

1 You are what you drive: Environmentalist and social innovator symbolism drives electric vehicle  
2 adoption intentions

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## 11 **Abstract**

12 Electric vehicles (EVs) have the potential to dramatically reduce vehicle emissions contributing to climate  
13 change without significantly reducing convenience or mobility. Despite their potential, EV market share  
14 remains low, necessitating research to identify factors that could encourage more widespread adoption.  
15 For instance, concern about climate change is associated with intent to adopt an EV, but little is known  
16 about mechanisms through which this concern may translate into action. This study builds on previous  
17 work investigating the roles of symbolic and instrumental attributes in low-emission vehicle adoption,  
18 focusing exclusively on EVs to better understand perceptions associated with their unique technical  
19 capabilities. Prior work has examined symbolism rather generally (e.g., in terms of status). We examine  
20 specific aspects of self-identity that EVs may reflect, representing the extent to which consumers perceive  
21 EVs as symbols that they are environmentalists and/or social innovators. In addition, extending prior  
22 work, we quantify the relative influence of these separate aspects of symbolism on EV adoption  
23 intentions alongside instrumental, psychological, and demographic factors. We find differing impacts of  
24 these two symbols on EV adoption intentions. Environmentalist symbolism is consistently the strongest  
25 predictor of adoption, across three dependent variables. Innovator symbolism predicts willingness to  
26 lease/buy an EV, trailing only environmentalist symbolism in effect size, and outperforming instrumental  
27 attributes as well as psychological and demographic factors. Additionally, we examine a potential  
28 mechanism through which concern about climate change may translate into EV adoption intentions: we  
29 find that seeing EVs as environmentalist and social innovator symbols partially mediates the relationship  
30 between concern about climate change and EV adoption intentions. These results have implications for  
31 EV marketing and policy, and suggest that emphasizing the potential for EVs to reinforce specific self-  
32 identities may be a more promising strategy to increase adoption rates than emphasizing instrumental  
33 attributes such as fuel efficiency.

## 34 **1 Introduction**

35 Significant reductions in anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases, including carbon dioxide, are  
36 necessary to stem climate change and its associated consequences (Allen et al., 2009; Meinshausen et al.,  
37 2009). In the United States (U.S.), the transportation sector accounts for roughly 28% of all greenhouse  
38 gas emissions, with light duty vehicles making up 62% of transportation sector emissions (U.S.  
39 Environmental Protection Agency, 2015). Gasoline vehicles emit myriad additional pollutants with  
40 deleterious health effects, such as nitrogen oxide and fine particulate matter (Brugge et al., 2007),  
41 positioning the transportation sector in an important role for public health (World Health Organization,  
42 2005; Zhang and Batterman, 2013).

43 Alternative fuel vehicles offer one promising solution to these issues. In particular, fully electric vehicles  
44 (henceforth referred to as “EVs”) receive 100% of their energy from the electrical grid, allowing for very  
45 low emissions if they are charged on low carbon-intensity electric grids. Notwithstanding the U.S.’s  
46 currently coal-heavy electricity portfolio, the growing share of renewable energy sources and improving  
47 efficiency of power plants allow EVs to reduce total average emissions to nearly half those of a gasoline-  
48 fueled vehicle (U.S. Department of Energy, 2015a).

49 Additionally, efforts are being made to integrate EVs into the power grid using “Vehicle to Grid”  
50 technology, whereby EV batteries are used as distributed storage. In light of this emerging technology, a  
51 large EV fleet could offer additional benefits to the power sector including power grid regulation,  
52 spinning reserve, peak load shaving, and load leveling (Tan et al., 2016). In some situations, it may even  
53 be possible for EVs to obviate the need for additional electricity generation, for instance, by discharging  
54 unused battery energy back onto the grid during peak demand periods (Jochem et al., 2015).

55 Despite these advantages and various government subsidies, EVs accounted for only 0.7% of U.S. market  
56 share in 2015 (IEA, 2016). Although the availability of financial incentives is positively correlated with  
57 EV adoption rates, price signals represent only one predictor of EV adoption; these decisions cannot be  
58 understood without considering additional factors, including symbolic attributes, that consumers perceive  
59 as important in these purchases (Heffner et al., 2007; Kurani et al., 2006; Steg, 2005). Developing a more  
60 comprehensive understanding of the motivators and barriers to consumer adoption of EVs is imperative to  
61 improving their market penetration.

## 62 **1.1 Contributions**

63 Previous work examining symbolic attributes related to EV adoption intentions has operationalized  
64 symbolic attributes somewhat generically in terms of whether EVs convey a positive message about their  
65 drivers (Noppers et al., 2015; Schuitema et al., 2013). This leaves an open question of what particular  
66 positive messages drivers may be seeking. However, little research has investigated specific aspects of  
67 symbolism and how these are perceived to reflect on one’s self-identity; the few studies that have done so  
68 have either studied hybrid electric vehicles (hybrids; see last paragraph in this section for why this may  
69 not accurately represent EVs), or have used analytic approaches that fell short of examining multiple  
70 components of symbolism while accounting for other important predictors of adoption simultaneously  
71 (Axsen and Kurani, 2013; Krupa et al., 2014). We advance the literature on symbolism by  
72 operationalizing EV symbolic attributes as the extent to which people perceive EVs to reinforce specific  
73 aspects of self-identity. This study examines the extent to which EVs may symbolize two specific aspects  
74 of self-identity: environmentalist and social innovator. Further, we evaluate the separate influences of  
75 these symbolic attributes in multiple regression models alongside instrumental, demographic, and  
76 psychological predictors of adoption.

77 The climate change mitigation potential of EVs is a commonly cited driver of consumer interest in these  
78 vehicles. Previous studies have established the influence of concern about climate change on EV  
79 adoption intentions (Carley et al., 2013; Egbue and Long, 2012; Skippon and Garwood, 2011). We  
80 extend this by examining whether symbolic attributes may be a mechanism through which concern about  
81 climate change translates into willingness to adopt EVs. This area of investigation has implications for  
82 efforts to promote EV uptake, as appeals to reflect self-identity may be more effective in promoting EV  
83 adoption than elevating levels of concern over climate change (Steg et al., 2014).

