

## Research



**Cite this article:** Busch J, Barthlott W, Brede M, Terlau W, Mail M. 2019 Bionics and green technology in maritime shipping: an assessment of the effect of *Salvinia* air-layer hull coatings for drag and fuel reduction. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. A* **377**: 20180263. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2018.0263>

Accepted: 9 October 2018

One contribution of 14 to a theme issue 'Bioinspired materials and surfaces for green science and technology'.

### Subject Areas:

environmental engineering, materials science, biophysics

### Keywords:

green economy, emissions, surface technologies, climate change, superhydrophobic surfaces, fouling

### Authors for correspondence:

W. Barthlott

e-mail: [barthlott@uni-bonn.de](mailto:barthlott@uni-bonn.de)

M. Mail

e-mail: [matthias.mail@uni-bonn.de](mailto:matthias.mail@uni-bonn.de)

Electronic supplementary material is available online at <https://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.c.4335905>.

# Bionics and green technology in maritime shipping: an assessment of the effect of *Salvinia* air-layer hull coatings for drag and fuel reduction

J. Busch<sup>1</sup>, W. Barthlott<sup>1</sup>, M. Brede<sup>2</sup>, W. Terlau<sup>3</sup> and M. Mail<sup>1,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Nees Institute for Biodiversity of Plants, University of Bonn, Venusbergweg 22, D-53115 Bonn, Germany

<sup>2</sup>Institute of Fluid Mechanics, University of Rostock, Albert-Einstein-Straße 2, D-18059 Rostock, Germany

<sup>3</sup>International Centre for Sustainable Development (IZNE), Bonn-Rhein-Sieg University of Applied Sciences, Grantham Allee 20, D-53757 Sankt Augustin, Germany

<sup>4</sup>Institute of Crop Science and Resource Conservation (INRES) – Horticultural Science, University of Bonn, Auf dem Hügel 6, D-53121 Bonn, Germany

 WB, 0000-0002-1990-1912; MM, 0000-0002-9732-8453

To save energy and reduce environmental impacts, new technologies towards a development of a sustainable 'greener' economy are needed. The main opportunity to improve sustainability by reducing emissions is within the transport sector. More than 90% of all goods worldwide are transported by ships. Particularly maritime ships using heavy fuel oil and marine gas oil play a major role. The total fuel consumption of shipping in 2016 was about 250 m t (domestic ca. 50 m t, international shipping ca. 200 m t). The vast portion of the energy consumption of a ship is the need to overcome the drag between ship hull and water—depending on the shape of the vessel and its size up to 90% of total fuel consumption. This means reducing drag helps to save fuel and reduces carbon emissions as well as pollution considerably. Different techniques for drag reduction are known, e.g. the micro-bubble technique or the bulbous bow. We investigated a novel bioinspired

technique since 2002: the application of biomimetic surfaces with long-term stable air layers on ship hulls, serving as a slip agent. This technology is based on the Salvinia Effect, allowing a permanent stabilization of air layers under water. In this case study, we analysed the possible savings, which also could be combined with modified micro-bubble technologies. We calculated, based on a selection of five ship types, representing 75% of the world fleet, that air-layer hull coatings could lead to estimated savings of 32.5 million tons of fuel (meaning 13.0% of the worldwide shipping fuel consumption), equal to 18.5 billion US\$ and 130.0 million tons of CO<sub>2e</sub> per year. The positive impacts on global temperature and other greenhouse gases are calculated and could be a contributing factor in accomplishing the UN Sustainable Development Goals and the Paris Agreement to the UN Framework Convention on Climate Change. The study is a contribution to enhance our patchy knowledge concerning the potential economic and ecological benefit of bionics and biomimetic technologies.

This article is part of the theme issue 'Bioinspired materials and surfaces for green science and technology'.

## 1. Introduction

Since the beginning of the industrial revolution, the production of goods and the need for energy have continually risen: an effect of the growth of Earth's population and globalization. Faster and efficient ways to transport goods were required. At the beginning of the Anthropocene, we have to rethink our well-established paradigms for the future [1,2]. The current levels of economic activities and standard of living require energy, usually still based on fossil fuels. Increasing emissions are supposed to be the main driver for global warming. New paradigms or a 'social transformation towards a more sustainable economic system' [1,3] with an integration of social, cultural, ecological and economic aspects are necessary [2,4]. First approaches towards a 'greener economy' have been introduced, e.g. the globally increasing numbers of wind turbines and solar panels.

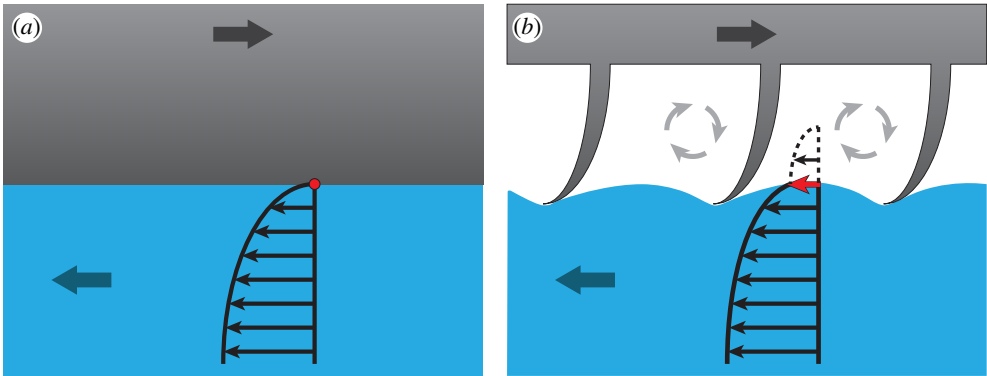
A promising approach is bioinspired 'learning from nature', bionics or biomimetics [5]. Bionic technologies could be an important component contributing to the 17 UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the Agenda 2030 [6].

