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SI.1 Dynamic MFA model

 Four types of passenger vehicles were included in this study: Battery Electric Vehicles (BEVs), Plug-in Hybrid Electric Vehicles (PHEVs), Hybrid Electric Vehicles (HEVs), Internal Combustion Engine Vehicles powered by gasoline (ICEV-G) or diesel (ICEV-D). The future stock of passenger vehicles for each country was estimated 37 from historical registration data collected from the Eurostat¹ and the European Automobile Manufacturers 38 Association (ACEA)² by assuming a vehicle-to-population ratio and future population growth from the Shared Socio-economic Pathway, SSP23 (Figure S1 (A)). The SSP2 scenario outlines a middle-of-the-road scenario in terms of socioeconomic development. It represents moderate population growth and a path in which "social, 41 economic, and technological trends do not shift markedly from historical patterns"³. The projected population 42 data was collected from the SSP database⁴, and presented at the 2-year intervals in Table S1.

 The market share of various passenger vehicle types was calculated based on the annual numbers of registered passenger vehicles for recent years (2011-2020) collected from the ACEA2 . The assumptions from 2021 for each country were fitted by the individual future policy targets of EVs (BEVs and PHEVs) and the same historical sales trend of HEVs and ICEVs, as shown in Figure S1 (B). The market share of ICEV-P was assumed to be 47 double that of ICEV-D following the historical sales statistics². For the scenario with a more ambitious e- mobility transition, BEVs would fully dominate the market of passenger vehicles by 2030 within all the 27 EU + 3 countries. Best-selling EV models within the 27 EU + 3 countries by 2020 were listed in Table S2.

 Figure S1. (A) The estimated total stock of passenger vehicles for the 27 EU + 3 countries through 2040. (B) Market share for BEVs, HEVs, PHEVs, and ICEVs of the 27 EU + 3 countries through 2040 following the individual stated e-mobility plans (dashed lines). Solid lines in black and blue represent the average level of the countries in the high ambition group (HG) and low ambition group (LG) following the stated e-mobility transition. The solid line in brown represents the market share of BEVs for the 27 EU + 3 countries in the ambitious transition scenario. ("Others" represents the countries in the low ambition group with the lowest goals in market share of EVs.)

57 The lifespan of passenger vehicles determines their survival time in the dynamic MFA model. The lifespan was 58 assumed to follow a Weibull distribution function with scale and shape parameters (*λ* and *k*), as shown below:

$$
f(T, \tau, k, \lambda) = 1 - e^{-\left(\frac{T - \tau}{\lambda}\right)^k}
$$

60 The average lifespan of the passenger vehicles for each country was based on a previous study⁵, representing the 61 historical turnover frequency of passenger vehicles. Overall, the average lifespan of the counties in the high 62 ambition group was about 18.4 years, whereas for countries in the low ambition group it was about 24.8 years. 63 The scale and shape parameters (*λ* and *k*) are listed in Table S3.

However, the average lifespan of EVs is about 12 years as suggested by many EV automakers⁶, representing a 65 survival probability of about 50% after 10.2 years (Figure S2 (A)). Considering the mismatch of lifespans 66 between the conventional ICEVs and the EVs, and we made different assumptions on the lifespans in different 67 scenarios for the assessment in the scenario years (from 2021 onwards). In the no e-mobility scenario and stated 68 transition scenario, the average lifespan of ICEVs in each country was assumed to follow the historical values, 69 and the average lifespan of EVs was assumed to be 12 years. In the more ambitious, however, with EVs rapidly 70 dominating the sales market, the average lifespan was assumed to be 12 years for all vehicle types, which 71 accounts for an accelerated phase-out of ICEVs to a lower lifespan of 12 years. However, for the specific case of 72 Luxemburg the average lifespan for all passenger vehicles in all scenarios was assumed to follow their historical 73 turnover frequency as 8 years. The annual demand for all types of passenger vehicles in different scenarios is 74 shown in Figure S2 (B).

