

This is the author's version of a work that was published in the following source:

Will, C.; Schuller, A. (2016).

[Understanding user acceptance factors of electric vehicle smart charging](#).

Transportation research / C, 71, 198-214. [doi:10.1016/j.trc.2016.07.006](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trc.2016.07.006).

Please note: Copyright is owned by the author(s) and / or the publisher. The commercial use of this copy is not allowed.

Understanding User Acceptance Factors of Electric Vehicle Smart Charging

Christian Will^b, Alexander Schuller^{a,*}

^a*FZI – Research Center for Information Technology,
Haid-und-Neu-Str. 10-14, 76131 Karlsruhe, Germany*

^b*Karlsruhe Institute of Technology,
Kaiserstr. 12, 76131 Karlsruhe, Germany*

Abstract

Smart charging has been the focus of considerable research efforts but so far there is little notion of users' acceptance of the concept. This work considers potentially influential factors for the acceptance of smart charging from the literature and tests their viability employing a structural equation model, following the partial least squares approach. For a sample of 237 early EV adopters from Germany our results show that grid stability and the integration of renewable energy sources are key motivational factors for acceptance of smart charging. In addition, the individual need for flexibility should not be impaired through charging control. Further well known influential factors like economic incentives do not seem to have a significant impact in the sample group under scrutiny. These and further findings should be taken into account by aggregators when designing attractive business models that incentivize the participation of early adopters and ease market rollout.

Keywords: electric vehicle, smart charging, acceptance, survey, structural equation modeling

*Corresponding Author

Email addresses: christian.will@partner.kit.edu (Christian Will), schuller@fzi.de (Alexander Schuller)

1. Introduction and Background

Electric Vehicles (EVs) have the potential to transform individual mobility habits and substantially reduce transport related emissions. In order to harness this potential EVs must be recharged with electricity from sustainable sources. Since these sources are predominantly volatile in their generation patterns, EVs as a flexible load must adapt their charging demand in such a way as to use the available energy for charging in a smart manner, while still fulfilling the mobility requirements of the EV user. Since EVs are quite a new technology in their current form, much attention is still devoted to the assessment of the technology as a whole and in particular to the technical components like the battery, that play a crucial role for range capabilities and economic prospects. Our work goes one step further and analyzes the consumer attitudes towards smart charging concepts.

1.1. Research Approach

Smart charging approaches have been under thorough investigation with respect to the employed mechanisms, the different objectives such as grid support or economic optimization and the overall effects in EV adoption scenarios in the context of smart grid research [1]. Most studies find beneficial effects that can be harnessed from shifting of charging times of EVs, ranging from the reduction of individual charging costs or emissions to enabling peak demand clipping and loss minimization in distribution grid settings.

However, most studies assume that users either participate fully on a voluntary basis or are part of a mandatory program in the corresponding charging coordination approach. This in turn neglects the fact that successful technology adoption is also determined by the acceptance of the users. In this context we want to address the following main research question: *How do users perceive control interventions in their charging behavior and what are the main factors driving the acceptance of smart charging programs?*

In order to answer these questions we perform a survey-based analysis directed at early adopters of EV technology. Our analysis encompasses the for-

mulation of a PLS-based structural equation model (SEM) which enables us to identify significant relationships between relevant factors of smart charging acceptance. Our results are based on a sample of 237 valid answers of EV early adopters from Germany.

35 *1.2. Background and Related Work*

One of the first to consider EVs as a flexible resource on the demand side in the power system for a contribution to peak load reduction was Heydt (1983) [2]. Since then a multitude of further work assessing the different possibilities for EV charging management and coordination has been performed. Most work is dedicated to assess the effect of shifting of charging times to fulfill a given technical or economic objective. This encompasses for instance distribution loss minimization options [3], cost minimizing purchase strategies given variable prices [4], power system cost impact assessments [5]), or renewable energy system integration abilities (e.g. balancing of wind generation [6]). Charging coordination, or "smart charging" can be performed in different control architectures. These can either be direct load control options of the grid operators or control by the owners of the EVs given a price incentive [7, 8]. Recently a hybrid form of both paradigms has been introduced and evaluated which consists of a hierarchical or mediated control architecture through the role of an aggregator [9, 10, 7]. EVs have also been evaluated as short term storage devices for the power grid and for the provision of ancillary services, which is known as vehicle-to-grid (V2G) [11]. These options were found to be slightly profitable even under consideration of battery degradation [12], but mostly do not account for uncertainty of grid availability and power price developments. All of these options, and in particular V2G, rely on the ability to control the charging process of the EV. This is one of the reasons why this study is further focusing on the acceptance of smart charging as a facet of demand response in the smart grid.

Table 1 gives an overview of related studies and the identified acceptance factors that were the focus of investigation in these papers. It can be observed, that most sources consider the impact of monetary incentives and their design

Table 1: Literature review and discussed influence factors for the acceptance of smart charging

Author(s)	Method	Monetary Incentives	RES - integration	Grid stability	Features	Customization	Flex. mobility need	Trust in institutions	Data privacy	Technological innovativeness	Eco values	EV - interest	Experience	Sample Size	V2G
[13]	review	+	o	o	(x)									-	x
[14]	review	+		(x)	(x)		(x)	(x)						-	x
[15]	focus groups	+	+		+	+	(x)							6	
[16]	van Westendorp	o												70	
[17]	discrete choice	+	+											1027	x
[18]	interviews	o	+			+	(x)			o				14	x
[19]	discrete choice	+	+	(x)			-				+			611	x
[20]	descriptive survey	(x)	+					o	(x)	(x)	+	+	+	3111	
[21]	discrete choice	(x)	(x)								(x)	(x)	(x)	1754	
[22]	focus group/interview	(x)	+				-				(x)			48/12	x
[23]	choice based conjoint	o	+											40	
[24]	descriptive survey	(x)	(x)	(x)				(x)		(x)	(x)			40	
this study	SEM	o	+	+	o	+	-		o	o	o	o	o	237	

Meaning of symbols: + = positive impact on acceptance; o = no effect; - = negative impact on acceptance; (x) = factor studied insufficiently; x = V2G studied

on the acceptance and effectiveness of smart charging [16, 15]. The ability of smart charging to support the integration of RES is assessed in most studies, e.g. in [13]. Grid stability is regularly addressed in the theoretical work mentioned above, but is not (yet) often investigated as a motivational aspect for smart charging in empirical studies. Further aspects, such as the trust in the involved institutions, are still under scrutiny and involve different national regulatory environments. The effects of reduced potential flexibility with respect to the mobility requirements is often considered since range anxiety is attributed to EV users [25].

Other studies focus more on the characteristics of EV users and their attitudes about the abilities of the battery rather than on the capability of the vehicle to shift its load according to a selected objective, cf. [21, 26, 27]. Recently one of the most comprehensive studies with respect to the current group of active EV users in Germany, their demographics, their driving behavior as well as an evaluation of the overall experience was conducted by [20]. This rather descriptive study has similarities to the presented work, in particular with respect to the characteristics of the participant sample, but it does not further investigate potential determinants for the successful implementation of smart charging. This is where our work contributes to guide further design decisions for smart charging regimes that take into account the experience and the

attitude of early adopters of EV technology. We thus consider in particular the design requirements of aggregators, grid operators and energy service companies that plan to offer a product which includes utility-influenced or smart charging.

2. Model, Methodology and Data

85 In this section we first formulate the main hypotheses with respect to influential factors for smart charging acceptance and secondly, derive the structural model for further analysis. Additionally, the survey characteristics and response data are described.

2.1. Structural Model

90 Most EV-owners have so far been unable to experience smart charging first hand and have thus no opportunity to adequately assess its potentials and risks. Due to this lack of conceptual experience in the target group, our work can not be solely based on popular and well-tested behavioral models, such as the *Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)* [28], the *Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)* 95 [29] or the *Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology* [30], which all hinge on users' hands-on experience with or at least clear understanding of a product and the consequential purchase or usage intention. We develop our own approach based on relevant parts of the theories mentioned before, thus following the suggestion of Mathieson (1991) [31] to combine models like TAM 100 and TPB in order to generate additional insights. We continue with the analysis in this way since our focus is not to explore the personal beliefs of the early adopter sample but their opinion on a theorized and currently abstract product. As our subject of inquiry is not sufficiently covered by the mentioned approaches, we have to develop our own constructs to gain understanding for 105 the smart charging concept in general, rather than one specific implementation and its interface. In consequence, our study has some exploratory character and should serve as basis for further analyses.

Since we want to assess a concept that is not in place yet we select early adopters of EV technology (cf. [32]) as primary target group for our survey.