Drag of moving solids in a liquid (e.g. ships in water) can be reduced by different physical mechanisms. We have shown that a persistent air layer between ship hull and water is most effective in reducing friction and drag (surveys in [7–9]). In this paper, we focus on an economic and ecological assessment of the effect of persistent air layers under water (Salvinia Effect [7,10]) for drag reduction and consequently fuel saving. Although bionics and biomimetics play an important role in research, economy and public awareness, very few data are available concerning the actual economic potential and ecological benefit in this field. The assessment and figures presented here fill a gap in this requirement.

## 2. Biomimetic technologies: economic and ecological value

Bioinspiration is as old as mankind (historical survey in [5]). It is estimated [11] that by 2030 biomimetic technologies may account for 425 billion US\$ of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP, in terms of 2013 dollars) in the USA alone; an additional \$65 billion could possibly be saved through reduced resource depletion, emissions and pollution. This could mean on a global scale \$1.6 trillion of total output or GDP with another \$500 billion added by resource savings, emission and pollution mitigation (by 2030) [11].

The main sectors with resource saving opportunities are transportation, energy and manufacturing [12]. Considering the increasing global transport activities resulting in increasing emissions, environmental protection is a crucial factor in logistics. Ships transport more than



**Figure 1.** Schematic of the drag reduction by air layers. (a) Flow profile on a conventional ship hull. The water velocity at the surface boundary layer is zero. (b) An air layer functions as slip agent, the water velocity at the interface is larger than zero, drag is reduced. Adapted from [8].

90% of all goods worldwide [13,14]. Owing to the major role in global trade and the high share in emissions of around 2.6% of globally emitted  $\text{CO}_{2e}$  in 2012 [15] the shipping industry and especially the maritime ships, with their use of heavy fuel oil and marine gas oil, are a major contributor to the transport sector's emissions.

In 2015, 10 billion tons of goods were transported by ships [16]. The shipping industry is one of the major fuel consumers. In 2016, the total fuel consumption of all transport ships (ca. 71% of total shipping consumption) and cruise ships (ca. 4% of total shipping consumption) worldwide was about 187.5 m tons [15,17]. By far the largest portion is needed to overcome the drag with the surrounding water—depending on the ship type up to 90% [18].

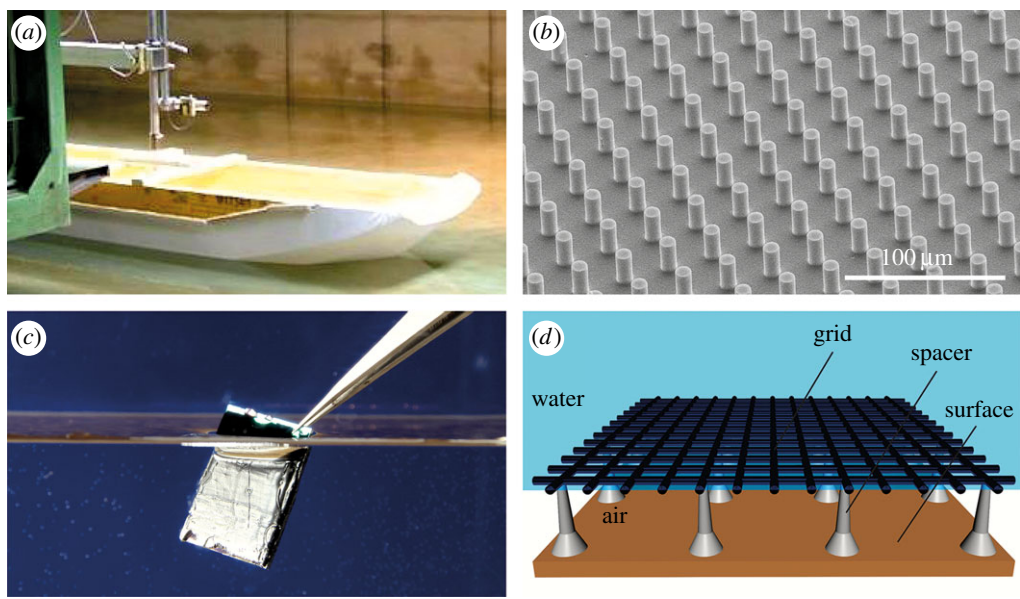
Techniques to reduce this drag lead to a considerable reduction of fuel consumption, emission, and pollution and to a reduction of costs. Different technologies to realize drag reduction have been developed. For example, the ejection of micro-bubbles in order to achieve air lubrication—a technique that is possibly biomimetic and occurs on penguins [19]. Other examples are the bulbous bow [20,21], or riblet surface structures inspired by shark skin [22]—the latter successfully applied by the 3M saw tooth riblet coating for boats, e.g. in the America's cup [23] and on Speedo-Swimsuit; however, it is questionable which role the swimmer locomotion and even possibly trapped air layers play [22,24].

### 3. Air layers for drag reduction in water

A different approach is the use of persistent air layers on the ship hull. In 1995, Latorre *et al.* [25] showed that the drag of water streaming over a thin layer of air might be reduced up to about 80% compared to a smooth surface because of the lower (55 times) viscosity of air. The basic principle of this drag reduction is shown in figure 1. If water flows over a smooth solid surface, the velocity at the boundary layer is zero due to the friction between water and surfaces. If an air layer is switched between the solid surface and the liquid, the velocity is higher than zero—the lower viscosity reduces the transmission of friction forces.

Already in 2007, we performed measurements with a prototypic hydrophobic textile at the German 'Development Centre for Ship Technology and Transport Systems (DST)' (figure 2a). A drag reduction of up to 10% [26,27] was measured. In following experiments at the Institute of Fluid Mechanics at the University of Rostock, a reduction of the friction of more than 30% on a flow profile covered with a more elaborate air retaining flock surface was achieved [28]. These impressive results indicate the potential of air retaining surfaces.