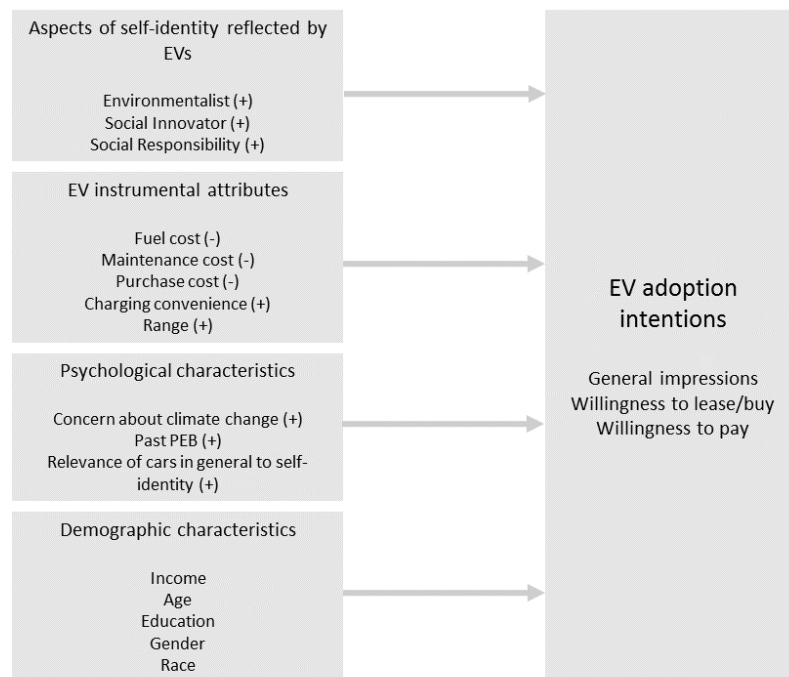
84 Additionally, this study focuses exclusively on battery-operated EVs, excluding hybrids. Unlike EVs,  
85 hybrids still utilize the familiar technology of combustion engines, and can be refueled at regular gas  
86 stations. Technical attributes of EVs and hybrids differ considerably, particularly regarding concerns  
87 about vehicle range (Rezvani et al., 2015). Hybrids may be owned and operated with very little change of  
88 habit, and as such may represent an easier-to-adopt pro-environmental behavior (PEB) compared to EVs.  
89 Hybrids also still produce emissions directly, so may reflect environmentalist self-identity to a lesser

90 extent compared to EVs. For these reasons, results from studies focused on hybrid adoption may not fully  
91 transfer to EVs.

## 92 1.2 Predictors of EV adoption intentions

93 Predictors of EV adoption can be divided across multiple dimensions. Following Steg's (2005)  
94 categorization of instrumental (associated with practical concerns such as cost) and symbolic (associated  
95 with imagery and identity aspects of EVs) attributes, below we review the evidence for these two types of  
96 predictors. We additionally examine evidence for demographic and psychological predictors. Groups of  
97 predictors examined are summarized in Figure 1.

98 *Figure 1: Expected predictors of EV adoption intentions, and their hypothesized directions*



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### 100 1.2.1 Symbolic attributes

#### 101 1.2.1.1 Symbolic attributes and inconsistencies in the literature

102 Steg et al. (2005) introduce the term symbolic attributes to refer to the group of factors affecting car  
103 choices due to emotions and symbolism associated with cars. Symbolic attributes associated with EVs  
104 have been linked to the concept of identity, such that the symbolism associated with EVs can “construct  
105 and express identity” (Rezvani et al., 2015) and “define and express self-identity and social status”  
106 (Burgess et al., 2013), with symbolic attributes being “related to a sense of self or social identity that is  
107 reflected by, or built from the possession of new technologies” (Schuitema et al., 2013). Previous studies  
108 have established the importance of symbolic attributes for predicting EV adoption (Noppers et al., 2015,  
109 2014), and have found that symbolic attributes can mediate the effect of perceived instrumental attributes  
110 on EV purchase (Schuitema et al., 2013).

111 However, the term “symbolic attributes” has been used somewhat inconsistently across studies to  
112 describe groups of questions which seem to tap slightly different psychological constructs. Furthermore,

113 most previous assessments of symbolic attributes have fallen short of assessing a range of unique symbols  
 114 relevant to self-identity. See Table 1 for a summary of questions from prior studies which have purported  
 115 to measure symbolic attributes or imagery associated with EVs. Most studies applying the term “symbolic  
 116 attributes” have operationalized symbolism quite broadly, with questions such as “An electric car gives  
 117 me status“ (Noppers et al., 2015, 2014; Schuitema et al., 2013). In some cases, symbolism has been  
 118 operationalized to reflect (environmental) benefits of cars without specific reference to status, image, or  
 119 self-identity (Nayum and Klöckner, 2014). What might the broad category of “status” mean to different  
 120 individuals? The questions used in previous work generally do not tap into specific types of status, nor  
 121 aspects of self-identity, that people may be trying to reflect (Noppers et al., 2015, 2014; Schuitema et al.,  
 122 2013). It is important to define these specific aspects, as individuals may value some aspects of self-  
 123 identity more highly than others when considering adopting EVs. Therefore, for the purposes of this  
 124 paper, we define symbolic attributes as attributes which reflect specific aspects of self-identity.

125 A few studies have assessed specific aspects of self-identity reflected by EVs, but have not accounted for  
 126 the influences of these variables alongside those of instrumental EV attributes in models of adoption  
 127 intentions (Table 1). For instance, Krupa and colleagues (2014) assessed environmental and technological  
 128 imagery, but only included environmental imagery in a multivariable model (which was not significantly  
 129 associated with adoption intentions), and examined intent to adopt *compact* hybrids rather than EVs.  
 130 Axsen and Kurani (2013) assessed environmental, intelligent, and responsible imagery associated with  
 131 EVs, but these questions asked about others’ perceptions of the vehicle itself, not individuals’ perception  
 132 of how the vehicle reflects on them. As well, they primarily relied on chi-squared analyses. These  
 133 approaches limit conclusions about the extent to which specific aspects of symbolism predict EV  
 134 adoption (and adoption intentions), as they have not fully adjusted for the impacts of other established  
 135 predictors of adoption (for review, see Rezvani et al., 2015).

136 *Table 1: Operationalization of low-emission vehicle symbolism in prior quantitative work, compared to*  
 137 *present study operationalization*

Authors (year) location, sample	Vehicle type	Questions	Term used by authors to describe construct	Analyses applied to symbolism questions
Noppers et al. (2014) Netherlands, community sample	EVs	“The electric car shows who I am” “The electric car enhances my social status” (a total of eight items that load onto the same factor, not all detailed in paper)	Symbolic Attributes	Bivariate correlations; Multiple regression
Noppers et al. (2015) Netherlands, commercial sample	EVs	<i>To what extent do you think that the following characteristics are advantages of an electric vehicle?</i> ‘An electric car gives me status’ ‘An electric car enables me to distinguish myself from others’ ‘I can show who I am with an electric car’	Symbolic Attributes	Multiple regression