110 Early adopters have at least some general understanding of the implications of
electrified individual transport in daily routines. Without this understanding,
an assessment of the particular acceptance for smart charging would necessitate
extensive additional explanations of the consequences, potentially leading to
biased survey results [33]. By putting the research focus on users with at least
115 basic experience with EVs, it can be assumed that there are less general concerns
about the technology of EVs as a whole. This allows a more detailed assessment
of the then relevant and influential factors for smart charging.

For the formulation of the model, we considered fundamental advantages and
disadvantages of the smart charging concept from the point of view of an EV-
120 owner. Theoretically, such advantages are a prospect of financial compensation
for the provision of flexibility and a contribution to grid stability [13, 34, 35].
Possible perceived disadvantages are a loss of flexibility in individual mobility
unfolding in additional planning and scheduling costs of trips. The application
of potentially distrusted technology and insecurity towards data privacy with
125 respect to mobility behavior are further possible disadvantages [20]. General
attitudes towards topics related to smart charging are a third field of interest
with potential links to the acceptance of the overall concept (cf. [36]).

The influential components of smart charging acceptance investigated here
were based on the literature, a focus group discussion and our own considera-
130 tions. In the following, the components are explained and modeled.

Monetary Incentives

Monetary compensation is often referred to as a key influential factor for
the acceptance of smart charging mechanisms (e.g.[14]). In the survey, we dis-
tinguish between a compensation via a discount on the rate per kWh (*discount*
135 *kWh-price*) and a *discount* to the monthly *base price* and ask for the respon-
dents minimum discount required for participation, expressed in percent of their
monthly electricity bill. We hypothesize, that a higher requested discount im-
plies less approval of the concept of smart charging and therefore a lower level
of acceptance. In consequence, the relationship between acceptance and the

140 requested discount percentage is assumed negative (H1, H2).

System Effects

Additional advantages of smart charging comprise the integration of renewable energy sources (*RES-integration*), such as wind power or photovoltaics, via shifting of charging times (H3). This can lead to improved *grid stability* in
145 times of high RES-generation, especially in low-voltage distribution grids [35]. A positive perception of these advantages is hypothesized to result in a high acceptance for the concept of smart charging and thus a positive relationship is assumed (H4). Grid stability is a technical concept that manifests itself on the consumer-side through an increased security of supply for all consumers, which,
150 from an economic point of view, is a common good. In particular high power loads like EVs have to be integrated efficiently in the distribution grids to keep the established level of security of supply. This aspect is therefore included in the analysis since it is one of the most important reasons for a smart charging program from the perspective of an aggregator or utility company.

155 *Usability*

Moving to potential disadvantages of smart charging, we first address the usability of the system from a conceptual perspective. It is hypothesized, that the *perceived risk* of smart charging, i.e. the risk that the participation in such a program leads to potential losses (like reduced operational range), reduces
160 acceptance (H5). The influence of an increased need for flexible mobility (*flex. mobility-need*) is also assumed to have a negative impact on acceptance of smart charging (H6). Furthermore, we offer a number of control parameters to be transmitted to a possible smart charging operator, such as planned departure time or minimum range. The survey participants were asked to state which
165 parameters or features they require for trusting a charging scheme. A high number of these *features* represents little confidence in the scheme and therefore leads to less acceptance of smart charging (H7). This relation does not infer a linear relationship between the sole number of the features and the confidence

in the scheme, but also captures how much transparency and individual control
170 on the charging management scheme is desired by the user. Another hypothesis
assumes a positive influence of a high demand for *customization* functionalities
on the acceptance level. We refer to customization in this context as automation
technology enabled charging decision support and the application of machine
learning techniques to simplify the coordination of reoccurring charging patterns
175 at known locations. This customization of the smart charging process should
support a regular usage and thus acceptance (H8).

Data Privacy

Another influential factor for the acceptance of smart charging, could be *data
privacy*. It is often stated, that smart charging operators are able to deduct
180 mobility patterns from the supplied information [20]. We thus hypothesize a
negative influence of a respondents general data privacy concerns on acceptance
(H9).

General Attitudes

A final group of hypotheses concerns general attitudes with potential rel-
185 evance to smart charging, which the literature often associates with affinity
towards electric vehicles. First, the survey directly tests the early adopters'
general interest in electric mobility (*EV-interest*, H10). According to Egbue
and Long 2012 [37], people with a tendency to buy new products and to be
among the first to try out innovative technologies are more likely to favor EVs.
190 With measuring respondents' *technological innovativeness* (H11) we test if such
interests can promote acceptance of smart charging. Similar arguments can be
made for testing the influence of respondents' attitude towards a sustainable
lifestyle (*eco values*, H12) [38]. Practical *EV-experience* (H13) has a positive
effect on EV-acceptance [39] and could therefore also influence users' opinion
195 of intelligent charging schemes. Positive influences on the acceptance of smart
charging are assumed for all four hypotheses H10-13. They can also be used to
assess sample fit with the early adopter target group. Figure 1 summarizes the

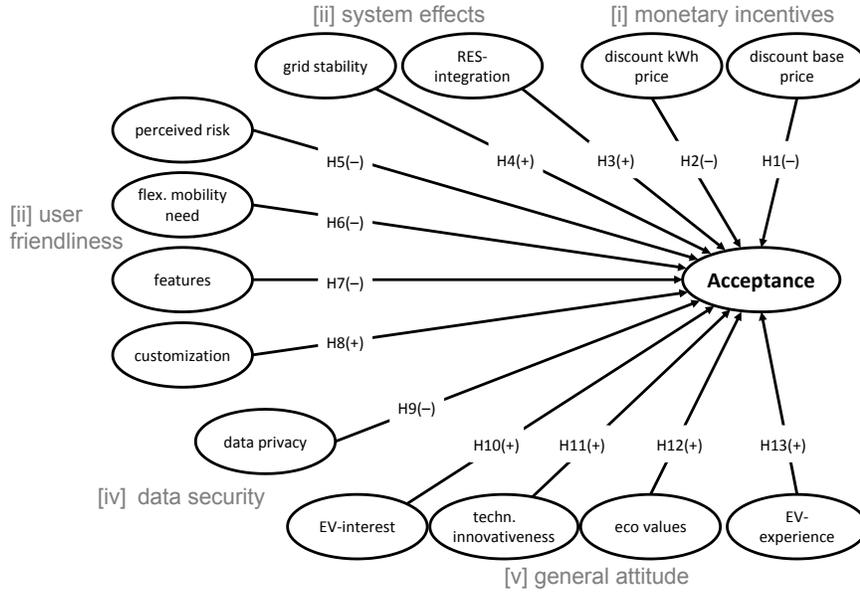


Figure 1: Structural model and hypotheses

hypotheses.

2.2. Methodology: Partial Least-Squares

200 The goal of this investigation is to discover and quantify causal dependencies between the discussed constructs in order to discern their influence on the acceptance of smart charging. For such an analysis of latent variables, structural equation models (SEM) are often used to explore theorized relationships [40]. The hypotheses as depicted in Figure 1 represent the structural model of the

205 SEM-analysis. The measurement model is described in Table 2. Due to the relatively high number of formative constructs, we do not apply the *covariance analysis* but perform an *analysis of variance* according to the *Partial-Least-Squares approach* [41, 42, 43]. This approach is superior for formative constructs and for newly proposed models and allows us to correctly map the relations for these

210 individual constructs [44]. This way, we do not bias the indicator / variable relationship but cannot apply the same set of quality criteria to assess the global model fit as compared to models consisting only of reflective constructs [45]. A

further in-depth discussion of the validity and robustness of the employed PLS approach will be performed in Section 3.

215 2.3. Survey Design and Operationalization

The survey design is based on items and scales from literature and from questions directly related to the measured construct. Participants first were shortly briefed about the survey procedure and also received a clear definition of the terms "electric vehicle" (EV) and "plug-in hybrid electric vehicle" (PHEV) in
220 the context of this work. In the next step participants were asked about their overall experience with driving a vehicle (electric or conventional). Respondents stating that they had no or little driving experience or no driving license were excluded from further analysis. All other participants were guided through the survey dependent on their experience level with EVs. In particular EV owners,
225 people with regular, occasional and isolated EV experience were first directed to the item group measuring their EV-interest, followed by questions regarding technological innovativeness and eco values. Following this, a short introduction of the smart charging concept and the role of the aggregator was given (cf. Figure 2). This description included a diagram about the possible organization of
230 smart charging and a short list of potential advantages and disadvantages (with a balanced number of arguments on each side). The next group of questions referred to monetary incentives, system effects, user friendliness, data privacy and finally acceptance. The survey closed with further demographic questions and a free comment box. Finally, information were given for a lottery in which
235 participants could obtain one of eight Amazon vouchers in value of 20 EURO. Overall the survey encompassed between 26 and 30 questions requiring 60 to 66 assessments from the participants.

