# <sup>1</sup> Modeling fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific CO<sub>2</sub>

# 2 emissions from global on-road vehicles, 1970-2020

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11 Abstract. Vehicles are among the most important contributors to global anthropogenic CO2 emissions. 12 However, the lack of fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific information about global on-road CO2 13 emissions in existing datasets, which are available only at the sector level, makes these datasets insufficient to support the establishment of emission mitigation strategies. Thus, a fleet turnover model 14 15 is developed in this study, and  $CO_2$  emissions from global on-road vehicles from 1970 to 2020 are 16 estimated for each country. Here, we analyze the evolution of the global vehicle stock over 50 years, identify the dominant emission contributors by vehicle and fuel type, and further characterize the age 17 18 distribution of on-road CO2 emissions. We find that trucks accounted for less than 5% of global vehicle 19 ownership but represented more than 20% of on-road CO2 emissions in 2020. The contribution of diesel 20 vehicles to global on-road CO2 emissions doubled during the 1970-2020 period, driven by the shift in 21 the fuel-type distribution of vehicle ownership. The proportion of CO2 emissions from vehicles in 22 developing countries such as China and India in terms of global emissions from newly registered vehicles 23 significantly increased after 2000, but global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from vehicles that survived more than 15 years in 2020 still originated mainly from developed countries such as the United States and countries in 24

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25 the European Union.

#### 26 1 Introduction

27 To meet the Paris Agreement's 1.5°C long-term temperature goal, many efforts have been made to 28 determine pathways for reducing the emissions of greenhouse gases such as CO2 (Matthews & Caldeira, 29 2008; Meinshausen et al., 2009; Rogelj et al., 2018; Davis et al., 2018). Historical emission data and 30 consistent emission series of on-road vehicles, which are key sources of CO2 emissions, are important 31 inputs for Earth system models, atmospheric chemistry and transport models, and integrated assessment 32 models to support studies on both climate change and global climate governance (Bhalla et al., 2014; 33 Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019; Lelieveld et al., 2015; Niklas et al., 2020; Shindell et al., 2011; Silva et 34 al., 2016; Unger et al., 2010). Thus, estimating long-term CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from global on-road vehicles 35 with detailed source information is necessary as deep greenhouse gas emission reductions are pursued. 36 Several global emission inventories that cover emissions from on-road vehicles have been 37 developed and are widely used in global research and modeling. CO2 emissions from on-road vehicles 38 can be derived from global anthropogenic emission inventories, including the Emissions Database for 39 Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR), the Open-source Data Inventory for Atmospheric CO2 (ODIAC), the Carbon Emission and Accounts Datasets (CEADs), and the Peking University (PKU)-CO2 40 41 inventory. On-road CO2 emissions are estimated with the total fuel consumption of the road sector at the 42 country level and fleet average emission factors in EDGAR (Amstel et al., 1999; Crippa et al., 2016; 43 Crippa et al., 2018; Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019). Following the method in EDGAR, local data sources 44 are introduced more often in ODIAC (Boden et al., 2016; Boden et al., 2017; Od et al., 2018), CEDS 45 (Hoesly et al., 2018) and PKU-CO2 (Wang et al., 2013) when estimating on-road CO2 emissions. Global 46 CO2 emissions from on-road vehicles in these widely used emission inventories are estimated as a whole 47 at the sector level in each country using the fuel-based method, and fleet structure information (e.g., fuel-, 48 vehicle type-, and age-specific characteristics) on on-road CO2 emissions is omitted. Technology-based models such as the Greenhouse Gas and Air Pollution Interactions and Synergies (GAINS) (Klimont et 49 al., 2017) and Speciated Pollutant Emissions Wizard (SPEW)-Trend (Tami et al., 2004 and 2007; Yan et 50 51 al., 2011 and 2014) models can be used to describe fleet structure information on emissions from global 52 on-road vehicles, but emission inventories built on these models include only emissions of air pollutants. 53 Here, a new global inventory of fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific CO2 emissions from on-road 54 vehicles for each country from 1970 to 2020 is developed with the global fleet turnover model, in which six types of fuel, five types of vehicles, and 231 countries are considered. Based on this inventory, we

- 56 analyze the evolution of the global vehicle stock over 50 years; identify the dominant emission
- 57 contributors by vehicle and fuel type; and further characterize the age distribution of on-road CO<sub>2</sub>
- 58 emissions. Compared to the publicly available on-road CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from previous studies, CO<sub>2</sub>
- 59 emissions in this study have more detailed source categories which are refined into vehicle and fuel type.
- 60 And with the age distribution simulated by our fleet turnover model, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions offered in this study
- 61 would better support the policy-making of emission mitigation.