88 Figure S2. (A) Survival possibility distribution for the average lifespan of passenger vehicles in the stated transition scenario and in the 89 ambitious transition scenario. (B) Annual demand for all types of passenger vehicles in the stated transition scenario and in the ambitious 90 transition scenario.

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Vehicle type	EV model	Launch ed time	Total sales	Battery cathode chemistry	Battery capacity (kWh)	Stated driving range (km)
	Mitsubishi i-MiEV	2010	8119	LMO-poly	16	85
	Peugeot i-On	2010	13823	LMO-poly	14.5	85
	Citroën C-Zero	2010	14314	LMO-poly	14.5	85
	Nissan LEAF (2011)	2011	81811	LMO-poly	24/30	125
	Renault Zoe (2012)	2012	89389	LMO-poly	26	140
	BMW i3 (2013)	2013	95548	LMO-poly	22	130
	Tesla Model S	2013	78541	$_{\rm NCA}$	75-100	330-490
	SMART-for Two/Four	2013	54022	NMC-111	17	101
BEV	KIA soul	2014	30887	LMO-poly	32	170
	Volkswagen e-Golf	2015	117475	NMC-111	24	130
	Tesla Model X	2016	39978	$_{\rm NCA}$	60-100	330-490
	Hyundai ioniq	2016	36237	NMC-622	28	190
	Tesla Model 3	2017	181147	$_{\rm NCA}$	85-100	350-500
	Jaguar I-pace	2017	31970	NMC-622	90	415
	Renault Zoe (2017)	2017	212657	NMC-622	41	255
	Nissan LEAF (2018)	2018	101709	NMC-622	40	245
	Hyundai Kona	2018	73904	NMC-622	39.2	246
	AUDI e-Tron	2018	54022	NMC-622	71.2	330
	Volkswagen ID.3	2020	54495	NMC-622	45	275
	Peugeot e-208	2020	31287	NMC-622	45	275
PHEV	Mitsubishi Outlander	2013	185458	LMO/NMC	12	$-$
	Volvo V60 Plug-in	2013	41693	NMC-111	10.4	--
	Volkswagen Golf	2014	58271	NMC-111	8.8	--
	Volkswagen Passat	2014	69189	NMC-111	10	
	AUDI Q5	2019	21099	NMC-622	14.1	
	Ford Kuga	2020	22628	NMC-622	14.4	--

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94 Table S3. Historical average lifespan of passenger vehicles for each country 5

Country	Lifespan (λ, k)	Country	Lifespan (λ, k)	Country	Lifespan (λ, k)
Austria	15.9, 3.4	Sweden	19.4, 4.9	Greece	33.9, 4.2
Belgium	11.7, 2.0	United Kingdom	14.2, 4.0	Czech	15.4, 3.6
Denmark	16.9, 3.4	Finland	24.9, 3.2	Slovakia	24.8, 4.03
France	15.2, 6.0	Luxembourg	8.0, 2.0	Croatia	30.9, 6.0
Germany	14.8, 2.4	Portugal	23.1, 6.0	Cyprus	24.8, 4.03
Iceland	19.7, 4.3	Spain	19.4, 3.2	Malta	24.8, 4.03
Ireland	15.0, 4.3	Hungary	23.1, 6.0	Bulgaria	24.8, 4.03
Italy	19.6, 2.7	Romania	24.8, 4.03	Estonia	24.8, 4.03
Norway	19.8, 6.0	Lithuania	24.8, 4.03	Latvia	24.8, 4.03
Netherlands	17.2, 4.4	Poland	24.8, 4.03	Slovenia	20.0, 6.0

97 SI.2 Assessment of GHG emissions

98 SI.2.1 GHG emissions from passenger vehicle manufacturing

 The GHG emissions from the production of passenger vehicles were calculated by multiplying the total annual demand of various passenger vehicles with their GHG emission factors per unit. We chose the lower-medium size as the average model of the passenger cars, as they have been among the most commonly sold in European 102 countries in recent years⁷. The description of the passenger vehicles powered by different fuel types was listed in Table S4. The production GHG emission factors per manufactured unit for the assessment in the historical 104 years (from 2011 to 2020) were based on the previous studies⁸⁻¹⁴. They were adjusted to correspond to the reference models of the passenger vehicles involved in our study, as listed in Table S4.

