

1 **Modeling fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific CO₂**
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
14 insufficient to support the establishment of emission mitigation strategies. Thus, a fleet turnover model
15 is developed in this study, and CO₂ 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,
17 identify the dominant emission contributors by vehicle and fuel type, and further characterize the age
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 CO₂ emissions from vehicles that survived more than 15
24 years in 2020 still originated mainly from developed countries such as the United States and countries in
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 CO₂ 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
40 (ODIAC), the Carbon Emission and Accounts Datasets (CEADs), and the Peking University (PKU)-CO₂
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
49 models such as the Greenhouse Gas and Air Pollution Interactions and Synergies (GAINS) (Klimont et
50 al., 2017) and Speciated Pollutant Emissions Wizard (SPEW)-Trend (Tami et al., 2004 and 2007; Yan et
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

55 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 CO₂
 58 emissions. Compared to the publicly available on-road CO₂ emissions from previous studies, CO₂
 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, CO₂ 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 CO₂ emissions from on-road vehicles in year y are estimated as
 65 follows:

$$66 \quad Emis_{c,y,v,f} = \sum_{i=0}^{i=T} Stock_{c,y,v} \times X_{c,y,v,i} \times FuelR_{c,y,v,f} \times VKT_{c,y,v,f} \times FE_{c,y,v,f} \times EF_{c,f}, \quad (1)$$

$$67 \quad Stock_{c,y,v} = V_{c,y,v}^* \times e^{\alpha_{c,v}} e^{\beta_{c,v} E_{c,y}} \times Population_{c,y}, \quad (2)$$

$$68 \quad Stock_{c,y,v} = \sum_{i=0}^{i=T} Sale_{c,y-i,v} \times Surv_{c,v,i}, \quad (3)$$

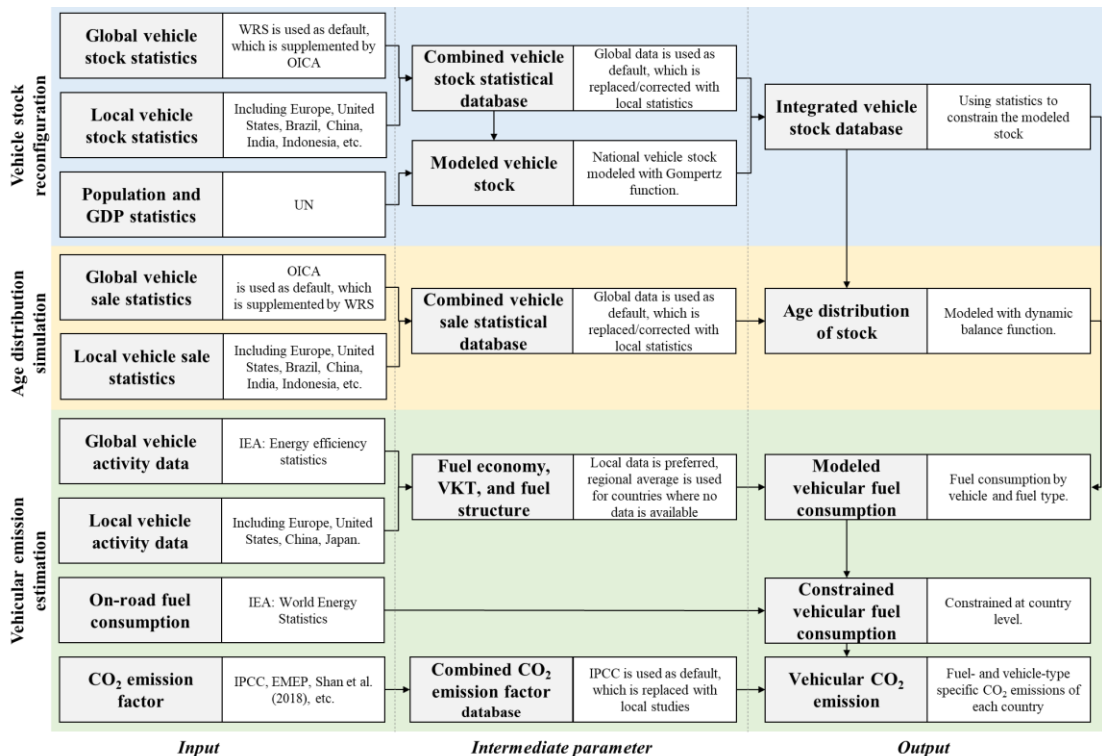
$$69 \quad X_{c,y,v,i} = Sale_{c,y-i,v} \times Surv_{c,v,i} / \sum_{i=0}^{i=T} Sale_{c,y-i,v} \times Surv_{c,v,i}, \quad (4)$$

$$70 \quad Fuel_{c,y,f} = \sum_v Stock_{c,y,v} \times FuelR_{c,y,v,f} \times VKT_{c,y,v,f} \times FE_{c,y,v,f}, \quad (5)$$