62 2 Materials and methods

#### 63 2.1 Methodological framework

64	For a given country $c$ , the annual CO <sub>2</sub> emissions from on-road vehicles in year $y$ are estim	nated as	<b>带格式的:</b> 行距: 1.5 倍行距
65	follows:		
66	$Emis_{c,y,v,f} = \sum_{i=0}^{i=T} Stock_{c,y,v} \times X_{c,y,v,i} \times FuelR_{c,y,v,f} \times VKT_{c,y,v,f} \times FE_{c,y,v,f} \times EF_{c,f},$	(1)	
67	$Stock_{c,y,v} = V_{c,y,v}^* \times e^{\alpha_{c,v}e^{\beta_{c,v}E_{c,y}}} \times Population_{c,y},$	(2)	
68	$Stock_{c,y,v} = \sum_{i=0}^{i=T} Sale_{c,y-i,v} \times Surv_{c,v,i},$	(3)	

(4)

(5)

- 69  $X_{c,y,v,i} = Sale_{c,y-i,v} \times Surv_{c,v,i} / \sum_{i=0}^{i=T} Sale_{c,y-i,v} \times Surv_{c,v,i},$
- 70  $Fuel_{c,y,f} = \sum_{v} Stock_{c,y,v} \times FuelR_{c,y,v,f} \times VKT_{c,y,v,f} \times FE_{c,y,v,f},$

71 where y is the target year, which ranges from 1970 to 2020; i is the age of the vehicles registered in<sup>4</sup> 72 year (y - i); T is the lifetime of vehicles; v is the vehicle type, which includes two types of lightduty vehicles, namely, passenger cars (PLDVs) and light commercial vehicles (CLDVs), two types of 73 74 heavy-duty vehicles, namely, buses and trucks, and motorcycles (MCs); and f is the fuel type, which 75 includes gasoline, diesel, natural gas (NG), liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), electricity, and other fuels. 76 As shown in Equation Eq. 1, annual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  $(Emis_{c,y,v,f})$  are estimated by the vehicle stock 77  $(Stock_{c,y,v})$ , the fleet-average fuel structure  $(FuelR_{c,y,v,f})$ , the annual average kilometers traveled 78  $(VKT_{c,y,v,f})$ , the fleet-average fuel economy  $(FE_{c,y,v,f})$ , the age distribution of the vehicle stock  $(X_{c,y,v,i})$ , 79 and the CO<sub>2</sub> emission factor ( $EF_{c,f}$ ).  $Stock_{c,y,v}$  can be modeled using the Gompertz function 80 (Equation Eq. 2), which is an S-shaped curve determined by two negative parameters ( $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ), with

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the saturated vehicle stock per 1000 people ( $V^*$ ), per capita GDP (E), and population (*Population*<sub>c,y</sub>) as inputs. The age distribution of the vehicle stock ( $X_{c,y,v,i}$ ), which represents the proportion of surviving vehicles registered in year (y - i) in target year y, is modeled on the basis of the dynamic balance function (EquationEqs. 3 and 4) using the number of newly registered vehicles ( $Sale_{c,y-i,v}$ ) and survival rates ( $Surv_{c,v,i}$ ). Fuel consumption by vehicle type, which is calculated using  $Stock_{c,y,v}$ ,  $X_{c,y,v,i}$ , *FuelR*<sub>c,y,v,f</sub>,  $VKT_{c,y,v,f}$ , and *FE*<sub>c,y,v,f</sub>, is constrained by total on-road fuel consumption (*Fuel*<sub>c,y,f</sub>) at the country level (EquationEq. 5).

