximum in October 2019 and started to decrease thereafter, with a large decrease in  
297 Dec 2019-Jan 2020. This disrupted the increasing trend of underwater noise and the  
298 total noise emissions were returned close to the level predicted for 2017. This disruption  
299 was experienced at different times, depending on the extent and the timing of regional  
300 lockdowns.

301 In Figure 4, the reduction of underwater noise emissions from ships (at 63Hz frequency  
302 of  $\frac{1}{3}$  octave band) is clearly visible on major shipping lanes between China and the EU  
303 (Arabian Sea: -36%, Red Sea: -30%, Mediterranean Sea: -52%).

304  
305 *Figure 4 Changes in underwater noise emitted from ships during 2020-2019. Noise is given as energy emissions in*  
306 *units of Gigajoules per grid cell.*

307 The emissions of shipping noise on Eastern China Sea (-9%) were only slightly changed  
308 and in some sub-regions, like the Yellow Sea, noise emissions increased (+14%) despite  
309 the pandemic.

310  
311 A separate analysis for the EU, Mediterranean, North Sea and the Baltic Sea was  
312 conducted based on the global noise and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Overall, the underwater noise  
313 emissions from ships at EU region was reduced by 18% since March 2020 (63 Hz), the  
314 month which had the largest noise emissions of 2020. In December 2020, the noise  
315 energy levels in the EU domain were reduced by 10% compared to the noise emissions  
316 in January 2020. Closer inspection of regional seas like the Baltic, North Sea and the  
317 Mediterranean Sea indicate the largest noise emission reduction occurred in the North  
318 Sea area (-28%), followed by the Baltic Sea (-19%) and the Mediterranean Sea (-13%).  
319 The noise emissions from shipping in these areas during the summer months had a  
320 slight temporary increase but turned to decrease after the summer months. This second  
321 decrease in noise emissions coincides with the start of the second wave of the  
322 pandemic.(Looi, 2020)

323

## 324 **Regional trends of underwater shipping noise emissions**

325 Previous measurements in Northeast Pacific over four decades indicated an increasing  
326 3 dB/decade trend (doubling of noise every ten years), which has been viewed as  
327 moderate growth of shipping noise (McDonald et al., 2006). For comparison, we have  
328 computed the annual noise energy emitted from ships in selected sea regions – including  
329 the Pacific - during 2014-2019 (Figure 5) using the sea area definitions from the  
330 International Hydrographic Organization (IHO). The long-term development of noise  
331 is different in various areas and a single number, like the 3dB/decade, does not describe  
332 the heterogeneous trends very well. The table S1 of the Supplementary data contains  
333 the regional data in numerical form.

334

335 The increase of regional ship underwater noise emissions in the 2014-2019 period was  
336 found to be diverse in various parts of the world. Based on the global modeling of ship  
337 underwater noise emissions, the global trend from 2014-2019 indicates that noise  
338 emissions double every six years, but regional variations of noise increase are large  
339 (Figure 5). The global pandemic disrupted the rapidly increasing noise trend and  
340 returned the noise emissions close to 2017 level.

341



342 *Figure 5 Regional trends of underwater noise energy emitted by ships in 63 Hz frequency at 1/3 octave band.*  
343 *Increasing noise emissions are observed in most sea areas. Note, that Arctic Ocean, English Channel and*  
344 *Norwegian Sea noise energy use the right-side axis and broken trendline, whereas for other regions the left*  
345 *vertical axis and dotted trend lines should be used. Open symbols and crosses are noise energies for same sea*  
346 *regions in 2020, but these have not been included in the estimation of the trend.*

347 Considering the lack of regulatory framework for shipping noise, the temporary  
348 disruption of the rapidly increasing trend before the pandemic indicates that shipping  
349 noise increased at a faster rate than previously expected. Regional noise emission  
350 energy totals were investigated by sea area and are depicted in Figure 5. The closed  
351 symbols correspond to annual noise emissions (@63Hz 1/3 octave band) from ships in  
352 different IHO sea areas during 2014-2019. The symbols for year 2020 data are coloured  
353 similarly to those of earlier years. The trend lines, based on linear regression totals,  
354 include data from the period before the pandemic and could be considered to reflect a  
355 period with regular shipping without major disruptions to vessel traffic. According to  
356 the results, there has been a notable increase in vessel noise emissions in many sea areas  
357 and for most presented sea areas the trend is linear. If these trends were to continue,  
358 without the COVID-19 impact on noise, it would take significantly shorter time than  
359 one decade to double (+3 dB) the noise levels in various areas. If the linear noise trend  
360 continues (without the pandemic), various sea regions have different periods during  
361 which the shipping noise energy is doubled.

362  
363 Based on the trends shown in Figure 5 it is possible to estimate the time which it takes  
364 to double the underwater noise energy emissions (Table 1). Based on this analysis, four  
365 different groups of sea regions can be observed. First there is the group of areas where  
366 shipping noise emissions have decreased during the study period or the expected  
367 doubling of shipping noise energy takes more than 12 years. In this group, the Seto  
368 Inland Sea, separating the three main islands of Japan, the Gulf of Alaska, and the Sea  
369 of Azov (north of the Black Sea), Gulf of California and Southeast Alaska (Table 1)  
370 have almost constant or decreasing noise emissions, but the shipping noise for 11 other  
371 sea has increased moderately. The second group consists of sea regions, where noise  
372 energy emissions double every eight to twelve years. This group consists of 18 regions,  
373 including many areas in Southeast Asia. The third group contains eight sea areas  
374 investigated in this study and the doubling of vessel noise takes approximately five to  
375 seven years. This group contains many European sea areas, like the Baltic Sea, North  
376 Sea, and the Mediterranean Sea. Finally, the sea areas included in the fourth group have  
377 the highest annual noise energy growth rates with significantly faster rate than the 3  
378 dB/decade. It is noteworthy that this group includes not only the Red Sea, but also the  
379 northern areas like the Arctic Ocean and the Norwegian Sea. The noise energy totals in  
380 the Arctic sea regions in 2014 were low and doubling of shipping noise emissions can  
381 be achieved rather easily. Regardless, it should be noted that most of this increase in  
382 northern latitudes is probably a result of increased traffic towards the Barents and Kara  
383 Sea and are consequences of increased exploitation of natural resources in that area.