		<p>‘An electric car fits me’</p> <p>‘An electric car says something about me’</p>		
Schuitema et al. (2013) United Kingdom, recent car buyers	Hybrids and EVs	<p>‘Compared to a normal car, plug-in hybrid electric cars/plug-in fully electric cars not suitable for my lifestyle’</p> <p>‘I would feel proud of having a plug-in hybrid electric car/plug-in fully electric car outside my house’</p> <p>‘I would feel embarrassed to drive a plug-in hybrid electric car/plug-in fully electric car’</p>	Symbolic Attributes	OLS regression testing mediation effects
Krupa et al. (2014) U.S., online sample	Hybrids	<p>‘Owning a [hybrid] would make a statement regarding my strong environmental values’</p> <p>‘Owning a [hybrid] would make it clear to others that I am on the forefront of new technology’</p>	Imagery	Spearman correlations; Multiple logistic regression including one symbolism item
Nayum & Klockner (2014) Norway, community sample	Fuel-efficient cars	<p><i>How important did you find following aspects for you when you made purchasing decision of your new car?</i></p> <p>Environmentally friendly materials</p> <p>Fuel economy</p> <p>CO<sub>2</sub> reducing tires</p> <p>The energy label of the car</p> <p>Greenhouse gas emissions</p> <p>Emission of polluting chemicals</p>	Symbolic Attributes	Structural Equation Modelling
Axsen & Kurani (2013) U.S., new vehicles drivers	All passenger vehicles including EVs	<p><i>Other people will think this vehicle looks...</i></p> <p>...intelligent</p> <p>...responsible</p> <p>...supportive of the environment</p> <p>...supportive of the U.S.</p> <p>...powerful</p>	Imagery	Chi-square analysis
Present study (2017), U.S., power utility customers	EVs	<p>‘Owning an EV demonstrates to others that I care about the environment’</p> <p>‘Changing from a gasoline-powered vehicle to an EV will lessen my impact on the environment’</p> <p>‘Driving an EV means that I am doing the right thing’</p> <p>‘Driving an EV means that I am a trendsetter for environmentally friendly technologies’</p>	Symbolic Attributes reflecting aspects of self-identity	Multiple OLS regression, mediation analyses

		'Driving an EV means that I am socially responsible'		
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139 We identified three aspects of symbolism suggested by prior literature. In particular, previous work  
 140 suggests that EVs have the potential to communicate a variety of specific meanings on behalf of their  
 141 owners, including care for the environment, support for new technology, and concern for general social  
 142 welfare (Heffner et al., 2007). We consider these as three symbolic reflections of self-identity:  
 143 environmentalist, innovator, and socially responsible citizen, and examine them in the following sections  
 144 1.2.1.2 to 1.2.1.4.

145 *1.2.1.2 EVs as symbols for environmentalists*

146 Self-identity can be defined as “a set of meanings attached to roles individuals occupy in the social  
 147 structure, and unique ways in which they see themselves in these roles” (Barbarossa et al., 2015).  
 148 Previous research has established that pro-environmental self-identity, or the extent to which one sees  
 149 oneself as an environmentalist, is a predictor of PEB in general (Van der Werff et al., 2013a; Whitmarsh  
 150 and O’Neill, 2010a). EVs can serve as highly visible symbols for consumers wishing to advertise  
 151 environmentalist self-identities to others, and may also reinforce existing environmentalist self-identities  
 152 by acting as a symbol to oneself (Noppers et al., 2014; Sexton and Sexton, 2014).

153 Supporting this idea, studies have found associations between environmental self-identity and favorability  
 154 towards EVs (Axsen et al., 2012; Graham-Rowe et al., 2012), higher ratings of EV instrumental and  
 155 symbolic attributes (Schuitema et al., 2013), and perceptions that EVs are symbols of environmental  
 156 concern (Axsen and Kurani, 2013). Environmentalist self-identity has also been found to influence  
 157 consumer attitudes towards EVs, and in turn has been found to enhance intentions to adopt EVs  
 158 (Barbarossa et al., 2015). Hence, the extent to which respondents perceive EVs as symbols to reflect  
 159 environmentalist self-identity should enhance adoption likelihood. Although previous studies have shed  
 160 light on related questions, this particular topic remains under-explored.

161 *1.2.1.3 EVs as symbols for innovators*

162 As noted by Heffner et al. (2007) with reference to hybrid vehicles, emerging vehicle markets have the  
 163 potential to embody new combinations of meanings. In addition to acting as a symbol for  
 164 environmentalists, EVs may also act as symbols for consumers who wish to show an affinity for  
 165 technological innovation as part of their self-identities.

166 Consumers often adopt technologically innovative systems due to enjoyment of innovations and technical  
 167 aspects, even in absence of economic benefits or environmental concerns (Schelly, 2014). Cars are  
 168 publicly consumed products, and social identity concerns have been found to drive consumer adoption of  
 169 such products, being both highly visible and projecting an image of technological innovativeness (Grewal  
 170 et al., 2000). For instance, some consumers are willing to pay more for EVs if they perceive them as  
 171 superior to existing technology (Hahnel et al., 2014), and symbolic attributes more strongly predict  
 172 interest in EVs by potential early adopters if instrumental attributes are evaluated poorly (Noppers et al.,  
 173 2015). Households have also expressed that they see symbolic meaning in hybrids for marking their self-  
 174 identity as part of a “technological vanguard” (Heffner et al., 2007). Noppers et al. (2014) concluded that  
 175 EVs signal a status motivation separate from environmental concern, and although unmeasured, that EV  
 176 may also signal innovativeness, suggesting that future research explore this topic.

177 If consumers enjoy interacting with new technology and view EVs as a way to set new trends, this may  
178 increase their enjoyment of driving an EV, which in turn could make EV adoption more likely (Steg et al.,  
179 2014). In fact, some consumers who perceive that EVs are not easy to use have stronger adoption  
180 intentions than those who think they are easy to use, which may indicate that they see status in adopting a  
181 new and somewhat challenging technology (Peters and Dürschke, 2014).

#### 182 *1.2.1.4 EVs as a symbol of social responsibility*

183 EVs can embody meanings which are only secondarily related to the environment. Notably, EVs can  
184 embody support for the nation (Axsen and Kurani, 2013), or opposition to war and imported oil (Heffner  
185 et al., 2007). Consumers who purchase EVs with these types of meaning in mind may feel that EVs serve  
186 as a way to show social responsibility, for instance by supporting issues that are not directly associated  
187 with “green” imagery. In fact, consumers without previous histories of environmental purchasing have  
188 responded positively to EVs as a way to construct new identities encompassing moral concern and care  
189 for others (Heffner et al., 2007).

190 Based on prior literature, we advance the following hypotheses:

191 **EVs will be perceived as reflecting multiple unique aspects of self-identity (H1a), in particular,**  
192 **environmentalist, innovator, and socially responsible self-identities (H1b)**

193 **Perceptions that EVs symbolize unique aspects of self-identity will each positively predict intent to**  
194 **adopt an EV (H2a), with environmentalist symbolism acting as the strongest symbolic predictor of**  
195 **EV adoption intentions (H2b)**

#### 196 **1.2.2 Concern about climate change and the role of symbolic attributes**

197 In EV research, concern about climate change is often assessed by asking whether individuals view  
198 climate change as a problem (Carley et al., 2013; Krupa et al., 2014) and/or by asking whether the  
199 emissions reduction potential of EVs is seen as a benefit (Egbue and Long, 2012; Krupa et al., 2014;  
200 Skippon and Garwood, 2011). Both measures are associated with stronger EV adoption intentions  
201 (Carley et al., 2013; Egbue and Long, 2012; Krupa et al., 2014; Skippon and Garwood, 2011). However,  
202 previous literature has fallen short of determining whether or how concern about climate change may act  
203 to influence adoption through linkages with sense of self. For instance, environmentalist consumers may  
204 be especially motivated to adopt EVs as an emissions reduction tool (Steg et al., 2014) to respond to their  
205 concerns over climate change.