88 In this study, the fleet turnover emission model (Figure 1) is constructed based on equationfunctions 89 1-5. SpecificallyIn summary, we first build an integrated vehicle stock database by combining and 90 harmonizing the available vehicle stock data from a series of global, regional and national statistics and 91 filling data gaps with the modeled stock based on the Gompertz function (EquationEq. 2). Second, the 92 age distribution of the stock is simulated with a combined vehicle sale statistical database and an 93 integrated vehicle stock database using the dynamic balance function (EquationEq. 3 and 4). ThirdThen, 94 vehicular fuel consumption is estimated using outputs from the first two steps and other vehicle activity-95 related data and is constrained by national fuel consumption statistics (EquationEq. 5). Finally, fuel- and 96 vehicle type-specific CO2 emissions from global on-road vehicles from 1970 to 2020 are modeled on the 97 basis of constrained vehicular fuel consumption and CO<sub>2</sub> emission factors (Equation Eq. 1).



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#### 100 Figure- 1:- Schematic methodology for estimating vehicular CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

### 101 2.2 Modeling the vehicle stock

In the first step, an integrated vehicle stock database from 1970 to 2020 was constructed with both<sup>4</sup> statistical and modeled data. The statistical data used in this study was collected from various available vehicle stock statistics, in which global statistics were used as the default vehicle stock and local statistics were used to supplement and amend the default data. When statistical data was unavailable for a country in a given year, vehicle stock modeled by the Gompertz function was used.

107 To determine the default vehicle stock database, two widely used vehicle stock statistics from the 108 Wold Road Statistics (WRS) 2021 Edition (IRF) and the International Organization of Motor Vehicle 109 Manufacturers (OICA) were collected and compared. We found that the trends of vehicle stock in the 110 WRS and OICA data were similar, but the absolute value of the vehicle stock in the OICA data was lower than that in the WRS data, especially for developing countries (Figure S2). Taking India as an example, 111 112 the vehicle stock in the OICA data was 85% less than that in the WRS data. To further confirm the 113 reliability of these two global databases, local statistics were used for comparison. The WRS data were 114 more similar to the local vehicle statistics than were the OICA data (Figure S2). After comprehensive 115 consideration of spatiotemporal coverage, updating frequency and stability, and data reliability, the WRS 116 data were used as the default for global vehicle statistics, and the OICA data were used if there were no

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117 data available from the WRS.

We also collected a series of local statistics as supplements and amendments to the global vehicle statistics, in which 49 developing and developed countries were included (ACEA; CEIC; EC; JAMA; MEIC; MOSPI; NBS; TEDB). By coupling multiple global and local vehicle databases, a combined vehicle statistical database by vehicle category was established in this study. As the division of vehicle types varied among statistics, we established a mapping relationship of vehicle types between this study and other data sources (Table S2).

124 Given that statistical data of vehicle was unavailable before 2000 for most countries, the Gompertz 125 function, which was often applied to establish the relationship between vehicle ownership and an economic indicator (Dargay and Gately, 1999; Dargay et al., 2007; Huo and Wang, 2012), was 126 127 subsequently used in this study to model the vehicle stock. In this study, per capita GDP was calculated 128 with national GDP (NBS; UNdata; WB) and population (NBS; WPP) as the economic indicator. The 129 saturated vehicle stock per 1000 people was first derived from previous studies (Huo and Wang, 2012) 130 and then adjusted by the maximal vehicle stock per 1000 people calculated using statistical data. The 131 combined vehicle statistical database was used to estimate parameters ( $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ) of the Gompertz 132 function at the country level. For countries whose R square  $(R^2)$  of the country-level regression was less 133 than 0.5, regional or global  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  regression parameters were used instead (Zheng et al., 2012).

134 As the verification of the vehicle stock modeled by the Gompertz function, we compared them with 135 the statistical vehicle stock for countries in years when statistics were available. The relative deviation ratios in countries that own top 85% of global vehicles stock were between -28% and 25.6%, ranges of 136 137 the relative deviation in rest countries were a bit larger due to the limited availability of statistics. Figure 138 2(a) and Figure S3 show the comparison in 2015, a year with more statistical data. The deviation of the 139 modeled vehicle stock from the statistics in most countries was less than  $\pm 25\%$ , especially in the United 140 States, countries in the European Union, China, and India. The relatively good consistency between the 141 modeled and statistical vehicle stock indicates the relatively high reliability of this model. Therefore, a long-term integrated vehicle stock database (1970-2020) was constructed by constraining the modeled 142 143 vehicle stock by the combined vehicle statistical database.





Figure 2:Fig. 2. Verification of the modeled vehicle stock in United States, the European Union, China,
 and India (a) and the age distribution for PLDVs (b) in 2015.