384  
385 *Table 1 The number of years during which the underwater noise emissions is predicted to double, if the 2014-2019*  
386 *noise trend continues. The thick black borders separate sea areas to groups, according to the number of years it*  
387 *takes to double (+3 dB) the shipping noise compared to 2014 levels. Note: Only noise at 63 Hz 1/3 octave band is*  
388 *considered in this analysis.*

389 The values of Table 1 have been plotted in Figure 6 for convenience. With this, the high  
390 latitudes clearly stand out, but also the Pacific Ocean and several European seas are  
391 areas of concern.

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*Figure 6 Underwater noise emissions trend in various sea areas. Blue = Doubling of shipping noise takes more than 10 years or it has decreased over time; Light Blue = Doubling shipping noise takes 8-10 years; Light yellow = noise doubles within 7-8 years; Light red = noise doubling within 4-7 years; Red = noise doubling in 3-4 years; Dark red = noise doubling in a period shorter than three years. It should be noted that Arctic shipping noise in 2014 started at a very low level and modest increase in Arctic shipping easily doubled the noise emissions from ships.*

399

## 400 **Shipping noise emissions by vessel type**

401 One of the advantages of the chosen modeling approach is that it allows determination  
402 of noise energy emissions at ship level as a function of vessel speed, considering the  
403 technical characteristics of each vessel in the global fleet. Figure 7 and Table S2 present  
404 examples of this analysis. The height of the three bars (Figure 7) for each year  
405 correspond to noise energy emitted at 63, 125 and 2000 Hz  $\frac{1}{3}$  octave bands. The noise  
406 energy emissions at 2000 Hz frequency band are significantly lower than for the two  
407 other studied bands, because the difference of source level at high frequency can be as  
408 much as 30dB. From Figure 7 it can be determined that the largest contributions to  
409 vessel noise come from container ships and bulk dry cargo carriers, albeit the share of  
410 general cargo ships and chemical tankers have increased strongly during the last three  
411 years. The large contribution of containerships to overall noise is consistent with earlier  
412 findings (Veirs et al., 2018). According to our results, in the list of top 1000 noisiest  
413 vessels, considering the noise energy emitted over a period of one year, containerships  
414 occupy the first 220 places and represent almost half of the entries on this list.

415  
416

*Figure 7 Global noise contribution of various ship types 2014-2019 presented as Gigajoules/year.*

417 The increased noise emissions from containerships may be partly because of the  
418 increased number of vessels (2014-2019: +12%) or their increased average size, but  
419 noise also depends on operating speed. Over 90% of the bulk carriers, gas tankers and  
420 vehicle carriers operate with speeds above their estimated cavitation inception speed  
421 (CIS), which will lead to large underwater noise emissions. Almost all vessels have  
422 decreased their sailing speed during the pandemic, except for LNG tankers. About 95-  
423 97% of LNG tanker fleet operated above the estimated CIS, which is in contrast with  
424 all other vessel types. Large change in operating speeds were observed for RoRo cargo  
425 vessels, of which 75% operated above CIS before the pandemic and only 57% during  
426 the COVID-19 pandemic. In case of passenger cruise vessels, the total time spent  
427 cruising decreased by 58%, which illustrates the large change in cruise sector operation  
428 during 2020. The travel restrictions resulted in a 50% increase in time spent standing  
429 still, which reduced the noise emissions from cruise vessels by 70% globally.  
430 Contributions of various types of vessels to global shipping noise are reported in  
431 Supplementary material table S2.

432  
433

## 433 **Uncertainties**

434 Undoubtedly, the largest source of uncertainty in our modeling approach is the  
435 determination of cavitation inception speed. This key parameter cannot be obtained  
436 from currently available shipping registries, and it is not routinely reported in vessel  
437 technical databases. Our previous work (J. P. Jalkanen et al., 2018; Karasalo et al., 2017)  
438 investigated the performance of our approach in relation to observed noise signatures

439 of ships in the Baltic Sea area and reported largest differences in cases of vessels which  
440 use controllable pitch propellers. These vessels do not regulate their velocity by  
441 changing propeller rotation speed but change the blade pitch angle instead. Since most  
442 of the world fleet is equipped with fixed pitch propellers, and the Wittekind model was  
443 developed for this kind of vessels, the significance of this uncertainty is likely to be  
444 limited. In our previous study(J. P. Jalkanen et al., 2018), the sensitivity of noise  
445 prediction was tested by changing the cavitation inception threshold speeds by one knot  
446 (from 9-14 to 10-15 knots) which decreased the noise levels of slow moving cargo ships  
447 since more vessel were predicted to operate below the cavitation inception speed. At  
448 inventory level, this change reduced the noise emissions at 63 Hz third octave band by  
449 26%, most notably in vessel classes which have low design speed (crude oil tankers,  
450 bulk cargo vessels)(J. P. Jalkanen et al., 2018). However, this is unlikely to change the  
451 noise trends or the conclusions of this work because similar contributions would be  
452 observed for each year.

453  
454 Another, yet a smaller source of uncertainty arises from incomplete AIS coverage, gaps  
455 in temporal or geographical coverage may occur and these need to be addressed. The  
456 impact of temporal gaps in ship activity data are likely to be small, because global AIS  
457 service availability was over 99.5 and 99.7 percent for 2019 and 2020, respectively.  
458 The model is also capable of solving shortest path – navigation tasks in case of sparse  
459 data, avoiding land masses in between the two known vessel positions. Incomplete  
460 technical description for vessels is also a source of uncertainty, especially considering  
461 the parameters for engine mass. However, the model can estimate missing attributes  
462 based on the data from the most similar vessel. Further details are available in our earlier  
463 work (Johansson et al., 2017).

464  
465 The uncertainty involved in predicting noise energies is impacted by the model  
466 performance. Each of the predicted annual noise energy totals is subject to uncertainties  
467 mentioned above. However, the error involved in prediction of the overall noise trend  
468 is less uncertain than that of individual points, if we assume that individual predictions  
469 are equally uncertain each year.