71 where y is the target year, which ranges from 1970 to 2020; i is the age of the vehicles registered in
 72 year $(y - i)$; T is the lifetime of vehicles; v is the vehicle type, which includes two types of light-
 73 duty vehicles, namely, passenger cars (PLDVs) and light commercial vehicles (CLDVs), two types of
 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 1, annual CO₂ 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 CO₂ emission factor ($EF_{c,f}$). $Stock_{c,y,v}$ can be modeled using the Gompertz function (Equation
 80 2), which is an S-shaped curve determined by two negative parameters (α and β), with the saturated

81 vehicle stock per 1000 people (V^*), per capita GDP (E), and population ($Population_{c,y}$) as inputs. The
 82 age distribution of the vehicle stock ($X_{c,y,v,i}$), which represents the proportion of surviving vehicles
 83 registered in year ($y - i$) in target year y , is modeled on the basis of the dynamic balance function
 84 (Equation 3 and 4) using the number of newly registered vehicles ($Sale_{c,y-i,v}$) and survival rates
 85 ($Surv_{c,v,i}$). Fuel consumption by vehicle type, which is calculated using $Stock_{c,y,v}$, $X_{c,y,v,i}$,
 86 $FuelR_{c,y,v,f}$, $VKT_{c,y,v,f}$, and $FE_{c,y,v,f}$, is constrained by total on-road fuel consumption ($Fuel_{c,y,f}$) at
 87 the country level (Equation 5).

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



98

99 Figure 1: Schematic methodology for estimating vehicular CO₂ emissions.

100 **2.2 Modeling the vehicle stock**

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

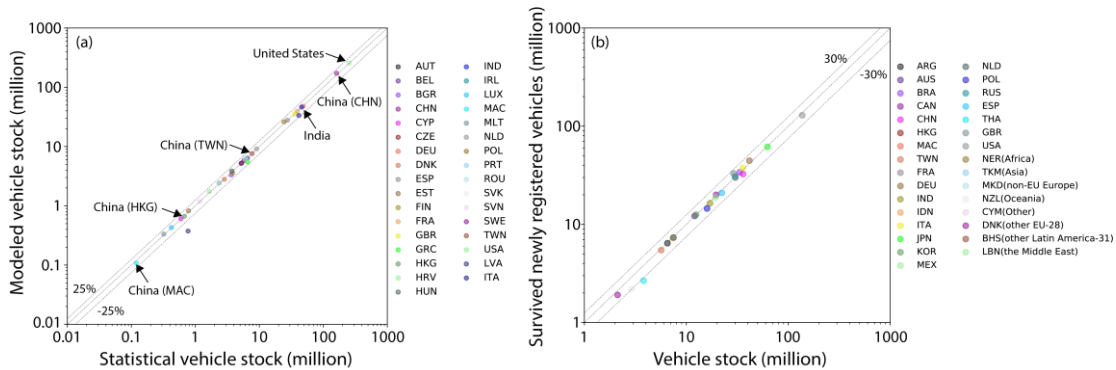
106 To determine the default vehicle stock database, two widely used vehicle stock statistics from the
107 World Road Statistics (WRS) 2021 Edition (IRF) and the International Organization of Motor Vehicle
108 Manufacturers (OICA) were collected and compared. We found that the trends of vehicle stock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

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

123 Given that statistical data of vehicle was unavailable before 2000 for most countries, the Gompertz
124 function, which was often applied to establish the relationship between vehicle ownership and an
125 economic indicator (Dargay and Gately, 1999; Dargay et al., 2007; Huo and Wang, 2012), was
126 subsequently used in this study to model the vehicle stock. In this study, per capita GDP was calculated
127 with national GDP (NBS; UNdata; WB) and population (NBS; WPP) as the economic indicator. The

128 saturated vehicle stock per 1000 people was first derived from previous studies (Huo and Wang, 2012)
 129 and then adjusted by the maximal vehicle stock per 1000 people calculated using statistical data. The
 130 combined vehicle statistical database was used to estimate parameters (α and β) of the Gompertz
 131 function at the country level. For countries whose R square (R^2) of the country-level regression was less
 132 than 0.5, regional or global α and β regression parameters were used instead (Zheng et al., 2012).

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



143
 144 Figure 2: Verification of the modeled vehicle stock in United States, the European Union, China, and
 145 India (a) and the age distribution for PLDVs (b) in 2015.