For the operationalization of the hypotheses, this work largely refers to existing and well tested scales from marketing research. [46] and [47] were especially
240 helpful for the constructs of general attitudes, despite necessary translations into German language or adaptations to a theoretical concept. For most other constructs, however, new indicators had to be created but were often based

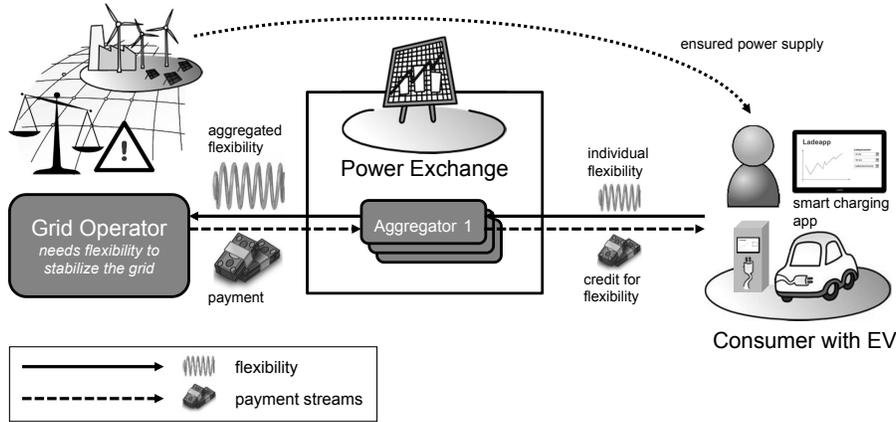


Figure 2: Translated scenario description displayed in the survey

on existing literature. The questions were phrased in an easily understandable fashion and from the point of view of the participant in order to ensure a simpler approach and understanding towards this rather abstract topic.

Since we aimed at a concise survey and due to the refinements from the pretest, the constructs for EV-experience, the monetary discounts and the number of features were measured directly. All others constructs were measured by five-point likert scales. Some items were inverted for validity testing. For some constructs, such as *grid stability*, it was necessary to assess different aspects of the respective factor (e.g. opinions on limiting power line construction or contribution to fewer power outages) which as a whole contribute to a factor's measurement. A respondent's positive valuation of *RES-integration* could e.g. originate from general concerns for the climate or a wish to reduce their carbon footprint. Respondents will also have differing appreciations of *customization*-possibilities based on their personal experience with a range of abilities from stored input-profiles to machine learning. By assessing these constructs with formative measurement models their various aspects can be efficiently covered without complicating the structural model with theorized hidden reflective constructs.

For the reflective constructs *flex. mobility need* and *data privacy* we could

Table 2: Overview of measurement models

Hypothesis	Construct	Composition	# of indicators	Source
H1	discount base price	direct	1	-
H2	discount kWh-price	direct	1	-
H3	RES-integration	formative	4	-
H4	grid stability	formative	6	-
H5	perceived risk	reflective	3	[49]
H6	flex. mobility-need	reflective	3	-
H7	features	direct	1	-
H8	customization	formative	3	-
H9	data privacy	reflective	5	-
H10	EV-interest	reflective	3	[49]
H11	techn. innovativeness	reflective	5	[50, 51]
H12	eco values	reflective	4	[52]
H13	EV-experience	direct	1	-
-	acceptance	reflective	2	[48]

not rely on established literature. In consequence we developed a range of items and used the pretest to their improvement. Reliability testing lead to further refinement of the measurement models.

265 The central construct *acceptance* was modeled in accordance with van der Laan et al. 1997 [48]. They propose a simple measurement scale of acceptance based on nine mirrored semantic differentials. Leaning on the Technology Acceptance Model, this scale assesses the usefulness of and satisfaction with the concept in question, which represent the two indicators of the acceptance-
270 construct.

Additionally, the participants were asked about their EV-behavior and demographics¹. Table 2 summarizes the characteristics of the measurement models.

¹The complete questionnaire is available in German and English upon request to the corresponding author.

2.4. Survey Implementation and Sample Data

275 After a small pretest with 26 valid responses for improvements on composition and appearance, the survey went live for a period of 22 days in January and February 2015. It took roughly twelve minutes to complete. The link to the survey was distributed mainly through German EV-associations and EV-newsletters, who agreed to share it with their members and subscribers. Around
280 19,100 addressees received the survey-link via these channels. It is, however, probable that the number of actual individuals is lower, since respondents may have been contacted through multiple channels. Addressees who had subscribed to multiple newsletters or take part in more than one organization were contacted multiple times and may therefore be overrepresented in the sample. This
285 potential self-selection bias is ameliorated by our scope to address early adopters.

A total of 346 responses were collected, 270 (78%) of which were complete and therefore valid input for the model². After filtering for respondents with insufficient EV-experience (seven respondents with very little driving experience or without driver's licence), plausibility (four answers with inconsistent
290 answers to manipulation checks), too fast (19 answers completed in less than eight minutes or less than 45 seconds spent on reading the smart charging introduction) or obviously incorrect answers (three respondents explicitly stated to have answered incorrectly), 237 valid responses form the basis for the following analysis.

295 With only 24 of these 237 respondents registering as female (10%), the sample is not representative of the German population but nevertheless typical for early adopters of electric mobility. Almost one third of the sample are between 26 and 35 years old, 76% between 26 and 55. 76% of the respondents are working full-time, 8% still in education and 7% retired. This and the high education
300 level (79% with university degree) lead to relatively high average monthly incomes per household between 2601 and 4000€ for 25% of the sample and 4001

²Complete data was needed for a consistent evaluation of each individual construct. Therefore every question that directly included measurement models was mandatory.

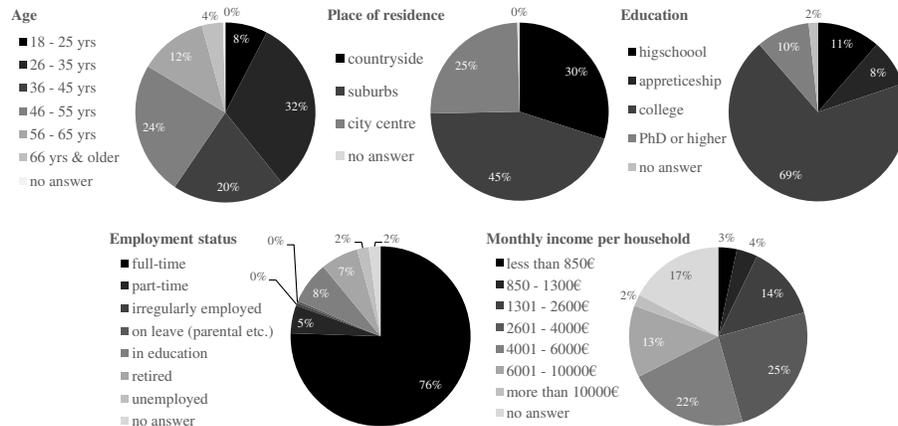


Figure 3: Demographics of sample

and 6000€ for another 22%. With 45% the largest share of respondents lives in suburbs of larger cities, 30% in rural areas and 25% in urban areas. Figure 3 summarizes the demographic information of the sample. A further comparison of our sample with the largest descriptive study on EV owners in Germany from [20] shows that early adopters are characterized in a very similar way. Frenzel et. al (2015) also observe a sample that encompasses 89% male participants, 70% working full time, with a median age of 51 years and 15% being retirees. The sample in our study is slightly different in this case since we only observe 7% to be already retired. The place of residence is also resembling since 66% of the sample in Frenzel et. al (2015) live in small or medium sized cities while 45% of our sample live in suburbs. Residents from rural areas are potentially overrepresented in our study, but since the categories are not comparable in detail we can still see a convincing resemblance in nearly all relevant indicators of our sample with this largest yet presented study in this field.

In conclusion, the sample displays satisfactory compatibility with definitions of early adopters by [32] and [36]. According to [53] the sample size is sufficient for a PLS-analysis with the proposed model.