Persistent air layers under water evolved in many aquatic and semiaquatic organisms as an evolutionary adaptation to drag reduction or respiration under water. Optimized examples are the floating fern *Salvinia* (figure 3a,c) [10] with a most sophisticated 'technology' using hydrophilic



**Figure 2.** Technical prototypes of air retaining surfaces. (a) First measurement with a 7 m boat with a hydrophobic air retaining hull at the German Development Centre for Ship Technology and Transport Systems (DST) resulted in a drag reduction about 10%. (b) SEM image of the micropillars on a prototypical bionic surface. (c) Submerged sample of surface covered with hydrophobic carbon nanotubes (CNT), retaining an air layer under water. (d) Schematic of the Air Retaining Grids (AirGrids).

chemical heterogeneities on a superhydrophobic surface [29], or the backswimmer *Notonecta* (figure 3*b,d*) [31]. Reviews and surveys are given in [7–9].

Four criteria are important for long-term air retention under water [8]: (1) hair-like structures, (2) a hydrophobic chemistry, (3) undercuts and (4) the elasticity of the structures. Additionally, hydrophilic pins (*Salvinia Paradox*) may occur. Examples of technical prototypes are shown in figure 2.

For an easier and more cost-effective production of air retaining surfaces, we developed ‘Air Retaining Grids’ (AirGrids) [7,8]. In this case, the air layer is retained by hydrophobic grid-like structures mounted at a defined distance on the ship hull surface. This technique allows a combination with the well-established micro-bubbles technique. The micro-bubbles can be used to refill the air layer in case of a loss of air. But as the air is retained by the AirGrid surface, only a reduced quantity of supply is necessary, and the additional energy needed for the bubble producing pumps is reduced.

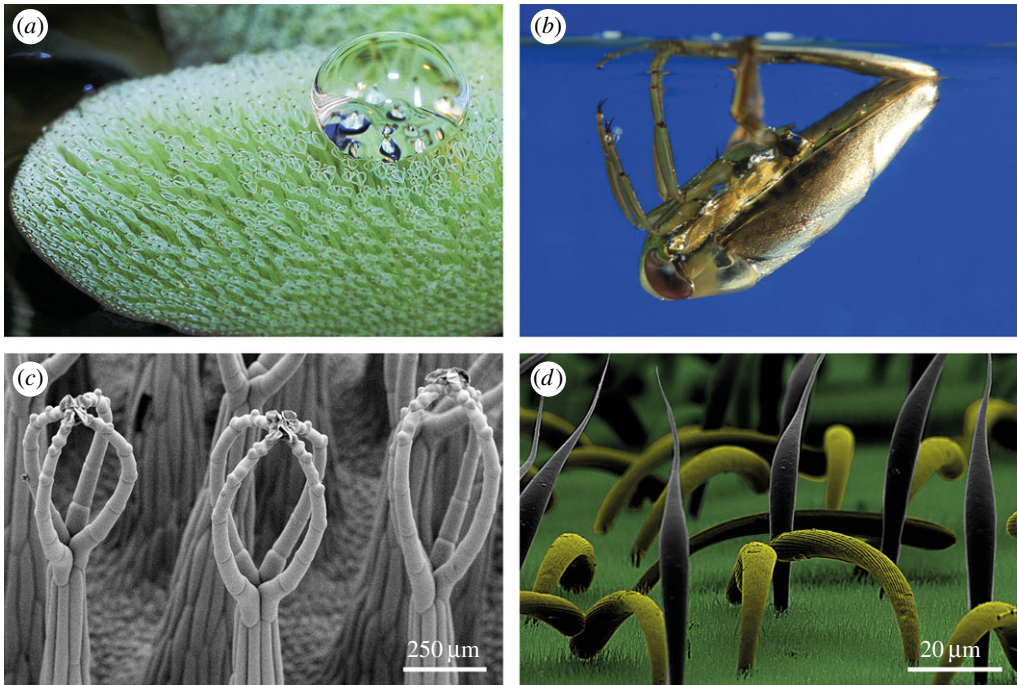
#### 4. Case study: calculated fuel-, emission-, and cost-savings, based on five maritime ship types

To investigate market, climate and environmental potential of the air retaining hulls, we calculated the possible savings of fuel, emissions, air pollution and costs for five different types of maritime ships and for different drag reduction values. An additional possible benefit from the antifouling effect of air layers is discussed in the conclusions.

We discuss three scenarios (compared to the status quo) of possible drag reduction related to the *Salvinia Coating* on fuel (measured in tons and US\$) and emissions (measured in CO<sub>2e</sub> equivalents, CO<sub>2e</sub>).

The five types of maritime ships selected represent the three fleet categories with the highest share in the world fleet (in terms of dwt): bulk carriers, oil tankers and container ships; additionally a cruise ship (*Queen Mary II*) and Ultra Large Container Vessel (ULCV) (*Emma Maersk*) were compared. With 43.1% bulk carriers, 27.9% oil tankers and 13.5% container ships





**Figure 3.** Biological prototypes with persistent air layers. (a) Leaf of the floating fern *Salvinia molesta*. (b) Backswimmer *Notonecta*. (c) SEM of the hierarchically structured, eggbeater like shaped trichomes on the surface of *Salvinia* responsible for the air retention. (d) Hierarchical structure on the surface of *Notonecta*. Long hairs (setae) and a dense floor of ‘microtrichia’ stabilize the air layer. Sources: (a) [29]; (b) [30].

in the world fleet [16], the selected types can serve as a representative sample for the current world fleet.

*Ikuna*, *Prem Divya* and the five identical container ships have been chosen because of the availability of fuel consumption data from actual observations and their ship type’s share in the world fleet. The ULCV *Emma Maersk* and the cruise ship *Queen Mary II* have been chosen due to their representation of the trend towards an increasing ship size, especially in the area of the container and cruise ships. Cruise ships (and ferries) have only a global share of 0.3%, but cruise ships in particular offer the possibility for consumers to influence the carbon footprint.