106 Table S4. Passenger vehicle description and historical GHG emission factors for manufacturing process 8-14

 For the assessment in the scenario years, the use of historical GHG intensity data as aforementioned would create a bias since EV manufacturing has been dominated by countries outside the EU (e.g. China, Japan, Korea 110 and the US)¹⁵. It is however likely that in future EV production in the EU will catch up. Moreover, the GHG 111 emissions factor of BEVs was also determined by the EV battery capacity^{9–13,16–23}. Therefore, we assumed dynamic manufacturing GHG emission factors for the scenario years related to the change of electricity consumption (from 2021 to 2040), determined by the allocation of passenger vehicle manufacturing countries, related reduction of GHG emissions from the electricity generation in those countries, and the dynamic change of average EV battery capacity for EVs. The average electricity consumption for various types of passenger vehicles and EV battery manufacturing are listed in Table S5. The GHG emissions related to other forms of energy consumption were assumed to remain constant in time for all passenger vehicles and the EV battery pack 118 (listed in Table S₅)^{18–21,24–28}.

119 Table S5. Average electricity consumption for passenger vehicle manufacturing

Vehicle type and EV battery	Electricity consumption from manufacturing process		References	
ICEV-G	7257 kWh / unit	4882 kg/ unit	Moreno ¹⁴ ; Hawkins et al. ²⁰	
ICEV-D	7257 kWh / unit	4882 kg/ unit	Moreno ¹⁴ ; Hawkins et al. ²⁰	
BEV (without EV battery)	6580 kWh / unit	4562 kg /unit	Moreno ¹⁴ ; Hawkins et al. 20	
PHEV (without EV battery)	8424 kWh / unit	5353 kg/unit	Moreno ¹⁴ ; Milovanoff et al. ²⁴ ; Majeau-Bettez et al. ²⁵ ; Onat et al. ²⁸	
HEV (without EV battery)	8239 kWh / unit	5277 kg/unit	Moreno ¹⁴ ; Milovanoff et al. ²⁴	
EV battery pack	120 kWh / kWh battery capacity	47.2 kg/ kWh battery capacity	Moreno ¹⁴ ; Sun et al. ²¹ ; Dai et al. ^{26,} Ellingsen et al. ^{18,27}	

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 The distribution of manufacturing countries for different scenarios was assumed based on the EU historical import statistics of various passenger vehicles in the 2010s collected from ACEA2 122 . For the no e-mobility scenario, the prospective allocation of manufacturing countries was assumed to remain constant until 2040. For the scenarios in which EVs promotion would take place (stated transition scenario and ambitious transition scenario), we assumed an annual increase of 1% in EV production within the EU, while the remaining demand for EVs was assumed to be supplied by non-EU countries according to their historical manufacture market 127 shares²⁹, as listed in Table S6. The manufacturing allocation of ICEVs and HEVs in these two scenarios was assumed to keep the same trend as in the historical years.

 The choice of electricity sources (electricity mixes) has a significant impact on the GHG emissions from electricity generation. In this study, we therefore took the historical data (the year 2011-2019) of electricity mixes 134 of manufacturing countries from the statistics data offered by IEA30 and the estimated energy mixes (from the year 2020 onwards) based on the "stated policies scenario" and "sustainable development scenario" from IEA 136 Energy Outlook 2020³¹. The IEA scenarios included the forecast for the share and compound average annual growth rate (CAAGR) of each resource until 2040. The electricity mixes for the scenarios were assigned based on the contribution share to the future goal of the total electricity production volume from each country (Figure S3). Eight major resources for electricity generation and the carbon equivalent emission factors for each source 140 were taken from the previous study³² and listed in Table S7.