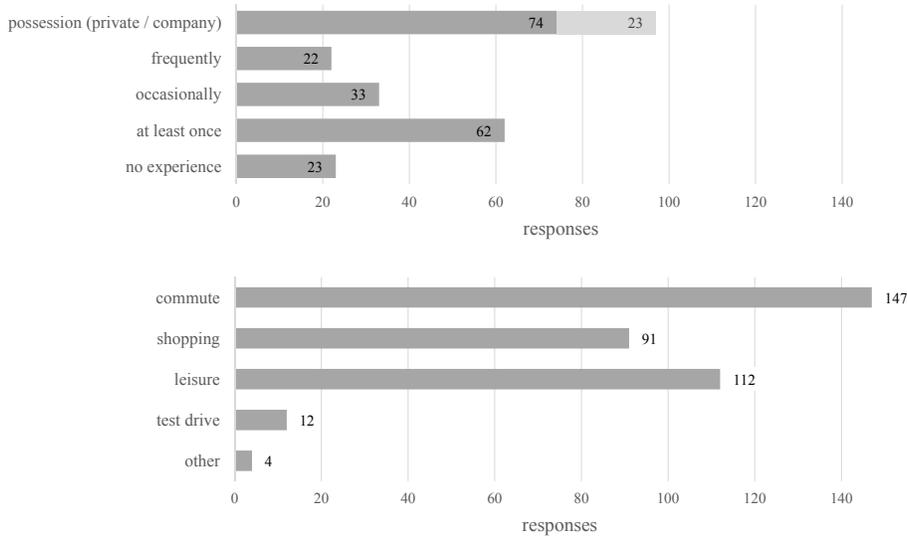


Figure 4: EV-experience in the sample (top), primary EV use (bottom, n=214)

3. Evaluation

320 In this section we give an empirical evaluation of relevant sample data. In the following SEM analysis, the modeling results are discussed under consideration of the respective quality criteria.

3.1. Empirical Evaluation

Electric Mobility Behavior

325 41% of the sample (n=237) own an EV (31% private, 10% company car), making this the largest experience group. Another 26% have driven an EV at least once. Only 10% of the sample have no personal experience with EVs. These results indicate adequate experience with EVs for this early adopter sample. Respondents with at least some experience were asked about their EV-usage
 330 (n=214). Most respondents use EVs for commuting (69%) while leisure (52%) and shopping (43%) are additional important use-cases. Figure 4 displays the absolute empirical results for these two aspects of EV-behavior.

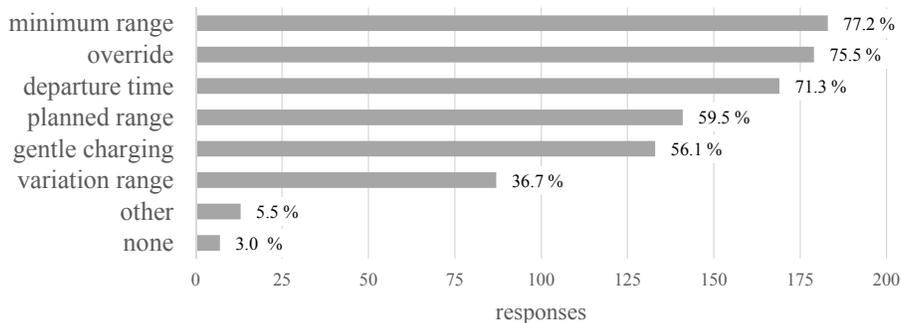


Figure 5: Requested features for the smart charging application sorted by frequency of request (n=237)

Features

When asked to point out the features which they expect in a smart charging system, most respondents request an option to submit a minimum range (77%). The average minimum range requested in the sample is 70km (median 50km). The ability to override the smart charging process and charge directly is another feature in high demand (76%) as well as the submission of a planned time of departure (71%). Other than the minimum range, 60% of respondents opt to submit a planned range which serves as an upper threshold beyond which no additional battery charge is necessary. Gentle charging for a prolonged battery life is specifically requested by 56%. Another 37% consider a variation range around their arrival time as useful. Only 3% of the sample do not request any features at all. Respondents also request options for both, the use of self-produced electricity from e.g. PV and V2G-functionalities. Figure 5 displays the empirical observations for this question.

Demanded Compensation

In the literature monetary incentives are one of the primary drivers for participation in a smart charging scheme (cf. Table 1). By providing a short calculation example on the ensuing savings to allow for easier evaluation and to provide a frame of reference, we asked respondents about their discount expectations for the two price components of a classic electricity tariff used for

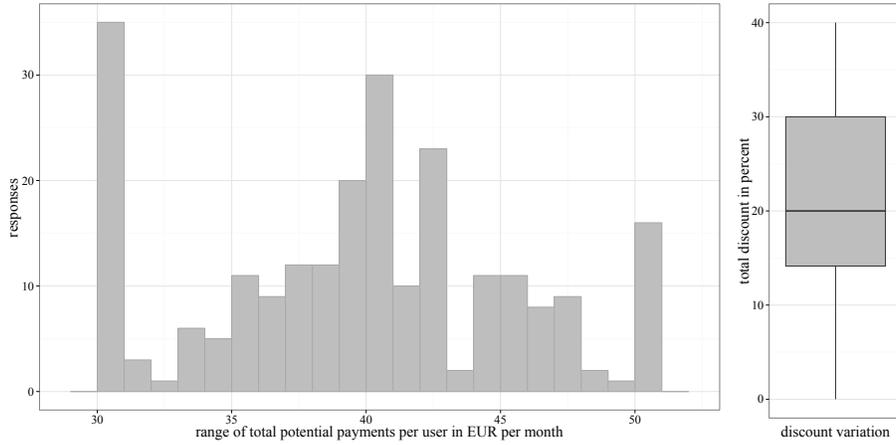


Figure 6: Distribution of responses of potential total monthly payments based on the given example (15.000 km/year at 12.7 kWh/km) in the survey (left) and the variation of the demanded overall discount (right)

charging. Figure 6 gives a detailed account of the answers. In general, high discounts are requested and average around 20% rebate³ for both price components. If one considers the potential payments per month given the calculation example, the majority of users would request a discount. On the other hand there is a substantial number of respondents that do not prefer a discount at all. Further dedicated analyses with a focus on the estimation of the economic valuation of charging time flexibility should therefore be conducted.

360 *Acceptance*

Focal point of this analysis, Figure 7 displays the variation of the empirical results for the two indicators "usefulness" and "satisfaction" of the construct *acceptance*. The median is considerably higher for "usefulness" than it is for "satisfaction". About 60% of the sample appraise "usefulness" at an average score of 4 or higher whereas only 37% rate "satisfaction" at a similar level. Together, average evaluations are towards the positive end of the scale which indicates substantial approval of the concept of smart charging. However, "use-

³The answer "more than 30%" was included in the calculation with a discrete value of "40%".

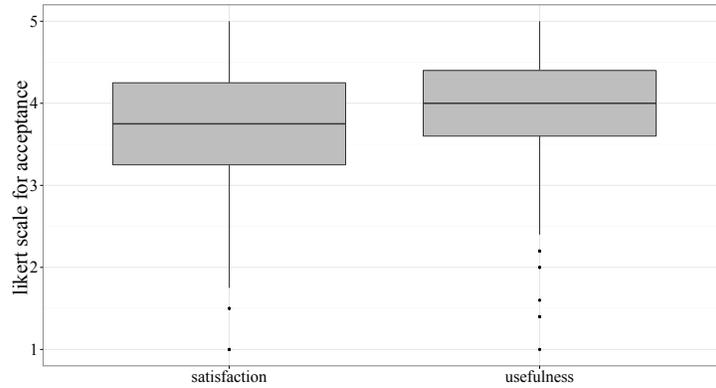


Figure 7: Empirical results for the variation of acceptance of smart charging based on statements on satisfaction and usefulness on a five point likert scale.

fulness” is appraised more positive than ”satisfaction”, indicating that smart charging is indeed seen as a valid concept but so far lacks optimal implementation.

370

3.2. SEM Results

The core of this work is an extensive SEM analysis on the factors driving smart charging acceptance. The modeling results are discussed in the following with regard to their statistical robustness.

3.2.1. Modeling Results

375

The PLS algorithm reached a solution after seven iterations with a threshold of 10^{-7} . Results are displayed in Figure 8 and Table 3.

