

## Q-Series®

### Global Autos: What is the powertrain of the future?

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#### Battery electric vehicles are in pole position for the powertrain of the future

In light of COP21, electric cars are set to play an essential role in de-carbonizing the road transportation sector, which accounts for 23% of EU-28 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Our proprietary analysis shows that battery electric vehicles (BEVs) are likely to achieve cost of ownership (TCO) parity with combustion engine (ICE) cars by 2021 in Europe and 2025 in China, whereas ICE cars remain the cheapest option in the US due to lower fuel prices. Our analysis shows fuel cell vehicles (FCVs), which are earlier stage than BEVs, have the potential to drop in sales price to a level similar to BEVs, but have higher operating costs. While our math excludes incentives, we expect rising political support to improve EV economics.

#### BEVs are the best ecosystem fit and have lower infrastructure costs than FCVs

BEVs are the better fit in a future low-carbon ecosystem, due to the storage aspect (batteries will be a key enabling technology also for the electricity sector), and can be combined with electricity self-generation. Given today's electricity mix, FCVs have lower 'well-to-wheel' emissions than BEVs in most countries. However, infrastructure costs for FCVs are twice the expected costs for BEV infrastructure, and the multiple is 4-5x in a zero-carbon world. Also, "the chicken and egg" problem is more relevant for FCVs, as vehicles will only be sold after governments have invested in hydrogen infrastructure.

#### Entering the steep part of the S curve: Expect 10m EV annual sales in 2025

While near-term EV sales will be regulation and incentive-driven, we expect EVs to grow their market share rapidly in Europe and China in the coming decade as economics for consumers improve. We estimate 9% of global car sales (9.7m cars) will be EVs in 2025 (based on \$75 oil). Our estimated EV market share in 2021 is 2.5% or 2.5m vehicles sold, vs. 0.5m today. In the US, where the CO<sub>2</sub> regime is less strict and EV economics are weaker on lower fuel prices, we see only a slight increase in EV penetration to 3%. BEV-related battery demand could grow by more than 5x by 2021.

#### Implications for the industry and best positioned companies

OEMs currently sell EVs at low margins, while low sales figures hardly help to achieve CO<sub>2</sub> targets. We believe EV margins should normalize gradually after 2020 and rising EV penetration should bring CO<sub>2</sub> compliance costs to (almost) zero. We see Renault/Nissan, BMW, GM and Toyota as EV innovation leaders, while generating solid FCF in the "legacy" business to fund the transformation. Continental and Delphi look to be the best-positioned suppliers for rising EV penetration.

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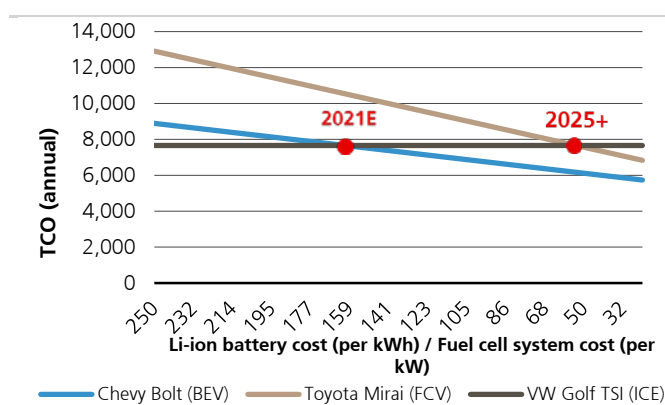
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# Executive summary

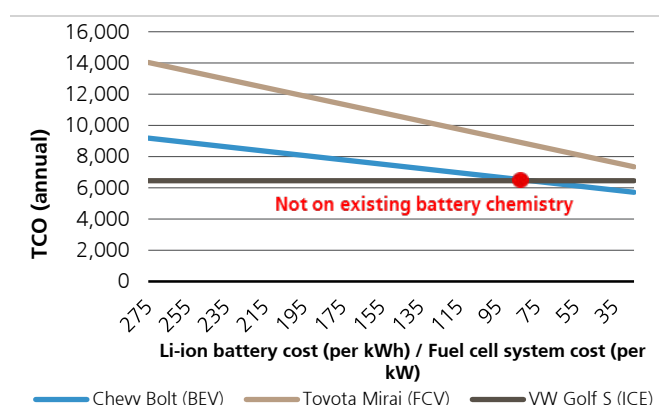
**Battery electric vehicles to become competitive with internal combustion engine cars in Europe by 2021 and in China by 2025.** Based on our proprietary analysis, battery electric vehicles (BEVs) will reach cost of ownership parity with internal combustion engine (ICE) cars in Europe by 2021 and in China by 2025. Lower battery costs, which we expect to decline by 36% to €160/kWh (c\$180/kWh) by 2021, are the key driver. In the US, BEVs will not beat ICE cars for the foreseeable future and growth will depend on incentives. Our research indicates fuel-cell vehicles (FCVs) will not be competitive for the next 10 years, even though the technology is too early-stage for a final assessment.

**Figure 1: BEVs to reach consumer cost parity in EU by 2021**



Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 2: Economics in the US are still better for ICE cars**

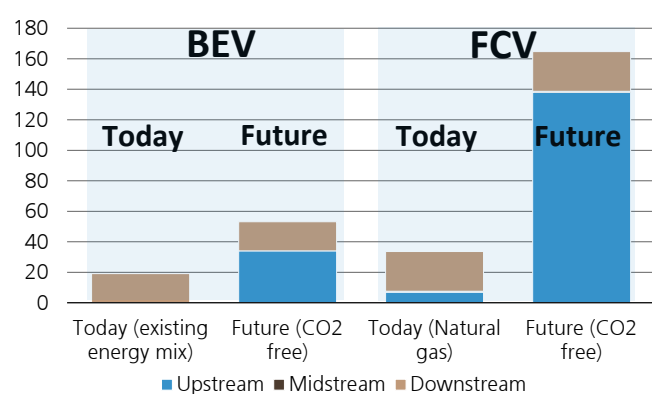


Source: UBS estimates

**BEVs fit best in a low-carbon future ecosystem.** We expect BEVs to receive solid political support, in light of the COP21 commitments and pollution problems in large cities. Decisive factors are: (1) BEVs they provide valuable storage capacity to the power grid; (2) they can be powered with self-generated electricity; and (3) infrastructure costs for FCVs are 2-5x higher than for BEVs. Higher FCV penetration would depend on not yet planned government spending on hydrogen infrastructure.

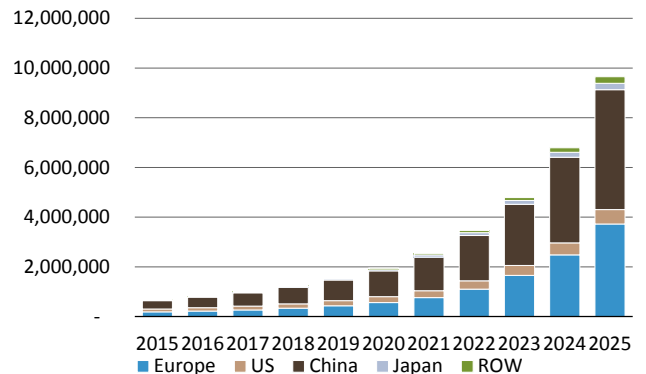
**Steep part of the sales S curve coming in the next decade.** We expect 2.5m global EV sales in 2021 (including plug-in hybrids), versus 550k in 2015. We expect 9.7m EV sales (9.2% of the market) on a 2025 view. China and Europe are likely to lead the growth. Most EVs will be battery electric, we believe.

**Figure 3: Infrastructure cost for 15m EVs (€bn) – charging much cheaper than hydrogen infrastructure**



Source: UBS estimates

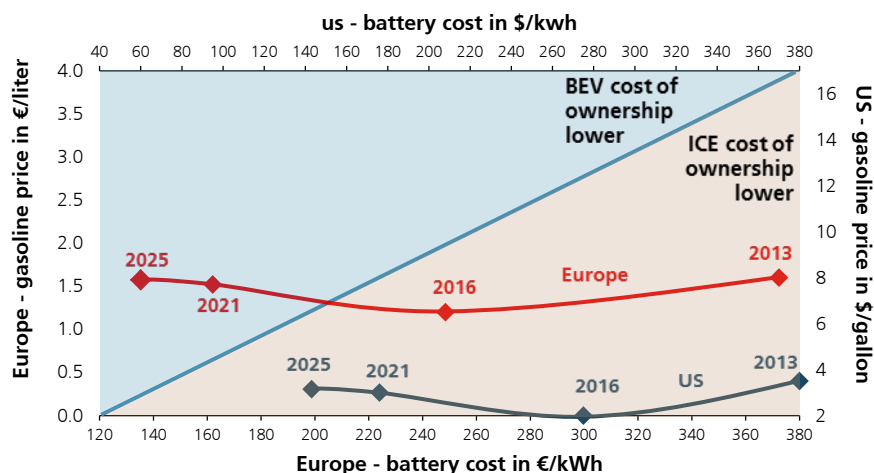
**Figure 4: EV sales penetration to accelerate after 2020 (million units by region)**



Source: UBS estimates (includes plug-in hybrids)

**Proprietary interactive model.** Our interactive model [\[click link\]](#) shows the sensitivities of EV economics, depending on battery cost, fuel cell cost and oil/petrol prices.

**Figure 5: BEV economics and the axes of uncertainty (battery and gasoline px)**



Source: UBS estimates

**Electrification will bring disruption – we identify potential winners and losers.** We do not disagree with consensus that the transition will bring disruption and earnings pressure for OEMs in the next few years (EVs are sold at low contribution margins, high upfront R&D required), but rapidly rising EV penetration in the next decade would lower CO2 compliance costs to (almost) zero. We see **Renault/Nissan, BMW, GM** and **Toyota** as winners on the OEM side, and **Continental** and **Delphi** on the supplier side. Players along the **battery value chain** (from commodity mining to battery production) should also be among the structural beneficiaries from rising EV penetration. On the other hand, the **oil sector** will be negatively affected (even though the global car parc keeps growing). EVs are likely less maintenance intensive and have fewer wearing parts than ICE cars. This poses a threat to the service revenues of **car dealerships**.

Figure 6: Stock exposure to EV theme

Stock	UBS rating	Positively or negatively affected by the theme?	Is the theme priced in?
<b>OEMs</b>			
<b>BMW</b>	Neutral	Positive	No
<b>Daimler</b>	Buy	Neutral	No
<b>FCA</b>	Neutral	Negative	No
<b>Ford</b>	Buy	Neutral	No
<b>GM</b>	Buy	Positive	No
<b>Honda</b>	Neutral	Positive	No
<b>Hyundai</b>	Buy	Negative	No
<b>Jianghuai</b>	Buy	Positive	No
<b>Kia</b>	Buy	Negative	No
<b>Mitsubishi</b>	Not covered	-	-
<b>Nissan</b>	Buy	Positive	No
<b>PSA</b>	Neutral	Negative	No
<b>Renault</b>	Buy	Positive	No
<b>Tesla</b>	Sell	Positive	Yes
<b>Toyota</b>	Neutral	Positive	No
<b>Volkswagen</b>	Buy	Neutral	No
<b>Yutong</b>	Buy	Positive	No
<b>Suppliers</b>			
<b>Autoliv</b>	Sell	Neutral	No
<b>Continental</b>	Neutral	Slightly positive	No
<b>Delphi</b>	Neutral	Positive	No
<b>Faurecia</b>	Sell	Negative	No
<b>Lear Corp</b>	Buy	Positive	No
<b>Valeo</b>	Buy	Slightly positive	No
<b>Other sectors</b>			
<b>Johnson Matthey</b>	Neutral	Positive	No
<b>LG Chem</b>	Neutral	Positive	No
<b>Samsung SDI</b>	Neutral	Positive	No
<b>Umicore</b>	Buy	Positive	No

Source: UBS

# BEVs score well in full cost analysis from consumer perspective in EU/China

We expect BEVs to cross the consumer cost parity inflection point by 2021 in Europe and by 2025 in China, driven by lower battery costs, excluding incentives. In the US, ICE cars remain the lowest-cost option for the foreseeable future, given the low oil price. While we consider it possible that the price of FCVs will be similar to BEVs' on a 2025 view, operating (fuel) costs are structurally higher. The picture looks more favourable for EVs when incentives are included, which we believe are here to stay, given COP21 commitments.

Lower battery costs are the key driver

## Summary of proprietary cost analysis

Our proprietary model, which is also available as an interactive version on Neo, provides detailed analysis of the total cost of ownership (TCO) by technology. Battery and fuel (cell) costs are the key drivers of EV economics. We have interviewed several companies and industry experts, and reviewed various scientific research.

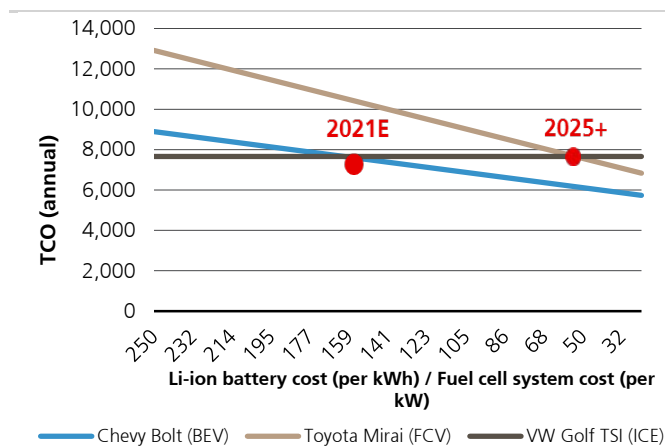
Proprietary work on battery cost and total cost of ownership

Our analysis focuses on the total cost of ownership. We use actual vehicle prices and exclude any sort of purchase incentives or car tax relief for EVs. We do not normalize differences in contribution margins between the vehicles, as we assume that EVs will be sold in a competitive environment at lower margins for as long TCO are not superior to consumers. As we expect EV incentives to increase in the coming years, the effective cost parity is likely to be achieved earlier in several markets. Our analysis for 2021/25 is based on UBS's \$75/bbl oil forecast. The detailed assumptions are shown in the *Appendix* section of this report.

### Key results by region:

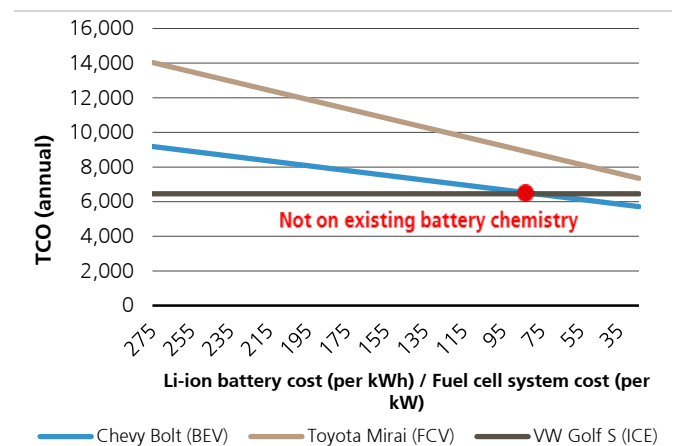
- **Europe:** At a battery cost of €160/kWh (our base case for 2021, 36% below today's level), BEVs will have the same TCO as ICE cars. Fuel cell system costs would have to drop more than 70% to €75/kW to be at cost parity with ICE technology, which we think is unrealistic for the next 10 years.
- **US:** At the current low fuel prices, BEVs will not be fully competitive (excluding incentives) for the foreseeable future, as battery costs would have to drop to less than \$75/kWh – a scenario that we think is unlikely to materialise based on existing li-ion chemistries. The situation is even less certain for FCVs, which are starting from a higher cost base.
- **China:** Ignoring various support measures, including exemption from licence plate restrictions and tax incentives, battery costs would have to drop roughly by half, to RMB910/kWh, to reach cost parity with ICE technology. We expect this to be achieved around 2025. The FCV situation is uncertain.
- **Japan:** As in the US, reaching cost parity will be more difficult here: battery costs would need to drop 55% for mass-market BEVs to reach cost parity with ICE cars on our analysis; the situation for FCVs is more uncertain still.

Figure 7: TCO by technology – Europe (€)



Source: UBS estimates

Figure 8: TCO by technology – US (\$)



Source: UBS estimates

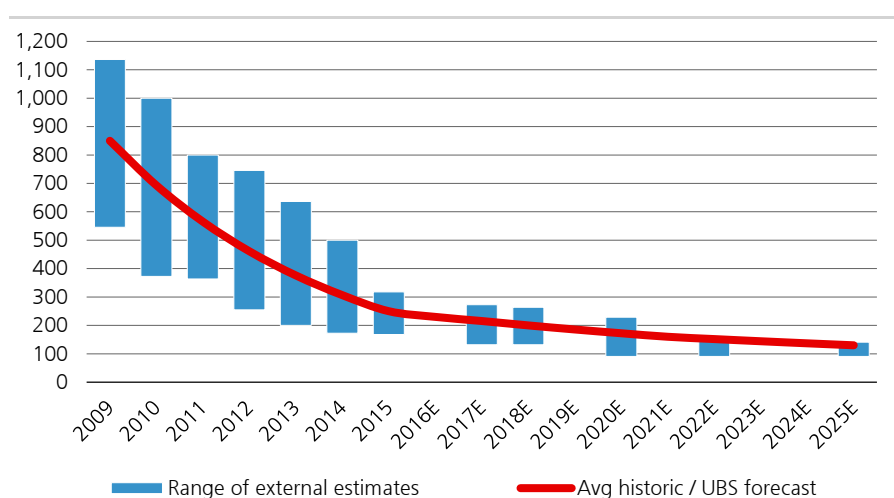
We have not included plug-in hybrids (PHEVs) in the above TCO analysis, because we see them as a bridge technology for the next 10 years. Once the shortcomings of BEVs have been addressed (range, charging time and infrastructure), we believe PHEVs will become a suboptimal choice in many markets, due to the extra weight necessitated by two powertrains (200-300kg), the limited electric driving range, and the limited benefit to real-world fuel economy. Nevertheless, PHEVs are likely to have their niche in markets where charging infrastructure remains a bottleneck also longer-term (for example, in rural areas) and for heavy users generating long daily driving distances.

**We believe plug-in hybrids are likely to become a suboptimal choice in many markets, once the shortcomings of BEVs have been addressed**

## BEVs: Battery costs are the key driver

Unsurprisingly, the reduction in battery costs is a key driver of BEV competitiveness. We expect the battery cost per kWh to drop by 36% to €160/kWh (c\$180/kWh) by 2021 on existing chemistry. The cost should decline by another 19% to €130/kWh (c\$145/kWh) in 2025 with further optimization of the existing technology (higher energy density, lower weight, less use of commodity materials). Our assessment is based on various company interviews, and our analysis of more than 20 industry and academic research papers.

Figure 9: Battery cost to decline 36% by 2021 on existing chemistry (€/kWh)

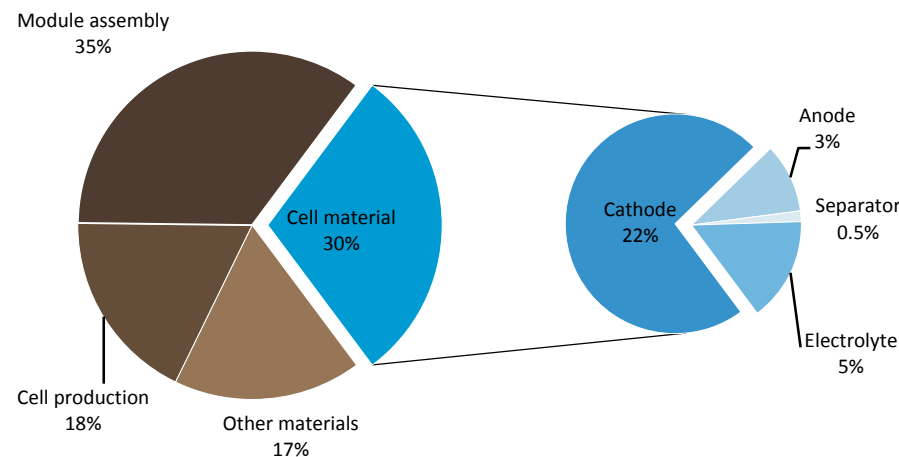


Source: Review of more than 20 academic and industry sources, UBS estimates

## Deep dive into battery costs

To better understand the cost reduction potential for batteries, we break the cost down into materials (commodities), cell production and module assembly. We focus on NCA (nickel cobalt aluminium) and NMC (nickel manganese cobalt) technologies. NCA is only used by Tesla (which is the largest player in the market), while all other OEMs and battery suppliers focus on NMC. All chemistry differences between NCA and NCM are in the cathode part of the material (see below; and find a detailed overview of the technologies and their attributes in the *Appendix*).