146 **2.3 Modeling the age distribution of vehicle stock**

147 Then, the age distribution of the stock was modeled using the dynamic balanced function with the
 148 integrated vehicle stock database set up in the first step and a combined vehicle sale statistical database.
 149 Similar to the combination of vehicle stock statistics, OICA data were used as the default vehicle sale
 150 database with WRS data as a supplement after comparison, and local statistics (ACEA; CEIC; EC; JAMA;
 151 MEIC; NBS; TEDB) were also involved to correct the default database. Limited by the temporal
 152 coverage of the statistical data, vehicle sales were not available for most countries before 2005. Therefore,

153 the newly registered vehicles for missing years was back-calculated with the dynamic balanced function,
154 in which the vehicle stock from the previous step and survival rates derived from available studies and
155 reports (Huo and Wang 2012; Yan et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2014) were inputs. Here we
156 marked 231 countries into two types: focus countries and broader regions (Table S1). 20 countries
157 owning the top 75% of global vehicles were marked as focus countries, for which the dynamic balanced
158 function was built at country level. The remaining 211 countries were marked as broader regions and
159 further combined into 8 regions according to the roadmap region definition (ICCT 2012). In each broader
160 region, data in a representative country, which has most abundant statistics with region, was used to build
161 the dynamic balanced function and the age distribution in this country was assumed to be able to represent
162 that in other countries belonging to the same region. The age distribution in this study was not simulated
163 for MCs due to the limitation of data availability, and we assumed that they shared the same age
164 distribution of PLDVs.

165 To verify the age distribution modeled by the dynamic balanced function, relative deviation between
166 the simulated vehicle stock based on newly registered vehicles and survival rates and the vehicle stock
167 in the first step was used as the validation indicator. Except for several years in Argentina and Thailand,
168 the relative deviation ratios of light-duty vehicles during 1970-2020 ranges from -30.9% to 30.8%,
169 heavy-duty vehicles had larger relative deviation ratios which were between -36.5% and 34.9%. Taking
170 2015 as an example, the relative deviation ratios in most countries were less than $\pm 30\%$ (Figure 2(b)
171 and Figure S4). The relatively good consistency between the vehicle stock and simulation indicated that
172 the dynamic balance function set up in this study could well model the entry of newly registered vehicles
173 and the retirement of existing vehicles and the estimated age distribution was reliable.

174 **2.4 Estimates of fuel consumption**

175 In the third step, we estimated the initial vehicular fuel consumption based on outputs from the first two
176 steps and parameters including the annual average kilometers traveled (VKT), fuel structure, and fuel
177 economy. Then the initial vehicular fuel consumption was constrained with energy statistics from World
178 Energy Statistics (IEA¹) at country level, which was finally used in CO₂ estimation. VKT, fuel structure,
179 and fuel economy are rarely available in global statistics annually, this study used fleet-average data,
180 which were estimated based on vehicle-kilometers, the vehicle stock, vehicle-kilometer energy intensity,
181 and fuel consumption by category in energy efficiency statistics (IEA²). These indexes for 39 countries

182 (accounting for 43%-73% of the global vehicle stock) during the 2000-2018 period can be found in
 183 energy efficiency statistics. For countries that were not covered in energy efficiency statistics, the
 184 regional or global mean VKT, fuel structure, and fuel economy were used. For missing years, we assumed
 185 that the values of these three parameters were similar to those of the adjacent year. There are few local
 186 statistics or studies that evaluate the VKT, fuel structure, and fuel economy; therefore, these parameters
 187 were supplemented and revised only for the United States, Europe, China, and Japan using local statistics
 188 or studies (AECA; IEA³; JAMA; MEIC; TEDB; TRACCS).

189 As the validation of fuel consumption, the initial vehicular fuel consumption was compared to
 190 energy statistics by fuel type (Figure S5). The range of relative deviation ratios of gasoline, diesel, NG,
 191 and LPG was -23% to 3%, -19% to 9%, -22% to 34%, and -39% to 14%, respectively. As CO₂ is not
 192 directly emitted as exhaust by electrical vehicles whether they were running, starting or parking,
 193 electricity was not considered in the estimation of vehicular fuel consumption in this study. The
 194 consistency of the simulation with statistics ensured the feasibility of constraining the modeled fuel
 195 consumption by statistics.

196 **2.5 Estimates of CO₂ emissions and uncertainty assessment**

197 Finally, vehicular CO₂ emissions were estimated using the constrained vehicular fuel consumption from
 198 previous step and a combined CO₂ emission factor database in which emission factors from the
 199 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) were used as the default emission factors, and local
 200 studies (EEA; Shan et al., 2018) were used as supplements and amendments. As the CO₂ emission factor
 201 is influenced mainly by the fuel type and country, the estimation of CO₂ emissions would not be interfered
 202 with by the simplified assumption for MCs in modelling the age distribution.