#### 147 2.3 Modeling the age distribution of vehicle stock

148 Then, the age distribution of the stock was modeled using the dynamic balanced function with the 149 integrated vehicle stock database set up in the first step and a combined vehicle sale statistical database. 150 Similar to the combination of vehicle stock statistics, OICA data were used as the default vehicle sale 151 database with WRS data as a supplement after comparison, and local statistics (ACEA; CEIC; EC; JAMA; 152 MEIC; NBS; TEDB) were also involved to correct the default database. Limited by the temporal 153 coverage of the statistical data, vehicle sales were not available for most countries before 2005. Therefore, 154 the newly registered vehicles for missing years was back-calculated with the dynamic balanced function, 155 in which the vehicle stock from the previous step and survival rates derived from available studies and 156 reports (Huo and Wang 2012; Yan et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2014) were inputs. Here we 157 marked 231 countries into two types: focus countries and broader regions (Table S1). 20 countries 158 owning the top 75% of global vehicles were marked as focus countries, for which the dynamic balanced 159 function was built at country level. The remaining 211 countries were marked as broader regions and 160 further combined into 8 regions according to the roadmap region definition (ICCT 2012). In each broader 161 region, data in a reprehensive country, which has most abundant statistics with region, was used to build 162 the dynamic balanced function and the age distribution in this country was assumed to be able to represent that in other countries belonging to the same region. The age distribution in this study was not simulated 163 164 for MCs due to the limitation of data availability, and we assumed that they shared the same age 165 distribution of PLDVs. 166 To verify the age distribution modeled by the dynamic balanced function, relative deviation between

167 the simulated vehicle stock based on newly registered vehicles and survival rates and the vehicle stock

168 in the first step was used as the validation indicator. Except for several years in Argentina and Thailand,

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the relative deviation ratios of light-duty vehicles during 1970-2020 ranges from -30.9% to 30.8%, heavy-duty vehicles had larger relative deviation ratios which were between -36.5% and 34.9%. Taking 2015 as an example, the relative deviation ratios in most countries were less than  $\pm 30\%$  (Figure 2(b) and Figure S4). The relatively good consistency between the vehicle stock and simulation indicated that the dynamic balance function set up in this study could well model the entry of newly registered vehicles and the retirement of existing vehicles and the estimated age distribution was reliable.

#### 175 2.4 Estimates of fuel consumption

176 In the third step, we estimated the initial vehicular fuel consumption based on outputs from the first two 177 steps and parameters including the annual average kilometers traveled (VKT), fuel structure, and fuel 178 economy. Then the initial vehicular fuel consumption was constrained with energy statistics from World 179 Energy Statistics (IEA1) at country level, which was finally used in CO2 estimation. VKT, fuel structure, 180 and fuel economy are rarely available in global statistics annually, this study used fleet-average data, 181 which were estimated based on vehicle-kilometers, the vehicle stock, vehicle-kilometer energy intensity, 182 and fuel consumption by category in energy efficiency statistics (IEA<sup>2</sup>). These indexes for 39 countries 183 (accounting for 43%-73% of the global vehicle stock) during the 2000-2018 period can be found in 184 energy efficiency statistics. For countries that were not covered in energy efficiency statistics, the 185 regional or global mean VKT, fuel structure, and fuel economy were used. For missing years, we assumed 186 that the values of these three parameters were similar to those of the adjacent year. There are few local 187 statistics or studies that evaluate the VKT, fuel structure, and fuel economy; therefore, these parameters 188 were supplemented and revised only for the United States, Europe, China, and Japan using local statistics 189 or studies (AECA; IEA3; JAMA; MEIC; TEDB; TRACCS).

As the validation of fuel consumption, the initial vehicular fuel consumption was compared to energy statistics by fuel type (Figure S5). The range of relative deviation ratios of gasoline, diesel, NG, and LPG was -23% to 3%, -19% to 9%, -22% to 34%, and -39% to 14%, respectively. As CO<sub>2</sub> is not directly emitted as exhaust by electrical vehicles whether they were running, starting or parking, electricity was not considered in the estimation of vehicular fuel consumption in this study. The consistency of the simulation with statistics ensured the feasibility of constraining the modeled fuel consumption by statistics.