206 Self-identity has been found to mediate the relationship between values and behavior, shedding some  
207 light on psychological mechanisms through which environmental concern may translate into PEB (Van  
208 der Werff et al., 2014, 2013a; Whitmarsh and O’Neill, 2010b). It follows that viewing EVs to symbolize  
209 aspects of self-identity may similarly mediate the association between concern about climate change and  
210 EV adoption, though this has not previously been tested. The saliency of EVs as a symbol for  
211 environmentalist self-identity is expected to be stronger amongst individuals who are concerned about  
212 climate change, and in turn, stronger perceptions of environmentalist symbolism are expected to increase  
213 adoption intentions. A similar link is expected for those viewing EVs as a symbol for innovator self-  
214 identity, who may look to EVs as a new technology that can also help address societal issues.



215 **H3a: Concern about climate change will positively predict intent to adopt an EV, and this**  
216 **relationship will be mediated by the extent to which EVs are perceived to symbolize**  
217 **environmentalist self-identity**

218 **H3b: Viewing EVs as a symbol for innovator self-identity will also mediate the relationship between**  
219 **concern about climate change and EV adoption, although to a lesser extent than viewing EVs as a**  
220 **symbol for environmentalists**

### 221 **1.2.3 Instrumental attributes**

222 Instrumental attributes describe practical issues such as economic and convenience concerns associated  
223 with cars. EV adoption is influenced by these instrumental attributes, including purchase costs, range, and  
224 charging locations (Axsen and Kurani, 2013; Caperello and Kurani, 2012; Carley et al., 2013; Graham-  
225 Rowe et al., 2012; Jensen et al., 2013; Krupa et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012). Following the definitions  
226 used in Noppers et al. (2014), we consider economic and convenience measures as instrumental attributes,  
227 and review relevant prior work below.

#### 228 *1.2.3.1 Economic concerns*

229 Many consumers perceive the purchase cost of an EV as a barrier to adoption. For instance, in one U.S.-  
230 based survey, over half of respondents listed the purchase price as a major disadvantage (Carley et al.,  
231 2013). Moving beyond perceptions to behavior, actual EV purchase data from several countries offering  
232 support policies and infrastructure for EVs revealed that government rebate programs encouraged EV  
233 adoption (Sierzchula et al., 2014). However, a recent U.S. study found that purchase incentives predicted  
234 greater adoption likelihood for plug-in hybrids but not for battery EVs (Vergis and Chen, 2015),  
235 suggesting that context may play a role in the influence of purchase price.

236 Related to fuel costs, on average across the U.S. it costs about half as much per gallon-equivalent to fuel a  
237 car using electricity rather than gasoline (U.S. Department of Energy, 2015b). Although consumers often  
238 rate fuel savings as a major benefit of EVs (Carley et al., 2013; Egbue and Long, 2012), this is not always  
239 reflected in intent to purchase EVs (Carley et al., 2013). This may be related to the fact that the savings  
240 achievable by switching from gasoline to electricity as a fuel are not immediately apparent, and  
241 consumers are sometimes concerned about or fail to fully appreciate fuel savings repaying the higher  
242 purchase cost over the vehicle's lifetime (Graham-Rowe et al., 2012). Consumers have also been found to  
243 have little idea how much they spend on gasoline in any given month (Turrentine and Kurani, 2007), and  
244 may be unable to determine actual fuel cost savings associated with an EV. Studies have found varying  
245 degrees of success in increasing adoption intentions by providing consumers with five-year fuel savings  
246 or total cost of ownership data (Dumortier et al., 2015; Nixon and Saphores, 2011), highlighting that price  
247 is not the only determinant of EV purchase, and that people are not making purely rational decisions in  
248 purchasing EVs.

#### 249 *1.2.3.2 Convenience: Charging and Range*

250 Perceptions of the convenience of EVs also impact adoption intentions, with reduced range and long  
251 charging times being two major factors that reduce likelihood of adoption. Limited EV range has had a  
252 major negative impact on adoption intentions in some studies (Jensen et al., 2014, 2013) and range  
253 limitations have been linked to consumer frustration in others (Graham-Rowe et al., 2012). However,  
254 some studies have found no relation between actual driving patterns and intent to purchase an EV (Carley  
255 et al., 2013; Kurani et al., 1996), and current EV drivers are generally satisfied with available range

256 (Franke and Krems, 2013; Pearre et al., 2011). In sum, the findings related to range are somewhat  
257 inconclusive. It is possible that different individual- or household- level characteristics affect the impact  
258 of range on adoption. For instance, individuals living in households with access to multiple vehicles did  
259 not find EV range limitations to be a barrier (Kurani et al., 1996), as they could use a gasoline vehicle for  
260 longer trips. Additionally, some consumers may view adaptation to instrumental limitations such as  
261 shorter range as a symbolic benefit of EVs (Axsen and Kurani, 2013). Further research is needed to  
262 understand for whom EV limited range is a benefit vs. a barrier.

263 The ability to charge an EV with minimal disruption to typical routines has emerged as another important  
264 convenience factor associated with higher likelihood of adoption. Consumers who needed to alter their  
265 daily routines to allow EVs time to charge at workplaces reported frustration at the limitations imposed  
266 on their movement (Graham-Rowe et al., 2012), and those who trialed EVs reported higher willingness to  
267 pay if they had the option to charge at work or access to public chargers (Jensen et al., 2013). Charging at  
268 home has been found to be most preferred, with workplace charging rated second (Skippon and Garwood,  
269 2011). Further, the ability to charge at home, thereby avoiding refueling at gas stations, may be  
270 considered a positive attribute of EVs relative to gasoline vehicles (Kurani et al., 1996). Overall, findings  
271 support convenient charging as a factor that encourages EV adoption.

#### 272 **1.2.4 Demographic characteristics**

273 Previous empirical studies examining the relationship between demographic characteristics and EV  
274 adoption have yielded inconclusive or conflicting results. With respect to gender for instance, men have  
275 generally been found to express more interest in EVs than women (Egbue and Long, 2012; Peters and  
276 Dütschke, 2014; Plötz et al., 2014). However, interest does not always translate into intent to purchase  
277 (Egbue and Long, 2012). Furthermore, in some cases, gender has not been found to affect interest in EVs  
278 at all (Jensen et al., 2014), and another study controlling for psychological variables yielded slightly  
279 higher adoption intentions among women (Nayum and Klöckner, 2014). Thus, the literature does not  
280 provide a conclusive prediction of the impact of gender on EV adoption intentions.