Values for the fuel consumption are based on the optimal values given by the engine manufacturers, because no other empiric sources are available. Realistically they could be higher (compare automobile manufacturer data). All calculations in the following chapters are based on the subsequent data and assumptions:

The emission factors per ton of fuel consumed are described in table 1. Apart from the black carbon factor, which varies in the literature and is therefore indicated as a mean value [32–36], all numbers are taken from the International Maritime Organization’s Second IMO GHG Study 2009 [37].

Main engine fuel costs represent the largest single item and account for about 50% of the total cost of a ship’s operational expenses [38,39]. These costs have their origin mostly in the frictional resistance between the ship hull and the surrounding water—up to 90% of the ship’s total resistance [40,41]. For our calculations, we assume a lower share of 65% of frictional resistance, to cut out the extreme cases.

So far a reduction of friction by an air retaining surface of 30% [28] has been achieved. In order to cover a broad band of possible broad scale solutions, we assume three different friction reduction scenarios of 5%, 10% and 20% for our calculations.

**Table 1.** Emission factors per ton of fuel consumed. All values except the black carbon factor are taken from [32–36]. The black carbon factor varies in literature and has a mean value of 0.15 kg per ton.

emission	emission factor in kg per ton of fuel
CO	7.4
CH <sub>4</sub>	0.3
CO <sub>2</sub>	
residual fuel oil	3130
marine diesel oil	3190
SO <sub>2</sub>	
residual fuel oil	54
marine diesel oil	10
NO <sub>x</sub>	
slow-speed engines	85
medium-speed engines	56
PM <sub>10</sub>	
residual fuel oil	6.7
marine diesel oil	1.1
non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC)	2.4
N <sub>2</sub> O	0.08
black carbon (BC)	0.15

For the calculations, we assume a price of 570 US\$ per ton of fuel. This price varies, but looking at the 10-year average (2007–2017), this is a reasonable assumption for a mixed fuel (High Sulfur Fuel Oil, Marine Gas Oil) calculation [42].

For each of the five ship types, the calculated values for the possible savings in kg per nautical mile, as well as the calculated possible cost, emission (CO<sub>2</sub> and other greenhouse gases like CO<sub>2e</sub>) and pollution savings are shown. In each case, we calculated the values for the three friction reduction scenarios.

In order to put all these figures in a more comprehensive context, we calculated the values for a fictional journey for each of the ship types.

### (a) Bulk carrier *Ikuna*

The bulk carrier *Ikuna* (figure 4a) was built in 1986 and has a dead weight tonnage of 6666 tons. It is a ship of the Indian company Mercator Limited. It is powered by two medium-speed 4-stroke engines and the initial fuel consumption (shortly after cleaning) at a reference speed of 11 knots is around 47 kg per nautical mile [48]. It was decommissioned in 2011. Its total emission values as well as the calculated possible savings in the three scenarios are given in the electronic supplementary material, table S1. Our calculations showed possible fuel savings of 1.72–6.89 kg and cost savings of 0.98 US\$ to 3.93 US\$ per nautical mile in the three scenarios for the bulk carrier.

For the *Ikuna*, we calculated the values for a fictional journey in India from Vishakhapatnam Terminal to Calcutta Terminal of around 440 nautical miles (one way). The calculated possible fuel savings for this journey are between 757.9 and 3031.6 kg, meaning CO<sub>2</sub>-emission savings between 2372.2 kg and 9488.9 kg and cost savings of 432.0 US\$ to 1728.0 US\$. The detailed results for the three scenarios are given in electronic supplementary material, table S2.



**Figure 4.** Images of the ships included in this study. (a) The bulk Carrier *Ikuna*, (b) Crude Oil Tanker comparable to *Prem Divya*, (c) a container ship representing the Five Container Ships of this class, (d) the Ultra Large Container Vessel *Emma Maersk* and (e) the Cruise Ship *Queen Mary II*. Sources: (a) with kind permission from Cody Williams [43]; (b) adapted [44]; (c) [45]; (d) adapted from [46]; (e) adapted from [47].

### (b) Crude Oil tanker *Prem Divya*

The Aframax-class crude oil tanker *Prem Divya* (comparable oil tanker figure 4b) was built in 1998 and has a dead weight tonnage of 109 227 tons. It is a ship of the Indian company Mercator Limited. It is powered by a slow-speed 2-stroke engine and the initial fuel consumption (shortly after cleaning) at a reference speed of 11 knots is around 140 kg per nautical mile [48]. It was decommissioned in 2012. Its total emission values as well as the calculated possible savings in the three scenarios are given in electronic supplementary material, table S1. Our calculations showed possible fuel savings of 5.07–20.28 kg and cost savings of 2.89 US\$ to 11.56 US\$ per nautical mile in the three scenarios for the oil tanker.

For the *Prem Divya*, we calculated the figures for a fictional journey from Bahrein to Calcutta of around 2700 nautical miles (one way). The calculated possible fuel savings for this journey are between 13 689.0 and 54 756.0 kg, meaning CO<sub>2</sub>-emission savings between 42 846.6 and 171 356.3 kg and cost savings of 7802.7 US\$ to 31 210.9 US\$. The detailed results for the three scenarios are given in electronic supplementary material table S2.

### (c) Container ships

The five identical container ships belong to the Postpanamax-Class (figure 4c) and remained anonymous in the data source. They have a capacity of 8240 twenty-foot equivalent units and are

powered by a slow-speed 2-stroke engine with an average speed of 20.5 knots and an average fuel consumption of 329 kg per nautical mile [48]. The total emission values as well as the calculated possible savings in the three scenarios for this ship class are given in electronic supplementary material, table S1 in the supplementary information. Our calculations showed possible fuel savings of 10.69 kg to 42.77 kg and cost savings of 6.09 US\$ to 24.38 US\$ per nautical mile in the three scenarios for this ship class.