203 Following the method in Crippa et al. (2018) and Crippa et al. (2019), the corresponding uncertainty
 204 (σ) of CO₂ emissions from on-road vehicles in year y for a given country c is calculated as following:

$$205 \sigma_{Emis_{c,y}} = \sqrt{\sum_f (\sigma_{AD_{c,y,f}}^2 + \sigma_{EF_{c,f}}^2) \times (Emis_{c,y,f} / Emis_{c,y})^2} \quad (6)$$

206 where σ_{AD} and σ_{EF} are the uncertainties (%) of the activity data (the constrained fuel consumption of
 207 on-road vehicles) and CO₂ emission factors. Based on assumption of lognormal distribution of the
 208 calculated uncertainties (Bond et al., 2004), we evaluated the upper and lower range of CO₂ estimate by
 209 multiplying and dividing the base emissions in this study by $(1 + \sigma)$, respectively (Crippa et al., 2018).

210 As CO₂ uncertainty can vary significantly among countries (Marland et al., 1999; Olivier et al.,
211 2014) and the primary source of uncertainty of the CO₂ estimate from on-road vehicles is the activity
212 data rather than emission factors (GPG 2000), the main step in CO₂ uncertainty assessment is to evaluate
213 the uncertainty of national activity data. In this study, 231 countries were divided into several groups
214 (Table S1) in the uncertainty assessment in accordance with IPCC tiered approach and EDGAR
215 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019). Here we assume that countries belonging to the OECD in 1990
216 (OECD90) have the lowest uncertainties in their fuel consumption data because they were economically
217 stable and would have a good statistical infrastructure. On the same line, fuel consumption data in
218 countries with Economies in Transition of 1990 (EIT90) is more uncertain than that of OECD90 but less
219 than that from the other remaining non-Annex I countries. Exceptions to the country grouping are made
220 for Australia, Canada, China, India, Japan, Russia, Ukraine, United States, and countries belonging to
221 the 15 member countries of European Union (EU15) whose uncertainty values of fuel consumption data
222 were obtained from Olivier et al. (2016) and Hong et al. (2017). Uncertainty values for CO₂ emission
223 factors were retrieved from EEA.

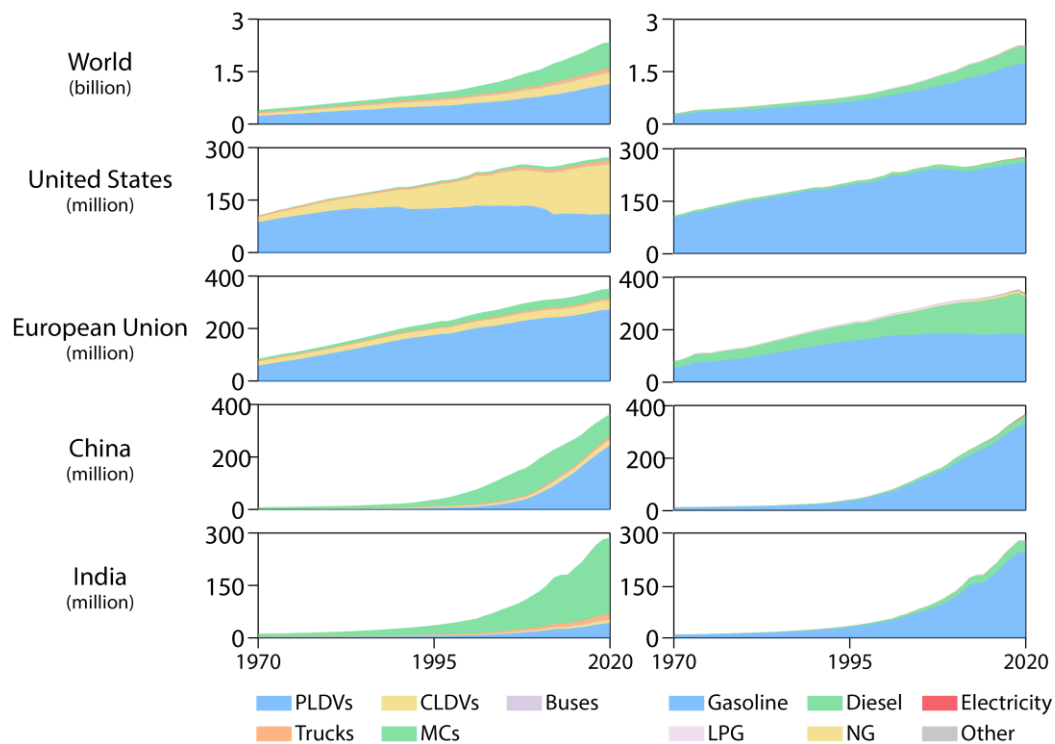
224 Table S4 shows the corresponding uncertainty of CO₂ emissions at both global and regional level
225 during 1970-2020 on basis of Equation 6. The uncertainty in the global on-road CO₂ emissions is
226 estimated to range from -7.2% to 8.1%, which is close to the expert judgement suggested value
227 (approximately $\pm 5\%$) in GPG (2000). Because sufficient local data was used in the CO₂ estimation,
228 United States and European Union have the lowest uncertainty in the range of -3.8% to 4.0% and -2.9%
229 to 3.0%, respectively. India also has relatively low uncertainty that varies between -4.7% and 5.0%
230 because of the low uncertainty derived from Janssens-Maenhout et al. (2019) in which India is classified
231 as countries with well-developed statistical systems. Due to the less-developed statistical systems, Latin
232 Am. + Canada and Middle East + Africa have the largest uncertainty, which range from -12.3% to 14.6%
233 and -15.4% to 18.3%, respectively. Hong et al. (2017) found that the apparent uncertainties in oil
234 consumption statistics in China during 1996-2003 were relatively large with an average apparent
235 uncertainty ratio of 15.8%, which led to the relatively larger uncertainty in China's on-road CO₂
236 emissions with the range of -12.6% to 14.4%. It could also be found that uncertainties at regional level
237 decreased over time with the development of statistical systems in more countries. But uncertainty in
238 global on-road CO₂ emissions slightly increased during 1970-2020 due to the growing contribution of
239 regions with larger uncertainty to the global total CO₂ emissions.