**Figure 10: Breakdown of mainstream technology battery cost**

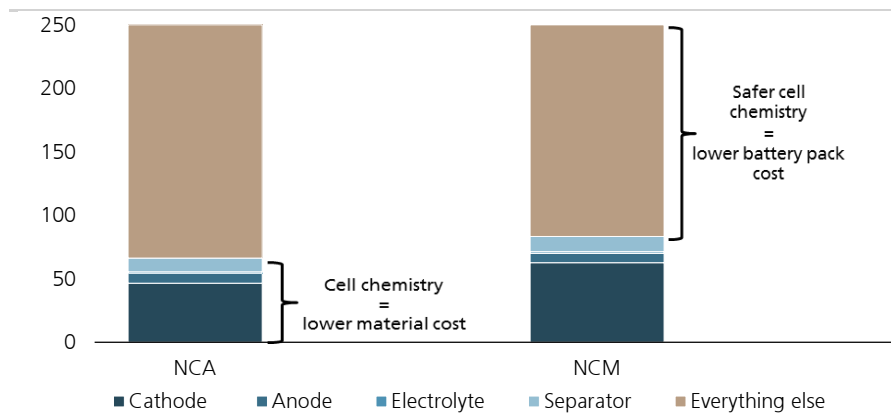


Source: MIT, JMAT, Umicore, UBS estimates

### Materials costs to decrease slightly on optimization of cells, including higher energy density

Today, the battery pack cost is around €250/kWh (c\$280/kWh), of which battery materials (commodities) account for c30% or €75/kWh, depending on the chemistry. The cell cost (including materials) is around 50% of the total pack cost (the Chevrolet Bolt cell cost is \$145/kWh). The following figure shows the differences between the chemistries. NCA technology (used by Tesla) has lower materials cost and better energy density, but requires higher safety costs in the pack than NMC technology (i.e. it is more expensive to keep an NCA battery from overheating).

**Figure 11: NCA versus NMC cost breakdown (today, approx €/kWh)**



Source: UBS estimates



In our modelling, we assume increasing energy density (15% by 2021). As a consequence, the materials cost per kWh and subsequent processing cost per kWh decline. Our assumption includes slightly higher commodity prices, as a function of higher demand for those materials. (See analysis further down in the document).

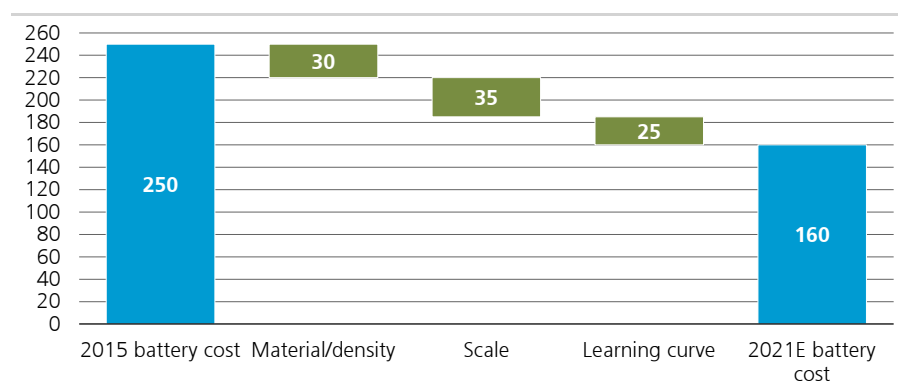
### 36% cost reduction potential in cell/module assembly cost by 2021

In total, we estimate 36% cost reduction potential in the cell and module assembly cost by 2021 (on the same chemistry) to €160/kWh (c\$180/kWh), driven by:

1. Higher energy density (and consequently lower commodity cost);
2. Economies of scale in manufacturing (cell and pack);
3. Learning curve effects, such as optimization/automation in production processes.

The figure below summarises the cost drivers and our expectations for 2021.

**Figure 12: Battery cost to decline >35% on existing chemistry by 2021 (€/kWh)**



Source: UBS estimates

On a 2025 view, we expect an additional reduction to €130/kWh on further improvements in materials use and energy density. We believe this is close to the maximum possible cost reduction potential on existing chemistry. Innovation through new chemistry is unlikely to enter the automotive market in the next 10 years, as alternative materials are still at the laboratory stage; and, on top of that, commercialisation of a new technology takes another 5-10 years in automotive, we believe.

**Additional cost reduction to €130/kWh in 2025 is close to the maximum possible cost reduction potential on existing chemistry**

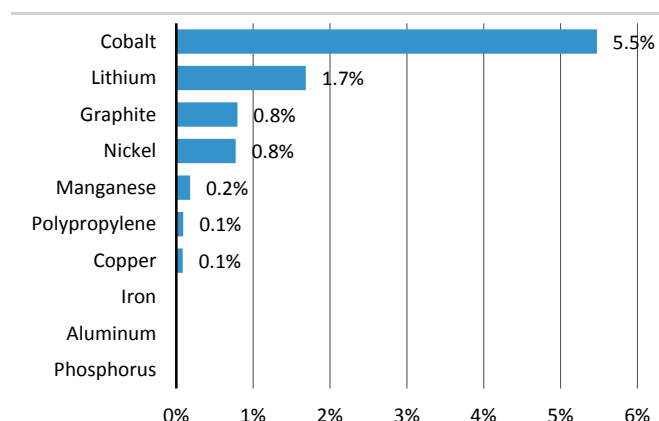
### Can rising battery materials demand trigger a spike in commodity costs?

We believe that NCA and NMC batteries will dominate the market in the coming years, and we expect higher growth rates for NMC between the two technologies. That said, could booming battery demand cause price spikes in raw materials? In order to answer this question, we have assumed that 10% of all vehicles sold globally in 2025 (10m cars) will be BEVs; and as a 'stress test', we assume there are no plug-in hybrids, which have smaller batteries. We then determine the incremental demand for raw materials and how these figures compare with the size of the world market today. We assume 25% of BEVs will use NCA technology and 75% NMC.

Our stress test suggests none of the commodities should pose a hard bottleneck. Our scenario indicates the cobalt market will be most impacted by high BEV penetration, as annual demand for BEVs would represent 5.5% of proven reserves and 1.6% of estimated resources. While potential BEV demand could be 3.5x times the current market size, we would not expect any imminent shortages, provided that mining capacity is expanded accordingly. An increase in cobalt production by such a magnitude likely requires significant investment, but should be realistic with a 10-year view. For details, please see the table in the *Appendix* to this report.

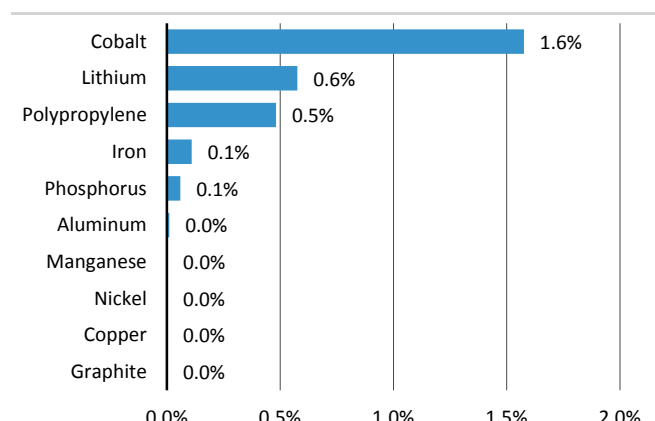
**The cobalt market will be most impacted by high BEV penetration**

**Figure 13: Raw materials demand as a % of current reserves for 10m EVs produced (UBSe for 2025)**



Source: USGS, Ceresana, Wood Mackenzie. UBS estimates

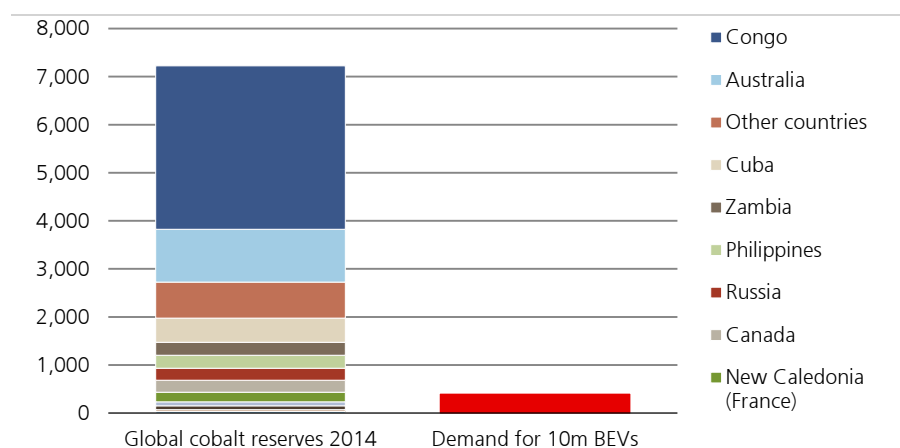
**Figure 14: Raw materials demand as a % of estimated resources for 10m EVs produced (UBSe for 2025)**



Source: USGS, Ceresana, Wood Mackenzie. UBS estimates

Political uncertainty in African cobalt-mining countries (where the world's largest reserves of cobalt are located) is commonly cited by the market as a key risk factor in the raw material supply chain for li-ion batteries. To quantify that risk, we illustrate the country breakdown of global cobalt supplies below, and size it up against the estimated cobalt demand for 10m BEVs. We find that in 2014, global cobalt reserves *without* Congo would have been enough to supply 10x the required amount needed for 10m BEVs.

**Figure 15: Cobalt proven reserves vs. demand for 10m BEVs ('000 Mt)**



Source: USGS, UBS estimates

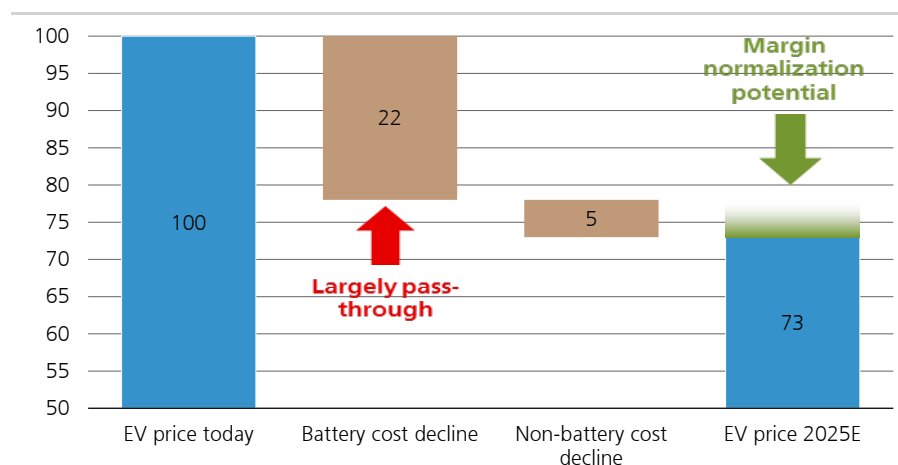
Another cause for concern could be lithium. While resources are plentiful, the market is not (yet) very liquid. Concerns about a supply squeeze at a single Australian mine drove a tripling of the price of Chinese lithium since October

2015. While lithium prices cannot be ignored, we note that for NMC and NCA technologies, lithium only represents c2.5% of the total bill of materials in the battery on our estimates. For this reason, the lithium price increase was fully outweighed by price declines in other raw materials such as aluminium, copper and nickel, (see *Appendix* for details).

### Further cost reduction potential in non-battery part could help improve OEM contribution margins

Cost reduction is not only driven by batteries. We believe the first-generation EVs have many components with a high margin of safety, and OEMs are likely to reduce or eliminate these cost items as they gradually understand EVs better. Such cost reduction is the source of improving OEMs' profitability under the assumption that OEMs buy batteries from suppliers, i.e. lower battery prices are just a pass-through. EVs are currently sold at low contribution margins or even at a loss.

**Figure 16: EV contribution margin should grow on the reduction in non-battery costs (2016 = 100)**



Source: UBS estimates for mass-market BEV

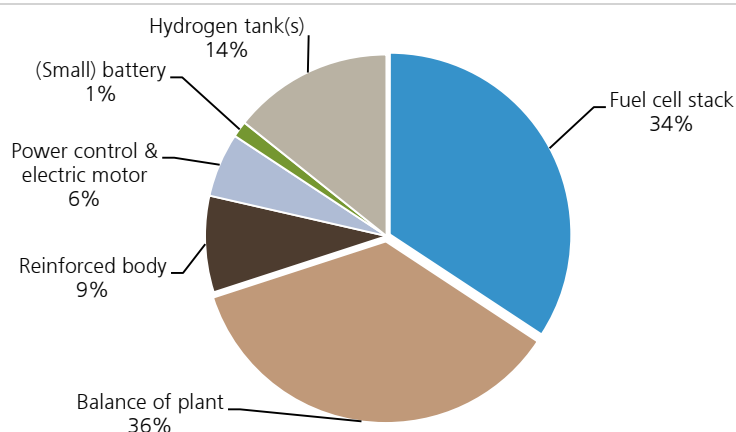
### Fuel cell costs: Heading for a steep decline, but from a very high base and with high uncertainty

FCVs are the substantially more expensive option than BEVs today, but the technology is clearly earlier-stage than batteries. The all-new Toyota Mirai, which comes as a C segment sedan, has a sticker price of \$57,500 in the US. We believe the price hardly covers the manufacturing cost. Overall, we are confident that FCV manufacturing has very high cost reduction potential. However, battery technology is not standing still and has much better momentum in scale in the coming years.

The key cost driver of FCVs is the fuel cell system, and within the system, the fuel cell stack. We estimate total fuel cell system costs to be around \$300 per kW (2015) in a small-scale manufacturing environment, which translates into a total cost of just less than \$35,000 in the case of the Mirai. This includes the fuel cell as the largest item (around \$20,000 or \$170/kW), which consists of the fuel cell stack, and the balance of the plant (i.e. the necessary auxiliary equipment, such as pump and gaskets). Further components include reinforced body architecture, the power control unit and battery, as well as hydrogen tanks (the Mirai uses two). The cost breakdown below is based on today's manufacturing scale.

**FCV manufacturing has very high cost reduction potential, but battery technology has much better momentum in scale**

**Figure 17: Cost breakdown of a fuel cell system today (will vary with scale)**



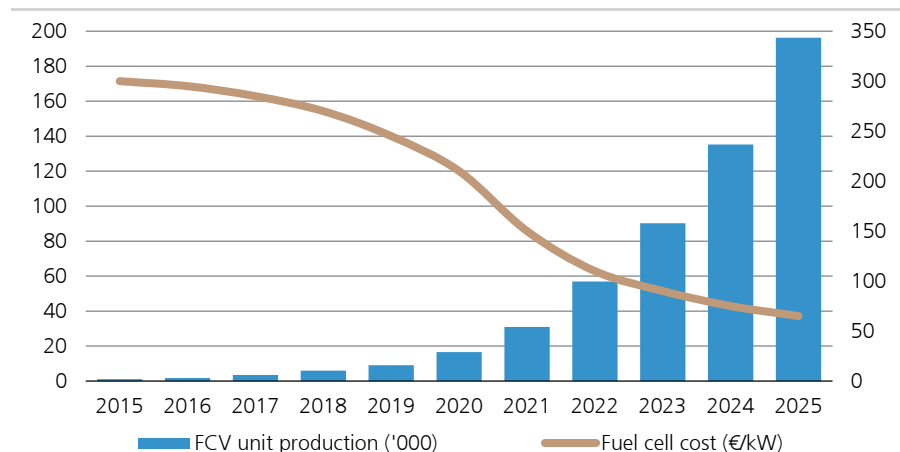
Source: Dept. of Energy, IEA, UBS

Various research suggests the fuel cell (FC) system cost can be reduced substantially in a large-scale manufacturing environment. The Department of Energy (DOE) estimates \$55/kW for the stack and the balance of the plant, based on today's fuel cell architecture. Assuming the same rate of decline for the other components, this could reduce the sticker price of the Toyota Mirai by -43% to c\$33,000 (all else remaining equal). We highlight that large-scale manufacturing refers to more than 100,000 units/year: this may be a challenge to achieve for a single manufacturer in the foreseeable future. However, we consider such a number to be realistic based on a 2025 view. Another potential driver of lower cost is a reduction in the use of platinum. On our estimates, the Mirai's fuel cell contains more than \$1,000 of platinum value.

**The fuel cell system cost can be reduced substantially in a large-scale manufacturing environment**

In our base-case forecasts for FCVs and FC system costs below, we consider the following potential impediments to growth over the next 5-10 years: (1) the lack of hydrogen fuel stations in most major markets; and (2) the lack of model selection for the consumer (three models available as of March 2016). With more stations and models available, we expect growth to accelerate from around 2021. This should enable scale in manufacturing, especially if OEMs share production and/or R&D costs through alliances, and consequently a more meaningful reduction in fuel cell costs per kW. We consider the cost development depicted below as a realistic base case.

**Figure 18: FCV unit sales (lhs) vs. fuel cell system cost/kW (rhs)**



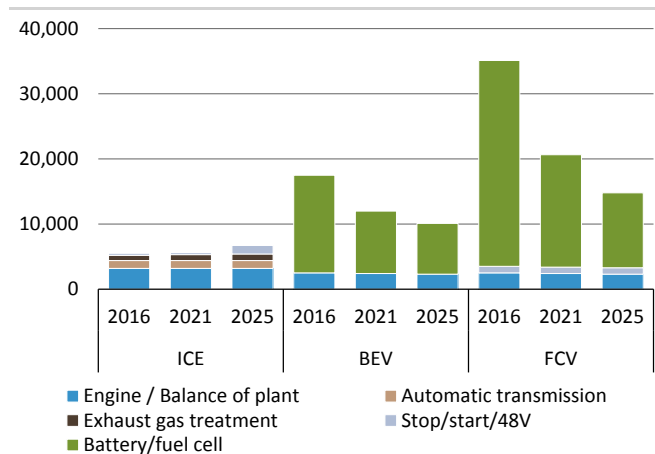
Source: UBS estimates (includes balance of plant, tanks)

## Comparing total cost of ownership

### Difference in powertrain cost (at unchanged margins) between BEV and ICE car to narrow from €11k today to €6k in 2021 and €3k in 2025

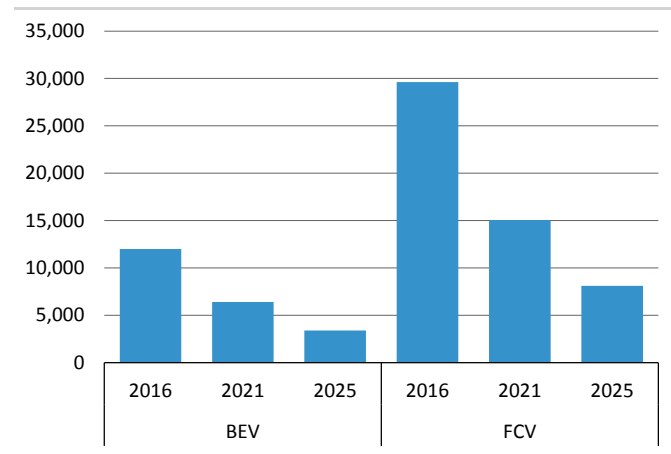
The difference in cost between an electric and ICE powertrain is set to narrow as a function of battery and fuel cell costs. At the same time, we assume the ICE powertrain is likely to become more expensive, due to tighter emission requirements (CO<sub>2</sub> and other pollutants). For the BEV (maths below are for Europe), the difference between battery-electric and ICE powertrains should narrow from around €11k today (based on the sticker price difference between the Chevy Bolt and the VW Golf) to about €6k in 2021 and €3.4k in 2025.