380

The analysis yields the constructs *grid stability* ($\beta = 0.380; t = 4.743; p < 0.01$), *RES-integration* ($\beta = 0.214; t = 3.250; p < 0.01$) and *flex. mobility-need* ($\beta = -0.147; t = 2.331; p < 0.05$) as the only (strongly) significant influencing factors of acceptance of smart charging. The relationship between the construct *customization* and *acceptance* is only weakly significant ($\beta = 0.117; t = 1.846; p = 0.065$), while none of the remaining constructs can make a statisti-

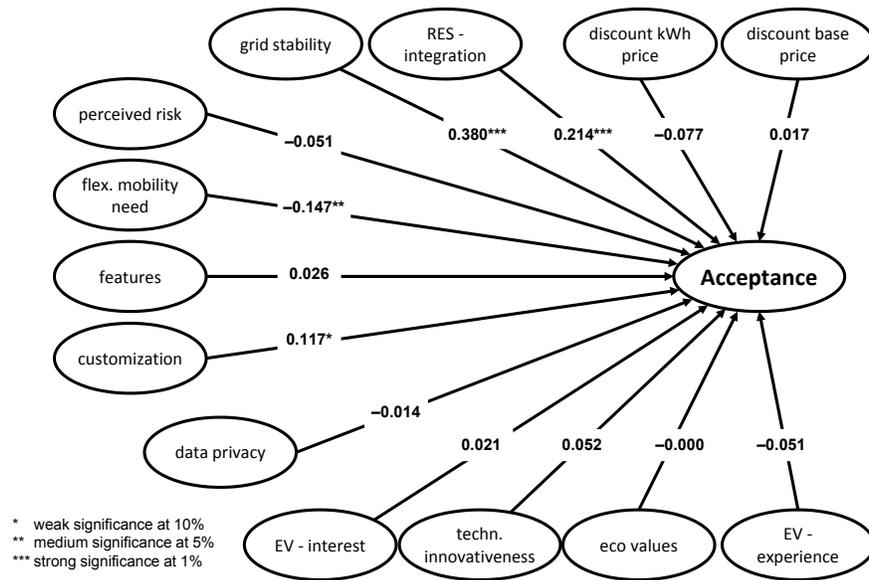


Figure 8: Results of the SEM analysis

Table 3: Detailed results of the SEM analysis

Construct	Hypothesis	tot.Effect	t-Value	p-Value	f-Value	q-Value
discount base price	H1(-)	0.017	0.344	0.731	0	-0.002
discount kWh price	H2(-)	-0.077	1.421	0.155	0.009	0.001
RES-integration	H3(+)	0.214	3.250	0.001	0.057	0.042
grid stability	H4(+)	0.380	4.743	0	0.144	0.107
perceived risk	H5(-)	-0.051	0.983	0.326	0.005	0
flex. mobility need	H6(-)	-0.147	2.331	0.020	0.029	0.027
features	H7(-)	0.026	0.541	0.589	0.001	-0.004
customization	H8(+)	0.117	1.846	0.065	0.022	0.020
data privacy	H9(-)	-0.014	0.302	0.762	0	-0.004
EV-interest	H10(+)	0.021	0.462	0.644	0.001	-0.002
techn. innovativeness	H11(+)	0.052	1.122	0.262	0.005	0.002
eco values	H12(+)	0	0.013	0.990	0	-0.002
EV-experience	H13(+)	-0.051	1.088	0.277	0.005	0.003

cally noteworthy contribution⁴. The R^2 -value for *acceptance* of 0.560 indicates
385 a good model fit. Global model quality is satisfying with $SRMR = 0.060$.
According to the f^2 values in Table 3 the four significant constructs do have
noticeable individual effects on *acceptance* and significantly contribute to the
predictive value⁵ of $Q^2 = 0.483$, another sign towards promising overall model
fit. These numbers indicate that *grid stability*, *RES-integration* and *flex. mobil-*
390 *ity need* (as well as *customization* in part) do contribute strongly to acceptance
of smart charging, even though limited significance of a number of potentially
influential factors shows that the model can benefit from further refinement in
future work.

3.2.2. Quality Criteria: Identifiability, Reliability and Validity

395 In accordance with [40] the overall identifiability of the model is guaranteed
(749 degrees of freedom). The reflective measurement models are identifiable
due to the Rule of three [54], the directly measured constructs are identifiable
by definition. Due to the sequential approach in regression analyses in PLS,
identifiability of formative constructs is given naturally [45].

400 An analysis of multi-normal distribution of the sample data would be neces-
sary for the application of a Maximum-Likelihood approximation in a covariance
analysis. However, such an analysis shows, that the sample data is non-normally
distributed (possibly due to high coherency of the target group), further sup-
porting the use of the variance analysis.

405 To put the model results into perspective, we performed an extensive quality
analysis. Reflective measurement models were analyzed for their unidimension-
ality, reliability and validity. An exploratory factor analysis of the reflective
items yielded $KMO = 0.784$ and a Bartlett-test with $p = 0.000$. The Kaiser-
criterion was met by all reflective factors, indicating unidimensionality. Indi-
410 vidual KMO-values and communalities of *perceived risk*, *flex. mobility-need* and
data privacy indicate a slight need for indicator improvement in future work (cf.

⁴T-test results from Bootstrap-algorithm implemented in *SmartPLS 3.0*.

⁵Values from Blindfolding-procedure implemented in *SmartPLS 3.0*.

Table 4 to 6 and in the Section 5).

Reliability testing yielded Cronbach's Alphas greater 0.5 for all constructs indicating construct reliability. Internal consistency measured by corrected item-to-total-correlation was again not entirely satisfactory for the constructs *perceived risk*, *flex. mobility-need* and *data privacy*. Analysis of second generation criteria, i.e. Described Variance, factor reliability and AVE, lead to satisfactory reliability results for all reflective constructs.

Discriminance validity was assured through an analysis of the average variance extracted (AVE). The Fornell/ Larcker-criterion holds for all constructs. Convergence validity was assured, as the factor loadings in a confirmatory factor analysis are non-zero and significant for all reflective constructs.

Different to reflective measurement models, quality analysis of formative measurement models cannot be based on correlation analysis since formative items should cover the whole thematic reach of a construct. An assessment of test-retest reliability was impossible due to the survey design. All formative indicators are non-collinear with $VIF < 5$, allowing for the application of variance analysis.

With strongly significant correlations between indicators and their constructs (cf. Section 5), indicator validity is assured. An assessment of construct validity is only possible through the approximation of the entire model. All three formative constructs *grid stability*, *RES-integration* and *customization* show sufficient significance and support their respective hypotheses.

To conclude, our model achieves good global model fit and validity. Merely the reliability of some reflective measurement models requires some refinement in further analyses.

4. Discussion

In this section the individual hypotheses of the SEM analysis will be discussed and critically reflected upon. We then further discuss the implications of the acceptance or the rejection of the formulated hypotheses for the given

sample.

Hypothesis H1 assumed that a higher requested base price would decrease the acceptance for participation in a smart charging scheme. According to the SEM results, the total effect is not significant and H1 must therefore be
445 rejected. Since the survey participants could explore the effect of different base price discount steps in the survey they could also explore the total effect of this price element. Despite the empirical mean of nearly 20% demanded discount (cf. Figure 6), the overall impact of the base price discount has to be considered statistically irrelevant for the acceptance of smart charging.

450 H2 assumed in the next step that a high variable electricity price would reduce the acceptance. The SEM path coefficient confirms the direction of influence of the hypothesis, but the relationship is again not significant. Thus this hypothesis also has to be rejected. Following the empirical observation, the variable component has a higher impact on the overall costs for charging with
455 a mean of 21.4% demanded discount in the sample. Further effects that could be mediated through EV-experience or the demographic group were not found.

In the context of this sizable discount request, monetary incentives must play a role in the design of smart charging schemes. However, our study does not yield reliable evidence for their contribution to the acceptance of the *concept* of smart
460 charging. This result is somewhat contrary to most related literature (cf. Table 1). The discrepancy could be explained by the fact that respondents were able to experiment with the discount size and experience its rather small effect on total mobility costs: a maximum delta of 20 EUR/month in the (in reality unlikely) case of a discount of 40% might have been too little for some to compensate for
465 the loss of flexibility (extremely high discount request) or to matter at all (very low request). The results show that such potential considerations are decoupled from the acceptance of the smart charging scheme itself. Future work should further challenge this finding in a more specific setting that also considers early adopters. The main implication from this finding for a product designer would
470 be not to focus only on the potential economic advantages of a smart charging program but also to address other factors.

H3 considered the fact that the more the integration of RES can be fostered through smart charging, the higher the acceptance for this concept would be. The total explanatory effect of this construct is 0.214 at the 0.1%-significance level. This relation is the second strongest in the whole analysis, supports H3, and therefore confirms the majority of the literature in relation to this factor. Any smart charging management program put forward by an aggregator should therefore consider objectives related to better RES-integration or communicate the effects of a charging management program on the ability to better utilize these sources of electricity, e.g. omitted greenhouse gas emissions.

H4 hypothesized that if smart charging could contribute to an increased *grid stability*, the acceptance for the program would also be higher. This construct has the highest individual overall effect in the SEM analysis (0.380) at the 0.1%-significance level. The hypothesis is supported. Empirical answers show that EV users do not want to take too much responsibility for grid stability from the grid operators. But the overall relation in the construct shows that all users are aware of their potential contribution and thus make this argument the strongest in terms of explanatory value. This straight forward option to increase the acceptance of smart charging should therefore always be considered to foster smart charging approaches. One potential implementation to communicate participants' contribution to grid stability could be for the aggregator to share information on his participation on balancing power markets.