240 **3 Results**

241 **3.1 Evolution of the global vehicle stock, 1970-2020**

242 The global vehicle stock continuously increased from 0.3 billion in 1970 to 2.3 billion in 2020, and there
243 is both consistency and variety between countries in terms of the distributions of vehicles and fuel types
244 (Figures 3 and S7). In 1970, PLDVs were the major vehicle type in United States (83%) and the European
245 Union (88%) but had relatively low proportions in China (23%) and India (5%). The high proportion of
246 PLDVs in the United States and the European Union, as well as the dominant position of these two
247 regions in terms of the global vehicle stock (Figure S6), led to more than 70% of global vehicles being
248 PLDVs in 1970. The proportion of PDLVs in China significantly increased and reached 68% in 2020 and
249 have replaced MCs to become the dominant vehicle type. Although the stock of PLDVs in India also
250 increased substantially during the 1970-2020 period, MCs with the proportion of 78% the vehicle stock
251 in 2020 were still the most frequently used vehicles in India, benefiting by the local warm climate. The
252 majority of vehicles in the European Union in 2020 were still PLDVs, for which the proportion was 79%,
253 but the dominant vehicle type in United States has changed from PLDVs to CLDVs and CLDVs
254 accounted for 50% of the local vehicle stock. As the dominant position of developed countries in global
255 vehicle stock replaced by developing countries during the 1970-2020 period (Figure S6), the share of
256 MCs in the global vehicle stock increased accordingly to 32%, and the proportion of PLDVs decreased
257 to 50% in 2020.