**Figure 19: Powertrain cost comparison (€, Europe)**



Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 20: Difference to ICE powertrain cost (€, Europe)**

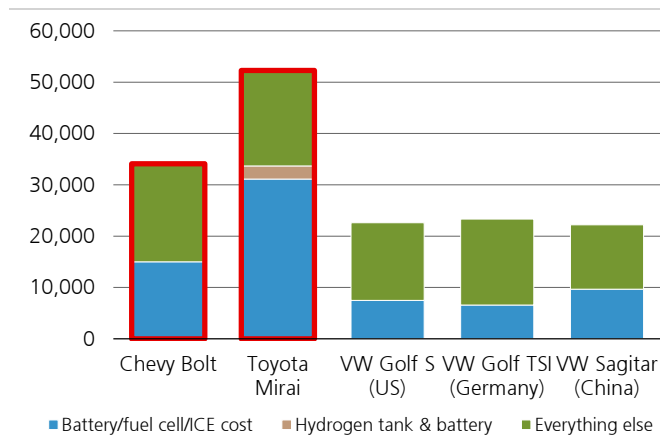


Source: UBS estimates

### How much will sticker prices decline for EVs?

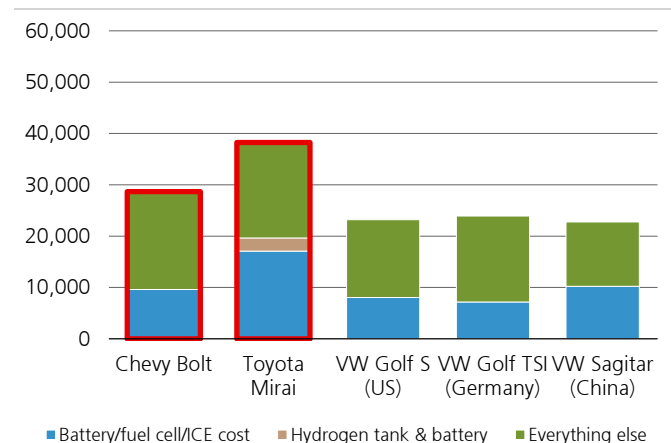
As a basis for our model, we use the sticker prices (excluding incentives) of the Chevrolet Bolt (BEV), the Toyota Mirai (FCV) and a comparable B segment ICE model by region. We then back out the estimated cost of the powertrains. Based on our cost forecasts for batteries and fuel cells, we model what the sticker price of those cars would be in 2021 (all else being equal, no inflation). We don't model any changes in pricing policy of the OEMs, which are hard to predict.

**Figure 21: Vehicle price comparison 2016 (€)...**



Source: Company data, UBS (excludes incentives)

**Figure 22: ...and estimated for 2021 (€)**



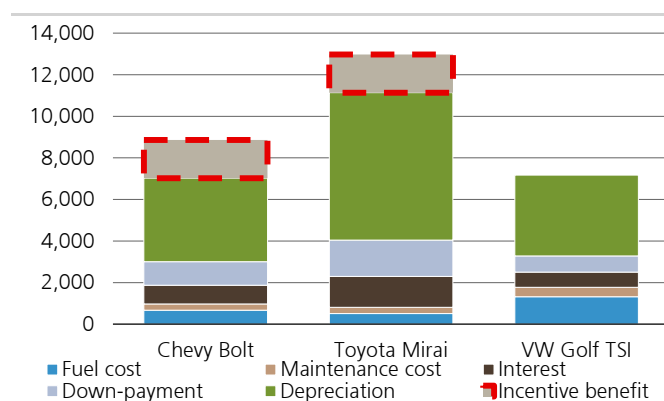
Source: Company data, UBS (excludes incentives)

## TCO comparison by region – Europe and China most promising for EVs

We look at a typical three-year lease contract, with 15,000km of annual driving and 50% residual value. Our base-case assumption is a battery life of 10 years (or 150,000km). Already today, ICE cars have the highest operating cost. First, the monthly fuel bill is higher than the cost of electricity. Batteries aside, ICE cars have more moving/wearing parts (engine oil, ignition, brake discs) and consequently, higher maintenance costs over the lifecycle. For the figures below, we look at the 2016 TCO at today's fuel and electricity prices, and at the expected 2021 TCO including oil at \$75/bbl. The charts also illustrate the impact of incentives currently available (in the case of Germany, we include the anticipated €5k/car purchase incentive). We are not touching the taxation of fuels and electricity. Given the political focus on the de-carbonization of the transportation sector, we see no reason to expect taxation changes that would have an adverse impact on EVs.

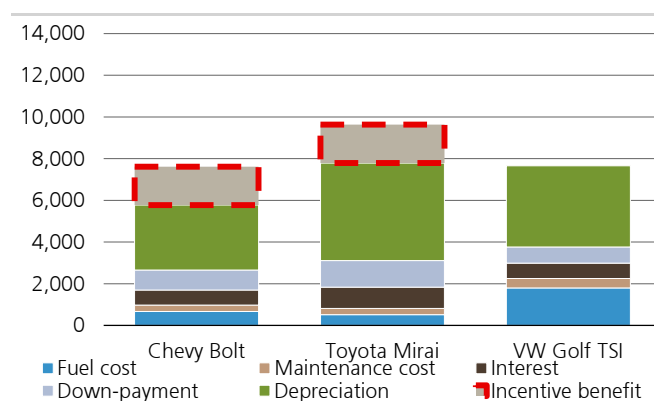
In **Europe (Germany)**, we the TCO for the BEV will be on par with ICE cars by 2021 without incentives while the FCV is likely to remain more expensive.

**Figure 23: TCO by car type in Europe – 2016E (€)...**



Source: UBS estimates

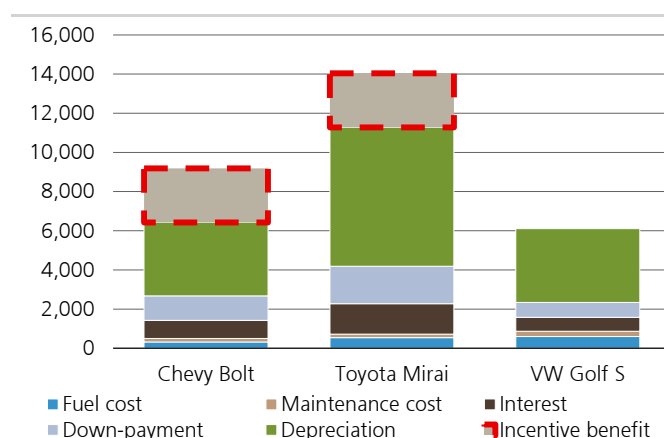
**Figure 24: ...and 2021E (€)**



Source: UBS estimates

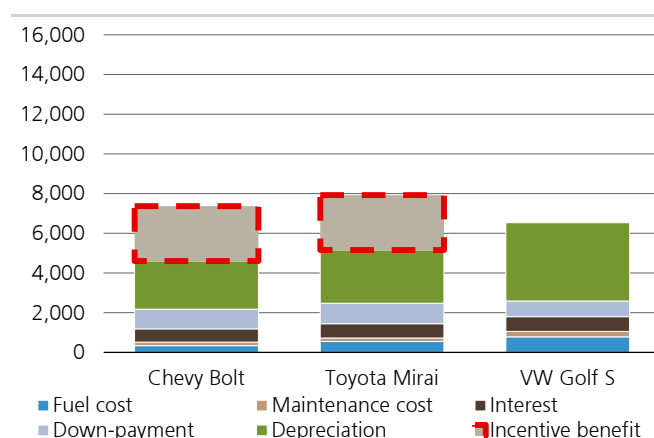
In the **US**, ICE cars remain the lowest-cost technology even on a 2025 view, primarily due to lower petrol prices. Without incentives, an oil price of c\$200 would be needed to make the BEV competitive.

**Figure 25: TCO by car type in the US – 2016E (\$)...**



Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 26: ...and 2025E (\$)**

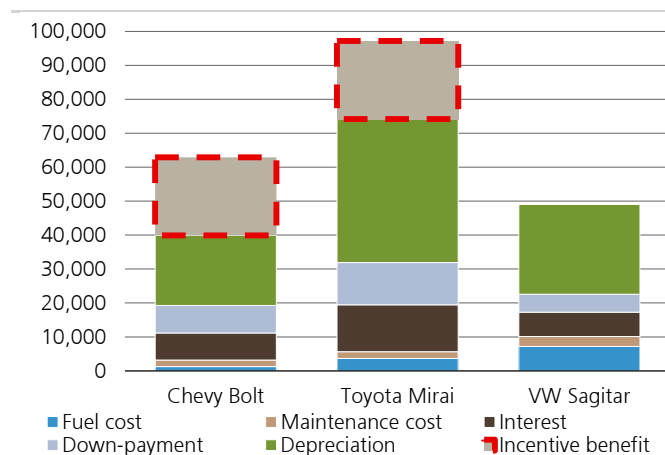


Source: UBS estimates

In **China**, BEV economics are positively impacted by low electricity prices while petrol prices are almost at the European level. As a consequence, our analysis suggests the BEV TCO would be almost at parity with the ICE model by 2021

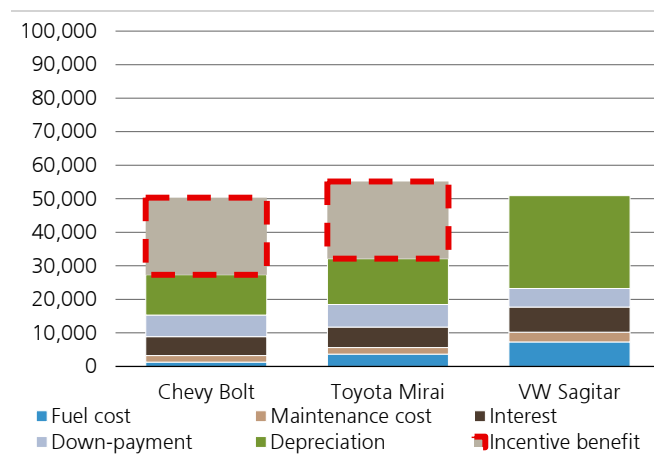
without incentives. Once current incentives enter the picture, the Chevrolet Bolt is already cost competitive today. Also here, we expect FCVs to remain more expensive.

**Figure 27: TCO by car type in China – 2016 (RMB)...**



Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 28: ...and 2025E (RMB)**



Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 29: UBS 2016/2021E/2025E core scenario assumptions**

Region	US	Germany	China	Japan
Currency	\$	€	RMB	¥
Distance	Miles	km	km	km
Gasoline metric	Gallons	Liters	Liters	Liters

#### Constant values

USD exchange rate	-	0.9	6.5	115
Residual value	%	50%	50%	50%
Interest rate	%	3.5%	3.5%	3.5%
Time of ownership	years	3	3	3
Annual driving dist.	miles/km	9,000	15,000	15,000
Maint. cost EV/FCV	Cent / mile/km	2	2	13
Maint. cost ICE	Cent / mile/km	3	3	20

#### 2016 scenario values

Li-ion battery cost	cost / kWh	275	250	1,788	31,625
Fuel cell system cost	cost / kW	300	275	1,950	34,500
Cost of gasoline	cost per gallon	2.00	1.10	6.00	110
Cost of electricity	cost per kWh	0.15	0.30	0.55	15.0
Cost of hydrogen	cost per kg	4.00	3.64	26.00	460

#### 2021E scenario values

Li-ion battery cost	cost / kWh	176	160	1,144	20,240
Fuel cell system cost	cost / kW	165	150	1,073	18,975
Cost of gasoline	cost per gallon	3.00	1.50	7.00	140
Cost of electricity	cost per kWh	0.15	0.30	0.55	15.0
Cost of hydrogen	cost per kg	4.00	3.64	26.00	460

#### 2025E scenario values

Li-ion battery cost	cost / kWh	143	130	930	16,445
Fuel cell system cost	cost / kW	72	65	465	8,223
Cost of gasoline	cost per gallon	3.12	1.56	7.28	146
Cost of electricity	cost per kWh	0.16	0.31	0.57	15.6
Cost of hydrogen	cost per kg	4.00	3.64	26.00	460

Source: UBSe

On top of the above assumptions, we model a 2% increase in ICE fuel efficiency p.a. as of today, and a 0.5% increase in ICE cost p.a. to reflect more expensive emissions components.

### What about the life-cycle TCO if the battery life is limited to 10 years?

For our life-cycle TCO analysis, we assume that the EV is worth zero after 10 years, given the limitations of battery/fuel cell life. We think this is a conservative approach for BEVs because after 10 years, an EV battery can still be used for stationary appliances. For the ICE car, we still assume a residual value of 14% of the purchase price after 10 years. With a long-term view, this may be overstating the value of the ICE car. For example, if we look at 2021 life-cycle TCO, we forecast an ICE residual value for 2031. By then, limitations or penalties may be in place for owning/driving an old ICE car, which would undermine the residual value.

**Figure 30: Life-cycle TCO comparison (10-years)**

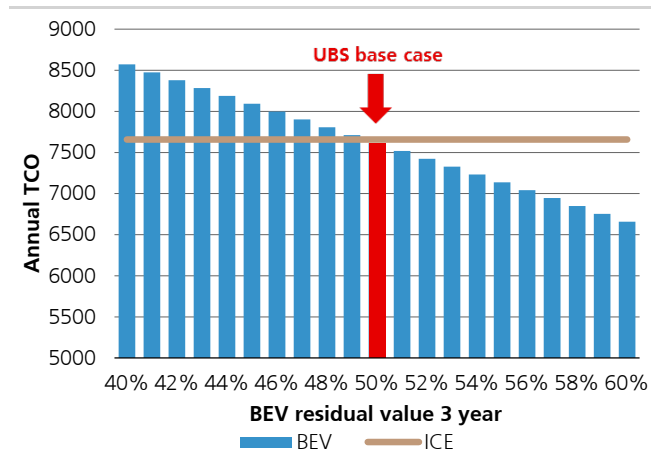
	US (\$) <span style="background-color: #90EE90;"></span>		Europe (€) <span style="background-color: #90EE90;"></span>	
	BEV	ICE	BEV	ICE
<b>2016</b>				
Lifetime depreciation	37,500	19,752	34,091	20,376
Lifetime fuel/maintenance/interest cost	16,862	15,827	20,467	25,052
<b>Lifetime TCO</b>	<b>54,362</b>	<b>35,579</b> <span style="background-color: #90EE90;"></span>	<b>54,558</b>	<b>45,428</b> <span style="background-color: #90EE90;"></span>
<b>2021E</b>				
Lifetime depreciation	31,560	20,250	28,691	20,891
Lifetime fuel/maintenance/interest cost	14,991	19,007	18,766	30,038
<b>Lifetime TCO</b>	<b>46,551</b>	<b>39,257</b> <span style="background-color: #90EE90;"></span>	<b>47,457</b> <span style="border: 2px solid red;"></span>	<b>50,928</b> <span style="border: 2px solid red;"></span>
<b>2025E</b>				
Lifetime depreciation	29,580	20,658	26,891	21,312
Lifetime fuel/maintenance/interest cost	14,499	19,520	18,472	30,921
<b>Lifetime TCO</b>	<b>44,079</b>	<b>40,178</b> <span style="background-color: #90EE90;"></span>	<b>45,363</b> <span style="background-color: #90EE90;"></span>	<b>52,232</b>

Source: UBS estimates. Assumes ICE residual value of 13% after 10 years, BEV at zero.

Our conclusion is similar to the three-year lease TCO above. BEVs will have a lower TCO than ICE cars in the coming decade in Europe and China, while economics in the US still look weaker than those for the ICE car.

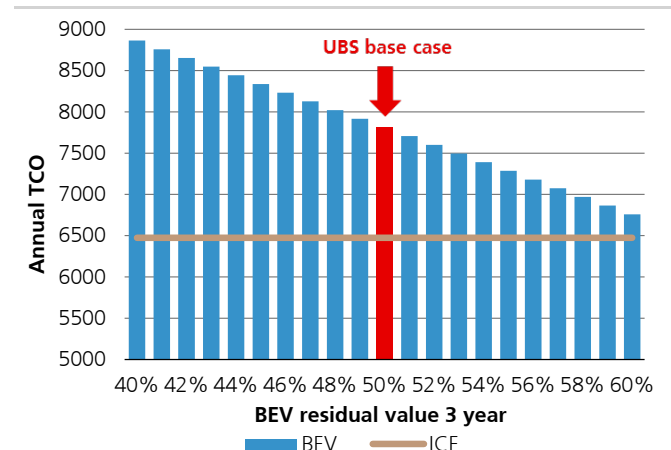


**Figure 31: TCO comparison vs. EV residual value EU (2021; €)**



Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 32: TCO comparison vs. EV residual value US (2021; \$)**



Source: UBS estimates

### Alternative scenario in which BEV economics would not work

Alternatively, we look at a scenario that encompasses higher BEV pricing (under the assumption that OEMs would not continue to sell BEVs at lower contribution margins than ICE cars) and faster ICE fuel efficiency improvements (4% p.a. instead of our 2% p.a. main case), as shown in the table below. This scenario also factors in a higher residual value for the ICE car after 10 years, equivalent to the battery replacement cost of the BEV. And finally, we assume current low fuel prices also for the long-term. In this scenario, the ICE car remains the lowest-TCO option, not only in the US but also in Europe.