For this ship class, we calculated the values for a fictional journey TA2—Eastbound (Baltimore, USA to Bremerhaven, Germany) of around 6800 nautical miles (one way) [49]. The calculated possible fuel savings for this journey are between 72 709.0 and 290 836.0 kg, meaning CO<sub>2</sub>-emission savings between 227 579.2 and 910 316.7 kg and cost savings of 41 444.1 US\$ to 165 776.5 US\$. The detailed results for the three scenarios are given in electronic supplementary material, table S2.

#### (d) Ultra large container vessel *Emma Maersk*

The ULCV *Emma Maersk* was built in 2006 as the first of eight identical container ships owned by the A.P. Møller-Maersk Group. She has a dead weight tonnage of 156 907 tons and can carry up to 15 000 twenty-foot equivalent units. She was holding the record for the world's largest ship and still holds the record for the world's largest and most powerful reciprocating engine: a slow-speed 2-stroke engine, the Waertsilae RT-flex96c [50,51]. On a slow-steaming load of 65%, the engine needs 520.2 kg fuel per nautical mile at a sailing speed of 16.38 knots [52]. The total emission values as well as the calculated possible savings in the three scenarios for this ship class are given in electronic supplementary material, table S1. Our calculations showed possible fuel savings of 16.91 kg to 67.63 kg and cost savings of 9.64 US\$ to 38.55 US\$ per nautical mile in the three scenarios for the ULCV *Emma Maersk*.

For the *Emma Maersk*, we calculated the values for a fictional journey AE10—Eastbound (Gdansk, Poland to Ningbo, China) of around 11 900 nautical miles (one way) [53]. The calculated possible fuel savings for this journey are between 201 187.4 kg and 804 749.4 kg, meaning CO<sub>2</sub>-emission savings between 629 716.4 and 2,518,865.6 kg and cost savings of 114 676.8 US\$ to 458 707.2 US\$. The detailed results for the three scenarios are given in electronic supplementary material, table S2.

#### (e) Cruise ship *Queen Mary II*

*Queen Mary II* with 151 400 gross tonnage and a length of 345 m is one of the largest operating cruise ships in the world. She entered service in 2004 and is powered by four Waertsilae 16V46 diesel engines running on heavy fuel oil and two General Electric LM2500+ gas turbines which run on marine gas oil. On full load, each engine and each turbine burns roughly 3 tons of heavy fuel oil and 6.5 tons, respectively, of marine gas oil per hour [54–56]. Given the approximate 345 days of operation according to the Cunard Lines cruise schedule [57] and an assumed all-time use of the diesel engines and a half-time use of the turbines, this results in a yearly fuel consumption of 99 360 tons of heavy fuel oil and 107 640 tons of marine gas oil. This totals 654 368.4 tons of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions per year—in average the same amount is emitted by roughly 354 779 German cars (130 g/km CO<sub>2</sub>, yearly mileage of 14 200 km [58]). The total emission values as well as the calculated possible savings in the three scenarios for this ship class are given in electronic supplementary material, table S1. Our calculations showed possible fuel savings of 26.88–107.52 kg and cost savings of 15.32 US\$ to 61.29 US\$ per nautical mile in the three scenarios for the cruise ship *Queen Mary II*.

For *Queen Mary II*, we calculated the values for a journey from Dubai (United Arab Emirates) to Southampton (United Kingdom) with a total distance of 6788 nm travelled [59,60]. The calculated possible fuel savings for this journey are between 110 506.8 and 442 027.1 kg, meaning CO<sub>2</sub>-emission savings between 349 356.2 and 1 397 424.7 kg and cost savings of 62 988.9 US\$ to 251 955.4 US\$. The detailed results for the three scenarios are given in electronic supplementary material, table S2.



**Table 2.** Possible savings within the three scenarios selected.

savings	scenario 1 (5%)	scenario 2 (10%)	scenario 3 (20%)
fuel (m t)	8.13	16.25	32.50
cost (billion US\$)	4.63	9.26	18.53
CO <sub>2e</sub> (m t)	32.5	65.0	130.0

## 5. Global perspective: benefit assessment of drag reducing air layer-coated ship hulls

Based on all non-military ships larger than 100 gross tonnage (in 2007) and the assumption that slow-speed diesel (SSD) engines are by far the dominating engine type [61] the following figures show the current situation in the global shipping industry.

Assuming a current global fuel consumption of approximately 250 million tons per year at a current price of 570 US\$/t, this accounts for 142 billion US\$ and represents roughly 1 billion tons of CO<sub>2e</sub> emissions.

Given a constant speed of the ships, the friction reduction due to the application of a Salvinia Coating could be up to 20% and would lead to estimated savings of 32.5 million tons of fuel, 18.5 billion US\$ and 130.0 million tons of CO<sub>2e</sub>. Since every ton of CO<sub>2</sub> emitted causes a mean increase in global temperature of  $1.5 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^\circ$  [62,63] the total avoided increase per year assumed would be approximately 0.0002°C. Savings from Salvinia Coatings are thus equivalent to 14.30% of Germany's emissions [64] and equal to a reduction of about 0.36% of the current global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions [65].

This nearly outperforms the efficacy of the Australian carbon tax's estimated 160 million tons reduction (in 2020) [66]. More than one third of the cumulated savings of 324 million tons of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 2030 of the EU regulation limiting car's CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to 95 g km<sup>-1</sup> [67] is roughly met by a Salvinia Coating. It would almost reach the estimated savings of all other measures introduced by the IMO by 2020 (151.5 million tons) [68].

## 6. Conclusion

The study is a contribution to enlarge our insufficient and patchy knowledge concerning the potential economic and ecological benefit of bionic and biomimetic technologies.

Maritime shipping is one of the main consumers of fossil fuels and thus a strong emitter of greenhouse gases. The International Maritime Organization (IMO) has already acted towards a sustainable so-called 'blue economy' on the sea and introduced more restrictions in 2013: In 2020, new ships must improve their efficiency by 10%, in 2025 by 20% and in 2030 by 30%, aiming at 50% emissions reduction by 2050 [13].