#### 197 2.5 Estimates of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and uncertainty assessment

Finally, vehicular  $CO_2$  emissions were estimated using the constrained vehicular fuel consumption from previous step and a combined  $CO_2$  emission factor database in which emission factors from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) were used as the default emission factors, and local studies (EEA; Shan et al., 2018) were used as supplements and amendments. As the  $CO_2$  emission factor is influenced mainly by the fuel type and country, the estimation of  $CO_2$  emissions would not be interfered with by the simplified assumption for MCs in modelling the age distribution.

Following the method in Crippa et al. (2018) and Crippa et al. (2019), the corresponding uncertainty ( $\sigma$ ) of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from on-road vehicles in year *y* for a given country *c* is calculated as following:

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$$\sigma_{Emis_{c,y}} = \sqrt{\sum_{f} \left(\sigma_{AD_{c,y,f}}^2 + \sigma_{EF_{c,f}}^2\right) \times \left(Emis_{c,y,f}/Emis_{c,y}\right)^2}$$
(6)

207 where  $\sigma_{AD}$  and  $\sigma_{EF}$  are the uncertainties (%) of the activity data (the constrained fuel consumption of 208 on-road vehicles) and CO2 emission factors. Based on assumption of lognormal distribution of the 209 calculated uncertainties (Bond et al., 2004), we evaluated the upper and lower range of CO2 estimate by 210 multiplying and dividing the base emissions in this study by  $(1 + \sigma)$ , respectively (Crippa et al., 2018). 211 As CO2 uncertainty can vary significantly among countries (Marland et al., 1999; Olivier et al., 212 2014) and the primary source of uncertainty of the CO<sub>2</sub> estimate from on-road vehicles is the activity 213 data rather than emission factors (GPG 2000), the main step in CO2 uncertainty assessment is to evaluate 214 the uncertainty of national activity data. In this study, 231 countries were divided into several groups 215 (Table S1) in the uncertainty assessment in accordance with IPCC tiered approach and EDGAR 216 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019). Here we assume that countries belonging to the OECD in 1990 217 (OECD90) have the lowest uncertainties in their fuel consumption data because they were economically 218 stable and would have a good statistical infrastructure. On the same line, fuel consumption data in 219 countries with Economies in Transition of 1990 (EIT90) is more uncertain than that of OECD90 but less 220 than that from the other remaining non-Annex I countries. Exceptions to the country grouping are made 221 for Australia, Canada, China, India, Japan, Russia, Ukraine, United States, and countries belonging to 222 the 15 member countries of European Union (EU15) whose uncertainty values of fuel consumption data 223 were obtained from Olivier et al. (2016) and Hong et al. (2017). Uncertainty values for CO2 emission 224 factors were retrieved from EEA.

Table S4 shows the corresponding uncertainty of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at both global and regional level

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226 during 1970-2020 on basis of Equation Eq. 6. The uncertainty in the global on-road  $CO_2$  emissions is 227 estimated to range from -7.2% to 8.1%, which is close to the expert judgement suggested value 228 (approximately  $\pm 5\%$ ) in GPG (2000). Because sufficient local data was used in the CO<sub>2</sub> estimation, 229 United States and European Union have the lowest uncertainty in the range of -3.8% to 4.0% and -2.9% 230 to 3.0%, respectively. India also has relatively low uncertainty that varies between -4.7% and 5.0% 231 because of the low uncertainty derived from Janssens-Maenhout et al. (2019) in which India is classified 232 as countries with well-developed statistical systems. Due to the less-developed statistical systems, Latin 233 Am. + Canada and Middle East + Africa have the largest uncertainty, which range from -12.3% to 14.6% 234 and -15.4% to 18.3%, respectively. Hong et al. (2017) found that the apparent uncertainties in oil 235 consumption, statistics in China\_during 1996-2003 were relatively large with an average apparent 236 uncertainty ratio of 15.8%, which led to the relatively larger uncertainty in China's on-road CO<sub>2</sub> 237 emissions with the range of -12.6% to 14.4%. It could also be found that uncertainties at regional level 238 decreased over time with the development of statistical systems in more countries. But uncertainty in global on-road CO2 emissions slightly increased during 1970-2020 due to the growing contribution of 239 240 regions with larger uncertainty to the global total CO2 emissions.