**Figure 33: Alternative scenario: Higher BEV prices, higher ICE residual values, better ICE fuel economy**

	2025			
	US		Europe	
	ICE	BEV	ICE	BEV
<b>Financing</b>				
<b>Economic Cost*</b>	<b>\$30,000</b>	<b>\$37,300</b>	<b>€ 27,273</b>	<b>€ 33,909</b>
Down-payment	\$3,000	\$3,730	€ 2,727	€ 3,391
Interest rate	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%	3.0%
Annual Interest	\$810	\$1,007	€ 736	€ 916
<b>Fuel &amp; Maintenance</b>				
Miles Travelled	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000
<b>Fuel Economy</b>	<b>37.0</b>		<b>46.6</b>	
CAGR vs. 2015	4%		4%	
Fuel Price (per gallon/equivalent)	1.80	0.05	5.00	0.05
Fuel Cost	\$438	\$420	€ 965	€ 420
Maintenance per mile	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.02
Annual Maintenance	\$270	\$180	€ 270	€ 180
<b>Residual Value</b>				
<b>Residual Value</b>	<b>23%</b>	<b>0%</b>	<b>23%</b>	<b>0%</b>
Life	10	10	10	10
10 Yr Vehicle Value	\$6,900	\$0	€ 6,273	€ 0
Replacement Battery Cost**	\$0	\$6,800	€ 0	€ 6,182
<b>10y Value ex replacement cost</b>	<b>\$6,900</b>	<b>\$6,800</b>	<b>€ 6,273</b>	<b>€ 6,182</b>
<b>Total Cost</b>	<b>\$41,278</b>	<b>\$57,102</b>	<b>€ 43,442</b>	<b>€ 52,456</b>
<b>EV vs. ICE</b>		<b>-\$15,824</b>		<b>-€ 9,014</b>

Source: UBS estimates

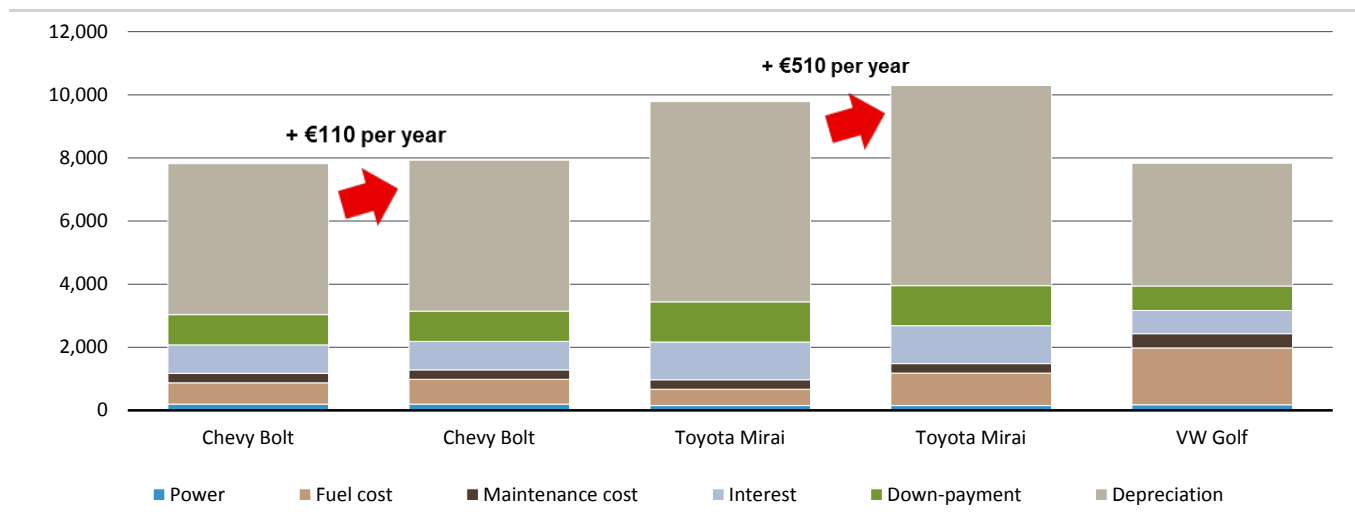
\* Est based on \$155/kWh & 60kW; less -\$2,000 lower other costs vs. ICE

\*\* Est based on \$100/kWh for just cells & 60kW; 30% repair premium, less \$1,000 salvage value for old battery

## How might TCO change in a CO<sub>2</sub>-free scenario?

We have also analysed the TCO in a truly carbon-free value chain (from well-to-wheel). This implies that hydrogen is produced via electrolysis at €8/kg, and electricity is generated solely using renewables at €0.35/kWh. Consequently, prices for hydrogen and electricity will be higher than today. In **Europe**, BEVs would still be the cheapest technology, whereas in **China**, ICEs would be slightly more expensive than BEVs.

**Figure 34: Annual TCO by technology in Europe – how things change in a long-term fuel cost scenario (€)**

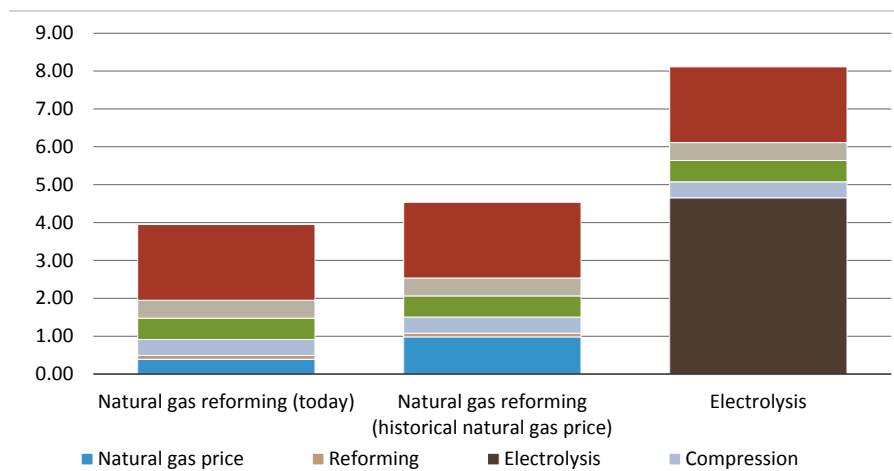


Source: UBS estimates

Based on the currently dominant (CO<sub>2</sub>-emitting) natural gas reforming process, about 20% of hydrogen costs are driven by natural gas prices, which are currently at multi-year lows. For our base-case scenario, we assume hydrogen prices at the gas station of €4/kg. A doubling of natural gas prices would increase the hydrogen price by 10%. If hydrogen is produced via electrolysis powered by renewable energy sources, its cost would almost triple, on our calculations. We calculate a CO<sub>2</sub>-free hydrogen price of €8/kg. This price would be commodity-independent as wind and solar power generation is largely a fixed-cost business model.

**We calculate a CO<sub>2</sub>-free hydrogen price of €8/kg**

**Figure 35: Cost of hydrogen (€/kg) – carbon-free generation would double cost**



Source: UBS estimates

Given the lower efficiency of the fuel cell (only c30% of power generated by the wind turbine or solar panel will be brought to the wheel of the car, versus c85%

for a BEV), the electricity cost alone would be three times as high for an FCV as for a BEV. We have not included the cost of a charging station or the cost of retrofitting a gas station for hydrogen.

## Sensitivity of forecasts to battery/oil prices

As shown in detail above, the economics of EVs vs. ICE cars are highly dependent on fuel prices and battery costs. Consequently, our market forecast is subject to uncertainty. The figure below shows the relative TCO superiority of BEVs and ICE cars when screened against varying oil prices and battery costs. Should oil prices stay very low for longer and should battery costs not decline meaningfully, our projected EV sales growth would not materialise. Conversely, in a low-battery-cost/high-oil-price scenario, we would expect a further acceleration of growth.

Our forecasts are sensitive to battery cost/oil price assumptions

Figure 36: BEV economies and the "axes of uncertainty"

Battery price	Oil price	
	High (\$120/bbl)	
	BEVs have lower TCO than ICE cars in <b>Europe &amp; China</b> without incentives; in <b>US</b> with incentives	BEVs have lower TCO than ICE cars in <b>all countries</b> with incentives, but not without
	Low (\$145/kWh)	High (\$275/kWh)
	BEVs have lower TCO than ICE cars in <b>Europe</b> without incentives; in <b>US &amp; China</b> with incentives	BEVs have lower TCO than ICE cars only in <b>Europe and China</b> and only with incentives
	Low (\$30/bbl)	

Source: UBS estimates

Figure 37: BEV-to-ICE TCO gap sensitivity in 2021E

		Oil price (price/bbl)		
		\$30	\$75	\$120
Battery cost/kWh	Europe			
	€ 250	23%	16%	10%
	€ 160	6%	0%	-5%
	€ 130	0%	-5%	-11%
	US			
	\$ 275	49%	42%	36%
	\$ 175	26%	21%	16%
	\$ 145	19%	14%	10%
	China			
	RMB 1788	28%	25%	22%
	RMB 1144	8%	6%	4%
	RMB 930	2%	0%	-2%

Source: UBS estimates. Note: UBS base case scenarios are shown in the center-most cells

## Range, charging time and expected life should be less of a concern for BEVs, medium term

Figure 38: How do the technologies score, besides TCO (2016)?

	Battery	Fuel cell	ICE
Range	150-450 km	500-700 km	400-900 km
Charging/refuelling time	20 min (80%)	5 min	2 min
Expected life	200-400k km	200-300k km	250-450k km
Performance	up to 500kW	up to 200kW	up to 735kW
Weight	200-600 kg	175-200 kg	200-500 kg

Source: UBS

### Charging time and range

A key advantage of FCVs is that hydrogen fuelling is as easy and almost as quick (3-5 minutes) as refilling an ICE car. Fast-charging of BEVs takes about 30 minutes for a lower range, which brings us to the other advantage. Today, the Toyota Mirai FCV already has a 500km range, whereas the Tesla S model in its highest-range configuration achieves 430km of EPA-rated range. The new "mainstream" BEVs such as the new Chevy Bolt will have about a 320km range.

We believe that the disadvantages in terms of range and charging time for BEVs are set to become much less relevant in the next five years.

- As battery costs decline, larger batteries will be introduced in the mass-market segment. Holding the price of a Chevrolet Bolt stable vs. today, its battery capacity (and range) could be increased by >30kWh, or >50% on a 2021 view. We expect OEMs to offer consumers different range options, enabling buyers to pick the version that best fits their needs in terms of usage patterns.
- BEV charging will become faster. For example, Porsche plans to introduce a BEV in 2018 (based on the "Mission E" concept car) with a 15-minute "turbocharging" time. Several OEMs have plans to present induction-charging solutions for home-charging (kerb-side parking is also technically possible), which would make the nightly plugging-in of the car obsolete.

On a post-2020 view, we believe the range and charging times of BEVs are likely to become much less of a concern for many car buyers in the main markets. On the contrary, consumers may even find it convenient to avoid the weekly visit to the gas station.

### Today's batteries last longer than current (early-stage) FC technology

A key determinant of the lifecycle cost of BEVs and FCVs is the expected life of batteries and fuel cells. Lithium-ion based batteries achieve up to 2,000 charging cycles until capacity drops below 80% of initial capacity. They could still be used after that time (including for stationary applications), but in our modelling we assume that their automotive life ends after 10 years. With 15,000km annual driving, there should not be more than 1,000 full cycles in a 10-year period.

Today's fuel cells are good for up to 5,000 hours of operation. Assuming an average speed of 40 km/h over the life of a car, the expected fuel cell life would only be 200,000km. We expect longevity to improve substantially as the technology matures.

**We believe BEVs' range and charging time will become much less of a concern for many car buyers in the major markets**

**A battery could last up to 2,000 cycles, which would likely exceed the assumed 10-year life**

## **Battery value after end of auto lifecycle could still be positive**

Battery recycling is essential and comes at a meaningful cost. Based on our reading of published literature in the area, we believe the recycling of an EV battery costs about €1,000 in a large-scale environment. This "negative" value of a battery needs to be taken into account when calculating its true life-cycle cost. However, it is also true that while batteries may no longer deliver sufficient automotive performance after 8-10 years in a car, they still can be used in stationary applications. A solar energy system on a residential rooftop doesn't require a battery larger than 10kWh, which is only a fraction of the capacity of EV batteries. Taking this "life after death" opportunity into account, we believe that EV batteries do not carry a negative net value after being replaced in the car. As highlighted before, we assume zero value.

**EV batteries could be used for stationary applications**

# BEVs fit best into the future, low-carbon ecosystem

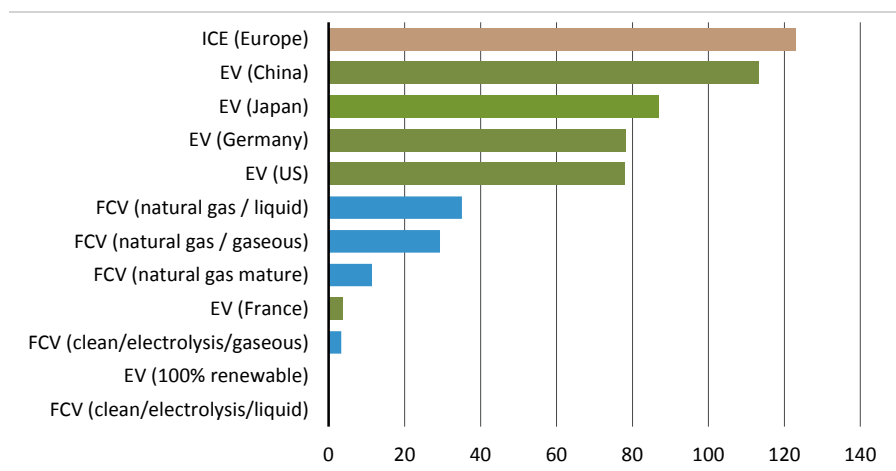
As a consequence of COP21 climate targets, we think governments and regulators will need to accelerate the de-carbonization of the transport sector. We conclude that in the current energy system, FCVs are superior to BEVs in terms of well-to-wheel emissions, given the carbon-heavy electricity mix in many countries; and long-term, in a renewables-driven electricity system, BEVs are the cheapest zero-emissions technology. Viability of BEVs looks even better when taking the storage aspect into account. Our calculations indicate that: (1) the storage capability of a BEV carries substantial value; (2) infrastructure costs for BEVs are only c50% of FCVs'; and (3) the required investment per tonne of carbon saved in an emissions-free scenario is €80-90 (with a declining trend, long term), versus c€50/t avoidance cost in power generation.

## CO<sub>2</sub> comparison: Electricity mix matters

The question about "well-to-wheel" CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is relatively easy to answer for ICEs and FCVs, but in the case of BEVs the answer very much depends on the electricity mix in the country where the car is used. The following chart compares the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of the different technologies for a medium-sized sedan. For BEVs, we run calculations for Germany, France, the US, China and Japan.

The actual "well to wheel" CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of BEVs depend on a given market's electricity mix

Figure 39: CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by technology (g/km)



Source: UBS estimates. Note: Includes CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to operate the vehicle. Excludes CO<sub>2</sub> footprint of manufacturing and recycling.

ICE cars produce more emissions than electric cars. Even BEVs running in countries with a high proportion of coal generation in the electricity mix, such as China, have lower well-to-wheel emissions than ICE cars. Assuming the share of renewables in the mix will generally increase, not at least as a result of the COP21 climate agreement, the advantage of BEVs should grow further. EVs in France, a country that largely relies on nuclear and hydro power, are today almost zero-emission cars already from a well-to-wheel point of view.

FCVs have CO<sub>2</sub> emissions around 30g/km, which is superior to BEVs in many countries, but FCVs are entirely emission-free only in the case of CO<sub>2</sub>-free hydrogen generation via (expensive) electrolysis.

## BEVs fit best into the future ecosystem

A key advantage of BEVs is that they fit well into a renewables-powered, decentralised electricity ecosystem of the future.

**Figure 40: Key features of BEVs and FCVs from an ecosystem point of view**

	BEV	FCV
Storage/power grid balancing	Yes	No
Powering the home	Yes	Yes
Use self-generated solar power	Yes	No
Infrastructure cost	Significant	Higher than BEV

Source: UBS

### Storage and self-generation could reduce EV electricity bill by more than half

Vehicle batteries will represent millions of storage units that can, when connected to the power grid (the average car has 95% idle time), help to balance volatility in a renewables-powered electricity world. Batteries can be charged and also discharged to stabilise the grid, if the owner wishes to offer this "service" to power utilities. As access to EV batteries would be valuable to grid operators, the BEV owner would be remunerated. This does not work with FCVs. In a renewables-focused power generation system, the value of power storage to the grid operator is around €200 per BEV per year, on our estimates, which accounts for 30-60% of the annual electricity bill for the consumption of the BEV. On a 2025 view, the global value of EV storage available to utilities could be €6bn p.a.

**Monetization of storage and self-generation of electricity could cut annual electricity cost of an EV by up to c60% in some markets**

**Figure 41: The value of storage could be up to 1/3 of electricity cost of a BEV**

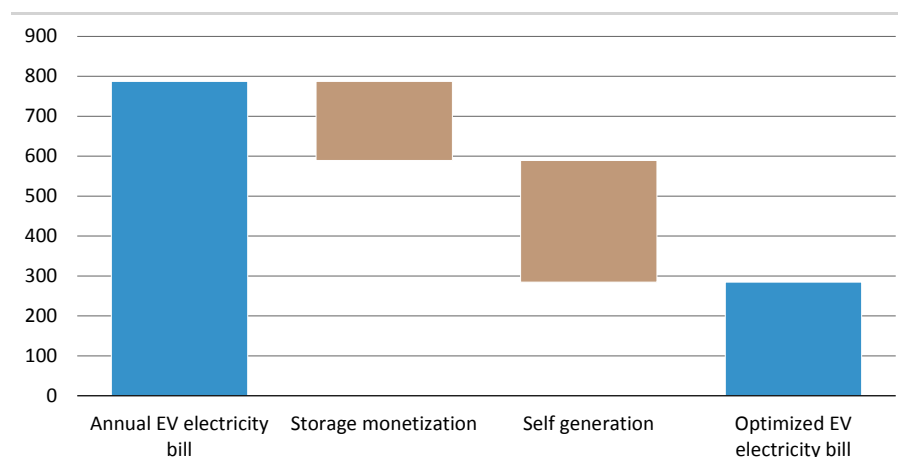
Battery capacity per car (kWh)	60
Capacity available to the grid (%)	33%
Available storage capacity (kWh)	20
Value of storage (€/kWh)	0.05
Number of cycles per year	200
Value per BEV/year (€)	198

Source: UBS estimates

The BEV can also be charged by solar panels on the roof of a home. This works even 'virtually' when the car is parked elsewhere, via smart grid solutions. In markets with high power prices, such as California, Japan or Germany, self-generation could substantially lower the electricity bill for EVs. Powering the car through self-generated green electricity could also become an important non-monetary aspect for an increasing number of car owners.

Our analysis suggests that the combination of monetization of storage and self-generation of electricity could reduce the annual electricity cost for the EV by up to c60% in markets with high grid power prices. The graph below uses Germany as example.

**Figure 42: EV electricity bill could be lowered by >60% (Germany, € p.a.)**



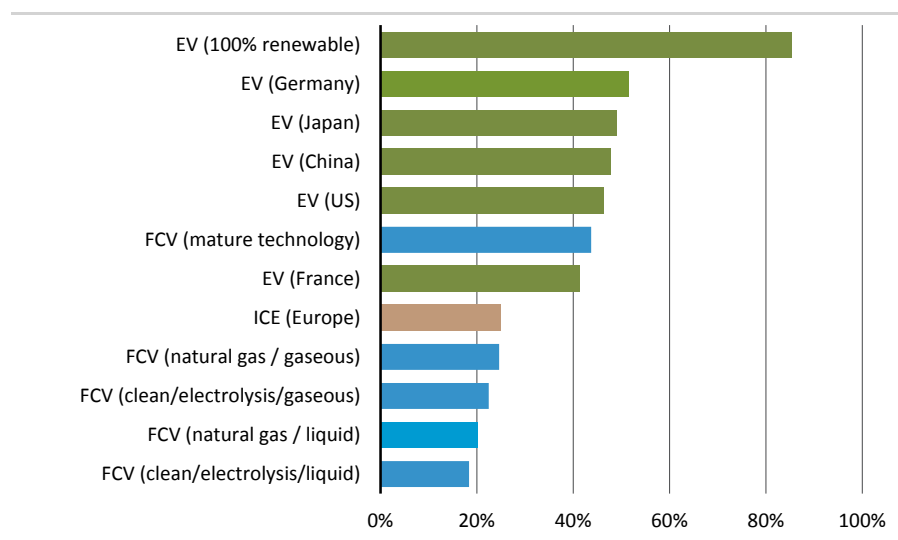
Source: UBS estimates

### BEVs require much less power generated per kilometre driven

We estimate that investments in BEV infrastructure will be lower than for FCVs when including the associated investments in power generation and electrolysis capacity, as shown in the analysis below. BEVs' threefold superiority to FCVs in terms of "well-to-wheel" efficiency gives them a substantial advantage when it comes to the need for CO<sub>2</sub>-free power generation capacity. In other words, a BEV can drive three times as far as an FCV on the same amount of renewable electricity generated.