H5 assumed that an assessment of a higher *perceived risk* of the participation in a smart charging program leads to reduced acceptance. The perceived risk represents the subjective evaluation of the impact of a mispurchase. This construct was not found to have a significant impact on acceptance in our sample and H5 is thus rejected. The next hypothesis H6 assumed that the higher the need for flexibility in individual mobility, the lower the acceptance for smart charging. Two of three studies explicitly discussing this factor reached a similar conclusion and we can confirm this relation with an explanatory value of -0.147 at the 5%-significance level. Even though individual flexibility need is an important factor that has to be considered in the design of smart charging programs,

the statistical reliability of the construct needs to be improved in further studies. Overall there is a clear perception in the sample that individual flexibility is important, but due to the lack of experience with a particular instance of a smart charging scheme more specific investigations have to be performed.

H7 investigated the impact of the availability of a number of technical *features* on acceptance. This construct did not have a significant explanatory value and the hypothesis is rejected. From a descriptive point of view the early adopters demand between three to four main features (range buffer, manual override, expected departure time, planned range) and do not want an overly complex interaction with the system. Further work could therefore evaluate explicit features on different levels of complexity. It is also important to notice that we do not imply a linear relationship between the number of features and the confidence in the charging management program. The type of feature and the personal disposition of the EV user towards the charging management technology must also be considered in the future as an influence for the acceptance in this case. H8 made a first step to address this by assuming that a higher degree of *customization* of automated data provision to the charging management system will in turn increase the acceptance. This construct was found to be weakly significant at the 10%-level. Further analyses, including a MANCOVA, did not yield any hidden group effects to explain the lack of significance. It can thus be concluded that customization can improve acceptance but is not the most important driver. Related work also points in this direction (cf. Table 1).

H9 hypothesized that a higher need for data privacy would have a negative effect on acceptance. This relation could not be confirmed. H10 in turn assumed that a higher *EV-interest* would lead to higher acceptance. Due to the sample structure the overall interest in this technology was already quite high and thus, in contrast to findings in related work, can not be said to have an explanatory effect for acceptance in this context. H11 assumed that a higher *technological innovativeness* would lead to a higher acceptance. This hypothesis could not be supported. Further investigations did not yield any effect of the demographic group on this result (e.g. younger participants to be more inclined to smart

charging).

535 The hypothesis, that more distinctive *eco values* would have a positive effect
on acceptance, H12, could also not be confirmed in the early adopter sample.
As with *EV-interest*, this could again be due to the homogeneity of the sample
with respect to this attitude. Finally, H13 assumed that a higher *EV-experience*
would have a positive effect on the acceptance of smart charging. This relation
540 was also not found to be significant. Especially the last discussed constructs
should be reevaluated in the future in a more heterogeneous, representative
panel for additional insight.

5. Conclusion

Smart charging has been the focus of considerable research efforts but so far
545 there is little notion of users' acceptance of the concept. This work considers
potentially influential factors for the acceptance of smart charging from the lit-
erature and tests their viability employing a structural equation model variance
analysis, following the PLS approach, for a sample of 237 early adopters from
Germany.

550 The analysis reveals a high acceptance of the concept and underlines the
importance of communicating the benefits of smart charging to the users. These
are namely the positive effects on grid stability and integration of renewable
energy sources which are the strongest influential factors for acceptance. The
users' desire for an individual and flexible mobility in turn hampers acceptance
555 of smart charging. The provision of customization possibilities for data input
is another noticeable but only weakly significant influential factor. Contrary
to literature, the level of monetary compensation for the participation in a
smart charging scheme can not be considered an influential factor. Moreover,
users largely expect varying amounts of compensation, on average around 20%
560 discount to their monthly individual charging costs, independent from their
actual acceptance level.

Beyond these four relevant factors, we tested nine others without obtain-

ing significant results. The size of the model may have lead to a crowding out of the effect sizes, possibly diminishing individual contributions of constructs.

565 Low reliability scores of some constructs could also originate from little space for construct improvement through a consequently limited number of items. Additionally, a generalization of the findings to the German public is inappropriate, since only early adopters were considered. Statistically, the presented model explains 56% of the acceptance of smart charging. This leaves room for further

570 improvement, but also shows that the majority of influential factors has been considered.

However, the findings of this study show which factors, beyond monetary incentives, should be taken into account upon roll out of smart charging tariffs and innovative business models in this domain. Tariff designers need to find

575 ways to communicate the public benefits that EV early adopters are willing to create by restricting their personal flexibility in private transportation. Such tariffs could include information on balancing power contribution or omitted carbon emissions. Aggregators might even consider offering charging tariffs that bill according to a customers' contribution to grid stability or RES integration.

580 Meanwhile, the fear of giving up the mentioned flexibility has to be addressed through transparency and the provision of customization possibilities in addition to a strong integrity of the aggregating agent.

Taken together and given the respective legislative framework, our findings could serve to ease and accelerate the implementation of smart charging and in

585 consequence materialize the positive system effects so motivational to the early adopters.

The expansion of the target group to the general public, also beyond German borders, is a logical next step for future research. Such an analysis should contain more room for manipulation checks and redundant items to improve

590 reliability. The proposed model is the first in this field and future modeling efforts could benefit from a greater focus on promising constructs and their respective mediators. This paper thus lays the exploratory foundation for a more refined understanding of customer wishes and potential marketing perspectives

for the realization of smart charging.

595 **Acknowledgements**

The authors would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments that allowed us to improve on the robustness and interpretation of our findings. This work was supported by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research under the grant number 16N12369 in the research project Smart
600 Grid Integration.

References

- [1] E. Sortomme, M. A. El-Sharkawi, Optimal Charging Strategies for Unidirectional Vehicle-to-Grid, *IEEE Transactions on Smart Grid* 2 (1) (2011) 119–126.
- 605 [2] G. Heydt, The Impact of Electric Vehicle Deployment on Load Management Strategies, *Power Apparatus and Systems, IEEE Transactions on* (5) (1983) 1253–1259.
- [3] S. Acha, T. C. Green, N. Shah, Effects of Optimised Plug-In Hybrid Vehicle Charging Strategies on Electric Distribution Network Losses, *IEEE PES T&D 2010* (2010) 1–6.
- 610 [4] N. Roterig, M. Ilic, Optimal Charge Control of Plug-In Hybrid Electric Vehicles in Deregulated Electricity Markets, *IEEE Transactions on Power Systems* (2010) 1–9.
- [5] R. Sioshansi, J. Miller, Plug-In Hybrid Electric Vehicles Can Be Clean and
615 Economical in Dirty Power Systems, *Energy Policy* 39 (10) (2011) 6151–6161.
- [6] M. D. Galus, G. Andersson, Balancing Renewable Energy Source with Vehicle to Grid Services from a Large Fleet of Plug-In Hybrid Electric Vehicles

- Controlled in a Metropolitan Area Distribution Network, in: Proceedings
620 of the Cigré 2011 Bologna Symposium, Bologna, 2011, pp. 1–18.
- [7] A. Schuller, C. M. Flath, S. Gottwalt, Quantifying load flexibility of
electric vehicles for renewable energy integration, *Applied Energy* 151
(2015) 335–344. doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2015.04.004.
URL [http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/
625 S0306261915004432](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0306261915004432)
- [8] C. Flath, J. Ilg, C. Weinhardt, Decision Support for Electric Vehicle Charg-
ing, in: Proceedings of the 18th Americas Conference on Information Sys-
tems (AMCIS), Seattle, Washington, 2012.
- [9] M. Gonzalez Vaya, G. Andersson, Centralized and Decentralized Ap-
630 proaches to Smart Charging of Plug-In Vehicles, in: Power and Energy
Society General Meeting, 2012 IEEE, 2012, pp. 1–8.
- [10] R. Bessa, M. Matos, F. Soares, J. Lopes, Optimized Bidding of a EV Ag-
gregation Agent in the Electricity Market, *Smart Grid, IEEE Transactions*
on 3 (1) (2012) 443–452.
- 635 [11] W. Kempton, J. Tomić, Vehicle-to-Grid Power Fundamentals: Calculating
Capacity and Net Revenue, *Journal of Power Sources* 144 (1) (2005) 268–
279.
- [12] S. B. Peterson, J. Apt, J. Whitacre, Lithium-Ion Battery Cell Degradation
Resulting from Realistic Vehicle and Vehicle-to-Grid Utilization, *Journal*
640 *of Power Sources* 195 (8) (2010) 2385–2392.
- [13] IZT, Untersuchung zur Akzeptanz von Elektromobilität als Stellglied im
Stromnetz (2012).
- [14] P. Grahn, L. Söder, The customer perspective of the electric vehicles role
on the electricity market, in: 8th International Conference on the Euro-
645 pean Energy Market (EEM), 2011, pp. 141–148. doi:10.1109/EEM.2011.
5952997.