## 471 472 **Conclusions**

473  
474 A major result of this modeling study is the quantified rapid increase of underwater  
475 noise emissions from shipping, which is faster than previously expected. At the current  
476 rate, the global shipping noise emissions double every six years. The COVID-19  
477 pandemic has temporarily disrupted this increasing trend, but it is expected that noise  
478 emissions will increase again once the world economy recovers. In this paper, a rapid  
479 increase of shipping noise emissions in near pristine areas, like the Arctic was found,  
480 but starting from a low level. Mining operations, oil/gas extraction and vessel routing  
481 through Arctic areas will lead to increased shipping noise in these regions.

482  
483 Out of the 45 studied areas, only three had decreasing shipping noise trend. Further, 16  
484 sea regions were found where doubling of shipping noise takes longer than a decade,  
485 whereas 26 remaining sea areas indicate faster increase of noise than that. Of these 26,  
486 several European sea areas and especially the Arctic areas were found to have rapid  
487 increase of shipping noise emissions during the study period.

489 Unfortunately, the 12 major sea areas of rapidly increasing noise emissions cover most  
490 of the Arctic Ocean, especially if vessel traffic through the Northern Sea Route  
491 increases. The global pandemic has temporarily reduced the underwater noise back to  
492 2017 levels. The predicted noise energy in 2020 was reduced by 24% compared to 2019  
493 total at 63 Hz frequency band. Largest changes were predicted for passenger cruisers,  
494 oil tankers and ropax vessels.  
495

496 According to the model, the largest contribution to underwater noise emissions comes  
497 from container ships, when the results are aggregated by vessel category. Based on the  
498 contribution of individual vessels, the 220 largest noise energy emitters are all  
499 containerships. This metric considers both the source level (dB), and the time  
500 integration of noise emissions over the period of one year. It cannot be interpreted that  
501 the containerships have the highest source levels, because both the source level and  
502 active time contribute to total noise energy emitted. Regardless, vessel design, technical  
503 and operational measures are necessary to avoid rapid increase of shipping noise which  
504 was already observed before the pandemic.  
505

506 The increasing shipping noise is highly variable in different sea regions. Slow steaming  
507 is a potential operational measure to reduce shipping noise significantly if vessels travel  
508 at a slower speed than their cavitation inception speed. For bulk cargo ships and tankers  
509 this would probably necessitate vessel operation below the speed of nine knots. For  
510 faster vessels, like containerships, vehicle carriers and roro/ropax traffic, a speed  
511 reduction of 50% may be required to avoid cavitation. It should be noted that the  
512 predicted noise reduction by slow steaming may reduce the cavitation contribution of  
513 shipping noise, but it may increase the share of total noise energy emitted from  
514 machinery sources. The noise emissions are integrated over time, and when trip  
515 duration increases, so does the integration time for machinery contribution of noise.  
516  
517

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524

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526 modeling and overall responsibility of the work. EM and LJ data processing and  
527 STEAM model updates. MA and PS methodology development and result analysis. All  
528 authors have contributed to the manuscript writing process.  
529

530 **Competing interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.  
531

532 **Data and materials availability:** The daily noise emissions grids are available through  
533 Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo.4730482). The STEAM model and its source code are  
534 property of the Finnish Meteorological Institute and are not publicly available.  
535 Commercial datasets used in this work, the global fleet description from IHS Markit  
536 and AIS data from Orbcomm Ltd., are governed by bilateral contracts which restrict  
537 the usage of these data to FMI only.  
538