**We estimate a BEV can go three times further than an FCV on the same amount of renewable electricity generated**

**Figure 43: 'Well-to-wheel' energy efficiency by technology**



Source: UBSe

### Comparing the total bill for infrastructure – BEV wins

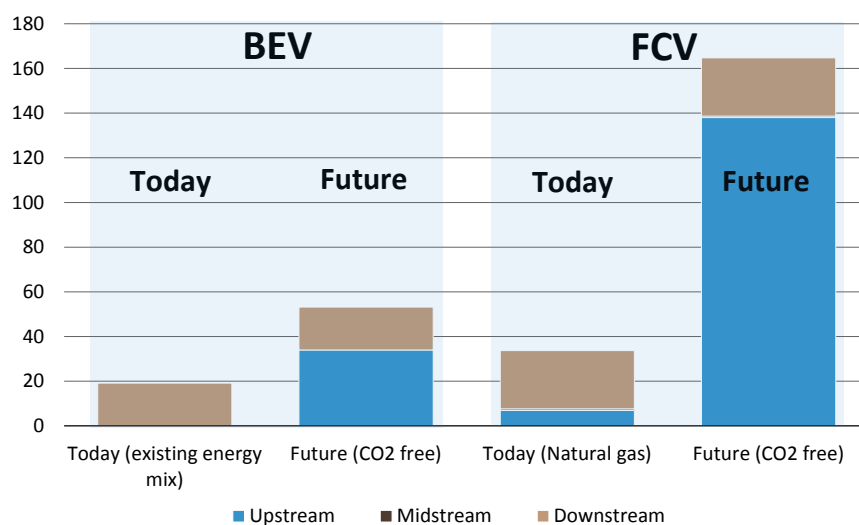
The following charts summarize our estimates for the infrastructure costs of BEVs and FCVs. We compare the cost in today's "upstream" world, i.e., using existing power generation and natural gas reforming capacity, as well as in a future zero-carbon scenario. Therefore, we also include investments in power generation and hydrogen electrolysis capacity. To compare the required investments, we base our calculation on a scenario of 15m vehicles on the road (BEVs and FCVs each) globally.



- Due to the efficiency disadvantage of fuel cells (we assume 60% energy efficiency for mature fuel cell technology, which is well above the current c40% and well below the 85-90% for BEVs), the **"upstream"** investments are substantially higher. In other words, more power generators are needed for the same amount of miles driven in an FCV world.
- **"Midstream"** infrastructure, i.e., transport, should also be cheaper for BEVs as the existing power grid can be used, whereas hydrogen requires investment in trucks or pipelines etc. What is not included in our estimates is a potential upgrade of some transformers in local distribution grids, which may be necessary in markets with limited grid reserves.
- **"Downstream"**, i.e., the point of consumption, is the largest cost position for both technologies. BEVs require more charging points, but a significant proportion of the charging can be done at low-power outlets (at home, kerbside, in parking garages) that come at low cost. A limited number of "superchargers" (we assume 52,000 for 15m vehicles) will be required, which can be built at significantly lower cost than hydrogen fuelling stations. Overall, we assume downstream cost should be lower for BEVs.

The detailed calculations behind the below graph can be found in the appendix.

**Figure 44: BEV infrastructure is cheaper than for FCVs, in particular in a CO<sub>2</sub>-free ecosystem (in €bn for 15m vehicles of each type globally)**



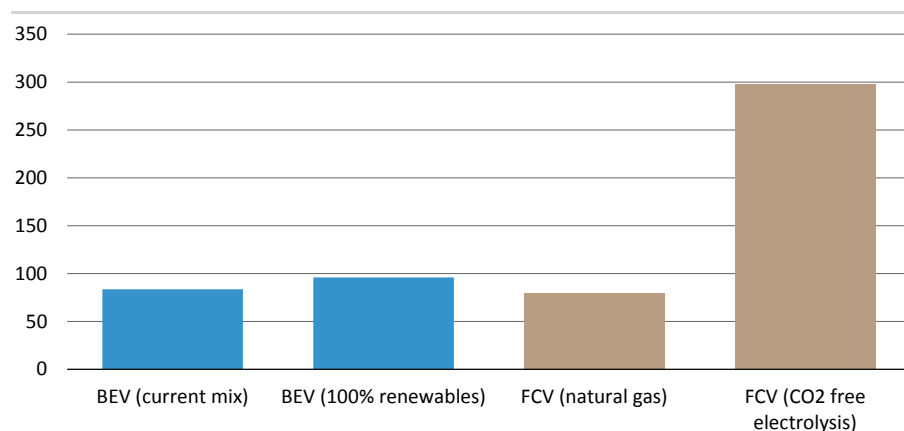
Source: UBS

### BEV infrastructure investments cost about €80/t of CO<sub>2</sub> saved

The following chart illustrates the infrastructure costs per year in relation to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions saved. We assume an expected life of 20 years for the infrastructure. Infrastructure cost for BEVs would amount to c€1,300 per car per year with the current electricity mix, or c€3,500/car including investments in renewable power generation infrastructure. We think only a modest element of the investment (low-power kerbside charging infrastructure) will have to be carried out by national or local government. The investment would be equivalent to c€80-90 per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> saved (compared to ICE cars). For comparison, the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance in

the power generation sector is around €50/t. In our 100%-renewables scenario, the CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance cost includes the EV *and* the power generation element.

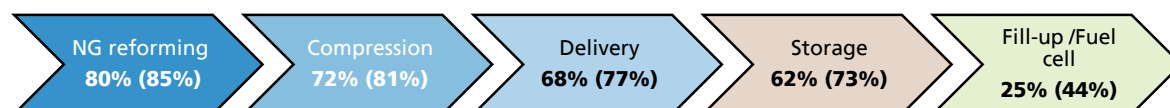
**Figure 45: BEV infrastructure cost shown as CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance cost (€/t)**



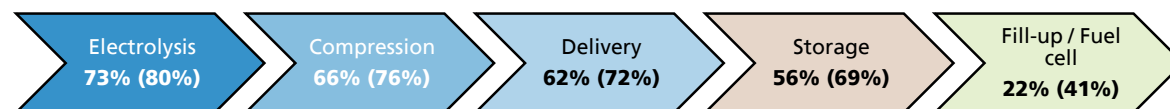
Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 46: Well-to-wheel efficiency comparison of FCV and BEV, based on today's technology (and mature technology)**

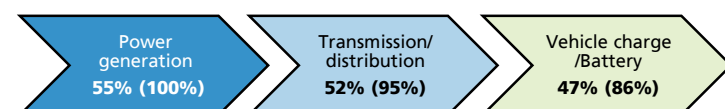
#### FCV energy pathway: Natural gas reforming - today's vs. mature technology



#### FCV energy pathway: Electrolysis - today's vs. mature technology



#### BEV energy pathway: Power generation - EU/US/China avg power mix vs. 100% renewable



Source: UBS estimates

#### Other considerations and benefits

- The UBS Autos team has done extensive work on how the car-sharing economy will likely disrupt the auto sector. Click [here](#) and [here](#) to access the reports. We believe that BEVs are the best fit in a car-sharing world. In contrast to ICEs and FCVs, BEVs can be charged while not in use, at the point at which the vehicle is dropped off, i.e., neither users nor fleet operators need to drive to the next gas station for a refill.
- We expect local governments to focus on locally emissions-free driving when signing contracts with car-sharing operators. Hydrogen infrastructure may be more difficult to install than charging stations in major city centres, not least for safety reasons.

**In our view, BEVs represent the best fit in a car-sharing economy**

- In spite of our detailed analysis, It remains difficult to anticipate the behaviour of consumers regarding the topics of "range anxiety" and to assess the access to charging infrastructure (which also depends on city-level politics). These will remain the key non-quantitative factors to watch.

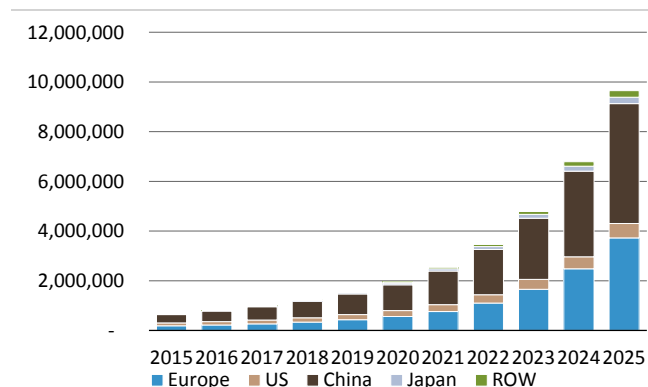
# Putting it all together: What does our analysis suggest for EV sales penetration?

We expect EV sales to grow to 2.5m units by 2021, from 0.5m today. While growth in the remainder of this decade will likely be largely driven by regulation and incentives, we expect EV penetration to enter the steep part of the s-curve in the coming decade as TCO declines further. On a 2025 view, we expect 9.7m EVs to be sold, equivalent to 9.2% of global passenger vehicle sales by then. EV penetration rates in new car sales should be around 14% in China and 18% in Europe, on a 2025 view. The acceleration in the coming decade is anti-consensual, we believe. Plug-in hybrids (PHEVs) will be relevant as a bridge technology, but we see their share in the mix declining, long term. We believe the US, however, looks likely to be a laggard with only 3% sales penetration in 2025 on low fuel prices and a less strict CO<sub>2</sub> regime, which provides limited incentives for OEMs to push EV sales aggressively.

As EVs become more affordable with more mainstream models due to be launched (Chevrolet Bolt, Tesla Model 3), we expect continuous growth in the next few years, albeit from a very low base. Regulation and incentives should be a key growth driver, near term. We expect 2.5m EVs to be sold globally (including plug-in hybrids) in 2021, vs. 0.5m in 2015. The proportion of EVs will likely remain relatively small, though, at an estimated 2.5% in 2021. With the TCO of BEVs falling below that of ICE cars in Europe in China by around 2021/22, we expect an acceleration in global EV sales to 9.7m units, equivalent to 9.2% of global passenger car sales, by 2025.

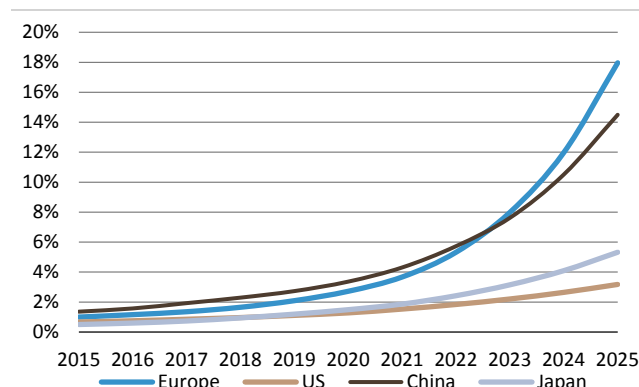
Global EV sales penetration at 9.2% in 2025

Figure 47: Trend in annual EV sales (units)



Source: UBS estimates

Figure 48: EV penetration to accelerate over next 10 years



Source: UBS estimates

Looking at EV sales by region, we believe Europe and China are likely to see the highest near-term growth, mainly on the back of purchase incentives and CO<sub>2</sub> regulation. In China, licence plate and rush-hour restrictions in large cities for ICE cars are a key driver of EV demand. We also see the possibility that European cities authorities will begin to require locally emissions-free driving within city limits. The US will likely accelerate only with a time lag, given the current low fuel price situation. Purchase incentives will remain essential for the remainder of this decade, in particular in the US.

We expect Europe and China to see the fastest near-term growth in EV sales, mainly on purchase incentives and CO<sub>2</sub> regulation

**Figure 49: EV sales by region (units)**

	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025
Europe	185,266	222,319	266,783	333,479	433,522	563,579	760,832	1,103,206	1,654,809	2,482,214	3,723,321
US	116,099	133,514	153,541	176,572	203,058	233,517	280,220	336,264	403,517	484,220	581,064
China	206,400	425,589	531,986	664,982	831,228	1,039,035	1,350,746	1,823,506	2,461,734	3,446,427	4,824,998
Japan	25,328	30,394	36,472	45,590	56,988	71,235	89,044	115,757	150,484	195,629	254,318
ROW	15,000	18,000	21,600	25,920	33,696	43,805	56,946	79,725	119,587	179,381	269,071
Global	548,093	829,815	1,010,382	1,246,544	1,558,492	1,951,171	2,537,787	3,458,458	4,790,131	6,787,871	9,652,772
Market share		0.9%	1.1%	1.3%	1.6%	1.9%	2.5%	3.4%	4.6%	6.5%	9.2%

Source: UBS estimates (including PHEVs)

We expect BEVs to represent the lion's share of EV sales. PHEVs will play a key role during the transition phase, but we expect their share to shrink over the long term as the shortcomings of pure BEVs (range, charging time and infrastructure) become less relevant. FCVs should enjoy a favourable development in markets where government spending on hydrogen infrastructure is significant.

Our market forecasts do reflect incentives which will matter in particular over the next few years, when TCO of EVs are not yet competitive.

**Figure 50: EV incentives by country (as of end-2015)**

	Tax exemption	Other incentives
Austria	Fuel consumption tax and monthly vehicle tax	
Belgium	Registration tax; 120% deductibility from corp. income of expenses related to use of company cars	
Czech Rep.	Road tax (business cars only)	
Germany	Annual circulation tax for 10 years after first registration	Direct purchase incentive of €3,000-5,000 currently being discussed
Denmark	Registration tax	
Finland	EVs pay minimum rate of CO2 based registration tax	
France	Company car tax	Direct purchase incentive of €6,300; €10,000 for trading in 13y-or-older diesel car
Greece	Registration tax, luxury tax, luxury living tax, annual circulation tax	
Hungary	Registration tax, annual circulation tax	
Ireland	Registration tax relief up to €5,000	Direct purchase incentive of €5,000
Italy	Annual circulation tax for 5 years, then 75% reduction of tax for further 5 years	
Latvia	Registration tax	
Netherlands	Registration tax, annual circulation tax	
Norway	VAT and purchase, road tax, road tolls, tunnel-use charges, and ferry charges (roll-back as of 2018)	Free parking, free charging, and use of bus lanes
Portugal	Registration tax, annual circulation tax	
Romania	Registration tax	
Sweden	Registration tax for 5 years, company car tax reduced by 40%	Direct purchase incentive of up to SEK40k (€4,300)
Slovakia	Annual circulation tax	
UK	Annual circulation tax	Direct purchase incentive of £5,000
US	Up to \$7,500 tax credit for EVs (based on capacity), phasing out after 200k vehicles; various state tax credits	
Canada		Ontario: \$5,000-8,500; BC: up to \$5,000 direct purchase incentive
China	Exemption for purchase tax (10%) for approved NEVs	Purchase subsidies up to RMB110k for EVs with >250km range; exemption from rush-hour restrictions; concessions on number plates/number plate restrictions for ICE cars
Korea	Car tax exemption	Won4m (\$3,300) incentive; up to Won12m (\$10,000) including local subsidies.
Japan	Eco-car and green vehicle tax-breaks	2/3 of the price gap between EV and comparable ICE; various state incentives up to JPY300,000

Source: ACEA, US DoE, Ontario Ministry of Transportation, EVI, The Wall Street Journal, Tesla

# Implications of EVs on the value chain

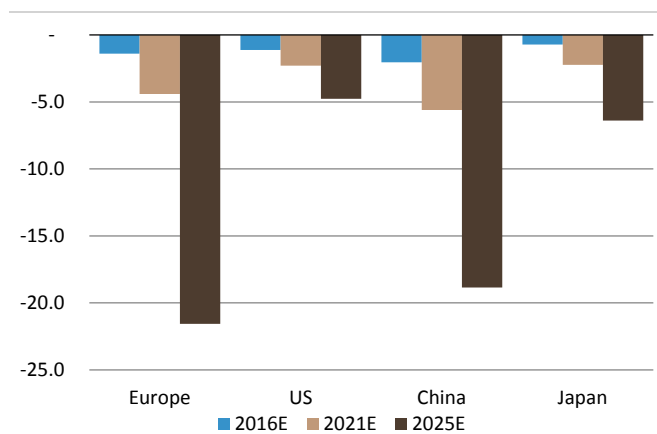
## Global OEMs: Higher EV sales a mixed bag

We think OEMs are likely to suffer, initially, from higher EV sales, due to lower contribution margins of EVs and large fixed costs, including R&D. Therefore, even with an improving margin contribution over time, we think it will take at least until 2025 for EVs' ROCEs to reach levels similar to those of ICE cars today. Also, it looks increasingly likely that Chinese OEMs and suppliers will disrupt the global competitive landscape. China will likely represent the biggest market, supported by government incentives, and battery know-how already exists because of consumer batteries. We expect to see more Chinese EV exports in the longer term, and would also not rule out the export of EV powertrains to international mass-market OEMs. In this case, powertrains would become more commoditized and therefore pose a (further) risk to industry profits in the mass market.

**EVs' ROCEs unlikely to match current ICE levels before 2025**

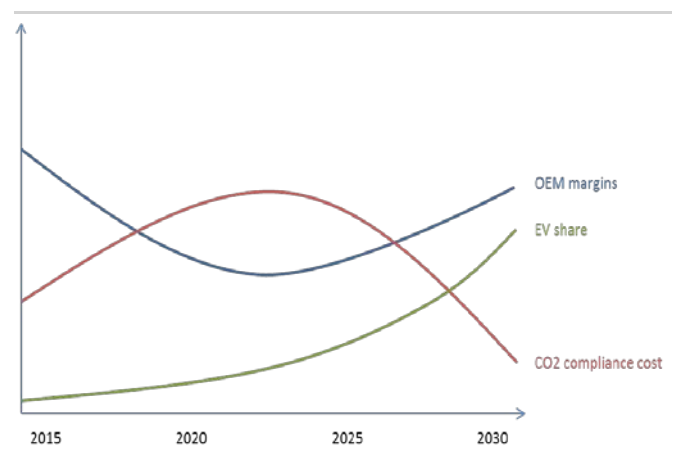
Our EV sales projections for 2021 suggest only a minor positive impact for OEMs from CO<sub>2</sub> targets. We estimate a c4g/km fleet emission reduction in Europe and the US thanks to EVs (excluding PHEVs). Also, we believe that EVs sold will have substantially lower contribution margins than the ICE portfolio, even more should OEMs need additional EV sales to meet 2021 CO<sub>2</sub> targets. On a 2025 view, however, consumers are likely to choose EVs thanks to favourable TCO. By then, we expect the EV margin situation to improve for OEMs as the cars will no longer need to be incentivised by OEMs. Also, a rapidly rising EV penetration should reduce the cost of complying with 2030 CO<sub>2</sub> targets (which have yet to be defined) to almost zero, and therefore represent a major source of relief for OEM investment budgets.

**Figure 51: EV contribution to fleet CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (g/km)**



Source: UBS estimates

**Figure 52: How EVs will reduce CO<sub>2</sub> compliance cost, long term (conceptual illustration)**



Source: UBS estimates

We think the future success of EVs will likely be driven by a combination of the following factors:

- The extent to which EVs are the **core of an OEM's long-term investment strategy**, including presence in (plug-in) hybrids, which should generate synergies and additional scale;
- Solid **cash generation** from "legacy" businesses to fund the transformation; and

- Scale via **partnerships** with other OEMs to share the investment burden.

The table below screens UBS's global OEM coverage against these criteria. We use EBIT margins over the past five years as a proxy for cash generation over the cycle.