The main part of the fuel consumption of ships is the need to overcome the drag between ship hull and water. In this study, we calculated the possible fuel, cost and emission savings by biomimetic, drag reducing ship coatings based on long-term stable air layers between ship hull and water. We could show that a drag reduction of 20% by such Salvinia Effect Coatings could lead to savings of 32.5 million tons of fuel, equal to 18.5 billion US\$ and 130.0 million tons of CO<sub>2e</sub> per year (table 2).

In addition to the drag reducing properties of air retaining surfaces, one can expect also an antifouling effect from such coatings [69]. If we include an additional drag reduction of 25% due to antifouling effects to our calculations, this would mean additional savings of 40.6 million tons of fuel, 23.2 billion US\$ and 162.5 million tons of CO<sub>2e</sub>.

Our results show the high potential of biomimetic air retaining surfaces. Providing a drag reduction of 20% and additional antifouling properties, these coatings could lead to a saving of almost 1% of the worldwide CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

However, one should be aware that the production of solid waste (e.g. plastics) is another of the serious problems affecting the environmental impact of shipping. From the view of biologists, the almost global migration of invasive species (like *Cercopagis*, *Eriocheir*, *Carcinus* or even diseases like Cholera)—mostly associated with ballast water discharge—may be an irreversible result with a negative long-term impact [70,71].

However, at the same time ‘biological prototypes’ offer often sustainable technical biomimetic solutions. Friction and thus fuel and emission reduction (the major global goal in our changing environment) based on air retaining surfaces of *Salvinia* and other organisms provide solutions for environmentally friendly green technologies.

**Data accessibility.** This article has no additional data.

**Competing Interests.** We declare we have no competing interests.

**Funding.** We received no funding for this study.

## References

1. von Weizsäcker EU, Wijkman A. 2018 *Come on!*. Berlin, Germany: Springer.
2. Ramanathan V, Sanchez Sorondo M, Dasgupta P, Von Braun J, Victor DG. 2018 Climate extremes and global health. *Foreign Affairs*.
3. German Bioeconomy Council. 2017 *What is bioeconomy*. See <http://biooekonomierat.de/en/bioeconomy/> (2 October 2017).
4. Clement R, Kiy M, Terlau W. 2014 Nachhaltigkeitsökonomie (sustainability economics). In *Vahlen Verlag, awarded by the UN-Word decade education for sustainable development*. BWV Berliner Wissenschafts-Verlag.
5. Barthlott W, Rafiqpoor MD, Erdelen WR. 2016 Bionics and biodiversity – bio-inspired technical innovation for a sustainable future. In *Biomimetic research for architecture and building construction – biological design and integrative structures* (eds J Knippers, KG Nickel, T Speck), pp. 11–55. Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
6. United Nations. 2015 *Transforming our world: The 2030 agenda for sustainable development*. New York, NY: United Nations, General Assembly.
7. Barthlott W, Mail M, Neinhuis C. 2016 Superhydrophobic hierarchically structured surfaces in biology: evolution, structural principles and biomimetic applications. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. A* **374**, 20160191. (doi:10.1098/rsta.2016.0191)
8. Barthlott W, Mail M, Bhushan B, Koch K. 2017 Plant surfaces: structures and functions for biomimetic innovations. *Nano-Micro Lett.* **9**, 23. (doi:10.1007/s40820-016-0125-1)
9. Barthlott W, Mail M, Bhushan B, Koch K. 2017 Plant surfaces: structures and functions for biomimetic applications. In *Springer handbook of nanotechnology* (ed. B Bhushan). Springer.
10. Koch K, Bohn HF, Barthlott W. 2009 Hierarchical sculpturing of plant surfaces and superhydrophobicity. Part of the Langmuir 25th Year special issue ‘Wetting and superhydrophobicity’. *Langmuir* **25**, 14 116–14 120.
11. San Diego Zoo Global and Fermanian Business and Economic Institute Point Loma (eds). 2013 *Bioinspiration: an economic progress report*, pp. 1–45. San Diego, CA.
12. United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). 2011 *Towards a green economy: pathways to sustainable development and poverty eradication*. Nairobi.
13. International Chamber of Shipping (ICS). 2014 World trade and the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. In *Lima Climate Change Conference*.
14. Smith TWP *et al.* 2015 Third IMO GHG Study 2014 – executive summary and final report. *Int. Maritime Organization (IMO)*.
15. Smith TWP *et al.* 2015 Third IMO GHG Study 2014 – executive summary and final report. *Int. Maritime Organization (IMO)*. Printed by Micropress Printers.
16. United Nations. 2016 Review of maritime transport 2016. In *United Conf. Trade and Development (UNCTAD)*. Geneva.
17. International Energy Agency (IEA). 2016 Oil medium-term market report. Paris.
18. Schultz MP. 2007 Effects of coating roughness and biofouling on ship resistance and powering. *Biofouling* **23**, 331–341. (doi:10.1080/08927010701461974)