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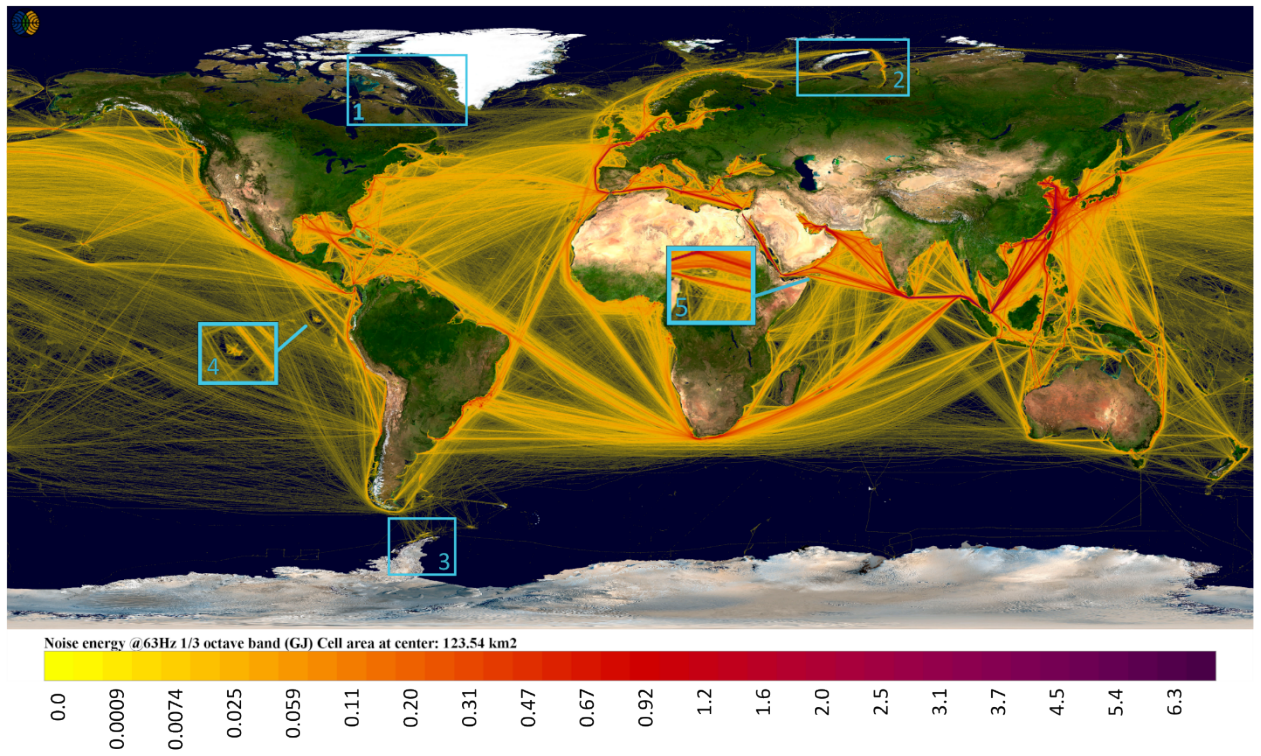
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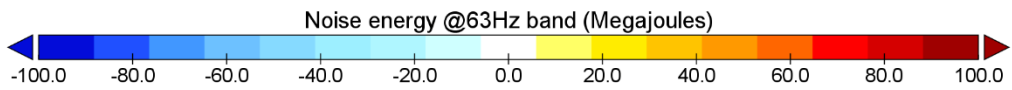
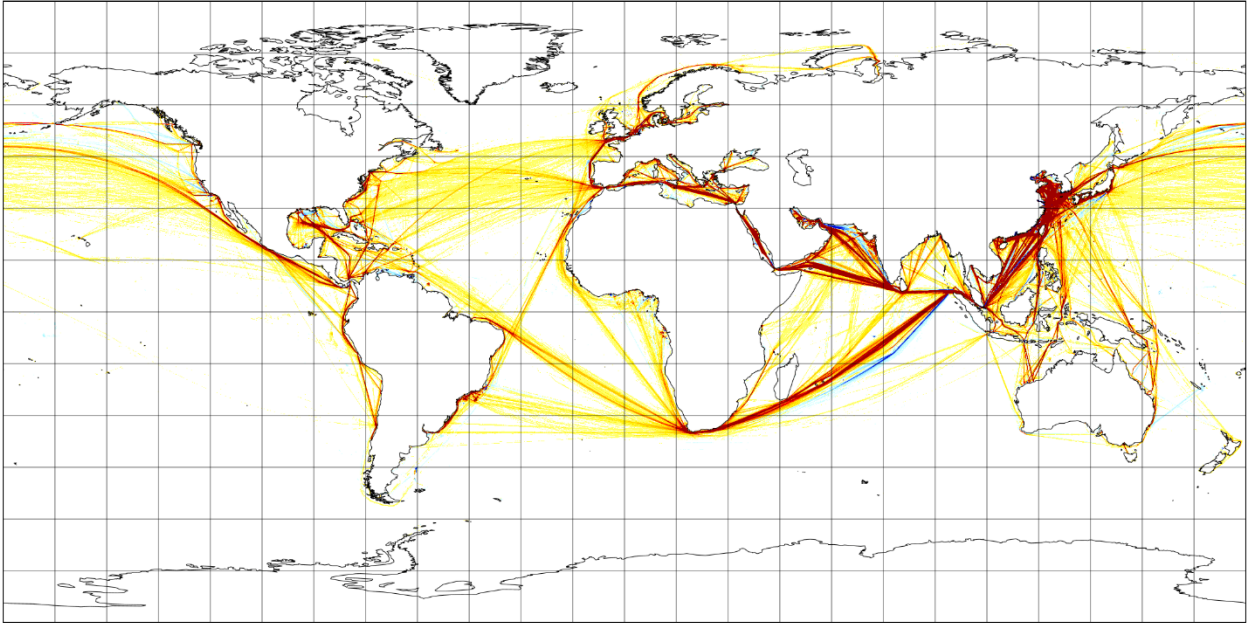
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Figure 1 Global map of underwater noise from ships in 2019 (63 Hz 1/3 octave band, in Gigajoules). The labeled areas are 1: Baffin Sea with Milne mining operations; 2: Kara Sea with Yamal gas fields; 3: Palmer basin research stations; 4: Galapagos Islands; 5: Socotra Island.



Data Min = -7268.5, Max = 18375.4, Mean = 7.3

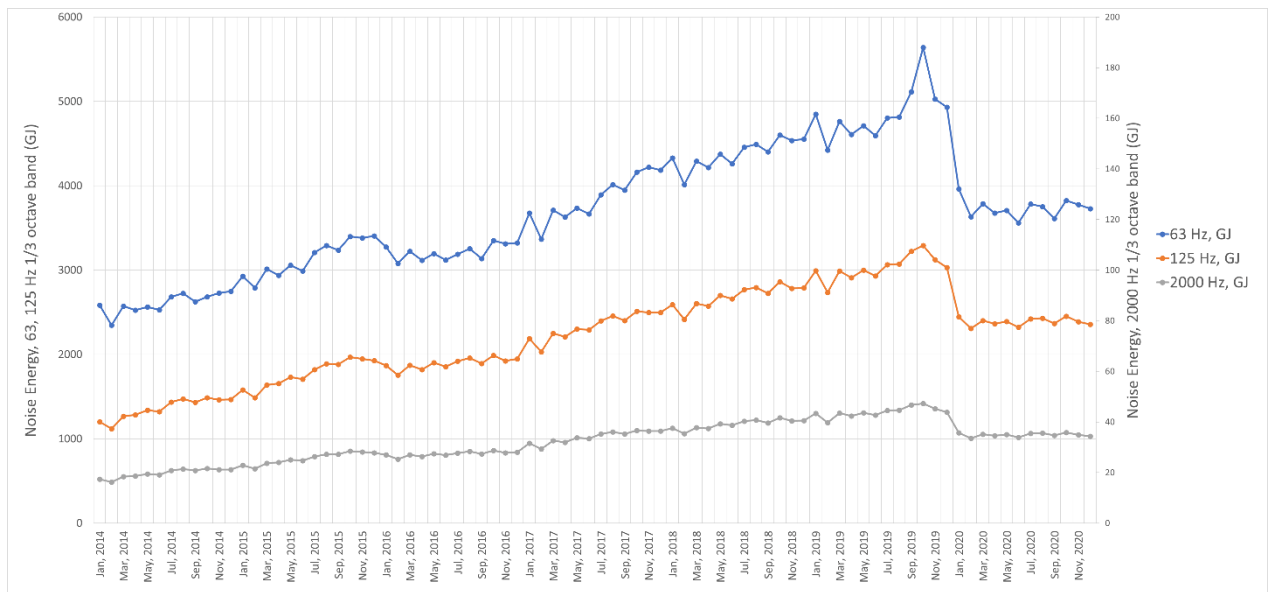
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*Figure 2 Changes in underwater noise energy emissions, 2014-2019, at 63Hz 1/3 octave band (in Megajoules). This difference map illustrates the changes during this period. Red areas indicate increase in shipping noise and blue areas signal a decrease.*