**Figure 53: OEM EV heatmap – who are the potential winners and losers?**

Name	UBS rating	# of BEV/FCVs on sale (2016E)	EV investment focus	EBIT margin last 5 years	Partnerships with other OEMs	What's priced in?
<b>BMW</b>	Neutral	1	High	11.2%	FCV partnership with Toyota	Zero
<b>Daimler</b>	Buy	2	Medium	7.8%	FC powertrain with Ford/Nissan, compact BEV powertrain with Renault	Zero
<b>FCA</b>	Neutral	1	Low	2.7%	-	Zero
<b>PSA</b>	Neutral	3	Low	0.2%	BEV partnership with Mitsubishi (current) and Dongfeng (future)	Zero
<b>Renault</b>	Buy	4	High	1.3%	BEV powertrain with Nissan/Daimler	Zero
<b>VW</b>	Buy	2	Medium	5.8%	FCV partnership with SAIC (Chinese JV partner)	Zero
<b>Ford</b>	Buy	1	Low	3.4%	FC powertrain with Daimler/Nissan	Zero
<b>GM</b>	Buy	2	Medium	3.0%	FCV partnership with Honda	Zero
<b>Tesla</b>	Sell	2	High	Negative	-	1m deliveries in 2025 plus full storage utilization
<b>Nissan</b>	Buy	2	High	5.4%	FC powertrain with Daimler/Ford; BEV powertrain with Renault/Daimler	Zero
<b>Honda</b>	Neutral	1	Medium	5.0%	FCV partnership with GM. Stronger focus on FCVs	Zero
<b>Toyota</b>	Neutral	1 (FCV)	Medium	7.4%	FCV partnership with BMW; comprehensive partnership with Mazda. Stronger focus on FCVs.	Zero
<b>Hyundai</b>	Buy	2 (1 BEV, 1 FCV)	Medium	7.6%	BEV powertrain with Kia	Zero
<b>Kia</b>	Buy	1	Medium	5.4%	BEV powertrain with Hyundai	Zero
<b>Mitsubishi</b>	Not covered	1	Medium	4.3%	BEV partnership with Nissan; PSA	-
<b>Yutong Bus</b>	Buy	8	High	9.4%	-	Reduction of 6-8 meter NEV bus subsidy and no future sales contribution from 8-12 meter & above 12 meter bus sales.
<b>Jianghuai</b>	Buy	4	High	1.2%	-	No robust EV sales volume growth and earnings contribution from EV sales.

Source: Company data, UBS. Only BEVs and FCVs, excluding hybrids.

Overall, we believe **Tesla, GM, BMW, Renault/Nissan** and **Toyota** are the most advanced OEMs in the EV space, and we see **Daimler, Volkswagen** and **Honda** among the fast followers. Except for Tesla, the OEMs have only a marginal share of BEVs and FCVs in their mix. While European, US and Chinese OEMs have a stronger focus on BEVs, Japanese and Korean OEMs have both BEVs and FCVs in their portfolios. Furthermore, we expect Apple to arrive with a BEV in around 2018. Tesla, which is the only dedicated BEV producer, largely depends on external funding of its growth plans, which makes its investment plans less certain in the event of a down-cycle, we believe.

A detailed table with current and future EV models sorted by OEM can be found in the *Appendix*. We discuss each briefly below.

**Tesla, GM, BMW, Renault/Nissan and Toyota lead the way in the EV space, based on our analysis**

## Europe

- **BMW** is fully focused on BEVs under the "i" brand. While the i3 has had limited success so far due to its low journey range and its positioning in a price-sensitive segment, we believe the planned larger i5 (likely an SUV, to be launched in 2019-20) could prove to be more successful from a financial standpoint.
- **Daimler** has a battery-electric version of the Smart and B Class, and will launch a fuel cell version of the GLC SUV in 2017. The company has indicated a large BEV launch by 2020, at the latest. Unlike BMW, Daimler sells electric cars under its existing brand structure and may act in a more opportunistic way than BMW.
- **Volkswagen** has announced it will launch BEVs under the Audi (SUV) and Porsche (sports sedan) brands in 2018, with a c500km range. In the wake of the diesel issue, VW has also announced it will develop a modular electric platform for implementation across mass-market brands, similar to the MQB.
- **Renault** currently has 4 models on offer: the Twizy (car sharing, communication tool), Fluence (no longer sold in Europe, built in Korea, could be introduced in China), Kangoo (deliveries and fleet) and Zoe (mainstream). Renault has not announced any major launches since it already has good market coverage. We believe Renault could be one of the main beneficiaries of an improved TCO and higher-than-expected volumes.
- **PSA** remains a marginal player in EV and currently offers the I-on and Citroen C0. It is planning to launch another EV by 2020. We expect the company to provide more details on future plans during its capital markets day on 5 April.
- **FCA** is not pursuing a proactive EV strategy at present. Instead, we see the company as a follower, likely pursuing an R&D-light strategy driven, in our view, by balance sheet constraints.

## Japan/Korea

- **Toyota** self-produces core components used in HEVs and BEVs, including batteries, motors, PCUs, etc. It already produces over 1m HEVs/year and has a cost advantage in BEVs as well. The main source of improvement in average fuel efficiency lies in its HEVs, where volume growth is expected. For a long-term response to environmental regulations, Toyota takes a portfolio approach of pursuing all products. Proactive in developing technology for BEVs, Toyota categorises them as short/medium-range commuter cars. It also provides small EVs to car-sharing businesses for testing purposes.
- **Nissan:** Together with Renault, Nissan places BEVs at the core of its next-generation zero-emission cars. The range of the "Leaf" has grown to 280km and Nissan/Renault's combined BEV sales were the largest globally in 2015. While the company has not made any official announcements regarding future BEV models, we expect an expansion in the number of models to maintain leading position in the space.
- **Honda:** Like Toyota, Honda has a full line-up of HEV, PHEV, EV, and FCV cars. It views BEVs as short-medium range commuter cars. The company aims for PHEV/BEV/FCVs to comprise 2/3 of total sales by 2030.



- **Hyundai/Kia Motors:** HEVs, PHEVs, EVs and FCVs are a long-term group focus. Hyundai and Kia Motors combined plan to increase the number of these models to 22 by 2020 from 7 in 2015. By 2015, Hyundai and Kia had launched green versions of the following existing models: HEV (Sonata, Grandeur, K5, K7), PHEV (Sonata), EV (Soul), and FCV (Tucson). In January 2016, Hyundai launched the Ioniq HEV from its own platform, and plans to launch EV and PHEV versions of the model in 2016. Kia plans to launch the Niro HEV in 2016. Hyundai has increased its focus on EV, but also focuses on FCV.

## US

- **Ford** currently has one BEV in production, the Focus Electric. It plans to refresh the Focus Electric, increasing its range from 76 miles to about 100 miles. The new 2017 model is to begin production late 2016. Ford also has a line-up of HEV and PHEV vehicles including the Focus C-Max, Mondeo, and Lincoln MKZ.
- **GM** was one of the first OEMs to invest in PHEV, launching the Volt in 2010. The Volt was just refreshed late last year, dropping the weight of the vehicle and improving the all-electric range from 38 miles to 53 miles. Additionally, GM produces the Cadillac ELR PHEV and two BEVs, the Spark and upcoming Bolt. GM expects the Bolt BEV to appeal to the mass-market with a 200-mile range and price of only \$30k after incentives.
- **Tesla** is currently the only OEM purely focused on BEVs, producing the Model S luxury sedan and the Model X luxury SUV. The mass-market Model 3 is planned to go into production in late 2017.

## China

- **Yutong Bus** is the largest bus producer in China, with a c23% total bus market share as of 2015. The company started selling new-energy buses in 2012, selling c.20k in 2015, and accounting for 20% of the Chinese NEV bus market. Its NEV product mix includes pure electric buses (8 products), plug-in hybrid electric buses (8) and LNG buses (13).
- **Jianghuai** started NEV passenger car production in 2014 and currently has two EV models, the IEV4 and IEV5. Its EV sales represented about a third of the total NEV market in Beijing in 2015. Over the next 12 months it plans to launch two new NEV models, the IEV6 and IEV6S. We believe Jianghuai will continue to benefit from Beijing's expansion of the licence plate quota for NEVs.

## Suppliers – who's hot and who's not?

In order to assess the risks and opportunities for the suppliers, we look at today's revenue and EBIT contributions from their ICE powertrain-related businesses (engine and transmission parts, exhaust gas treatment, etc), and their activities in the field of EVs. We see **Continental** and **Delphi** as key winners from higher EV penetration.

**Figure 54: Suppliers – EV exposure by company**

	Powertrain (2014/15)			
	as % of sales	as % of EBIT(DA)	Product offering in BEVs/FCVs	EV content
<b>Autoliv</b>	NA	NA	NA	NM
<b>Continental</b>	18%	9%	– Sensors and actuators – High-voltage axle drives – Power electronics – Battery management systems – Inverters and DC/DC converters – Electric water pumps – Conti has invested €1bn in EVs	1.9-3x ICE ICE content
<b>Faurecia</b>	36%	43%	NA	NM
<b>Valeo</b>	25%	26%	– Battery thermal management for PHEV/EV – Power electronics – On-board battery chargers – DC/DC converters – Range extender generators	NA
<b>Denso</b>	35%	NA	– Engine power control units – ECU (engine control units) – Electric compressors – DC-DC converters – System main relays – Battery current sensors – Battery monitoring units	Has higher content in HEV than in BEV
<b>Lear</b>	23%	36%	– Wire harnesses – Terminals and connectors – Advanced efficiency systems	Wiring 2x ICE content
<b>Delphi</b>	53%	55%	– Inverter and converters  – Battery controller – High-voltage battery packs – Battery cooling – air/liquid – Power electronics	Average ICE content of US\$300-400 HEV is 4-5x EV is up to 7-8x

Source: Company data, UBS

- **Autoliv** should not experience a meaningful impact on sales from a shift towards EV since, assuming cars are not fully automated by then, cars will still require seatbelts and airbags (80%-plus of group sales). Autoliv might benefit from the higher electronic content required in an EV.
- **Continental's** true exposure to EV is running at about €150m (less than 1% of auto division sales) and the activity is loss-making. The legacy cost of a shift

towards 100% penetration could reach €3-3.5bn, or about 15% of auto division sales). However, Conti claims the content offered for FCV-related business is three times higher than for the equivalent gasoline-related business. Assuming a similar market share to the one Conti currently has in Powertrain, Conti expects a slight positive impact from this shift.

- **Faurecia** is the leader in emissions control. The key products within Emissions Control Technologies (ECT) are catalytic converters, diesel particulate filters, mufflers and exhaust heat recovery manifolds. Those products will not be required in an EV. ECT represents 40% of Faurecia's sales and 40-45% of Faurecia's EBIT (adjusted for exterior disposals). In 2015, ECT generated sales of €7.5bn (of which 44% monoliths) and an EBIT of €360m (margin of 4.8%).
- **Valeo's** true exposure to EV today is very limited (less than 1% of group sales). For the Powertrain division, we see the following potential impacts related to a 100% penetration of EVs: (1) some products will disappear, such as transmissions and clutches; (2) some products will benefit, such as electric motors, inverters, converters, battery chargers. Powertrain Systems represents c25% of group sales and EBITDA. Within Thermal Systems (28% of sales; 24% of EBITDA), the higher content will come from battery thermal management. There could also be a negative impact on aftermarket (13% of sales; 25% of EBIT [UBSe]) since there are fewer parts in an EV than in an internal combustion engine.
- **Lear** should see a boost from a shift towards EV. Electronics and electrical architecture currently drives about 23% of revenue. EVs should drive twice the wiring content. We think seating is unlikely to be impacted by EVs; rather a shift towards more connectivity in the seat ("intelligent seat", biometrics, seating positions, etc) should leverage additional electrical content.
- **Delphi** looks well positioned to gain from EV penetration. Its E&A (electrical & electronic architecture) business (53% of sales) should benefit from increased wiring and connector content on BEVs and HEVs. E&S (electronics & safety, 18% of sales) is an area where Delphi is aggressively pursuing market share and should benefit from increased sales of inverters, converters, hybrid control units and battery packs. Loss in traditional powertrain (29% of sales) content should be offset by gains of its supervisory controller device.
- **Denso** makes key components, such as motors, invertors, converters and ECUs for HEV/PHEV/BEVs, and supplies software to control entire vehicle systems. It is a main supplier for Toyota HEVs, which makes more than 1m units annually, and has a competitive edge over global competitors in terms of cost and mass production system. It makes automotive semiconductors internally, and accumulates knowledge of technologies and cost structure. It also has alliances with major semiconductor manufacturers such as Intel, and maintains cost competitiveness. It has a number one position in A/C systems, which is a key component for BEVs. It has been expanding its A/C market share in developed countries with sophisticated energy and temperature control technologies.

## Other industries impacted by rising EV sales

We believe the trend of electrification will be disruptive not just for the OEMs and the auto suppliers industry:

### Potential structural winners

- Battery and component/materials suppliers and battery recycling services;
- (Renewable) electricity suppliers and power grid operators on higher electricity demand.

### Potential structural losers

- Entire oil value chain;
- Auto dealerships due to shrinking maintenance business (EVs are likely to require less service)

### Batteries: Manufacturers growing capacity in line with projected EV growth

Our recent checks suggest average battery capacity is now 30kWh for passenger vehicles and 200kWh for commercial vehicles. We assume battery capacity per pack increases by about 10% per annum until 2020 for both passenger vehicles and commercial vehicles. As a result, we estimate total battery demand for BEVs will be around 125-150GWh by 2020, including passenger vehicles and commercial vehicles. From a supplier standpoint, this implies global capacity should have grown by 4-5x by then, given we think the current global capacity is around 30GWh.

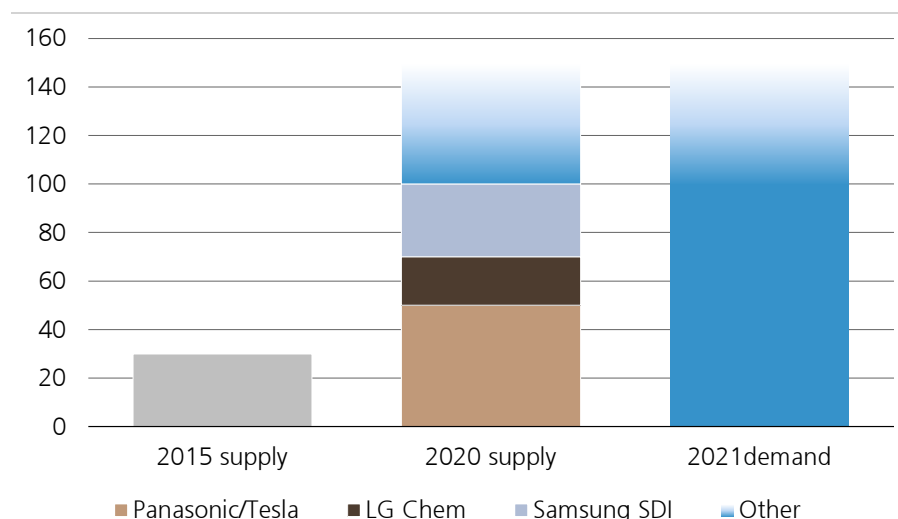
**We think global battery capacity can support BEV growth, assuming manufacturers' capacity expansions proceed as planned**

**Is this achievable?** Yes, we think so, considering the capacity expansion plans of major EV battery players and the feasibility of their plans. Global battery makers are aggressive on expanding their capacity. For example:

- **Panasonic** currently has an 18% global market share, and is to add the new Gigafactory with Tesla, which should have 50GWh capacity by 2020, according to the company.
- We expect **LG Chemical** to increase its capacity by c5x to c20GWh by 2020.
- We estimate **Samsung SDI** will increase its capacity for mid/large size batteries by about 6x from 2015 to 2020, to around 30GWh.

We think global battery capacity can support the growth of BEVs, assuming capacity expansions proceed on schedule. Are their plans feasible? Yes, we think so. Battery makers have hitherto spent about \$100m for a production line to manufacture c.1-1.5GWh of batteries per year. For a normal size fab with 3-5 production lines, shells and infrastructures have required additional \$200m, depending on actual sizes. Consequently, we think the global battery industry would need around \$13-18bn to build the required capacity mentioned above, and we believe this is possible, though we see some potential for capex to be lower than this, driven by increasing capacity per production line thanks to technology improvements.

**Figure 55: Battery capacity growth (GWh) to support expected demand**



Source: Company information, UBS estimates

**Does this mean the entry barrier of the EV battery industry is low?** Not really. Unlike the components used in other applications, for instance smartphones, EV components are directly related to human safety, and thus the experience and track record of suppliers and parts is key. We believe the standards of existing products/models would likely act as a barrier to entry. All in all, we think the beneficiaries are likely to be existing players rather than newcomers. Of the existing players, we think the current top-ranked names have a greater opportunity, as their capacity and client bases should give them an advantage when it comes to R&D, increasing capacity and acquiring new clients.

## Appendix

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## EV model line-up

Figure 56: BEV line-up (ex China)

OEM	Model name	Launch year	Range		Price (basic)	Battery capacity	Charging time	Engine	
			km	miles	€	kWh	mins	HP	Market
Available today									
Daimler	Smart Electric Drive	2009	145	90	23,700	18	60-420	75	Global
Mitsub.	Mitsubishi i MiEV	2010	100	62	21,600	16	60-480	67	Global
Peugeot	Peugeot iOn	2010	150	93	17,850	15	60-360	67	Europe
Peugeot	Peugeot C- Zero	2010	150	93	17,850	15	60-360	67	Europe
Renault	Renault Twizy	2011	100	62	7,000	6	210	17	Europe
Renault	Renault Kangoo Z.E.	2011	170	106	20,300	22	360-540	60	Europe
Renault	Fluence Z.E.	2011	160	99	26,000	22	30-480	94	Global
Nissan	Nissan Leaf S	2011	135	84	26,400	24	60-300	107	Global
Nissan	Nissan Leaf SV	2011	172	107	30,900	30	60-300	107	Global
Tesla	Tesla Model S - 70D	2012	385	240	84,000	70	60	315	Global
Tesla	Tesla Model S - 90D	2012	460	288	98,500	90	60	373	Global
Ford	Ford Focus Electric	2012	122	76	26,540	23	215	130	US
Bolloré	Bolloré Bluecar	2012	200	124	19,000	30	360	68	France
Renault	Renault Zoe	2013	170	106	21,500	22	60-360	88	Europe
BMW	BMW i3	2013	135	84	35,000	19	60-300	170	US/Europe
VW	VW e-Up!	2013	120	75	27,000	19	60-480	82	Global
FCA	Fiat 500e	2013	140	87	29,100	24	240	111	US
GM	Chevy Spark EV	2013	130	81	23,600	19	60-420	140	US
Honda	Honda Fit EV	2013	130	81	32,700	20	180-720	75	Global
VW	VW e-Golf	2014	130	81	35,000	24	60-480	115	Global
Daimler	Mercedes B-Class ED	2014	200	124	39,200	28	144	179	US/Europe
Kia	Kia Soul EV	2014	160	99	28,000	27	60	111	Global
Nissan	Nissan e-NV200	2014	170	106	24,000	24	60-480	109	EU/Japan
Tesla	Tesla Model X	2015	350	217	80,000	70	60	328	Global
Announced/planned									
Hyundai	Honda Ioniq EV	Q3 16	250	155		28		120	Global
BMW	BMW i3 (upgrade)	2016	193	120		30			Global
Peugeot	Citroen e-Mehari	2016	100			30	480-780	48	France
GM	Chevy Bolt	2016/17	322	200	34,000	60		200	US
GM	Opel Ampera-E	2016/17	322	200		60		200	EU
Tesla	Tesla Model 3	2016/17	322	200	31,800	28			Global
VW	e-Golf (upgrade)	2016/17	174	108		31			Global
Daimler	Smart EV	2016/17							Global
VW	Porsche Mission E	2018	500	310			30	582	Global
VW	Audi e-tron quattro	2018	500	310					Global
Daimler	Mercedes B-Class ED (upg.)	2018							Global
Apple	Apple Car	2018							?
BMW	BMW i5 or i6	2019/20	500						Global
Daimler	Mercedes EV	2019/20	>400						Global
Renault	Low-cost EV for China	?							China
VW	Skoda EV	2019/20							?