#### 241 3 Results

#### 242 3.1 Evolution of the global vehicle stock, 1970-2020

243 The global vehicle stock continuously increased from 0.3 billion in 1970 to 2.3 billion in 2020, and there 244 is both consistency and variety between countries in terms of the distributions of vehicles and fuel types 245 (Figures 3 and S7). In 1970, PLDVs were the major vehicle type in United States (83%) and the European 246 Union (88%) but had relatively low proportions in China (23%) and India (5%). The high proportion of 247 PLDVs in the United States and the European Union, as well as the dominant position of these two 248 regions in terms of the global vehicle stock (Figure S6), led to more than 70% of global vehicles being 249 PLDVs in 1970. The proportion of PDLVs in China significantly increased and reached 68% in 2020 and 250 have replaced MCs to become the dominant vehicle type. Although the stock of PLDVs in India also 251 increased substantially during the 1970-2020 period, MCs with the proportion of 78% the vehicle stock 252 in 2020 were still the most frequently used vehicles in India, benefiting by the local warm climateMCs 253 st frequently used vehicles, accounting for 78% of the vehicle stock in India in 2020. In

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254 2020, tThe majority of vehicles in the European Union in 2020 were still PLDVs, for which the 255 proportion was 79%, but the dominant vehicle type in United States has changed from PLDVs to CLDVs 256 and CLDVs, which accounted for 50% of the local vehicle stock. As the dominant position of developed 257 countries in global vehicle stock replaced by developing countries during the 1970-2020 period With the replacement of developed countries by developing countries in terms of the global vehicle stock 258 259 during the 1970 2020 period (Figure S6), the share of MCs in the global vehicle stock increased

accordingly to 32%, and the proportion of PLDVs decreased to 50% in 2020.

261 Unlike the changes in the vehicle-type distribution during the 1970-2020 period, the fuel structure 262 of the vehicle stock was consistent in most regions. Currently, the majority of the vehicle stock worldwide 263 still consists of gasoline and diesel vehicles, which together accounted for 98% of the global vehicle 264 stock in 2020. Gasoline was the major fuel type for vehicles in most countries from 1970 to 2020, but 265 the dieselization of PLDVs in regions such as the European Union (Figure S10) led to a larger proportion 266 of diesel vehicles in the local vehicle stock. For example, the share of diesel vehicles in the European 267 Union increased from 29% in 1970 to 43% in 2020. Although the share of electrical vehicles in the 268 vehicle stock was still much lower than that of gasoline and diesel vehicles, the stock of global electrical 269 PLDVs has reached 10.2 million, and in this regard, the growth has been the fastest in the last eight years.



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#### 272 3.2 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from global on-road vehicles

273 Global CO2 emissions from on-road vehicles continued to increase overall from 1.7 Gt in 1970 to 5.4 Gt 274 in 2020 (Figure 4). Profiting from the integrated global vehicle database developed in this study, we 275 further analyzed the vehicle- and fuel type-specific characteristics of CO2 emissions from global on-road 276 vehicles. On-road CO2 emissions were concentrated in specific vehicle and fuel types throughout the 277 period. From 1970 to 2020, almost all of global CO2 emissions from on-road vehicles came from gasoline 278 and diesel vehicles due to their dominant proportion in the vehicle stock (Figure S10). In 1970, 78% and 279 21.5% of global on-road CO2 emissions were exhausted from gasoline and diesel vehicles, respectively, 280 and in 2020, these emissions together accounted for 96% of global on-road CO2 emissions; only the 281 ranking of the contributions changed. With continuous dieselization during the 1970-2020 period (Figure 282 S10), the contribution of diesel vehicles to global on-road CO2 emissions increased to 47% in 2020. 283 Although CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from vehicles using other fuels (here, NG and LPG) continued to grow during 284 the 1970-2020 period, their proportions were still quite slight compared to those of gasoline and diesel 285 vehicles.

286 PLDVs, accounting for the largest share in the global vehicle stock, were also the main source of global on-road CO2 emissions and contributed more than 47% of global CO2 emissions from on-road 287 288 vehicles during the 1970-2020 period. Although MCs accounted for the second largest share in the global 289 vehicle stock, CO2 emissions from MCs were not comparable to those from PLDVs. In 2020, proportion of PLDVs and MCs in the global vehicle stock was 50% and 32%, respectively, and their CO2 emissions 290 291 were 2.6 Gt and 0.3 Gt, respectively, which accounted for 48% and 5% of global on-road CO2 emissions, 292 respectively. In contrast, trucks with a fairly low share in the global vehicle stock contributed the second 293 largest share of global on-road CO2 emissions. During the 1970-2020 period, trucks accounted for less 294 than 5% of the global vehicle stock but exhausted 17% of global on-road CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in 1970, and 295 their contribution increased to 22% in 2020. As most PLDVs are gasoline vehicles and the majority of 296 trucks are powered by diesel, gasoline PLDVs and diesel trucks are among the top 2 vehicle- and fuel 297 type-specific contributors to global on-road CO2 emissions. In 2020, the CO2 emissions from gasoline 298 PLDVs and diesel trucks were 1.8 Gt and 1.1 Gt, respectively, accounting for 33% and 20% of global 299 on-road CO2 emissions, respectively.