148 Figure S3. Integrated electricity mix of all passenger vehicle manufacturing countries in 2019, 2030 and 2040, for (A) the stated transition 149 scenario, and (B) the ambitious transition scenario. The allocation of the manufacturing countries was described in Table S6 and the 150 electricity mix in 2030 and 2040 followed the prediction by the "stated policy scenario" and "sustainable development scenario" in the 151 report from IEA^{31} .

152 Table S7. GHG emission factors of different types of fuel in electricity generation³²

Fuel type	Biomass	Coal	Oil	Natural gas	Solid waste	Wind	Solar	Nuclear	Hydropower
GHG emission factors $(g CO2-eq)$ kWh)	230	820	730	490	52		44	12	24

 The average battery capacity of BEVs from 2011 to 2020 was calculated based on the manufacturing reports of the most popular BEV models sold in EU countries (Table S2). The future battery capacity of BEVs (from 2021 to 2040) was estimated at around 80 kWh by assuming an extended driving range of 550 km¹⁹, as shown in 157 Figure S4. For PHEVs, their average battery capacity was assumed as 12 kWh³³, remaining constant through 2040. Capacity of EV batteries (kWh) $^{10}_{2010}$ **Year** Figure S4. Estimated power capacity of EV battery used in BEVs based on a driving range assumptions of 550 km. The scatters represent average battery power capacity of the lunched BEV models by 2020 as listed in Table S2. With all the aforementioned assumptions, the manufacturing GHG emission factor for different scenarios were

calculated for per unit various passenger vehicle and shown in Figures S5.

 Figure S5. Production GHG emission factors per unit passenger vehicle for (A) no e-mobility scenario, (B) stated transition scenario, and (C) ambitious transition scenario.

SI.2.2 GHG emissions from passenger vehicle use

 The annual emissions from the in-use passenger vehicles were assessed by multiplying the total annual traveled distance (Vehicle Kilometer Travel, VKT, listed in Table S8) with the energy consumption of different types of passenger vehicles and with the respective emission factors related to fuel type or electricity use. The assumptions on their average in-use energy consumption from 2010 to 2040 were listed in Table S9.

 In our model, we incorporated a decrease in fuel consumption of new ICEVs due to the improved technologies toward 2040. Using the historical fuel consumption values in 2000 as the initial values (7.6 L /100 km for petrol and 6.2 L /100 km for diesel), the fuel consumption remained annually decreased at the rate of 1.14% and 1.34% for petrol and diesel34 . Emission factors of the passenger vehicles with fuel consumption (ICEVs, HEVs and 194 PHEVs) were 2.31 kg CO_2 -eq / L and 2.69 kg CO_2 -eq / L for petrol and diesel, taken from a previous study¹².

 The fuel consumption of HEVs is 30% – 50% less than that of a comparable ICEVs and was also assumed to remain constant until 2040, as hybrid systems have been taken as a bridge to meeting tougher tailpipe- emissions requirements and the automakers are focusing more on the zero-emission passenger vehicles (e.g., 198 BEVs)³⁵.

 The total energy consumption of PHEVs depends strongly on the driving and charging patterns of vehicle users to choose the driving mode, and it is hard to precisely estimate. Therefore, we set the parameter of this probability as 0.5, which means that half of the total energy consumption per traveled distance contributes from the electricity and the other half contributes from fuel (only gasoline-electricity PHEVs were considered in this study). The energy consumption of PHEVs was taken from the previous study and assumed to be constant until 2040¹⁰.