281 Demographic findings related to age, income and education are similarly mixed. Regarding age, whereas  
282 older individuals have generally been found to express greater interest in EVs (Barth et al., 2016; Egbue  
283 and Long, 2012), adoption intentions are generally higher among middle-aged individuals (Peters and  
284 Dütschke, 2014; Plötz et al., 2014). Additional studies have found that younger individuals express  
285 stronger intentions to purchase an EV (Carley et al., 2013; Hidrue et al., 2011), and higher willingness to  
286 pay (Achtmeier, 2012). However, other work controlling for psychological factors found no significant  
287 impact of age (Nayum and Klöckner, 2014). With respect to income, some studies have found higher  
288 earnings to have no impact (Carley et al., 2013; Egbue and Long, 2012), or only marginal impacts (Barth  
289 et al., 2016) on adoption intentions, yet another found a small positive effect even when controlling for  
290 psychological factors (Nayum and Klöckner, 2014). Finally, higher education levels have been found in  
291 various studies to predict interest in EVs but not necessarily purchase intent (Egbue and Long, 2012), to  
292 have a weak positive effect on adoption (Nayum and Klöckner, 2014), to have a negative effect on  
293 adoption intent (Carley et al., 2013), and to have no effect on adoption (Moons and De Pelsmacker, 2012;  
294 Peters and Dütschke, 2014). Concluding, the findings on associations between EV adoption intentions  
295 and gender, age, income, and education are mixed, necessitating further work to clarify our understanding  
296 of these relationships.

### 297 **1.2.5 Past pro-environmental behavior**

298 Broad-ranging research highlights the importance of accounting for past behavior in predicting future  
299 behavior (Ouellette and Wood, 1998). We consider that past PEB may impact EV adoption intentions.  
300 Supporting this notion, Whitmarsh and O’Neill (2010) note that past PEB significantly influences  
301 intentions to perform PEBs in the future. Past PEB has been linked to stronger intentions to use EVs  
302 (Moons and De Pelsmacker, 2012), but has not previously been considered as a predictor of EV adoption  
303 intentions alongside EV symbolic attributes (Axsen and Kurani, 2013; Krupa et al., 2014).

### 304 **1.2.6 Social norms**

305 Social norms (broadly, the social pressure to behave “appropriately”), can be encouraged by observing  
306 others meeting norms for a given situation (Keizer et al., 2013). Thus, if consumers perceive that many  
307 people around them are taking positive action for the environment and society by adopting EVs, they may  
308 perceive it as the “appropriate” thing to do, and develop stronger intentions to adopt EVs themselves.  
309 Supporting this idea, social norms related to EVs have been found to predict EV adoption intent (Peters  
310 and Dütschke, 2014). However, previous studies have not attempted to directly influence social norms as  
311 they pertain to EVs, for instance, through messaging that aims to give consumers the impression that their  
312 peers are engaging in PEB through EV purchases. Our study incorporated a messaging experiment in  
313 which respondents were randomly assigned to receive a message focused on either financial benefits of  
314 EVs or social norms surrounding EVs, the latter of which was intended to examine this potential.

315 **H4: Receipt of social norms messaging will predict stronger intent to adopt an EV than receipt of**  
316 **financial messaging**

## 317 **2 Methods**

318 The following section describes how we used survey data from a sample of Los Angeles (L.A.) County  
319 residents to test our hypotheses.

### 320 **2.1 Procedures**

321 Surveys were mailed to a random sample of residential customers of a large power utility in southern  
322 California in 2014. Sequentially, surveys first assessed dependent variables assessing dimensions of EV  
323 adoption intentions, followed by instrumental attributes, symbolism, and psychological characteristics,  
324 with demographic variables assessed last.

325 Additionally, households were randomly assigned to receive one of two persuasive cover letters  
326 introducing the study and inviting participation: half the sample received a social norms-focused  
327 persuasive message, emphasizing the increasing popularity, preponderance, and public acceptance of EVs  
328 in L.A. The other half received a financially-focused persuasive message, emphasizing the financial  
329 benefits of EVs including lower fuel and maintenance costs.

### 330 **2.2 Participants**

331 A total of 481 surveys were returned, including 218 from respondents who had received financial  
332 messaging and 263 from respondents who had received social norms messaging. Of these, 437  
333 respondents answered all three dependent variables. 124 individuals with missing data on predictor  
334 variables were then dropped. An additional two respondents who provided outlier responses of over  
335 10,000 miles to questions asking for perceived EV range and daily driving distances were coded as

336 having missing responses to these questions, raising the missing count to 126. This yielded a final sample  
 337 of 355 observations, which includes 155 and 200 respondents who received financial and social norms  
 338 persuasive messages, respectively.

339 The sample had a median age of 53.0 years and was roughly half female. Nearly three-quarters had  
 340 bachelor’s degrees, and approximately two-thirds identified as Caucasian, with one-third identifying as  
 341 minority or multi-racial. Compared to L.A. county, our sample was older, had higher income and  
 342 education levels, and contained a lower proportion of individuals identifying as a minority ethnicity or  
 343 multi-racial. See Table 2 for a summary of sample characteristics.

344 *Table 2: Participant demographic characteristics relative to Los Angeles County.*

Characteristic	Sample (%) <sup>a</sup>	Los Angeles County <sup>b</sup> (%)
Ethnicity		
African American	2.3	8.1
Asian / Asian American	11.9	13.7
Caucasian	67.6	27.5
Latino	10.7	47.9
Native American / Pacific Islander	0.6	0.2
Multiracial	4.9	2.1
Other	2.0	0.2
Educational Attainment (>= 25 yrs)		
Less than High School	1.1	23.4
High school diploma	4.3	20.5
Some college / Associate’s degree	22.1	26.5
4-year college degree	37.7	19.4
Graduate / professional degree	34.8	10.2
High School diploma or higher	98.9	76.6
Bachelor’s degree or higher	72.5	29.7
Annual household income		
<\$25,000	9.9	Median household income: \$55,909
\$25,001-\$50,000	13.6	
\$50,001-\$75,000	20.4	
\$75,001-\$100,000	13.6	
>\$100,000	42.5	
Home ownership rate	60.8	46.9
Home type		
Single Family Home	52.8	49.7
Apartment/Condo	35.9	34.3
Duplex, Triplex	5.9	8.0
Townhouse	4.5	6.5
Mobile Home	0.6	1.5
Other	0.3	
Gender (% male)	51.8	49.3
Age (median)	53.0	35.1

345 <sup>a</sup> Not all respondents answered all demographic questions. Available data for respondents who answered  
346 questions is as follows:  $N_{\text{ethnicity}} = 346$ ,  $N_{\text{education}} = 353$ ,  $N_{\text{income}} = 294$ ,  $N_{\text{home ownership}} = 355$ ,  $N_{\text{home type}} = 354$ ,  
347  $N_{\text{gender}} = 284$ ,  $N_{\text{age}} = 246$ . <sup>b</sup>(U.S. Census Bureau, 2013).