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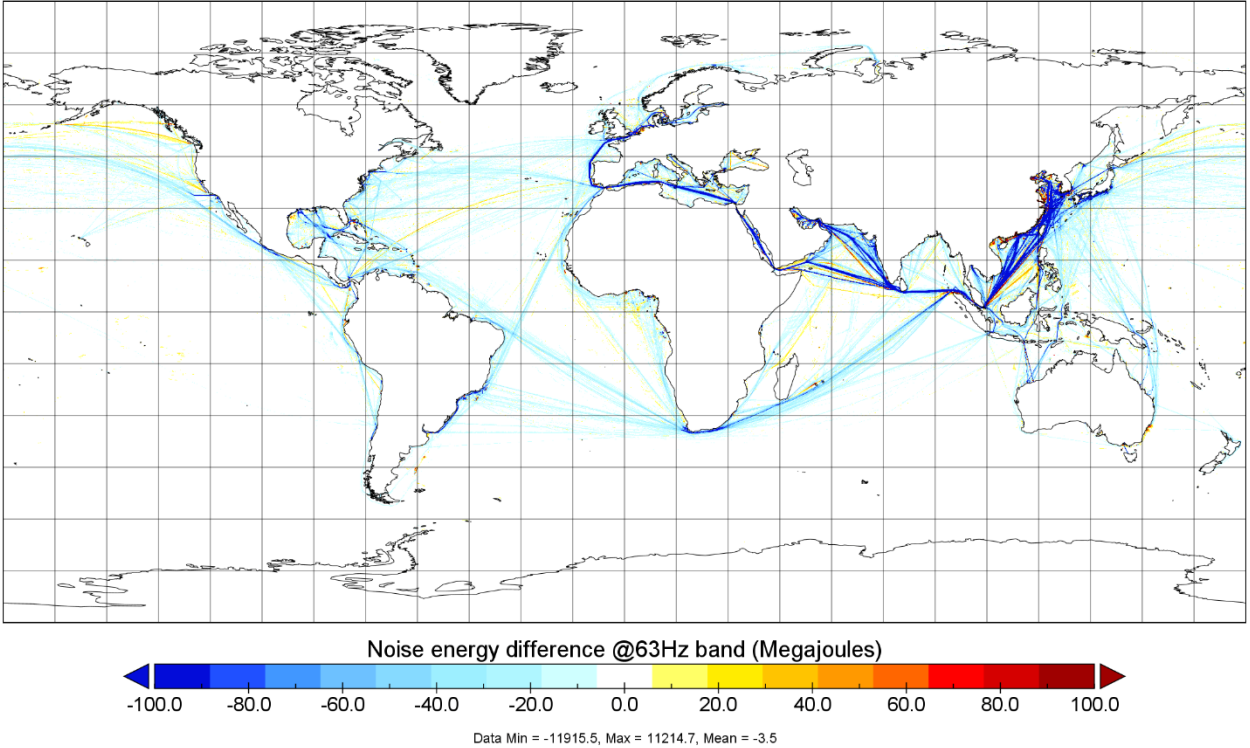
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Figure 3 Monthly emissions of global underwater noise at frequencies 63, 125 and 2000 Hz of 1/3 octave bands. The global COVID-19 pandemic decreased the noise emissions significantly from Oct-Nov 2019 onwards. The 2000Hz scale corresponds to the right-side vertical axis.

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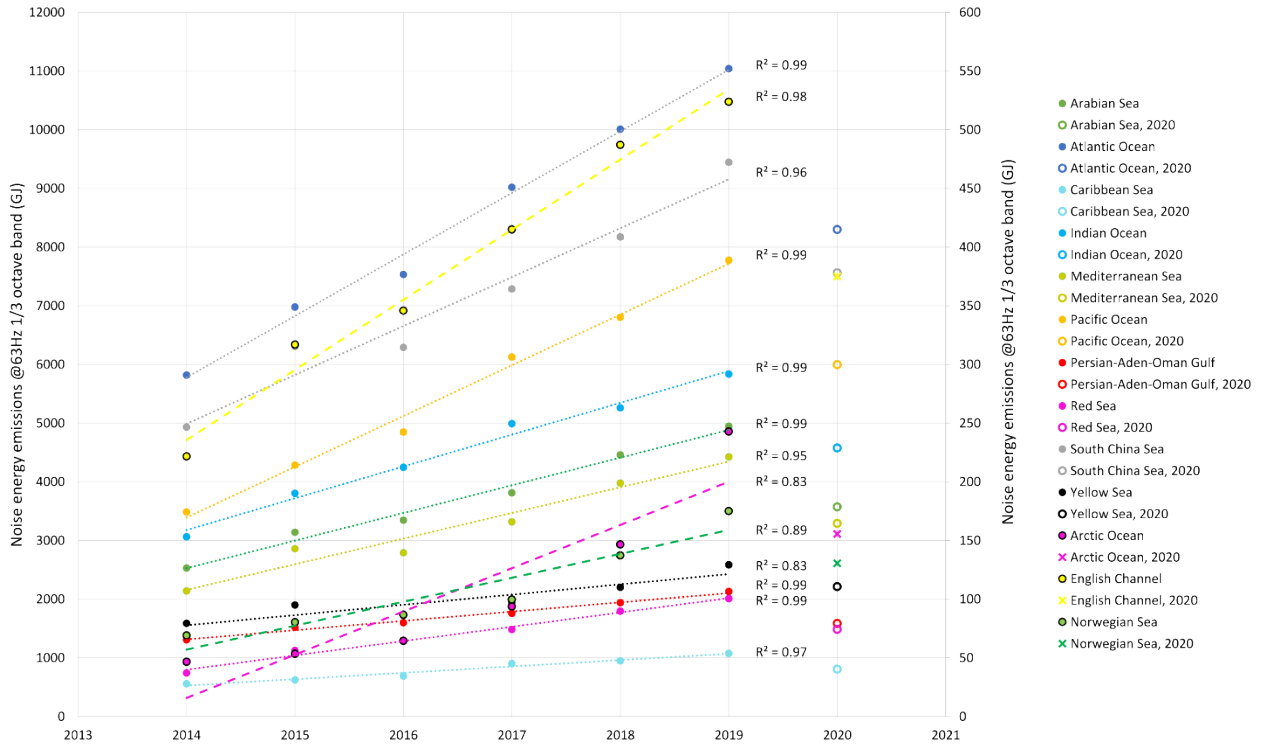