205 For the BEVs, the average electric energy consumption from basic driving and charging loss¹², was assumed to be dynamic following the changes in the EV battery capacity as shown in Figure S4. The energy consumption for BEVs was calculated based on an average of 5.4 Wh per additional 100 kilograms in vehicle weight, as 208 demonstrated by a previous study¹⁸. The weight changes in glider size were negligible compared to the changes in EV battery weight and thus were neglected in this study. Other factors such as motor efficiency, cargo load and driving behavior were not included. The electricity mixes of each EU country in the scenario years were 211 assumed to follow the IEA scenarios³¹, as shown in Figure S6.

Country	VKT (km)	Country	VKT (km)	Country	VKT (km)
Austria	14100	Sweden	12000	Greece	11500
Belgium	14770	United Kingdom	12000	Czech	8000
Denmark	16000	Finland	15000	Slovakia	8000
France	12000	Luxembourg	14000	Croatia	16000
Germany	14700	Portugal	13060	Cyprus	11000
Iceland	10500	Spain	12500	Malta	8000
Ireland	17000	Hungary	13000	Bulgaria	7000
Italy	10500	Romania	10000	Estonia	14000
Norway	15000	Lithuania	12000	Latvia	11000
Netherlands	13200	Poland	8000	Slovenia	8000

212 Table S8. Annual distance travelled (VKT) by the passenger vehicle for each country 36

214 Table S9. Passenger vehicle type description and average energy consumption of in-use phase

228 Figure S6. Electricity mix of the 27 EU + 3 countries in 2019, 2030 and 2040. The electricity mix in 2030 and 2040 followed the prediction 229 by the (A) "stated policy scenario" and (B) "sustainable development scenario" in the report from IEA31.

232 SI.3 Uncertainty analysis

233 A Monte Carlo analysis was used to estimate the uncertainty in future GHG emissions of the in-use passenger 234 vehicles from the input parameters in our model. Table S10 lists specific distributions of the related input 235 parameters to model the GHG emissions.

236 Table S10. Input parameters description of the uncertainty analysis

253 Figure S7. Annual GHG emission (Mt CO₂-eq) from driving passenger vehicles within the 27 EU + 3 countries until 2040 during the e-mobility transition under the stated policies.

 Figure S8. Annual BEVs and PHEVs demand (million units) under the promotion of a more ambitious e-mobility transition pace and an accelerated phase-out of ICEVs for countries in the high ambition group (HG) and the low ambition group (LG).

SI.5 Lifespan extension

- A sensitivity analysis was performed for the ambitious transition scenario to assess how the extension of EV
- lifetime will influence GHG emissions. We explored two options for extending the lifespan of BEV, including:
- ²⁶⁹ An **extended BEV use** from 12 years to 24 years, assuming that the replacement of EV battery would
- happen when the first EV battery reaches its end of life and the replaced EV battery has a lifespan of 12 years;

 • An **extended BEV lifespan** from 12 years to 18.4 years, representing an optimistic assumption that future EV battery technology would improve to the point of enabling BEVs to meet the historical average lifespan of the ICEVs in the high ambition group.

 As shown in Figure S9, there are no major differences in GHG emissions from the manufacturing process at the early stage of the e-mobility transition (in the 2020s). Cumulative EV demand in the 2030s can decrease by 34% by expanding EV lifetimes from 12 to 24 years. This demand decrease would lead to a 615 million tons drop in manufacturing GHG emissions. Nonetheless, although an extension of lifespan for both EV batteries and BEV from 12 years to 18.4 years would lead to a 27% decrease in cumulative EV demand, it would lead to 930 million tons of GHG reductions from the manufacturing process, as it reduces the production of energy-intensive EV batteries. Longer EV battery lifespans will allow for longer EV service time and fewer EV battery replacements, contributing to greater improvement in the environmental benefits of BEV adoption.

 Figure S9. (A) Annual GHG emissions from the production of demanded passenger vehicles following different lifespan extension options under the ambitious transition scenario. (B) Overall GHG savings (difference between driving GHG emission reductions and manufacturing GHG emissions) in the 2030s following different lifespan extension options under the ambitious transition scenario.

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