### 348 **2.2.1 Drop-out analyses**

349 Wilcoxon rank-sum tests were used to compare the median distribution of each dependent variable (see  
350 section 2.3.1 below for variable details) among the final main dataset (355 observations) to those  
351 excluded due to missing data (126 observations in total, though only 103-106 observations could be  
352 included in each test as many incomplete responses did not include the necessary dependent variable).  
353 The Wilcoxon rank-sum test is the nonparametric alternative to an independent samples t-test, and was  
354 used given the non-normal distributions of the dependent variables. No differences between completers  
355 and non-completers were observed for willingness to lease/buy. However, the distribution of completers  
356 was significantly different from that of non-completers for willingness to pay and impressions, such that  
357 completers scored significantly higher (for willingness to pay  $M_{\text{pay complete}} = 5.46$ ,  $M_{\text{pay dropped}} = 4.76$ ,  
358  $Mdn_{\text{pay complete}} = 5$ ,  $Mdn_{\text{pay dropped}} = 4$ ,  $U = 15934.5$ ,  $p < 0.03$ ; for impressions  $M_{\text{impressions complete}} = 3.99$   
359  $M_{\text{impressions dropped}} = 3.64$ ,  $Mdn_{\text{impressions complete}} = 4$ ,  $Mdn_{\text{impressions dropped}} = 4$ ,  $U = 15205.5$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This  
360 suggests that the respondents included in the present study were more favorable towards EVs, indicating  
361 that the results may not generalize to the general population. Results should be interpreted with caution in  
362 light of this.

## 363 **2.3 Measures**

364 The survey assessed three dependent variables and a number of independent variables, grouped into the  
365 following categories: instrumental attributes, symbolic attributes, demographic factors, and psychological  
366 factors. Table 3 provides summary statistics for these variables.

### 367 **2.3.1 Dependent variables**

368 The survey assessed three dependent variables selected to reflect increasing levels of commitment to EV  
369 adoption<sup>1</sup>. First, respondents provided their general impression of EVs on a 5-point scale ranging from 1  
370 = Strongly Unfavorable to 5 = Strongly Favorable. Second, they rated their willingness to lease or buy an  
371 EV as their next personal vehicle on a 10-point scale ranging from 1 = Extremely Unlikely to 10 =  
372 Extremely Likely. Finally, participants were asked to imagine they were interested in a car model that  
373 was also available in an all-electric vehicle. They were asked how much more they would be willing to  
374 pay for the EV compared to the conventional gas vehicle, with all other features of the vehicle being  
375 identical. Responses were provided on a 13-point scale ranging from 1 = \$0 to 13 = \$6000<sup>2</sup>. In all cases,  
376 a higher number corresponds to stronger EV adoption intentions.

### 377 **2.3.2 Symbolic attributes**

378 The survey included five questions focused on specific aspects of self-identity that EVs have been found  
379 to reflect (see Table 4 for question text). Responses were given on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 =  
380 Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree, with higher numbers indicating stronger endorsement of self-  
381 identity symbols in EVs.

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<sup>1</sup> Following Schuitema, we use the common assumption that Likert scales can be treated as interval-level data and analyzed using parametric methods (Schuitema et al., 2012; Kline, 2000; Nunally, 1978).

<sup>2</sup>This type of willingness to pay scale has been considered to lead to more valid values than using open-ended prompts, with respondents providing fewer zero values and with predictors explaining a greater amount of variance in willingness to pay (Donaldson et al., 1997).

382 **2.3.3 Instrumental attributes**

383 *2.3.3.1 Cost*

384 A total of three questions asked respondents to rate perceived EV costs compared to gasoline vehicle  
385 costs, using a 5 point Likert response scale where 1 = Much less and 5 = Much more. Questions  
386 separately assessed perceptions of (1) purchase costs, (2) maintenance costs, and (3) fuel costs.

387 *2.3.3.2 Charging Convenience*

388 Charging convenience was assessed with a binary variable. Respondents were asked “Do you have  
389 access to an electrical outlet where your car is parked at your primary residence?” with responses of no  
390 coded as “1” and yes as “2”.

391 *2.3.3.3 Range and driving distance*

392 Respondents were asked two open ended questions regarding driving distances. One question assessed  
393 perceived EV range, (“Approximately how many miles do you believe a fully-charged EV can drive  
394 before the battery is drained?”). A second question assessed estimated daily travel mileage (“On an  
395 average day, approximately how many miles do you drive in a car that you lease or own? Include trips  
396 made for work, school, shopping, errands, entertainment, etc.”). Responses to both questions were open-  
397 ended and requested in miles, and were coded as numeric integers. Additionally, we examined the  
398 difference between perceived EV range and daily driving distance (calculated as perceived EV range –  
399 estimated daily travel mileage, coded as a numeric integer); this was intended to measure perceptions that  
400 an EV could fulfill average daily driving needs on a single charge. Our main analyses (Tables 5 and 6)  
401 include only the perceived EV range variable. However, we also ran the models using the difference  
402 between perceived EV range and estimated daily travel mileage, and found similar patterns of results.

403 **2.3.4 Psychological characteristics**

404 *2.3.4.1 Concern about climate change*

405 We adapted a scale from Bostrom et al. (2012) to examine concern about climate change. Our scale  
406 comprised five questions (“To what extent are you concerned about air pollution in your city? “, “How  
407 serious a threat is climate change to humankind?”, “How well is climate change understood by science?”,  
408 “How much does the idea of climate change fill you with dread?”, and “To what extent do you have  
409 moral concern about climate change?”). Each was rated on a 7-point Likert scale where a higher number  
410 corresponded to a stronger concern about climate change. Factor analysis showed that the variables  
411 loaded onto one factor. To create a climate change concern scale, we took the mean of responses to  
412 available items<sup>3</sup>.

413 *2.3.4.2 Past pro-environmental behavior*

414 Past PEB was assessed with three items. Respondents rated, on a scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7  
415 (Strongly Agree), whether they made an effort to recycle, whether they had purchased lightbulbs that  
416 were more expensive but saved energy, and whether they have encouraged family or friends not to buy  
417 environmentally harmful products. A scale was created by taking the mean of available responses (at least  
418 two of the questions had to be answered to receive a scale score).

---

<sup>3</sup> Only respondents who answered more than half of items (at least 3) were retained in the final sample and received a scale score.

419 2.3.4.3 *Relevance of cars in general to self-identity*  
 420 Respondents rated, on a Likert scale of 1 to 7 with 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree, the  
 421 statement “I think the kind of car a person drives says something about the person”. This “car identity”  
 422 variable separates out variance associated with the belief that cars impact identity in general (i.e., generic  
 423 symbolic attributes), from variance associated with the ability of EVs to reinforce aspects of self-identity  
 424 corresponding to one or more symbolic reflections of self-identity.

425 **2.3.5 Demographic characteristics**

426 *Income.* Income was provided on a categorical scale (see Table 2). For analyses, we created a binary  
 427 variable, split roughly at the median income for L.A. county of \$55,909 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013).  
 428 Those with incomes of \$50,000 or greater received 1, and others received 0.

429 *Education.* Education was assessed using a categorical scale (see Table 2 for response options). For  
 430 analyses, we created a binary variable, coded 1 if respondents had a four-year college degree or higher,  
 431 and 0 otherwise.