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*Figure 4 Changes in underwater noise emitted from ships during 2020-2019 (in Megajoules). Noise is given as energy in units of Gigajoules per grid cell. The COVID-19 pandemic decreased the underwater noise significantly in major shipping routes.*

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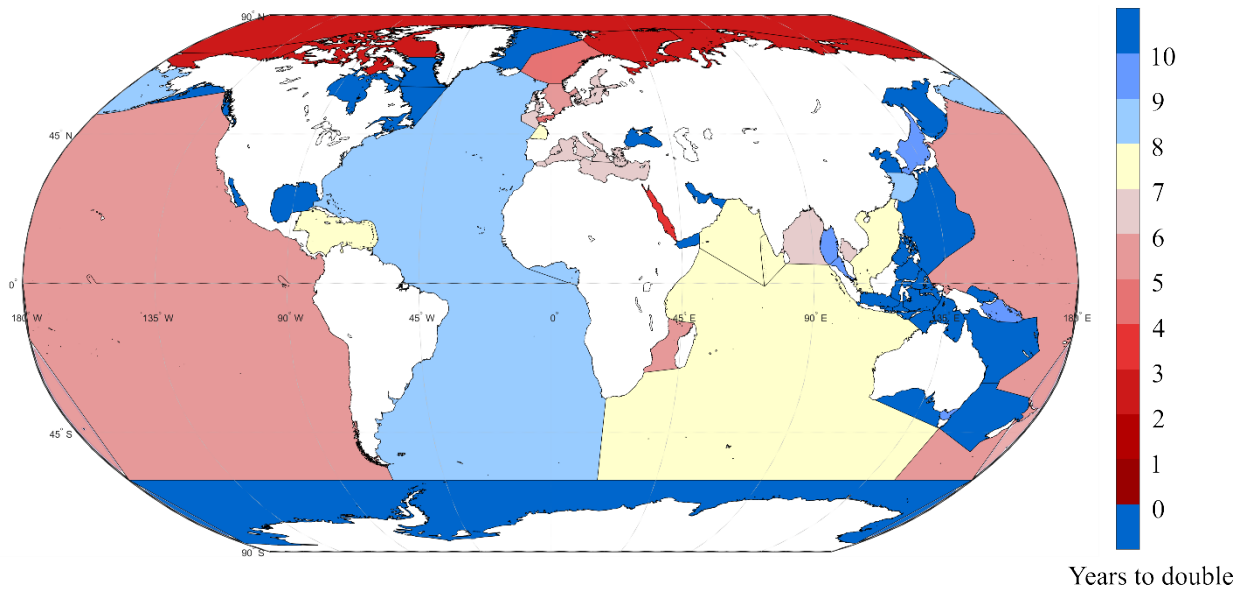
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Figure 5 Regional trends of underwater noise energy emitted by ships in 63Hz frequency at 1/3 octave band. Increasing noise emissions are observed in most sea areas. Note, that Arctic Ocean, English Channel and Norwegian Sea noise energy use the right-side axis and broken trendline, whereas for other regions the left vertical axis and dotted trend lines should be used. Open symbols and crosses are noise energies for same sea regions in 2020, but these have not been included in the estimation of the trend.

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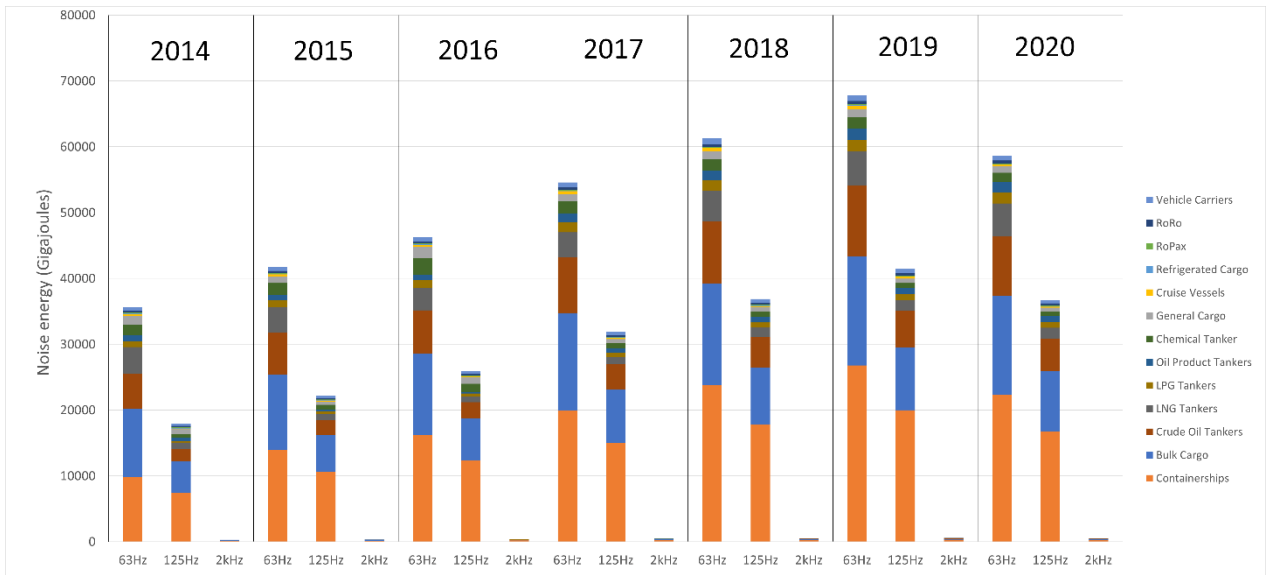
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*Figure 6 Underwater noise emissions trend in various sea areas. Blue = Doubling of shipping noise takes more than 10 years or it has decreased over time; Light Blue = Doubling shipping noise takes 8-10 years; Light yellow = noise doubles within 7-8 years; Light red = noise doubling within 4-7 years; Red = noise doubling in 3-4 years; Dark red = noise doubling in a period shorter than three years. It should be noted that Arctic shipping noise in 2014 started at a very low level and modest increase in Arctic shipping easily doubled the noise emissions from ships.*

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Figure 7 Global noise contribution of various ship types 2014-2019 presented as Gigajoules/year.