19. Davenport J, Hughes R, Shorten M, Larsen P. 2011 Drag reduction by air release promotes fast ascent in jumping emperor penguins – a novel hypothesis. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* **430**, 171–182. (doi:10.3354/meps08868)
20. Kracht AM. 1972 Design of bulbous bows. *SNAME Trans.* **86**, 197–217.
21. Percival S, Hendrix D, Noblesse F. 2001 Hydrodynamic optimization of ship hull forms. *Appl. Ocean Res.* **23**, 337–355. (doi:10.1016/S0141-1187(02)00002-0)
22. Dean B, Bhushan B. 2010 Shark-skin surfaces for fluid-drag reduction in turbulent flow: a review. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. A* **368**, 4775–4806. (doi:10.1098/rsta.2010.0201)
23. Bixler GD, Bhushan B. 2012 Biofouling: lessons from nature. *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. A* **370**, 2381–2417. (doi:10.1098/rsta.2011.0502)
24. Cortesi M, Fantozzi S, Di Michele R, Zamparo P, Gatta G. 2014 Passive drag reduction using full-body swimsuits: the role of body position. *J. Strength Cond. Res.* **28**, 3164–3171. (doi:10.1519/JSC.0000000000000508)
25. Latorre R. 1997 Ship hull drag reduction using bottom air injection. *Ocean Eng.* **24**, 161–175. (doi:10.1016/0029-8018(96)00005-4)
26. Mail M, Böhnlein B, Mayser M, Barthlott W. 2014 Bionische Reibungsreduktion: Eine Lufthülle hilft Schiffen Treibstoff zu sparen. In *Bionik: patente aus der natur – 7. Bremer bionik-kongress* (eds AB Kesel, D Zehren). Bremen.
27. Mail M, Barthlott W. 2016 Superhydrophobic surfaces: self-cleaning, air retention and other functionalities of biological and biomimetic surfaces. In *5th Int. Conf. Bionic Engineering (ICBE'16)*, 21–24 June 2016. Ningbo, China.
28. Melskotte J-E, Brede M, Wolter A, Barthlott W, Leder A. 2013 Schlepversuche an künstlichen, Luft haltenden Oberflächen zur Reibungsreduktion am Schiff. In *Fachtagung 'lasermethoden in der Strömungsmesstechnik'*. München, Karlsruhe, Dt. Ges. für Laser-Anemometrie GALA e.V.
29. Barthlott W *et al.* 2010 The Salvinia paradox: superhydrophobic surfaces with hydrophilic pins for air retention under water. *Adv. Mater.* **22**, 2325–2328. (doi:10.1002/adma.200904411)
30. Balmert A, Bohn FH, Ditsche-Kuru P, Barthlott W. 2011 Dry under water: comparative morphology and functional aspects of air-retaining insect surfaces. *J. Morphol.* **272**, 442–451. (doi:10.1002/jmor.10921)
31. Ditsche-Kuru P, Schneider ES, Melskotte JE, Brede M, Leder A, Barthlott W. 2011 Superhydrophobic surfaces of the water bug *Notonecta glauca*: a model for friction reduction and air retention. *Beilstein J. Nanotechnol.* **2**, 137–144. (doi:10.3762/bjnano.2.17)
32. Agrawal H, Malloy QGJ, Welch WA, Wayne Miller J, Cocker DR. 2008 In-use gaseous and particulate matter emissions from a modern ocean going container vessel. *Atmos. Environ.* **42**, 5504–5510. (doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2008.02.053)
33. Corbett JJ, Winebrake JJ, Green EH. 2010 An assessment of technologies for reducing regional short-lived climate forcers emitted by ships with implications for Arctic shipping. *Carbon Manage.* **1**, 207–225. (doi:10.4155/cmt.10.27)
34. Lack D, Lerner B, Granier C, Baynard T, Lovejoy E, Massoli P, Ravishankara AR, Williams E. 2008 Light absorbing carbon emissions from commercial shipping. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* **35**, 1–6. (doi:10.1029/2008GL033906)
35. Petzold A, Hasselbach J, Lauer P, Baumann R, Franke K, Gurk C, Schlager H, Weingartner E. 2008 Experimental studies on particle emissions from cruising ship, their characteristic properties, transformation and atmospheric lifetime in the marine boundary layer. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* **8**, 2387–2403. (doi:10.5194/acp-8-2387-2008)
36. Petzold A, Weingartner E, Hasselbach J, Lauer P, Kurok C, Fleischer F. 2010 Physical properties, chemical composition, and cloud forming potential of particulate emissions from a marine diesel engine at various load conditions. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **44**, 3800–3805. (doi:10.1021/es903681z)
37. Buhaug Ø *et al.* 2009 *Second IMO GHG study 2009*. London, UK: International maritime organization (IMO).
38. Stopford M. 2009 *Maritime economics*. London, UK: Routledge.
39. Rodrigue J, Comptois C, Slack B. 2013 *The geography of transport systems*, 3rd edn. New York, NY: Routledge.
40. Kempf G. 1937 On the effect of roughness on the resistance of ships. *Trans. INA* **79**, 109–119.