Figure 4:Fig 4. Global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from 1970 to 2020 by vehicle and fuel type. The panels are
 organized by fuel type (rows) and vehicle type (columns).

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303 Figure 5 shows the geographical distribution of the two largest contributors to global on-road CO2 emissions in 2020, namely, gasoline PLDVs and diesel trucks. Global on-road CO2 emissions were highly 304 305 concentrated in several countries. In 2020, the top 10 countries contributed 69% and 71% of global CO2 306 emissions exhausted from gasoline PLDVs and diesel trucks, respectively. The United States was still the largest contributor to global CO2 emissions from both gasoline PLDVs and diesel trucks, whose 307 308 contributions were up to 25% and 28%, respectively. With the continuous improvement in China's 309 economic development, China became the leading market for global vehicles in 2020 (Figure S6) and accounted for 18% and 19% of CO2 emissions from global gasoline PLDVs and diesel trucks, 310 311 respectively. Although growth in on-road CO2 emissions in developed countries slowed down after 2000

- 312 (Figure S8), the contributions of gasoline PLDVs and diesel trucks in developed countries were still
- 313 greater than those in developing countries, especially for gasoline PLDVs. For example, the ownership
- 314 of gasoline PLDVs in Canada and India was relatively close in 2020, at 22.5 and 21.2 million,
- respectively, but the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from gasoline PLDVs in Canada were 83.5 Mt, which is three times
- 316 greater than that in India.



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Figure 5: Fig. 5. Maps of on-road CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the top 2 contributors worldwide: (a) gasoline
 PLDVs and (b) diesel trucks.

<sup>320</sup> We further analyzed the influence of shifts in the fuel-type distribution of vehicle ownership (Figure<sup>4</sup> 321 S10) on the fuel structure of on-road CO2 emissions (Figure 6 and Figure S11). In 1970, CO2 emissions from PLDVs were mainly exhausted from gasoline vehicles, as the majority of PLDVs in most regions 322 323 were powered by gasoline, and diesel vehicles exhausted only 7% of CO2 emissions from PLDVs 324 worldwide. In 2020, gasoline vehicles were still the dominant contributor to CO2 emissions from PLDVs 325 in the United States and China, but the contribution of diesel vehicles increased significantly in the 326 European Union and India, which accounted for 61% and 50% of local CO2 emissions from PLDVs, 327 respectively. Influenced by the dieselization of PLDVs in regions such as the European Union and India, the contribution of diesel vehicles to CO2 emissions from PLDVs in 2020 also increased to 28%. For 328 14

329 CLDVs, the contribution of diesel vehicles was more than 50% in the European Union, China, and India,

but in the remaining regions, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions were still mainly from gasoline vehicles. Buses and trucks

331 were also dieselized during the 1970-2020 period, and diesel vehicles have become the dominant

332 contributor to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from buses and trucks both regionally and globally. Therefore, controlling

emissions from diesel vehicles, especially buses and trucks, holds great significance for reducing global







# 6 Figure 6: Fig. 6. Transition of diesel vehicles' contribution to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

#### 337 3.3 Age distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions

338 On the basis of the fleet turnover emission model built in this study, the age distribution of global on-339 road CO2 emissions was estimated and analyzed (Figure 7). The contribution of old vehicles (those that 340 survived more than 15 years) to CO2 emissions was relatively low, regardless of whether they were light-341 duty or heavy-duty vehicles. In 1970, old vehicles contributed 4% and 6% of CO2 emissions from light-342 duty and heavy-duty vehicles, respectively. Although the contribution of old vehicles to CO2 emissions 343 increased, they still contributed only approximately 10% of CO2 emissions from both light-duty and 344 heavy-duty vehicles in 2020. As emissions of air pollutants such as particulate matter (PM) may increase 345 with age because of degradation in engine performance and air pollution control equipment (Yan et al., 346 2011), the contributions of old vehicles to emissions of air pollutants could be much greater than those

of CO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore, controlling old vehicles may not be significant in mitigating CO<sub>2</sub> emissions but could
lead to effective air pollutant emission coreductions.