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Table 1 The number of years during which the underwater noise emissions is predicted to double, if the 2014-2019 noise trend continues. The thick black borders separate sea areas to groups, according to the number of years it takes to double (+3dB) the shipping noise compared to 2014 levels. Note: Only noise at 63Hz 1/3 octave band is considered in this analysis.

Sea area	Years to double noise emissions	Sea area	Years to double noise emissions
Arctic Ocean	2	Malacca Strait	10
Red Sea	3	Andaman or Burma Sea	10
English Channel	5	Gulf of Mexico	10
Norwegian Sea	5	Bismarck Sea	11
Pacific Ocean	5	Singapore Strait	11
Mozambique Channel	6	Yellow Sea	12
North Sea	6	Sea of Okhotsk	12
Irish & British Seas	6	The Coastal Waters of Southeast Alaska and British Columbia	13
Bay of Bengal	6	Black Sea	14
Mediterranean Sea	7	Persian-Aden-Oman Gulf	14
Gulf of Thailand	7	Philippine Sea	14
Baltic Sea	7	Coral Sea	14
Caribbean Sea	8	East-Indian Archipelago	15
Indian Ocean	8	Hudson-Davis-Labrador-Fundy	17
Bay of Biscay	8	Great Australian Bight	18
South China Sea	8	Southern Ocean	20
Arabian Sea	8	Tasman Sea	20
Atlantic Ocean	8	Greenland Sea	20
Bering Sea	8	Inland Sea	41
Eastern China Sea	9	Gulf of California	Decreasing
Solomon Sea	9	Sea of Azov	Decreasing
Japan Sea	10	Gulf of Alaska	Decreasing
Bass Strait	10		

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Title: Underwater noise from ships during 2014-2020

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Description: This table includes annually emitted ship underwater noise energies during 2014-2020

All values are given in annual sum of noise energy in unit of Gigajoules

Area definitions of International Hydrographic Organization are used for sea area polygons

**Table S1**

Energies in GJ Area	2014			2015			2016			2017			2018			2019			2020		
	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz
Atlantic Ocean	5817	2906	43	6978	3788	56	7531	4320	64	9020	5521	81	10008	6399	94	11041	7018	103	8300	5503	81
Pacific Ocean	3485	2167	32	4284	2798	41	4847	3240	48	6125	4181	62	6804	4713	69	7774	5363	79	5994	4256	62
South China Sea	4931	2458	35	6305	3268	47	6290	3230	46	7286	3762	54	8172	4380	63	9445	5249	75	7561	4201	60
Mediterranean Sea	2139	1202	18	2857	1737	25	2790	1707	25	3316	2098	31	3975	2511	37	4424	2812	41	3290	2125	31
Indian Ocean	3062	1504	22	3802	2059	30	4246	2426	36	4990	2970	44	5258	3244	48	5834	3648	54	4575	2969	44
Arabian Sea	2529	1108	16	3139	1567	23	3345	1785	26	3812	2121	31	4455	2572	37	4945	2891	42	3572	2060	30
Eastern China Sea	2597	1642	24	3108	2051	30	2944	1819	27	3466	2143	31	3958	2497	36	4687	3151	46	4010	2788	41
Philippine Sea	1460	625	9	1550	702	10	1755	827	12	2015	1039	15	2143	1151	17	2312	1298	19	1737	987	14
East-Indian Archipelago	1199	530	8	1258	595	9	1290	653	10	1397	726	11	1597	860	13	1783	999	15	1481	846	12
Yellow Sea	1587	1035	15	1900	1291	19	1722	1098	16	1945	1241	18	2200	1435	21	2585	1799	26	2211	1584	23
Persian-Aden-Oman Gulf	1305	593	8	1520	723	10	1596	798	12	1757	940	14	1938	1059	15	2129	1200	17	1585	883	13
North Sea	649	386	6	853	552	8	912	601	9	1101	751	11	1265	870	13	1348	945	14	1058	762	11
Malacca Strait	1057	471	7	1263	641	9	1384	724	10	1558	841	12	1729	967	14	1889	1099	16	1405	817	12
Caribbean Sea	556	250	4	621	295	4	687	354	5	900	523	8	949	576	8	1076	674	10	806	522	8
Bay of Bengal	847	421	6	1091	588	9	1169	662	10	1374	801	12	1609	943	14	1764	1038	15	1329	754	11
Baltic Sea	250	108	2	297	145	2	323	166	2	372	207	3	434	249	4	515	330	5	393	259	4
Red Sea	741	396	6	1125	659	10	1290	799	12	1481	932	13	1795	1105	16	2009	1259	18	1483	913	13
Japan Sea	718	450	7	880	554	8	918	585	9	1043	700	10	1089	749	11	1281	895	13	1025	720	11
Gulf of Mexico	600	253	4	680	297	4	688	329	5	862	449	7	929	508	7	1050	583	8	784	452	7
Coral Sea	339	176	3	376	204	3	436	236	4	457	263	4	487	293	4	530	324	5	416	266	4
English Channel	222	128	2	317	202	3	346	218	3	415	278	4	487	331	5	524	362	5	375	263	4
Irish & British Seas	168	83	1	221	122	2	227	130	2	269	167	2	314	197	3	367	226	3	261	164	2
Inland Sea	89	55	1	89	54	1	89	55	1	92	61	1	100	70	1	118	84	1	87	62	1
Andaman or Burma Sea	200	94	1	257	129	2	264	139	2	298	165	2	347	191	3	366	207	3	258	144	2