Source: Manufacturer data, UBS

Figure 57: FCV line-up

OEM	Model name	Launch year	Range km	Range miles	Price (basic) €	Battery capacity kWh	Charging time mins	Engine HP	Market
<b>Available today</b>									
Toyota	Toyota Mirai	2014	500	310	57,500	-	-	150	Global
Hyundai	Hyundai ix35/Tucson FC	2015	600	370	65,450	-	-	136	Global
<b>Announced/planned</b>									
Honda	Honda Clarity FC	Q2 16	700	345	63,000				Japan
Daimler	Mercedes GLC SUV	2017							
Nissan	FCV	By 2017							
BMW	FC luxury sedan	2020							
Toyota	Lexus LF-FC	?							
VW	Audi h-tron quattro	?	600	373				150	

Source: Manufacturer data, media reports, UBS

## External cost estimates

Figure 58: External battery cost estimates (\$/kWh) reviewed for this report

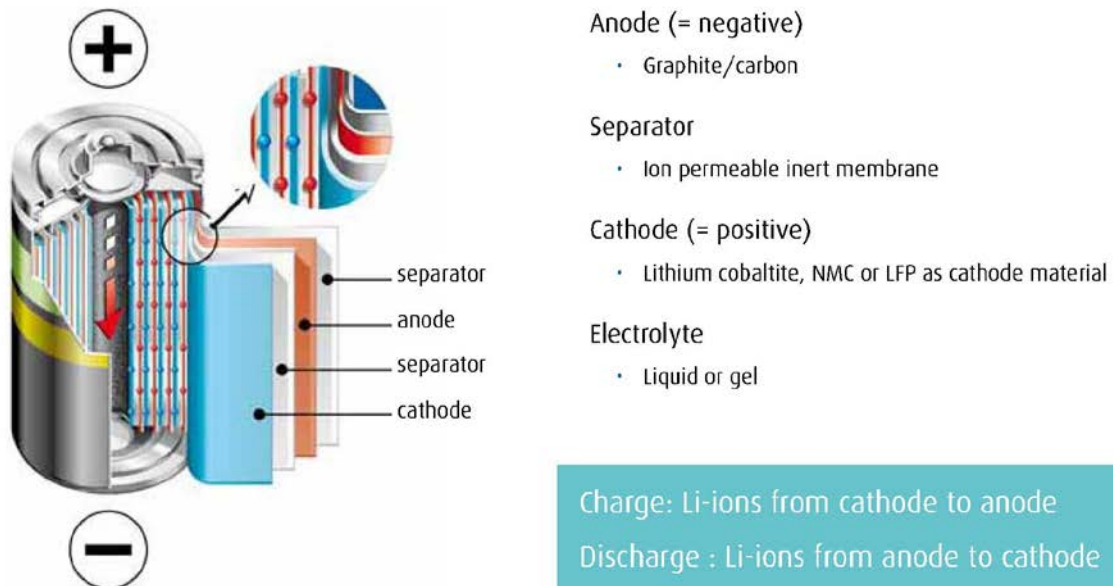
Total pack cost \$/kWh	Time of est.	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025
Tesla	2014					200- 300							150- 200					100
Tesla	2015												100					
GM	2015									145- 245			120		100			
Auto Electrification	2014						311- 361						208- 252					133- 155
US Dept. of Energy	2014					325	300								125			
MIT (Sakti et al.)	2014						190- 330											
MIT (Industry expert interviews)	2015							200- 300				170						
Stockholm Environment Institute	2015	600- 1250	410- 1100	400- 880	280- 820	280- 700	250- 500											
Umicore	2014	1100					360						200					
USABC (Industry)	2013												250					
Johnson Matthey	2012				500- 900													
Johnson Matthey	2015							300										
Bloomberg New Energy Finance	2015		950	800	650	550	500	350					200					
Argonne National Lab	2013					220- 360												
LG Chemical	2010		625															
Avicenne Energy	2015						500	400					250					
Australian Renewable Energy Agency	2014						550			300			200					
Advanced Automotive Batteries	2014					310	280	260	250	240	230	215	190		170			150
VTT Tech. Research Centre of Finland	2014							185- 215										

Source: Sources named in the table; UBS



## Deep dive into battery technology

Figure 59: Basic components of a lithium-ion battery cell

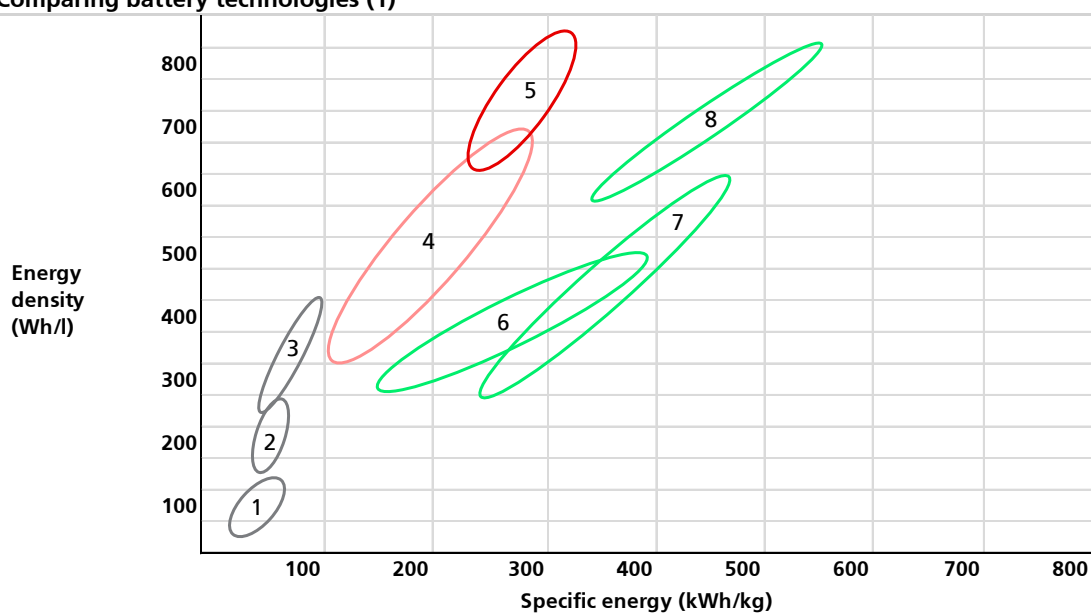


Source: Umicore

## Types of battery

The first generations of lithium-ion batteries came to market in 1991. The next generations are currently under development, but will most likely not be commercialised within the next 10 years. The following figures summarize the most important differences among existing and future battery technologies.

Figure 60: Comparing battery technologies (1)



Source: Johnson Matthey

**Figure 61: Comparing battery technologies (2)**

	Battery technology	Introduction	Use in cars
1	Lead Acid	~1930	Starting Lighting Ignition (SLI) - conventional car battery
2	Nickel Cadmium (mostly banned)	1956	-
3	Nickel Metal Hydride	1989	HEV - Mild and Full Hybrids (but also starting to use li-ion)
4	Conventional Li-ion	1991	PHEV
5	Next Gen Li-ion	~2005	EV
6	Li-Metal	Under development	
7	Li-Sulfur	Under development	
8	Zinc Air	Under development	

Source: EU regional development fund, JMAT, NSR E-Mobility

**Figure 62: Performance heatmap of different li-ion battery types (cathode materials)**

		Performance					Applications (status 2015)
		Energy	Power	Safety	Life	Cost	
LCO	Lithium cobaltite						Nissan Leaf, Chevrolet Volt, Renault Zoe Chevrolet Spark EV
LMO	Lithium manganese oxide						
LFP	Lithium iron phosphate						
NCA	Nickel cobalt aluminium						Tesla Model S
NMC	Nickel manganese cobalt						VW eUp, VW eGolf, BMW i3, Smart ED, Fiat 500

Source: Umicore, VTT

**Figure 63: Key attributes of different battery technologies**

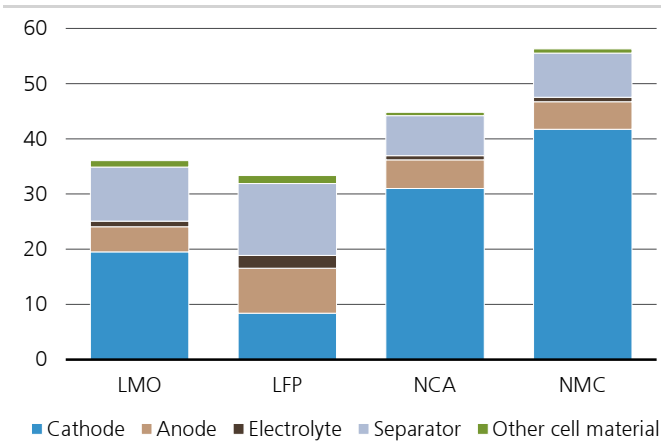
		Lithium-ion							
Attribute	Unit of measurement	Lead Acid	NiCad	NiMH	LCO	LMO	LFP	NCA	NMC
Cell Voltage	Volts	2	1.2	1.2	3.6	3.8	3.2	3.6	3.7
Specific Energy	Wh/kg	30-40	35-80	55-110	150-240	100-150	90-120	200-260	150-220
Energy Density	Wh/l	50-90	50-70	160-420	400-460	240-360	190-300	490-670	260-400
Power Density	W/kg	100-200	100-150	100-500	500-5000	500-5000	500-5000	500-5000	500-5000
Speed of discharge	Rate	6-10C	20C	15C	1C	3-10C	5-10C	2-3C / 1C	3-6C / 1-2C
Speed of charge	Rate				0.7-1C	0.7-1C	1C	0.7-1C	0.7-1C
Useful Capacity	Depth of Discharge %	50	50	50-80	>80	>80	>80	>80	>80
Charge Efficiency	%	60-80	60-80	70-90	>95	>95	>95	>95	>95
Self-Discharge	%Month	3-4	15-20	15-30	2-3	2-3	2-3	2-3	2-3
Temperature Range	°C	-40 to 60	-20 to 70	-20 to 65	-20 to 60	-20 to 60	-20 to 60	-20 to 60	-20 to 60
Cycle Life	# full cycles before capacity reaches <80%	200-400	300-1000	500-1000	500-1000	1000	1000-2000	500	1000-2000
Memory Effect		No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No
Micro-Cycle Tolerance		Poor	Poor	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Robustness (Over/under Voltage)		Yes	Yes	Yes	Needs BMS	Needs BMS	Needs BMS	Needs BMS	Needs BMS

Source: Johnson Matthey, Battery University

# Battery cost

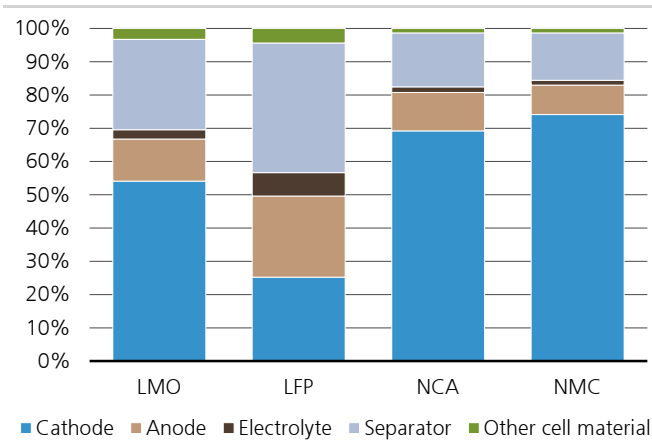
Below we analyze the raw material components of the cathode and their costs (at current raw material prices).

Figure 64: Battery materials cost (\$/kWh)



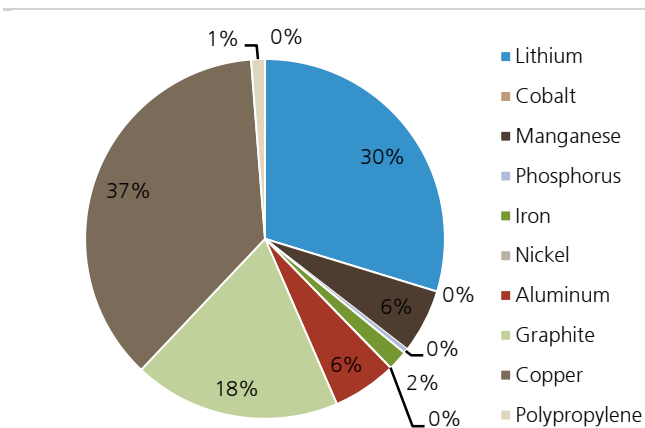
Source: UBS

Figure 65: Battery materials cost (% of total bill of mat's)



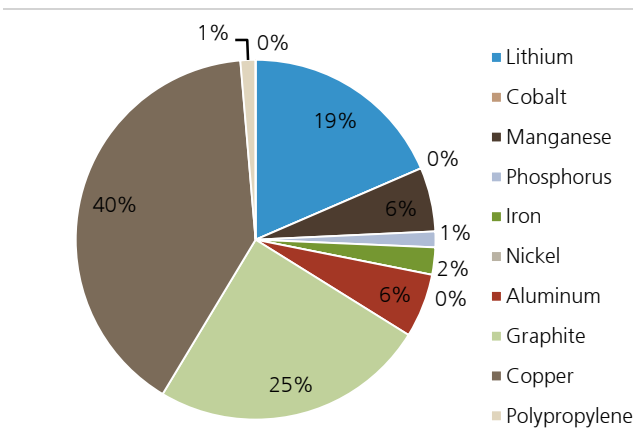
Source: UBS

Figure 66: Total active material bill of materials (LMO)



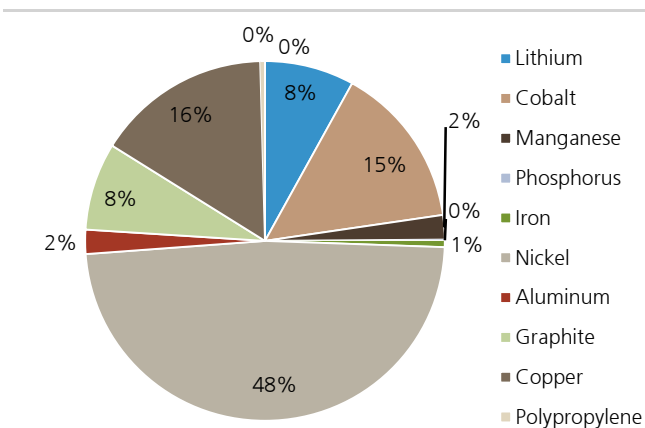
Source: UBS

Figure 67: Total active material bill of materials (LFP)



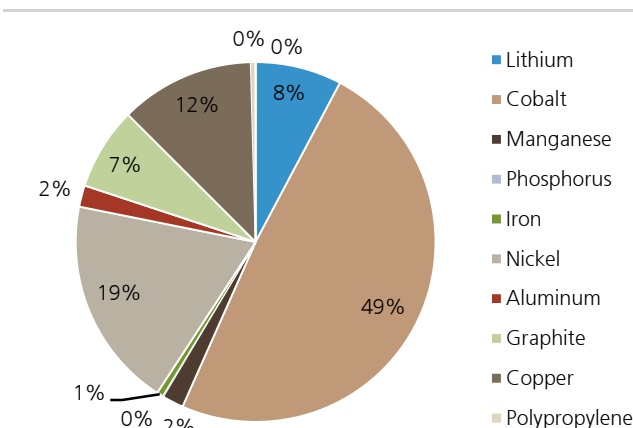
Source: UBS

Figure 68: Total active material bill of materials (NCA)



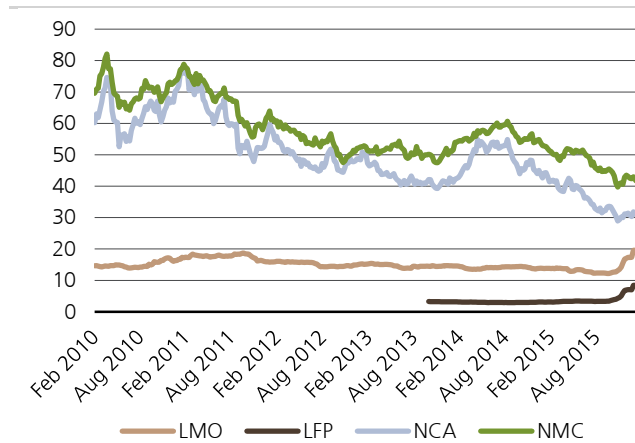
Source: UBS

Figure 69: Total active material bill of materials (NMC)



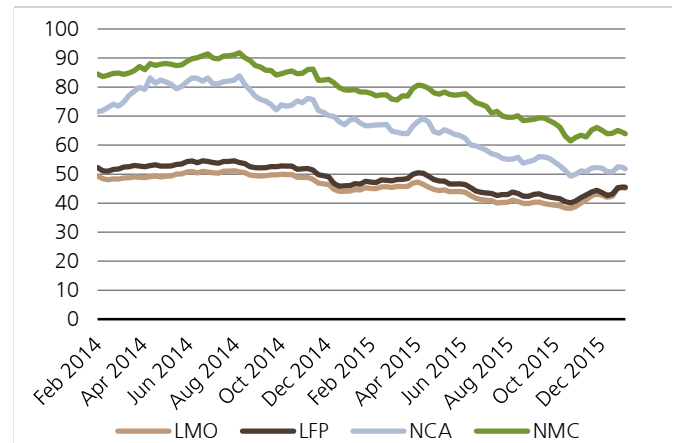
Source: UBS

**Figure 70: Li-ion cathode cost by technology (\$/kWh)**



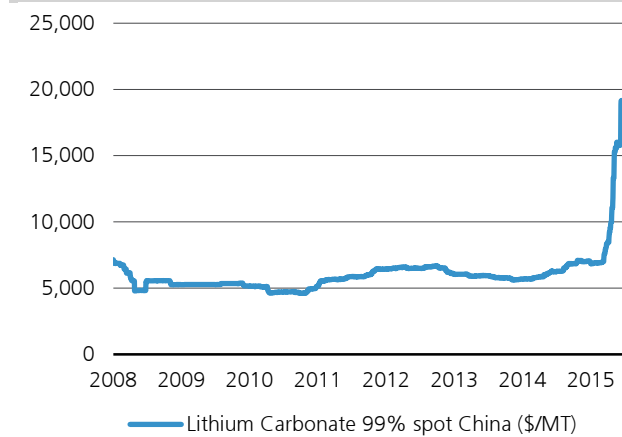
Source: Datastream, Bloomberg, UBS

**Figure 71: Li-ion total active cell material cost by technology (\$/kWh)**



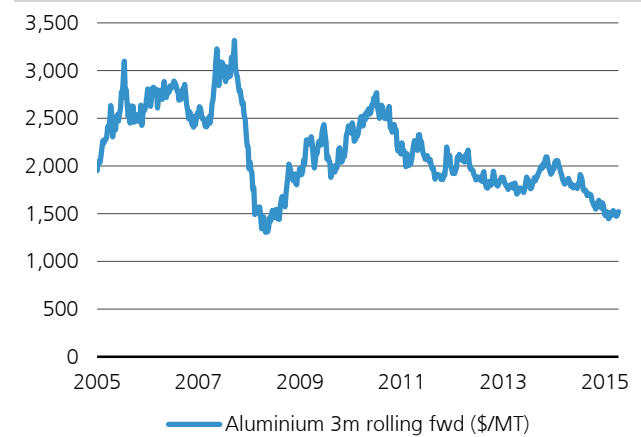
Source: Datastream, Bloomberg, UBS

**Figure 72: Lithium Carbonate 99% spot China (\$/MT)**



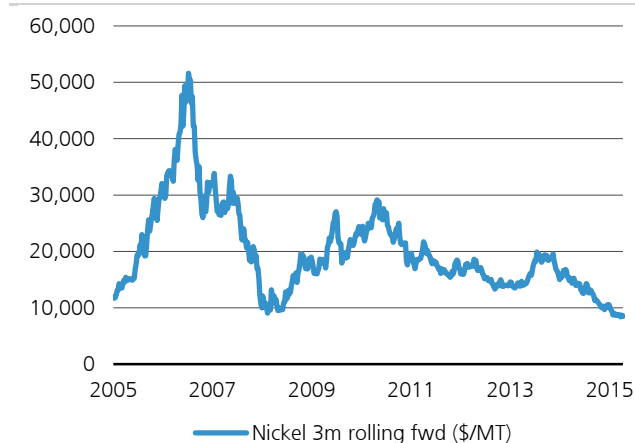
Source: Datastream

**Figure 73: Aluminium 3m rolling fwd (\$/MT)**



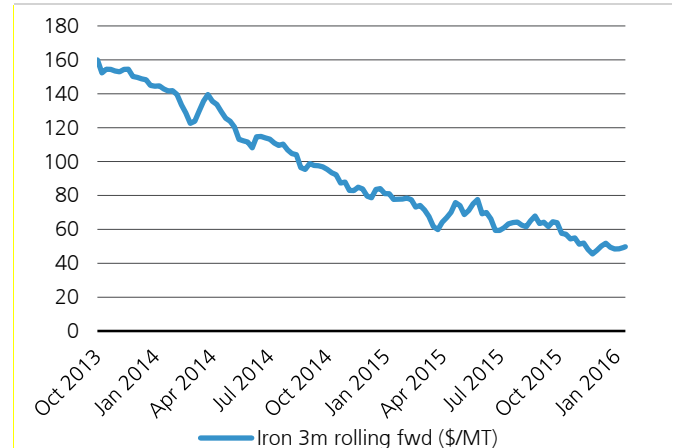
Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 74: Nickel 3m rolling fwd (\$/MT)**