41. Jagdish BN, Brandon TZX, Kwee TJ, Dev AK. 2014 Experimental study of air layer sustainability for frictional drag reduction. *J. Ship Res.* **58**, 30–42. (doi:10.5957/JOSR.58.1.130045)
42. Mabux 2017 [cited 5 July 2017]; See: <https://www.mabux.com>.
43. Williams C. 2014 *Ikuna departing Devonport after unloading siper phosphate*. See <http://www.shipspotting.com/gallery/photo.php?lid=2046703> (accessed 1 November 2017).
44. Thomas A. 2014 'KANPUR' (IMO: 9299771) CRUDE OIL TANKER 57243 tons. See <https://www.flickr.com/photos/atom-uk/14278450451/in/photolist-nXY1bo-s5XVhs-fm9a8H-nK5BWf-5XHeCH-TaK5Ya-94ireT-471EuR-nKJMSc-dGnx3X-ZfRLKy-ntxpNQ-zRNome-ZKhLEY-f2ut5p-Xze1XR-cjFdbW-WVoyMF-VR7YA9-hDGxga-nKRrw9-gz5iRb-f2utaT-gyrGJr-noZqnX-WQGKBG-XJ4v7T-9UcEcl-f2PifU-f2PhYE-f2z2Ua-VPpvom-f2yZQV-f2PpGS-cKZVv3-f2zFrV-pdmMna-gBywBG-f2zwQk-f2z2ug-f2uNBM-f2Pdhh-5cPX56-f2z1qP-f9ktvu-f2NCD3-ntPRxo-8yZUFG-f2PeAN-cTykNU> (accessed 1 November 2017). CC BY-SA 2.0: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/2.0/>
45. violetta: Post Panamax. 2017 See <https://pixabay.com/de/container-schiff-containerschiff-2786842/>. (accessed 15 October 2017) CC0 1.0: <https://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/deed.de>.
46. Maersk Line. 2006 *Emma Maersk #4*. See <https://www.flickr.com/photos/maerskline/7099721165>. (accessed 18 October 2017). CC BY-SA 2.0: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/2.0/legalcode>.
47. bvi4092: 2016 *Queen Mary 2 arriving at Road Harbour-Tortola, BVI*. See <https://www.flickr.com/photos/bvi4092/33035819163> (accessed 18 October 2017). CC BY 2.0: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0/legalcode>.
48. Corbett J, Winebrake J, Comer B, Green E. 2011 Energy and GHG emissions savings – analysis of fluoropolymer foul release hull coating. Energy and Environmental Research Associates LLC.
49. Maersk Line. 2014 *Transatlantic TA2 Eastbound*. [cited 18 May 2014]; See <http://www.maerskline.com/en-us/shipping-services/routenet/maersk-line-network/atlantic/transatlantic-2-eastbound>.
50. Maersk Line. 2014 *Emma Maersk Specifications*. [cited 16 May 2014]; See <http://www.emma-maersk.com/specification>.
51. Wärtsilä. 2015 *RT-flex96C – Technical Information*. [cited 30 January 2015]; See [http://www.wartsila.com/en/engines/low-speed-engines/RT-flex96C#expandable\\_id](http://www.wartsila.com/en/engines/low-speed-engines/RT-flex96C#expandable_id).
52. Wärtsilä. 2015 *Wärtsilä – Emma Maersk*. [cited 30 January 2015]; See <http://www.wartsila.com/en/references/emma-maersk>.
53. Maersk Line. 2014 *Asia – Europe AE10 – Eastbound*. [cited 18 May 2014]; See <https://my.maerskline.com/link/?page=brochure&path=/routemaps/newnetwork/asiaeur/AE10%20EAB>.
54. Cunard Line. 2014 *Queen Mary 2 – Technical Information*. [cited 16 November 2014]; See [http://www.cunard.com/Documents/Press%20Kits/Queen%20Mary%202/Queen\\_Mary\\_2\\_Technical.pdf](http://www.cunard.com/Documents/Press%20Kits/Queen%20Mary%202/Queen_Mary_2_Technical.pdf).
55. Wärtsilä. 2014 *Wärtsilä 46 – Project Guide*. [cited 16 November 2014]; See [www.wartsila.com/file/Wartsila/en/1278512662688a1267106724867-Wartsila-O-E-W-3146-PG-M.pdf](http://www.wartsila.com/file/Wartsila/en/1278512662688a1267106724867-Wartsila-O-E-W-3146-PG-M.pdf).
56. General Electric. 2014 *Datasheet – LM2500+Marine Gas Turbine*. [cited 16 November 2014]; See <http://www.geaviation.com/engines/docs/marine/datasheet-lm2500plus.pdf>.
57. Ship Cruise. 2014 *Cunard Queen Mary 2 – Itinerary*. [cited 16 November 2014]; See <http://www.shipcruise.org/cunard-queen-mary-2-itinerary>.
58. Kunert U, Radke S, Chlond B, Kagerbauer M. 2012 Auto Mobilität: Fahrleistungen steigen 2011 weiter. *DIW Wochenbericht* **79**, 3–14.
59. Cunard Line. 2017 *Weltentdeckerreise Dubai – Southampton Queen Mary 2*. [cited 07 May 2017]; See <https://www.cunard.de/reise-finden/reisedetailseite/journey/m816>.
60. Sea Scanner. 2017 *Current voyages of Queen Mary 2*. [cited 07 May 2017]; See <http://www.sea-scanner.com/ships-position-queen-mary-2>.
61. Corbett J, Koehler H. 2003 Updated emissions from ocean shipping. *J. Geophys. Res.* **108**, 4560–4565. (doi:10.1029/2003JD003751)
62. Allen MR, Frame DJ, Huntingford C, Jones CD, Lowe JA, Meinshausen M, Meinshausen N. 2009 Warming caused by cumulative carbon emissions towards the trillionth tonne. *Nature* **458**, 1163–1166. (doi:10.1038/nature08019)

63. Matthews HD, Gillett NP, Stott PA, Zickfeld K. 2009 The proportionality of global warming to cumulative carbon emissions. *Nature* **459**, 829–832. (doi:10.1038/nature08047)
64. Umweltbundesamt. 2014 *Treibhausgas-Emissionen in Deutschland*. [cited 25 September 2014]; See <http://www.umweltbundesamt.de/daten/klimawandel/treibhausgas-emissionen-in-deutschland>.
65. Le Quéré C *et al.* 2016 Global Carbon Budget 2016. *Earth System Science Data* **8**, 605–649. (doi:10.5194/essd-8-605-2016)
66. Prime Minister of Australia. 2011 *Australia poised for a clean energy future*, Press Office of the Prime Minister of Australia. [cited 28 August 2014]; See <http://web.archive.org/web/20130423093229/http://www.pm.gov.au/press-office/australia-poised-clean-energy-future>
67. Bundesministerium für Umwelt, Naturschutz, Bau und Reaktorsicherheit (BMUB). 2009 *Die EU-Verordnung zur Verminderung der CO<sub>2</sub>-Emissionen von Personenkraftwagen*.
68. Bazari Z, Longva T. 2011 *Assessment of IMO mandated energy efficiency measures for international shipping*.
69. Marmur A. 2006 Super-hydrophobicity fundamentals: implications to biofouling prevention. *Biofouling* **22**, 107–115. (doi:10.1080/08927010600562328)
70. Frey M, Simard N, Robichaud D, Martin J, Terriault T. 2014 Fouling around: vessel sea-chests as a vector for the introduction and spread of aquatic invasive species. *Manage. Biol. Invas.* **5**, 21–30. (doi:10.3391/mbi.2014.5.1.02)
71. Gollasch S. 2002 The importance of ship hull fouling as a vector of species introductions into the North Sea. *Biofouling* **18**, 105–121. (doi:10.1080/08927010290011361)