432 *Age.* The survey assessed birth year. Age (in years) was calculated accordingly and coded as a continuous  
 433 variable.

434 *Gender.* Male gender was coded as 1, and female was coded as 0.

435 *Table 3: Descriptive statistics for key variables (main sample, N=355)*

		Response range	Mean	Std. Dev
Dependent Variables (N = 355)	Impressions	1-5	3.99	1.13
	Willingness to lease/buy	1-10	5.48	3.07
	Willingness to pay	1-13	5.46	3.36
Symbolism of unique aspects of self-identity (N = 355)	Environmentalism <sup>a</sup>	1-7	5.22	1.39
	Social Innovator <sup>b</sup>	1-7	5.07	1.08
Instrumental Attributes (N = 355)	Purchase cost	1-5	3.85	0.87
	Maintenance cost	1-5	2.93	1.17
	Fuel cost	1-5	1.77	1.04
	Charging convenience	1 / 2	1.47	0.50
	Estimated EV range	15-600	126.10	89.71
	Estimated daily driving mileage	0-250	24.95	24.00
Psychological characteristics (N = 355)	Past PEB <sup>c</sup>	1.67-7	5.70	1.00
	Concern about climate change <sup>d</sup>	1.4-7	5.39	1.18
	Car identity	1-7	5.08	1.42
Demographic characteristics (N = 224) <sup>e</sup>	Income	0 / 1		76
	Education	0 / 1		77
	Gender (% male)	0 / 1		50
	Age	22-93	48.25	15.79

<sup>a</sup>Cronbach’s alpha = 0.87, <sup>b</sup>Spearman’s rho = 0.35, <sup>c</sup>Cronbach’s alpha = 0.56, <sup>d</sup>Cronbach’s alpha = 0.87,

<sup>e</sup>Note that the demographic sub-sample of 224 respondents is presented here, for consistency with the results presented in Table 6 which were generated based on this sub-sample.

437 **2.4 Data preparation**

438 To test H1a and H1b we conducted iterative principal factor analysis using our full sample of 355  
439 respondents. To test H2a and H2b, we conducted OLS multiple regression analyses. To test H3a and  
440 H3b, we conducted mediation analyses by (1) using causal chain path diagrams (after Baron and Kenny,  
441 1986) and (2) calculating indirect effect sizes and using the distribution of the product of coefficients  
442 method to test their significance (Tofighi and MacKinnon, 2011). To examine H4, we conducted an  
443 additional univariate OLS analysis.

444 In constructing OLS models, we visually inspected normal quantile plots of residuals against the inverse  
445 normal for each dependent variable to identify skewness or kurtosis. Excessive skewness was found for  
446 impressions of EVs, so the variable was square-transformed to adjust for this. The Huber-White test was  
447 used to assess heteroscedasticity in our models, which was found for willingness to pay and willingness to  
448 lease/buy. Hence, Huber-White standard errors were used for all three models, to ensure unbiased  
449 estimation of variance even in presence of heteroscedasticity (White, 1980). Huber-White standard errors  
450 were additionally applied to mediation analysis testing following tests that indicated heteroscedasticity in  
451 main models and these are reflected in both the path diagrams and the indirect effect significance tests.

452 **3 Results**

453 **3.1 Factor analysis of symbolic attributes**

454 To examine H1a, we conducted iterative principal factor analysis constrained to three factors. Promax  
455 rotation was then applied. Results of this analysis are presented in Table 4. Factors were extracted based  
456 on Cattell's Scree test, which, being less impacted by the number of variables (Zwick and Velicer, 1986),  
457 can be more accurate than traditional K1 methods (Fabrigar and Wegener, 2011; Osborne and Costello,  
458 2009) although both methods in this case would yield two factors. The Scree plot indicates a two-factor  
459 solution (see Appendix 2) as inter-factor differences in eigenvalues fall off markedly from the third factor  
460 on. This two-factor solution is not in support of H1b, which predicted three specific aspects of self-  
461 identity would be symbolized by EVs. Constraining the solution to two factors returned similar results,  
462 provided in Appendix 3.

463 Following the recommendations of Osborne and Costello (2009), we used a minimum item loading cut-  
464 off of 0.40 to indicate that an item belongs to a factor. The first three questions loaded onto Factor 1,  
465 "environmentalist" symbolism, representing the perception that EVs reflect environmentalist self-identity.  
466 We therefore define the environmentalist symbol as the average score of the three underlying items.  
467 Cronbach's alpha for these three items was 0.87.

468 The remaining two questions, which were expected to load separately as innovator and social  
469 responsibility symbolism, both loaded onto Factor 2. The constituent items both reference the broader  
470 social fabric, and furthermore suggest an element of social innovation, indicated by technology  
471 "trendsetting" and taking responsible action for the good of society. Thus, Factor 2 is considered to  
472 represent "social innovator" symbolism. A spearman correlation examining the correlation between the  
473 two constituent items found a statistically significant relationship between the two variables ( $\rho = 0.35$ ,  $p =$   
474  $0.000$ ).



475 *Table 4: Promax rotated factor loadings and uniqueness of symbolic attributes items based on iterative*  
 476 *principal factor analysis constrained to three factors*

Question	Factor 1: Environmentalism	Factor 2: Social Innovator	Factor 3: Unsupported	Uniqueness
(1) Owning an EV demonstrates to others that I care about the environment	0.81	-0.06	0.13	0.34
(2) Changing from a gasoline-powered vehicle to an EV will lessen my impact on the environment	0.81	0.04	-0.07	0.32
(3) Driving an EV means that I am doing the right thing	0.71	0.26	0.04	0.20
(4) Driving an EV means that I am a trendsetter for environmentally friendly technologies	0.26	0.59	0.01	0.40
(5) Driving an EV means that I am socially responsible	-0.02	0.41	0.21	0.72
Eigenvalues:	2.48	1.70	0.40	

477

### 478 **3.2 Factors impacting EV adoption intentions**

479 Given the findings in section 3.1, to address H2a and H2b, we investigated the unique impacts of  
 480 “environmentalist” and “social innovator” symbolism on EV adoption intentions, rather than  
 481 “environmentalist, “innovator” and “social responsibility” symbolism separately as initially proposed. To  
 482 test H2a and H2b, we built three OLS multiple regression models, each of which examined one of our  
 483 dependent variables: impressions of EVs, willingness to lease/buy an EVs, and willingness to pay more  
 484 for an EV than an equivalent conventional vehicle. Predictors included symbolic attributes  
 485 (environmentalist and social innovator symbolism), instrumental attributes (purchase cost, maintenance  
 486 cost, fuel costs, access to charging outlet, and perceived EV range for a single charge), psychological  
 487 characteristics (concern about climate change, past PEB, and perceived relevance of cars to identity), and  
 488 demographic characteristics (income, education, age, and gender). Results are shown in Table 5.

489 Across all three dependent variables, the extent to which EVs were seen as symbolizing environmentalist  
 490 self-identity had greater predictive power than any other variable in any of the models, supporting H2b  
 491 (see Table 5). In addition, the extent to which respondents perceived EVs to symbolize social innovator  
 492 self-identity had a unique effect on impressions and intent to lease/buy an EV (and for both DVs was the  
 493 second strongest predictor after environmentalist symbolism), supporting H2a.