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



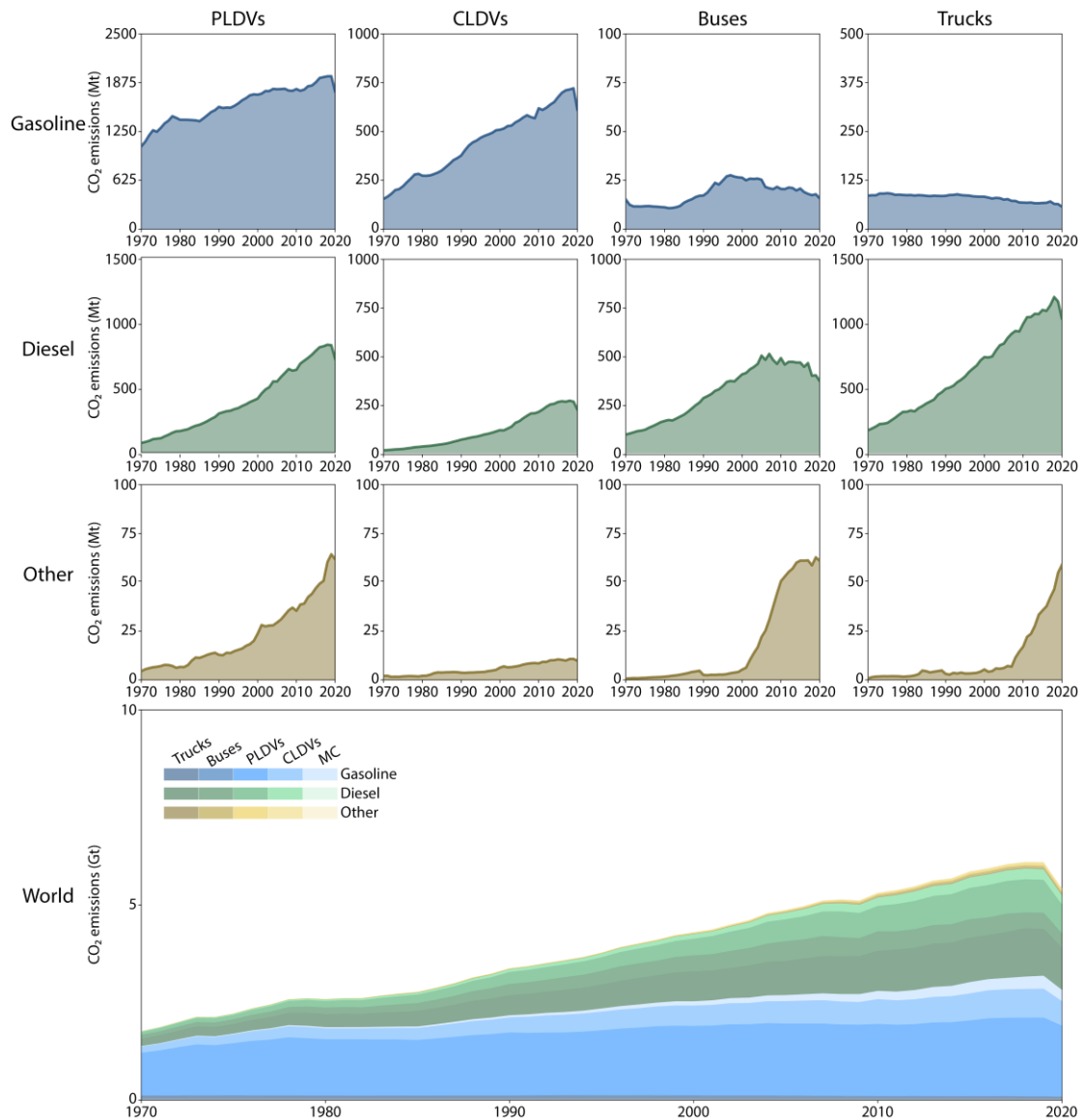
267
268 Figure 3: Trends in vehicle ownership from 1970 to 2020.

269 **3.2 CO₂ emissions from global on-road vehicles**

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

283 PLDVs, accounting for the largest share in the global vehicle stock, were also the main source of
 284 global on-road CO₂ emissions and contributed more than 47% of global CO₂ emissions from on-road

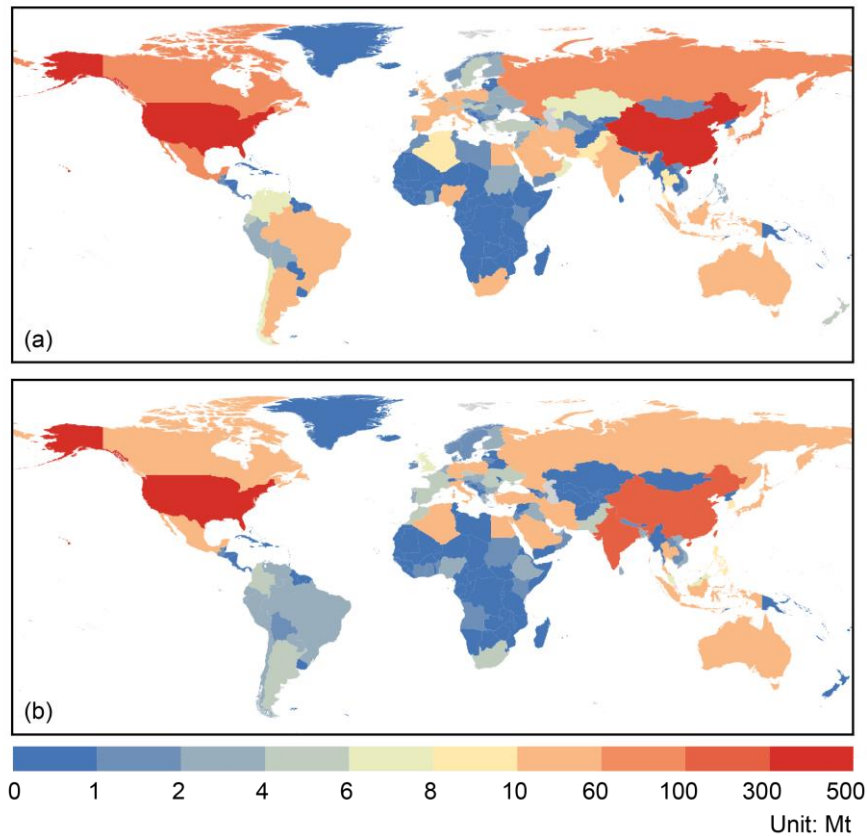
285 vehicles during the 1970-2020 period. Although MCs accounted for the second largest share in the global
286 vehicle stock, CO₂ emissions from MCs were not comparable to those from PLDVs. In 2020, proportion
287 of PLDVs and MCs in the global vehicle stock was 50% and 32%, respectively, and their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



297
 298 Figure 4: Global CO₂ emissions from 1970 to 2020 by vehicle and fuel type. The panels are organized
 299 by fuel type (rows) and vehicle type (columns).