349 Global CO2 emissions from vehicles of all ages were mainly contributed by developed countries, 350 such as the United States and countries in the European Union before 2000, as these countries owned the 351 majority of global vehicles during that period. After 2000, the contributions of vehicles in developing 352 countries such as China and India to global on-road CO2 emissions increased significantly, especially for 353 CO2 emissions from vehicles younger than ten years. Taking CO2 emissions from light-duty vehicles 354 aged 0-1 as an example, the proportion of these vehicles in China increased from 1% in 1970 to 16% in 355 2020, while the proportion of these vehicles in the United States decreased from 44% in 1970 to 23% in 356 2020. CO2 emissions from old vehicles in 2020 were still mainly exhausted by vehicles in developed 357 countries such as the United States and countries in the European Union, which is related to the longer 358 lifetimes and earlier development of vehicles in these countries. For example, old vehicles in the United 359 States contributed nearly half of the CO2 emissions exhausted from old light-duty vehicles worldwide in 360 2020.



361

Figure 7:Fig. 7. Shares of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by vehicle age. In each panel, the bars from left to right show
 the proportions of the world, the United States (US), the European Union (EU), China, and India
 accounted for by vehicles in the vehicle age categories. The panels are organized by year (rows) and

365 vehicle type (columns).

#### 366 4 Data availability

The fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific CO<sub>2</sub> emission data presented herein cover the period from 1970<sup>4</sup>
to 2020 at the country level. The data are available as open data at
<u>https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24548008-v5</u> (Yan et al., 2023).

#### 370 5 Conclusions

371 Our study constructed a fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific CO<sub>2</sub> emission inventory from 1970 to 2020<sup>4</sup> 372 of global on-road vehicles covering 231 countries, five types of fuel, and five types of vehicles. In this 373 model, the best available statistics on the vehicle stock and sales were used to model the vehicle stock 374 via the Gompertz function as well as the age distribution based on the dynamic balanced relationship 375 between the vehicle stock and vehicle sales. Statistical fuel consumption was used to constrain the 376 estimated vehicular fuel consumption at the country level, and emission factors from both the IPCC and 377 local studies were used to estimate CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. On the basis of our CO<sub>2</sub> emission inventory with 378 detailed information, the evolution of the global vehicle stock over 50 years was analyzed, the dominant 379 emission contributors by vehicle and fuel type were identified, and the age distribution of on-road CO2 380 emissions was also characterized. We found that trucks accounted for less than 5% of global vehicle 381 ownership but represented more than 20% of on-road CO2 emissions in 2020. The contribution of diesel 382 vehicles to global on-road CO2 emissions doubled during the 1970-2020 period, driven by the shift in 383 the fuel-type distribution of vehicle ownership. The proportion of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from vehicles in 384 developing countries such as China and India in terms of global emissions from newly registered vehicles 385 significantly increased after 2000, but global CO2 emissions from vehicles that survived more than 15 386 years in 2020 still originated mainly from developed countries such as the United States and countries in 387 the European Union.

The fleet turnover model built in this study could also be used for estimating global on-road emissions of air pollutants, which are more significantly influenced by the vehicle-type distribution, fuel structure, and age distribution of the fleet. However, these fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific characteristics have not yet been discussed in existing studies. In the future, our model could help improve the global emission inventory of air pollutants from on-road vehicles and further support analyses of coreductions in  $CO_2$  and air pollutant emissions from global on-road vehicles as well as the 带格式的: 行距: 1.5 倍行距

rified the reliability of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions in this study by comparing them to
global, regional, and national emission inventories in which long-term $\mathrm{CO}_2$
gure S12). The $\operatorname{CO}_2$ emissions in this study not only exhibited good
l emission inventories at the global scale but also were more similar to local
r global or regional emission inventories at the country and regional levels.
ed to figures in this article is available in the supplementary file Figures.zip.
collected the data, developed the fleet turnover model, and constructed the
be-, and age-specific $\mathrm{CO}_2$ emissions from global on-road vehicles during the
Z discussed the expansion of the database. LY wrote the paper with the help
st one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Earth System
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