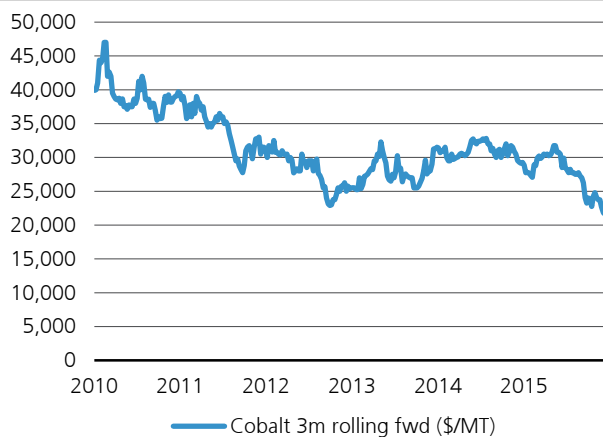
Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 75: Iron 3m rolling fwd (\$/MT)**



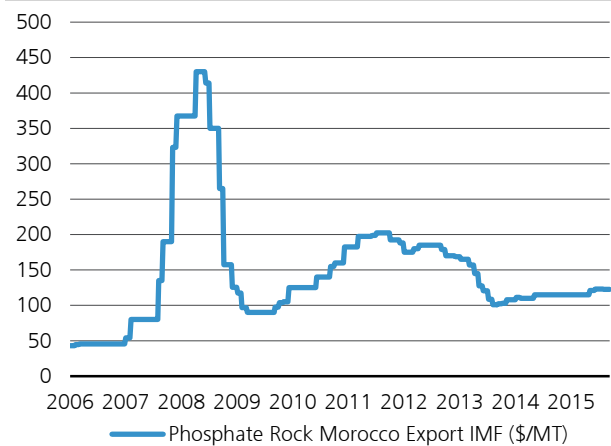
Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 76: Cobalt 3m rolling fwd (\$/MT)**



Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 77: Phosphate Rock Morocco Export IMF (\$/MT)**



Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 78: Manganese Spot (\$/MT)**



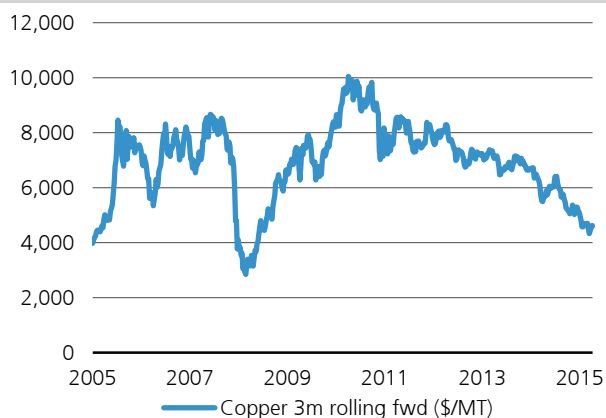
Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 79: Graphite Electrode H.P. Dia 400 (\$/MT)**



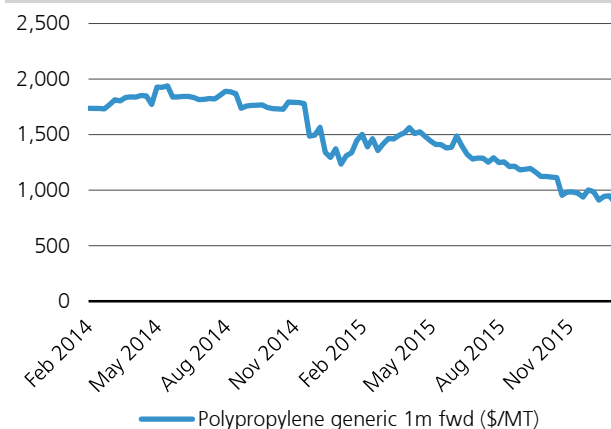
Source: Datastream

**Figure 80: Copper 3m rolling fwd (\$/MT)**



Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 81: Polypropylene generic 1m fwd (\$/MT)**



Source: Bloomberg

**Figure 82: Estimated raw material demand for 10m BEVs (25/75% NCA/NMC technology) vs. market size, current reserves and estimated resources**

Raw material	Demand ('000 Mt)	Market size (2014)	Reserves*	Estimated resources**	Demand in % of ...		
					Market	Reserves	Resources
Lithium	227	36	13,500	39,500	632%	1.7%	0.6%
Cobalt	394	112	7,200	25,000	352%	5.5%	1.6%
Manganese	1,015	18,000	570,000	Sufficient	6%	0.2%	0.0%
Phosphorus	202	220,000	67,000,000	300,000,000	0%	0.0%	0.0%
Iron	2,187	3,220,000	87,000,000	230,000,000	0%	0.0%	0.0%
Nickel	626	2,400	81,000	130,000	26%	0.8%	0.5%
Aluminum	271	49,300	65,000,000	Sufficient	1%	0.0%	0.0%
Graphite	874	1,170	110,000	800,000	75%	0.8%	0.1%
Copper	581	18,700	700,000	5,600,000	3%	0.1%	0.0%
Polypropylene	98	55,000	109,000	165,000	0%	0.1%	0.1%

Source: USGS, Ceresana, Wood Mackenzie, UBS

\* Reserves = Part of total resource that could be economically extracted or produced at the time of determination. (USGS)

\*\* Estimated resources = Resources whose location, grade, quality, and quantity are known or estimated from specific geologic evidence. (USGS)

# Lithium-ion battery production value chain

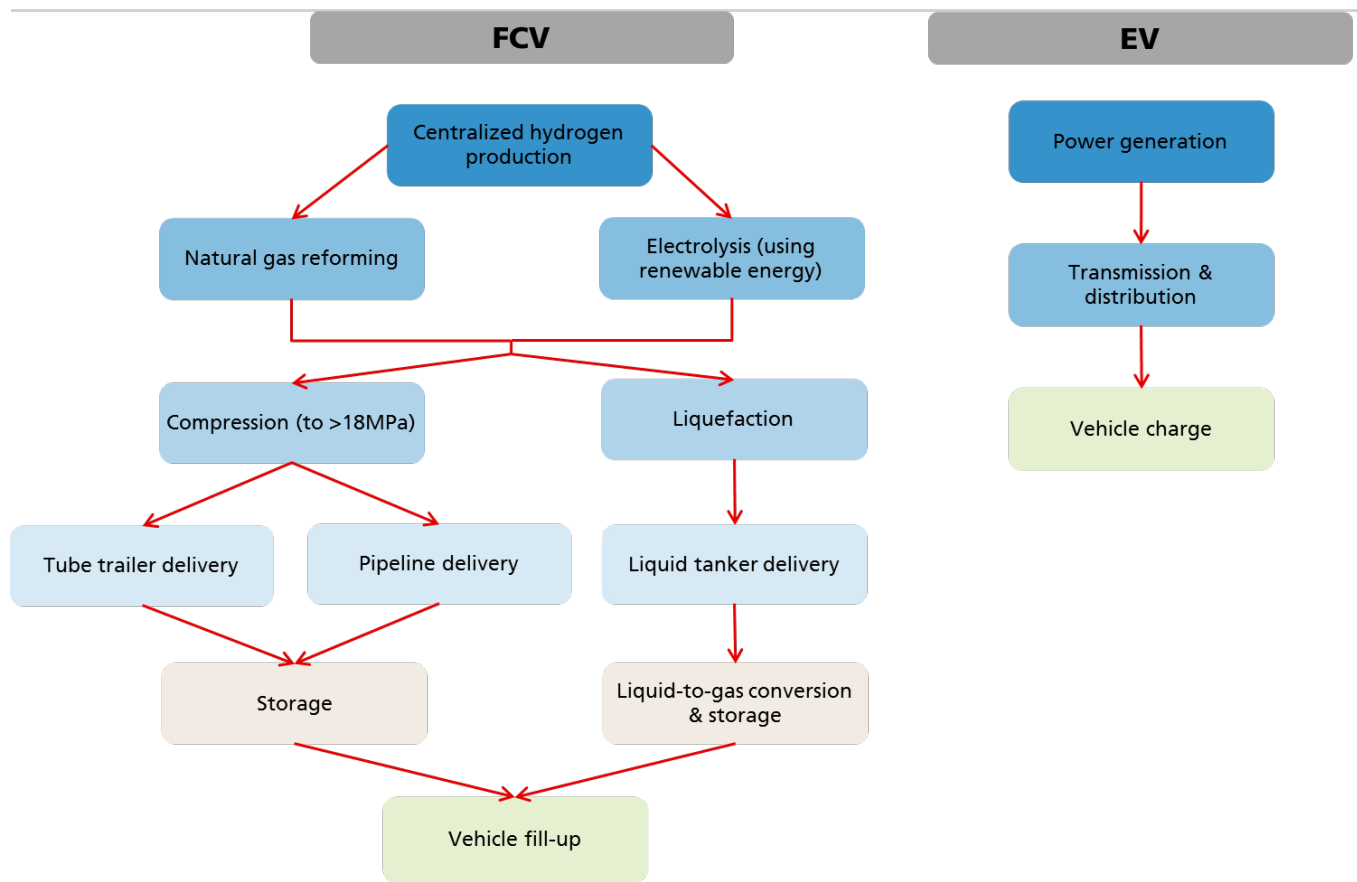
Figure 83: Lithium-ion battery production value chain – key players

			Active cell components				Cell assembly	Recycling
			Cathode	Anode	Electrolyte	Separator		
Total amount of supply in 2015			105k tons	57k tons	44k tons	695m <sup>2</sup>		
Total value of supply in 2015 (US\$m)			2,500	800	680	1,150		
Companies	Region	UBS coverage						
<b>Umicore</b>	<b>EU</b>	<b>X</b>	Leader					
Easpring	China							
Nichia	Japan							
Clariant	EU	X						
Shanshantech	China							
BASF	EU	X						
Dow-DuPont	US	X						
3M	US							
<b>Mitsubishi Chemical</b>	<b>Japan</b>	<b>X</b>		No. 2	No. 2			
Johnson Matthey	EU	X						
Samsung SDI	Korea	X	For own use	For own use				
<b>Hitachi</b>	<b>Japan</b>	<b>X</b>		Leader				
Nippon Carbon	Japan							
Shin-Etsu	Japan	X						
Envia	US							
<b>UBE Industries</b>	<b>Japan</b>				Leader			
Tokuyama	Japan							
Panax-Etec	Korea							
Jinnui	China							
Cap Chem	China							
Tomiyama	Japan							
<b>LG Chemical</b>	<b>Korea</b>	<b>X</b>					Leader	
<b>Asahi Kasei</b>	<b>Japan</b>	<b>X</b>				Leader		
<b>Toray</b>	<b>Japan</b>	<b>X</b>				No.2		
Arkema	EU	X						
Solvay	EU	X						
Evonik	EU	X						
Celgard	US							
Entek	US							
<b>Panasonic</b>	<b>Japan</b>						for Tesla	
<b>AESC</b>	<b>Japan</b>						for Nissan	

Source: Avicenne Energy, company data, UBS

## Hydrogen/power infrastructure chain

Figure 84: FCV versus BEV infrastructure chain



Source: UBS



## Model sensitivity analyses

Figure 85: Detailed sensitivity analysis – TCO versus oil price (2021E)

		Oil price (price/bbl)			
		Unit	US\$30	US\$75 (base case)	US\$120
(1) BEV-to-ICE TCO gap 2021E					
US	US\$		26%	21%	16%
Europe	€		6%	0%	-5%
China	CNY		8%	6%	4%
Japan	¥		15%	10%	5%
(2) TCO break-even battery cost					
US	US\$/kWh		55	75	95
Europe	€/kWh		127	159	191
China	CNY/kWh		813	910	975
Japan	¥/kWh		11,500	13,800	16,675
(3) Battery cost reduction (per kWh) versus today required to reach TCO parity between BEVs and ICE cars					
US	%		-82%	-75%	-65%
Europe	%		-49%	-36%	-22%
China	%		-55%	-49%	-45%
Japan	%		-64%	-56%	-47%
(4) UBS forecast for achievability of TCO parity					
US		New technology	New technology	New technology	
Europe		New technology	2021E	2019E	
China		New technology	2025E	2024E	
Japan		New technology	New technology	2025E	

Source: UBS estimates

Note: All values based on our 2021E assumptions as outlined in Figure 29 – sensitivities built only around oil differing oil prices.

## Valuation Method and Risk Statement

The automobile sector has in the past shown high levels of volatility in terms of profitability and valuation. Sector earnings and performance are highly sensitive to variations in volume, pricing, raw material costs and currency, all of which have been volatile recently. Long-term structural trends continue to improve as a result of higher demand in EM, early signs of sector concentration improving and structurally lower currency exposure, but near-term cyclical drivers have become more challenging after several years of strong earnings and share price performance. We are also concerned that in a macro recovery rising interest rates would become a material headwind for the industry. Below we list our valuation methods for each discussed stock in this report:

BMW	Average of a SOTP model and the cycle-average PE
Daimler	SOTP model, with target EV/EBIT multiples for each segment.
FCA	SOTP model
PSA	DCF valuation
Renault	DCF for core + DDM mid-point for associates
VW	SOTP model
Ford	4.5x multiple on 2016E EBITDA
GM	4x multiple 2016 EBITDA estimate
Tesla	DCF valuation
Nissan	FY17E PER of 8X
Honda	PBR of 0.75X
Toyota	PER of 10X normalized EPS in FY17E
Kia	6.8x 2016E PE and 2.9% dividend yield
Yutong Bus	DCF valuation
Jianghuai	DCF valuation
Autoliv	DCF valuation
Continental	DCF valuation
Faurecia	DCF valuation
Valeo	DCF valuation
Denso	15X FY16E PER
Lear	Blended 2016E EBITDA multiples
Delphi	Blended 2016E EBITDA multiples
Michelin	DCF/ROIC based PT
Nokian	DCF valuation
Umicore	DCF Valuation
Johnson Matthey	DCF and SOTP
Samsung SDI	12-month forward BV
LG Chemical	SOTP valuation

## Required Disclosures

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### UBS Investment Research: Global Equity Rating Definitions

12-Month Rating	Definition	Coverage <sup>1</sup>	IB Services <sup>2</sup>
Buy	FSR is > 6% above the MRA.	48%	36%
Neutral	FSR is between -6% and 6% of the MRA.	39%	28%
Sell	FSR is > 6% below the MRA.	12%	22%
Short-Term Rating	Definition	Coverage <sup>3</sup>	IB Services <sup>4</sup>
Buy	Stock price expected to rise within three months from the time the rating was assigned because of a specific catalyst or event.	<1%	<1%
Sell	Stock price expected to fall within three months from the time the rating was assigned because of a specific catalyst or event.	<1%	<1%

Source: UBS. Rating allocations are as of 31 December 2015.

1:Percentage of companies under coverage globally within the 12-month rating category.

2:Percentage of companies within the 12-month rating category for which investment banking (IB) services were provided within the past 12 months.

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Company Name	Reuters	12-month rating	Short-term rating	Price	Price date
<b>Autoliv</b> <sup>16</sup>	ALV.N	Sell	N/A	US\$109.69	08 Mar 2016
<b>BMW</b> <sup>7</sup>	BMWG.F	Neutral	N/A	€80.06	08 Mar 2016
<b>Continental</b>	CONG.DE	Buy	N/A	€194.45	08 Mar 2016
<b>Daimler</b>	DAIGn.DE	Buy	N/A	€65.05	08 Mar 2016
<b>Delphi Automotive Plc</b> <sup>16</sup>	DLPN.N	Neutral	N/A	US\$68.94	08 Mar 2016
<b>Denso</b> <sup>7</sup>	6902.T	Buy	N/A	¥4,403	09 Mar 2016
<b>Faurecia</b>	EPED.PA	Sell	N/A	€32.28	08 Mar 2016
<b>Fiat Chrysler</b> <sup>2, 4, 5, 6a, 7, 16</sup>	FCHA.MI	Neutral	N/A	€6.66	08 Mar 2016
<b>Ford Motor Co.</b> <sup>7, 16, 18a</sup>	F.N	Buy	N/A	US\$13.23	08 Mar 2016
<b>General Motors Company</b> <sup>6b, 6c, 7, 16, 18b</sup>	GM.N	Buy	N/A	US\$30.68	08 Mar 2016
<b>Honda Motor</b> <sup>16</sup>	7267.T	Neutral	N/A	¥3,110	09 Mar 2016
<b>Jianghuai Automobile</b>	600418.SS	Buy	N/A	Rmb10.01	09 Mar 2016
<b>Johnson Matthey</b> <sup>5, 7</sup>	JMAT.L	Neutral	N/A	2,572p	08 Mar 2016
<b>Kia Motors</b>	000270.KS	Buy	N/A	Won48,950	09 Mar 2016
<b>Lear Corporation</b> <sup>6c, 7, 16</sup>	LEA.N	Buy	N/A	US\$105.69	08 Mar 2016
<b>LG Chemical</b>	051910.KS	Neutral	N/A	Won296,000	09 Mar 2016
<b>Michelin</b>	MICP.PA	Buy	N/A	€86.61	08 Mar 2016
<b>Nissan Motor</b>	7201.T	Buy	N/A	¥1,077.0	09 Mar 2016
<b>Nokian</b> <sup>5</sup>	NRE1V.HE	Neutral	N/A	€29.04	08 Mar 2016
<b>Peugeot</b>	PEUP.PA	Neutral	N/A	€14.68	08 Mar 2016
<b>Renault</b> <sup>7</sup>	RENA.PA	Buy	N/A	€83.70	08 Mar 2016
<b>Samsung SDI</b> <sup>7</sup>	006400.KS	Neutral	N/A	Won99,900	09 Mar 2016
<b>Tesla Motors</b> <sup>16, 18c</sup>	TSLA.O	Sell	N/A	US\$202.60	08 Mar 2016
<b>Toyota Motor</b> <sup>7, 16</sup>	7203.T	Neutral	N/A	¥5,976	09 Mar 2016
<b>Umicore</b>	UMI.BR	Buy	N/A	€41.99	08 Mar 2016
<b>Valeo</b>	VLOF.PA	Buy	N/A	€132.30	08 Mar 2016
<b>Volkswagen Preference</b> <sup>7</sup>	VOWG_p.DE	Buy	N/A	€112.30	08 Mar 2016
<b>Zhengzhou Yutong Bus</b>	600066.SS	Buy	N/A	Rmb19.86	09 Mar 2016

Source: UBS. All prices as of local market close.

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