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

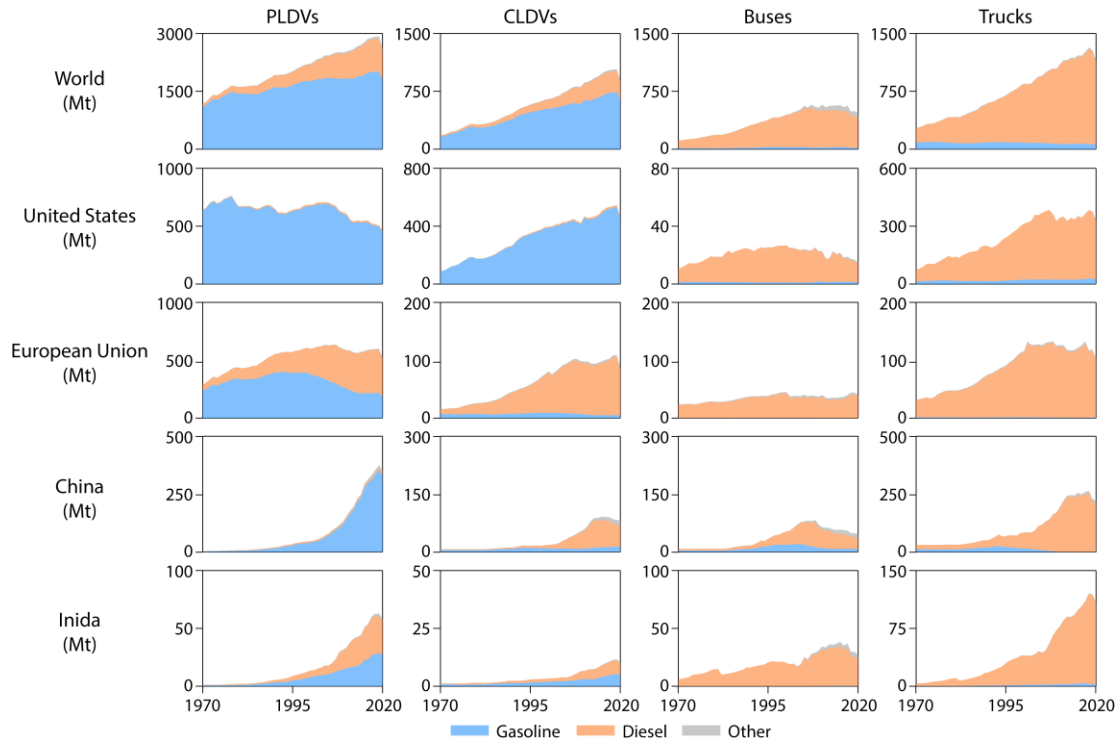
309 (Figure S8), the contributions of gasoline PLDVs and diesel trucks in developed countries were still
310 greater than those in developing countries, especially for gasoline PLDVs. For example, the ownership
311 of gasoline PLDVs in Canada and India was relatively close in 2020, at 22.5 and 21.2 million,
312 respectively, but the CO₂ emissions from gasoline PLDVs in Canada were 83.5 Mt, which is three times
313 greater than that in India.



314
315 Figure 5: Maps of on-road CO₂ emissions from the top 2 contributors worldwide: (a) gasoline PLDVs
316 and (b) diesel trucks.

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

326 CLDVs, the contribution of diesel vehicles was more than 50% in the European Union, China, and India,
 327 but in the remaining regions, CO₂ emissions were still mainly from gasoline vehicles. Buses and trucks
 328 were also dieselized during the 1970-2020 period, and diesel vehicles have become the dominant
 329 contributor to CO₂ emissions from buses and trucks both regionally and globally. Therefore, controlling
 330 emissions from diesel vehicles, especially buses and trucks, holds great significance for reducing global
 331 on-road CO₂ emissions.