- [15] A.-G. Paetz, T. Kaschub, P. Jochem, W. Fichtner, Demand response with smart homes and electric scooters: An experimental study on user acceptance, 2012 ACEEE Summer Study on Energy Efficiency in Buildings (2012) 224–236.
650 URL <http://aceee.org/files/proceedings/2012/start.htm>
- [16] A. Ensslen, P. Ringler, P. Jochem, D. Keles, W. Fichtner, About business model specifications of a smart charging manager to integrate electric vehicles into the german electricity market, in: 14th IAEE European Energy Conference, 2014.
655
- [17] E. Dütschke, A.-G. Paetz, J. Wesche, Integration Erneuerbarer Energien durch Elektromobilität – inwieweit sind Konsumenten bereit, einen Beitrag zu leisten?, *uwf UmweltWirtschaftsForum* 21 (3-4) (2013) 233–242. doi: 10.1007/s00550-013-0290-3.
- [18] A.-G. Paetz, P. Jochem, W. Fichtner, Demand Side Management mit Elektrofahrzeugen – Ausgestaltungsmöglichkeiten und Kundenakzeptanz, in: 12. Symposium Energieinnovation, 2012.
660
- [19] J. Geske, Präferenzen, Geschäftsmodelle und Marktpotential der V2G-Technologie, in: Proceedings of the 13th Symposium Energieinnovation, 12.-14.2.2014, Graz/Austria, 2014.
665
- [20] I. Frenzel, J. Jarass, S. Trommer, B. Lenz, Erstnutzer von Elektrofahrzeugen in Deutschland. Nutzerprofile, Anschaffung, Fahrzeugnutzung., Tech. rep., German Aerospace Center (DLR) (2015).
URL <http://elib.dlr.de/96491/>
- [21] J. Axsen, J. Bailey, M. A. Castro, Preference and lifestyle heterogeneity among potential plug-in electric vehicle buyers, *Energy Economics* 50 (2015) 190 – 201. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eneco.2015.05.003>.
670
URL <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0140988315001553>
675

- [22] J. Deffner, B. Birzle-Harder, T. Hefter, K. Götz, Elektrofahrzeuge in betrieblichen Fahrzeugflotten – Akzeptanz, Attraktivität und Nutzungsverhalten: Ergebnisbericht im Rahmen des Projekts Future Fleet (2012).
- [23] T. Franke, F. Bühler, P. Cocron, I. Neumann, J. F. Krems, Enhancing sustainability of electric vehicles: A field study approach to understanding user acceptance and behavior, in: M. Sullman, L. Dorn (Eds.), *Advances in traffic psychology, Human factors in road and rail transport*, Ashgate, Farnham, Surrey, England and Burlington, VT, 2012.
- [24] enercity, Start des elektroauto-ladeversuchs bei enercity (27.05.2014).
URL <http://www.enercity.de/presse/pressemeldungen/2014/2014-05-27-ladeversuch-e-auto/index.html>
- [25] T. Franke, J. F. Krems, Understanding charging behaviour of electric vehicle users, *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour* 21 (2013) 75–89.
- [26] J. Bailey, J. Axsen, Anticipating {PEV} buyers acceptance of utility controlled charging, *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 82 (2015) 29 – 46. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tra.2015.09.004>.
URL <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0965856415002311>
- [27] T. Franke, J. F. Krems, Interacting with limited mobility resources: Psychological range levels in electric vehicle use, *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 48 (2013) 109–122.
- [28] I. Ajzen, The theory of planned behavior, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 50 (2) (1991) 179–211. doi:[10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T).
- [29] F. D. Davis, Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology, *MIS Quarterly* 13 (3) (1989) 319. doi:[10.2307/249008](https://doi.org/10.2307/249008).

- [30] V. Venkatesh, M. G. Morris, Gordon B. Davis, F. D. Davis, User acceptance
705 of information technology: Toward a unified view, *MIS Quarterly* 27 (3)
(2003) 425–478.
URL <http://www.jstor.org/stable/30036540>
- [31] K. Mathieson, Predicting user intentions: comparing the technology ac-
ceptance model with the theory of planned behavior, *Information systems*
710 *research* 2 (3) (1991) 173–191.
- [32] M. K. Hidrue, G. R. Parsons, W. Kempton, M. P. Gardner, Willingness
to pay for electric vehicles and their attributes, *Resource and Energy Eco-*
nomics 33 (3) (2011) 686–705. doi:10.1016/j.reseneeco.2011.02.002.
- [33] E. Raab-Steiner, M. Benesch, Der Fragebogen: Von der Forschungs-
715 SPSS-Auswertung, 3rd Edition, Vol. 8406 of UTB, Facultas.wuv, Wien,
2012.
- [34] T. Hahn, M. Schönfelder, P. Jochem, V. Heuveline, W. Fichtner, Model-
based quantification of load shift potentials and optimized charging of elec-
tric vehicles, *Smart Grid and Renewable Energy* 04 (05) (2013) 398–408.
720 doi:10.4236/sgre.2013.45046.
- [35] M. Wörner, S. Gottwald, T. Krimmling, S. Lierzer, D. Zimmermann, In-
tegration von Elektrofahrzeugen in Smart Grids, *ATZ extra (Elektromob-*
ilität) (2014) 69–73. doi:10.1365/s35778-014-1294-5.
- [36] P. Plötz, U. Schneider, J. Globisch, E. Dütschke, Who will buy electric
725 vehicles? Identifying early adopters in Germany, *Transportation Research*
Part A: Policy and Practice 67 (2014) 96–109. doi:10.1016/j.tra.2014.
06.006.
- [37] O. Egbue, S. Long, Barriers to widespread adoption of electric vehicles: An
analysis of consumer attitudes and perceptions, *Energy Policy* 48 (2012)
730 717–729. doi:10.1016/j.enpol.2012.06.009.

- [38] G. Schuitema, J. Anable, S. Skippon, N. Kinnear, The role of instrumental, hedonic and symbolic attributes in the intention to adopt electric vehicles, *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice* 48 (2013) 39–49. doi : 10.1016/j.tra.2012.10.004.
- 735 [39] T. Franke, P. Cocron, F. Bühler, I. Neumann, J. F. Krems, Adapting to the range of an electric vehicle - the relation of experience to subjectively available mobility resources, in: P. Valero Moda, J. F. Pace, L. Mendoza (Eds.), *Proceedings of the European Conference on Human Centred Design for Intelligent Transport Systems*, Humanist Publications, Lyon, 2012, pp. 740 95–103.
- [40] K. Backhaus, B. Erichson, R. Weiber, *Fortgeschrittene multivariate Analysemethoden: Eine anwendungsorientierte Einführung*, 2nd Edition, Lehrbuch, Springer Gabler, Berlin and Heidelberg, 2013.
- [41] H. Wold, Nonlinear estimation by partial least squares procedures, in: F. N. David (Ed.), *Research papers in statistics*, Wiley, New York, 1966, pp. 745 411–444.
- [42] H. Wold, Path models with latent variables: The nipals approach, in: H. M. Blalock (Ed.), *Quantitative Sociology*, Academic Press, New York, 1975, pp. 307–357.
- 750 [43] H. Wold, Soft modeling: The basic design and some extensions, in: K. G. Jöreskog, H. Wold (Eds.), *Systems under indirect observation, Part II*, North-Holland, Amsterdam, 1982, pp. 1–54.
- [44] C. B. Jarvis, S. B. MacKenzie, P. M. Podsakoff, A critical review of construct indicators and measurement model misspecification in marketing and consumer research, *Journal of Consumer Research* 30 (2) (2003) 199–218. 755 doi:10.1086/376806.
- [45] R. Weiber, D. Mühlhaus, *Strukturgleichungsmodellierung: Eine anwendungsorientierte Einführung in die Kausalanalyse mit Hilfe von AMOS*,