Black Sea	143	75	1	167	94	1	171	96	1	189	108	2	192	112	2	219	134	2	192	123	2
Gulf of Thailand	101	57	1	128	76	1	151	89	1	154	96	1	202	135	2	206	144	2	148	101	1
Norwegian Sea	69	37	1	80	48	1	87	49	1	100	58	1	137	76	1	175	98	1	131	80	1
Bering Sea	116	82	1	122	90	1	152	115	2	162	121	2	185	140	2	193	146	2	189	148	2
Tasman Sea	105	64	1	111	71	1	122	81	1	123	85	1	132	93	1	140	100	1	130	98	1
Singapore Strait	192	106	2	225	140	2	228	139	2	289	183	3	310	198	3	314	222	3	245	177	3
The Coastal Waters of Southeast Alaska and British Columbia	77	51	1	76	54	1	73	51	1	85	61	1	94	69	1	116	85	1	105	84	1
Solomon Sea	104	49	1	124	60	1	152	77	1	168	88	1	171	94	1	185	104	2	144	83	1
Hudson-Davis- Labrador-Fundy	65	30	0	63	32	0	69	40	1	82	49	1	85	53	1	94	61	1	73	50	1
Mozambique Channel	77	35	1	115	54	1	112	56	1	139	76	1	147	86	1	164	94	1	131	81	1
Bismarck Sea	69	32	0	80	38	1	94	47	1	106	56	1	107	58	1	115	64	1	93	53	1
Great Australian Bight	58	33	0	64	39	1	71	47	1	80	54	1	81	56	1	79	56	1	71	54	1
Sea of Okhotsk	53	38	1	60	45	1	62	47	1	66	50	1	85	66	1	82	63	1	70	55	1
Bay of Biscay	27	15	0	32	19	0	28	16	0	34	19	0	46	28	0	52	35	1	43	29	0
Arctic Ocean	47	30	0	53	37	1	64	41	1	94	60	1	147	83	1	243	130	2	156	88	1
Bass Strait	30	18	0	31	20	0	36	24	0	38	26	0	41	29	0	52	39	1	44	34	0
Gulf of Alaska	20	10	0	18	9	0	16	9	0	15	8	0	16	9	0	18	10	0	16	10	0
Sea of Azov	10	7	0	9	7	0	6	5	0	7	5	0	6	4	0	6	5	0	9	7	0
Gulf of California	11	6	0	11	6	0	10	6	0	11	7	0	11	7	0	11	7	0	8	5	0
Greenland Sea	3	2	0	3	3	0	3	3	0	3	2	0	5	4	0	5	4	0	3	2	0
Southern Ocean	5	4	0	5	3	0	5	4	0	5	4	0	5	4	0	7	5	0	6	5	0
<b>Total, GJ</b>	<b>37928</b>	<b>19824</b>	<b>290</b>	<b>46349</b>	<b>25966</b>	<b>379</b>	<b>48806</b>	<b>27947</b>	<b>409</b>	<b>57300</b>	<b>34094</b>	<b>498</b>	<b>64249</b>	<b>39273</b>	<b>573</b>	<b>72273</b>	<b>45063</b>	<b>656</b>	<b>56004</b>	<b>35667</b>	<b>520</b>



Title: Underwater noise from ships during 2014-2020

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Description: This table includes annually emitted ship underwater noise energies during 2014-2020, divided into ship type contributions

All values are given in annual sum of noise energy in unit of Gigajoules

Area definitions of International Hydrographic Organization are used for sea area polygons

Table S2	2014			2015			2016			2017			2018			2019			2020		
	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz
Energies in GJ	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz	63 Hz	125 Hz	2 kHz
Bulk Cargo	10338	4754	71	11406	5588	84	12375	6422	96	14824	8123	121	15397	8713	130	16566	9567	142	12911	7684	114
Containerships	9857	7460	109	13970	10656	155	16219	12366	180	19924	15034	219	23801	17768	258	26771	19980	290	19916	15026	218
General Cargo	1320	743	11	1041	518	8	1728	1012	15	1139	606	9	1167	642	10	1187	664	10	923	533	8
Cruise Vessels	278	108	2	295	112	2	328	128	2	417	189	3	492	238	3	552	284	4	181	111	2
Refrigerated Cargo	109	88	1	82	64	1	71	55	1	79	62	1	83	67	1	93	76	1	98	82	1
RoPax	173	130	2	146	108	2	148	109	2	143	106	2	141	104	2	136	102	2	96	72	1
RoRo	260	184	3	273	197	3	291	213	3	339	250	4	399	300	4	497	380	6	368	285	4
Crude Oil Tankers	5303	1843	27	6397	2246	32	6558	2398	35	8492	3861	56	9490	4687	68	10755	5542	80	7549	3974	58
LNG Tankers	4084	996	12	3825	911	11	3437	847	10	3765	1017	13	4596	1379	18	5203	1629	21	4470	1354	17
LPG Tankers	843	279	4	1055	373	5	1187	475	7	1513	705	10	1596	787	11	1758	844	12	1484	755	11
Oil Product Tankers	1000	444	7	875	315	5	789	270	4	1328	630	9	1502	802	12	1736	963	14	1213	677	10
Chemical Tanker	1529	566	9	1765	720	11	2483	1208	18	1839	826	12	1743	805	12	1705	793	12	1455	726	11
Vehicle Carriers	528	292	4	604	355	5	626	394	6	771	515	8	842	578	9	881	614	9	683	501	7
<b>Total, shiptypes</b>	<b>35622</b>	<b>17886</b>	<b>261</b>	<b>41735</b>	<b>22163</b>	<b>324</b>	<b>46239</b>	<b>25899</b>	<b>379</b>	<b>54572</b>	<b>31925</b>	<b>466</b>	<b>61250</b>	<b>36870</b>	<b>538</b>	<b>67840</b>	<b>41437</b>	<b>603</b>	<b>51347</b>	<b>31781</b>	<b>463</b>
<b>Share from global total, %</b>	<b>94 %</b>	<b>90 %</b>	<b>90 %</b>	<b>90 %</b>	<b>85 %</b>	<b>85 %</b>	<b>95 %</b>	<b>93 %</b>	<b>93 %</b>	<b>95 %</b>	<b>94 %</b>	<b>94 %</b>	<b>95 %</b>	<b>94 %</b>	<b>94 %</b>	<b>94 %</b>	<b>92 %</b>	<b>92 %</b>	<b>92 %</b>	<b>89 %</b>	<b>89 %</b>