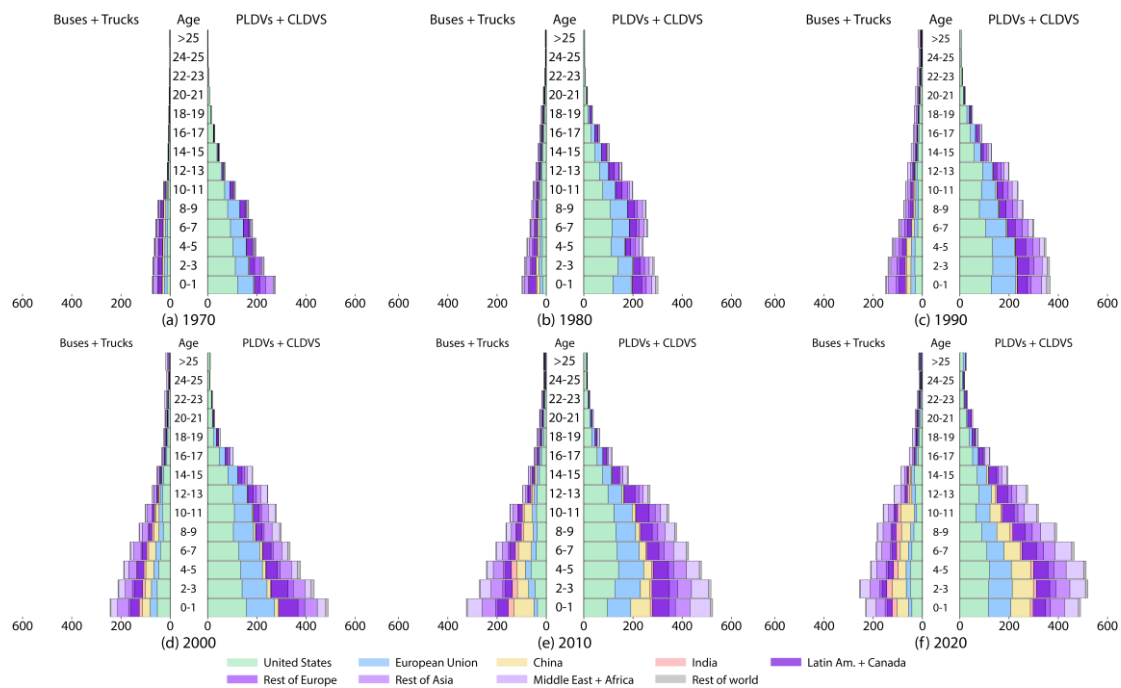
332
 333 Figure 6: Transition of diesel vehicles' contribution to CO₂ emissions.

334 **3.3 Age distribution of CO₂ emissions**

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

344 of CO₂. Therefore, controlling old vehicles may not be significant in mitigating CO₂ emissions but could
 345 lead to effective air pollutant emission coreductions.

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



358
 359 Figure 7: Shares of CO₂ emissions by vehicle age. In each panel, the bars from left to right show the
 360 proportions of the world, the United States (US), the European Union (EU), China, and India accounted
 361 for by vehicles in the vehicle age categories. The panels are organized by year (rows) and vehicle type
 362 (columns).

363 **4 Data availability**

364 The fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific CO₂ emission data presented herein cover the period from 1970
365 to 2020 at the country level. The data are available as open data at
366 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24548008> (Yan et al., 2023).

367 **5 Conclusions**

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

385 The fleet turnover model built in this study could also be used for estimating global on-road
386 emissions of air pollutants, which are more significantly influenced by the vehicle-type distribution, fuel
387 structure, and age distribution of the fleet. However, these fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific
388 characteristics have not yet been discussed in existing studies. In the future, our model could help
389 improve the global emission inventory of air pollutants from on-road vehicles and further support
390 analyses of coreductions in CO₂ and air pollutant emissions from global on-road vehicles as well as the

391 potential air quality and climate cobenefits. In addition to the uncertainty quantification for our CO₂
392 emission data, we further verified the reliability of CO₂ emissions in this study by comparing them to
393 those of other widely used global, regional, and national emission inventories in which long-term CO₂
394 emissions are available (Figure S12). The CO₂ emissions in this study not only exhibited good
395 consistency with other global emission inventories at the global scale but also were more similar to local
396 emissions than those in other global or regional emission inventories at the country and regional levels.

397

398 **Supplement.** The data related to figures in this article is available in the supplementary file Figures.zip.

399

400 **Author contributions.** LY collected the data, developed the fleet turnover model, and constructed the
401 database of fuel-, vehicle type-, and age-specific CO₂ emissions from global on-road vehicles during the
402 1970-2020 period. LY and QZ discussed the expansion of the database. LY wrote the paper with the help
403 of all the coauthors.

404

405 **Competing interests.** At least one of the (co-)authors is a member of the editorial board of Earth System
406 Science Data.

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