- SmartPLS und SPSS, 2nd Edition, Springer-Lehrbuch, Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2014.
- 760
- [46] W. O. Bearden, R. G. Netemeyer, K. L. Haws, Handbook of marketing scales: Multi-item measures for marketing and consumer behavior research, 3rd Edition, SAGE, Thousand Oaks, Calif., 2011.
- [47] G. C. Bruner II, Marketing Scales Handbook: A compilation of multi-item
765 measures for consumer behavior & advertising research, Vol. 6, GCBII Productions, Fort Worth, TX, USA, 2012.
- [48] J. D. v. d. Laan, A. Heino, D. d. Waard, A simple procedure for the assessment of acceptance of advanced transport telematics, Transportation Research Part C: Emerging Technologies 5 (1) (1997) 1–10. doi:
770 10.1016/S0968-090X(96)00025-3.
- [49] G. Laurent, J.-N. Kapferer, Measuring consumer involvement profiles, Journal of Marketing Research (22) (1985) 41–53.
- [50] G. C. Bruner II, A. Kumar, Gadget lovers, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science 35 (3) (2007) 329–339. doi:10.1007/s11747-007-0051-3.
- 775 [51] G. C. Bruner II, A. Kumar, C. Heppner, Predicting innovativeness: Development of the technology acceptance scale, New Research on Wireless Communications (2007) 1–20.
- [52] K. L. Haws, K. P. Winterich, R. W. Naylor, Seeing the world through green-tinted glasses: Motivated reasoning and consumer response to environmentally friendly products, Ph.D. thesis, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX, USA (2010).
780
- [53] W. W. Chin, The partial least squares approach for structural equation modeling, in: G. A. Marcoulides (Ed.), Modern methods for business research, Quantitative methodology series, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, N.J. and London, 1998, pp. 295–336.
785

- [54] K. Bollen, R. Lennox, Conventional wisdom on measurement: A structural equation perspective, *Psychological Bulletin* 110 (2) (1991) 305–314. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.110.2.305.

Appendix

Table 4: KMO and Bartlett-Test of exploratory factor analysis for determination of dimensionality of reflective factors.

Construct	KMO	Bartlett-Test		
		χ^2 (Approx.)	df	p
perceived risk	0.593	73.198	3	0
flex. mobility need	0.576	64.126	3	0
data privacy	0.737	183.313	6	0
EV-interest	0.680	187.642	3	0
techn. innovativeness	0.887	617.244	10	0
eco values	0.816	484.338	6	0
Combined	0.784	1,901.053	231	0

KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin criterion

df = degrees of freedom

Table 5: Coefficients of measurement models in confirmatory factor analysis

Indicator	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	p	Factor loading	Loading squares
EV-interest 1	0.728	0.090	8.081	***	0.617	0.380
EV-interest 2	1				0.836	0.699
EV-interest 3	0.572	0.065	8.777	***	0.721	0.520
technical innovativeness 1	1.216	0.092	13.198	***	0.789	0.623
technical innovativeness 2	1.157	0.085	13.593	***	0.808	0.653
technical innovativeness 3	1.075	0.093	11.532	***	0.709	0.502
technical innovativeness 4	1				0.811	0.658
technical innovativeness 5	1.063	0.078	13.662	***	0.811	0.658
eco values 1	0.830	0.057	14.623	***	0.794	0.631
eco values 2	1				0.894	0.799
eco values 3	0.946	0.063	14.959	***	0.807	0.651
eco values 4	0.782	0.065	11.973	***	0.691	0.477
data privacy 1	0.797	0.118	6.741	***	0.550	0.302
data privacy 2	1				0.707	0.500
data privacy 3	1.060	0.135	7.857	***	0.716	0.512
data privacy 4	0.898	0.134	6.711	***	0.547	0.299
flex. mobility need 1	1				0.622	0.387
flex. mobility need 2	0.593	0.134	4.414	***	0.394	0.155
flex. mobility need 3	0.970	0.169	5.749	***	0.640	0.410
perceived risk 1	0.397	0.087	4.580	***	0.414	0.172
perceived risk 2	0.516	0.102	5.069	***	0.498	0.248
perceived risk 3	1				0.822	0.675

S.E. = standard error, Estimate = unstandardized factor loadings *** = significant on the 1%-level

Table 6: Reliability values of reflective constructs

Indicator \ Threshold	CITC	Item reliability	Cronbachs α	Explained Variance	Factor reliability	AVE
	≥ 0.5	≥ 0.4	≥ 0.6	≥ 0.5	≥ 0.6	≥ 0.5
perceived risk 1	0.330	0.172				
perceived risk 2	0.391	0.248	0.584	0.548	0.778	0.542
perceived risk 3	0.484	0.675				
flex. mobility need 1	0.442	0.387				
flex. mobility need 2	0.260	0.155	0.548	0.530	0.745	0.499
flex. mobility need 3	0.390	0.410				
data privacy 1	0.567	0.500				
data privacy 2	0.452	0.302	0.723	0.548	0.810	0.523
data privacy 3	0.567	0.512				
data privacy 4	0.459	0.299				
EV-interest 1	0.538	0.380				
EV-interest 2	0.632	0.699	0.767	0.683	0.862	0.676
EV-interest 3	0.617	0.520				
technical innovativeness 1	0.735	0.623				
technical innovativeness 2	0.747	0.653				
technical innovativeness 3	0.666	0.502	0.890	0.694	0.916	0.686
technical innovativeness 4	0.751	0.658				
technical innovativeness 5	0.750	0.658				
eco values 1	0.741	0.631				
eco values 2	0.807	0.799	0.873	0.725	0.911	0.719
eco values 3	0.726	0.651				
eco values 4	0.639	0.477				

CITC = corrected item-to-total correlation

AVE = average variance extracted

Table 7: Factor loadings, p and VIF values of the formative indicators

Construct	Indicator	Factor loading	p-Value	VIF
customization	c1-save	0.882	0.000	1.818
	c2-profil	0.880	0.000	1.745
	c3-learn	0.738	0.000	1.525
RES-integration	res1-env	0.821	0.000	1.272
	res2-co2	0.813	0.000	2.564
	res3-res	0.733	0.000	2.209
	res4-clim	0.818	0.000	3.104
grid stability	gs1-stabl	0.821	0.000	2.127
	gs2-trans	0.513	0.000	1.320
	gs3-ben	0.846	0.000	2.423
	gs4-nec	0.865	0.000	2.398
	gs5-flex	0.718	0.000	1.514
	gs6-gen	0.327	0.001	1.213

VIF = Variance Inflation Factor

Table 8: Factor loadings and t-statistics of the measurement model of the SEM.

Construct		Indicator	Factor loading	t-Value	p-Value
customization	←	c1_save	0.882	12.346	0.000
customization	←	c2_profil	0.880	11.606	0.000
customization	←	c3_learn	0.738	6.854	0.000
data privacy	→	dp1	0.730	6.631	0.000
data privacy	→	dp2	0.586	3.841	0.000
data privacy	→	dp3	0.913	17.334	0.000
data privacy	→	dp4	0.616	5.081	0.000
RES-integration	←	res1_env	0.821	11.585	0.000
RES-integration	←	res2_co2	0.813	12.347	0.000
RES-integration	←	res3_res	0.733	8.480	0.000
RES-integration	←	res4_clim	0.818	12.561	0.000
EV-interest	→	evi1	0.808	4.524	0.000
EV-interest	→	evi2	0.798	4.107	0.000
EV-interest	→	evi3	0.860	5.170	0.000
EV-experience	→	exp	1.000		
flex. mob. need	→	fmn1	0.676	7.952	0.000
flex. mob. need	→	fmn2	0.835	16.225	0.000
flex. mob. need	→	fmn3	0.585	7.084	0.000
features	→	funct_sum	1.000		
grid stability	←	gs1_stabl	0.821	15.520	0.000
grid stability	←	gs2_trans	0.513	6.626	0.000
grid stability	←	gs3_ben	0.846	15.002	0.000
grid stability	←	gs4_nec	0.865	18.094	0.000
grid stability	←	gs5_flex	0.718	12.077	0.000
grid stability	←	gs6_gen	0.327	3.283	0.001
techn. innovativeness	→	ti1	0.807	7.372	0.000
techn. innovativeness	→	ti2	0.801	6.292	0.000
techn. innovativeness	→	ti3	0.798	8.570	0.000
techn. innovativeness	→	ti4	0.844	8.744	0.000
techn. innovativeness	→	ti5	0.886	1.717	0.000
eco values	→	eco1	0.894	29.377	0.000
eco values	→	eco2	0.907	28.496	0.000
eco values	→	eco3	0.812	11.818	0.000
eco- values	→	eco4	0.773	12.502	0.000
disc. base	→	discBase	1.000		
disc. kwh-price	→	discCons	1.000		
perceived risk	→	pr1	0.703	5.188	0.000
perceived risk	→	pr2	0.634	6.026	0.000
perceived risk	→	pr3	0.855	12.719	0.000
acceptance	→	usefulness	0.970	235.765	0.000
acceptance	→	satisfaction	0.962	146.966	0.000