494 Instrumental attributes were also significant predictors of EV adoption intentions, but in general they had  
 495 weaker predictive strength than the symbolic attributes. Neither purchase cost nor fuel costs were large

496 predictors, though higher perceived purchase costs predicted lower willingness to lease/buy, and lower  
 497 perceived fuel costs predicted more positive impressions. Perceiving lower maintenance costs had larger  
 498 impacts that were significant for both willingness to lease/buy and willingness to pay. Additionally,  
 499 charging convenience predicted willingness to pay with a decent effect size, and had marginal  
 500 significance as a predictor of willingness to lease/buy. Surprisingly, perceived EV range was not  
 501 significantly associated with any of the dependent variables; nor was daily driving distance or the  
 502 difference between estimated range and daily driving distance (tested, but not reported here). We did not  
 503 find large impacts of psychological characteristics; concern about climate change had no effect on EV  
 504 adoption intent, and past PEB was only a marginal predictor of greater willingness to lease/buy.

505 *Table 5: Results of multiple regression analysis predicting EV adoption intentions (n =355)*

		Impressions (sq)	Willingness to lease/buy	Willingness to pay
Symbolic attributes	Environmentalist	0.48*** (0.32)	0.28*** (0.12)	0.27*** (0.17)
	Social Innovator	0.13* (0.39)	0.27*** (0.16)	0.04 (0.18)
Instrumental attributes	Purchase cost	-0.01 (0.40)	-0.09* (0.14)	0.03 (0.20)
	Maintenance cost	-0.07 (0.31)	-0.21*** (0.13)	-0.17** (0.15)
	Fuel cost	-0.12* (0.34)	-0.01 (0.14)	-0.08+ (0.16)
	Charging convenience	-0.03 (0.64)	0.06 (0.25)	0.20*** (0.31)
	Estimated EV range	0.01 (0.00)	-0.05 (0.00)	0.02 (0.00)
Psychological characteristics	Concern about climate change	-0.02 (0.36)	0.04 (0.14)	0.08 (0.19)
	Past PEB scale	0.07 (0.41)	0.09+ (0.16)	0.02 (0.17)
	Car identity	0.04 (0.23)	-0.00 (0.10)	0.01 (0.12)
	R <sup>2</sup>	0.43	0.44	0.27
	N	355	355	355

506 Standardized beta coefficients; Standard errors in parentheses

507 +  $p < 0.10$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

508

509 Because there were a large number of respondents missing demographic data, we evaluated the impact of  
 510 demographic variables on EV adoption intentions as a sub-analysis (Table 6; see Appendix 1 for a  
 511 summary of descriptive statistics on sub-sample). Specifically, we limited this sub-analysis to a sub-  
 512 sample of the 224 respondents who provided complete data for all dependent variables, independent  
 513 variables, and demographics. We added income, education, gender, and age to the OLS model described  
 514 above.

515 *Table 6: Results of multiple regression analysis predicting EV adoption intentions including demographic*  
 516 *characteristics (n = 224)*

		Impressions (sq)	Willingness to lease/buy	Willingness to pay
Symbolic attributes	Environmentalism	0.52*** (0.46)	0.27*** (0.18)	0.29*** (0.23)
	Social Innovator	0.05 (0.53)	0.21** (0.22)	0.04 (0.22)
Instrumental attributes	Purchase cost	0.04 (0.57)	-0.10+ (0.20)	0.01 (0.28)
	Maintenance cost	-0.12* (0.37)	-0.23*** (0.18)	-0.18** (0.20)
	Fuel cost	-0.10+ (0.39)	0.05 (0.16)	-0.05 (0.18)
	Charging convenience	-0.02 (0.85)	0.09 (0.38)	0.15* (0.43)
	Estimated EV range	-0.03 (0.00)	-0.08 (0.00)	-0.01 (0.00)
Psychological characteristics	Concern about climate change	-0.05 (0.50)	0.01 (0.19)	0.01 (0.24)
	Past PEB scale	0.08 (0.56)	0.15* (0.24)	0.02 (0.25)
	Car identity	0.07 (0.28)	0.07 (0.12)	0.03 (0.14)
Demographic characteristics	Income	0.00 (0.99)	-0.03 (0.44)	0.13* (0.46)
	Education	0.06 (0.92)	0.00 (0.40)	0.05 (0.48)
	Gender	0.06	0.05	0.19**

		(0.84)	(0.36)	(0.43)
	Age	-0.08 (0.03)	-0.04 (0.01)	-0.16* (0.01)
	R <sup>2</sup>	0.43	0.39	0.28
	N	224	224	224

517 Standardized beta coefficients; Standard errors in parentheses

518 <sup>+</sup>  $p < 0.10$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

519

520 In general, the same pattern of results emerged with respect to symbolic and instrumental attributes.  
521 Symbolic attributes, in particular the environmentalist symbol, remained strong predictors for all three  
522 dependent variables, indicating that H2a and H2b are robust to inclusion of demographic variables. Table  
523 6 additionally revealed that higher incomes were associated with higher willingness to pay. Being female  
524 or older was associated with lower willingness to pay. Demographic variables did not have an impact on  
525 the other dependent variables.

### 526 3.3 Concern about climate change: mediation

527 To test H3a and H3b, we conducted a single-level mediation analysis. Concern about climate change was  
528 the independent variable; the three dependent variables were impressions, willingness to lease/buy, and  
529 willingness to pay; and two mediators were environmentalist and social innovator symbolism. We began  
530 by estimating the three basic mediation equations for each dependent variable-mediator pair (Baron and  
531 Kenny, 1986):

532 Equation 1:  $y_i = c_01 + \tau x_i + e_{1i}$

533 Equation 2:  $m_i = c_02 + \alpha x_i + e_{2i}$

534 Equation 3:  $y_i = c_03 + \beta m_i + \tau' x_i + e_{3i}$

535 where  $y_i$  represents EV adoption intentions and  $\tau$  represents the direct effect of the independent variable  
536 (concern about climate change) on adoption intentions;  $m_i$  represents the mediator (environmentalist or  
537 social innovator symbolism) and  $\alpha$  represents the direct effect of the independent variable on the  
538 mediator; and  $\beta$  represents the effect size of the mediator holding the effect of the dependent variable  
539 constant,  $\tau'$  represents the effect size of the independent variable on EV adoption intentions holding the  
540 effect of the mediator (either environmentalist or social innovator symbolism) constant, and  $x_i$  represents  
541 the independent variable.

542 Based on the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  estimates produced by equations 2 and 3 for each dependent variable-mediator pair,  
543 we calculated the coefficient of the indirect effect ( $\alpha\beta$ ) for each mediator using the product of coefficients  
544 method outlined in MacKinnon et al. (2002). Next, we tested the significance of each indirect effect size  
545 using the distribution of the product of coefficients method (Tofiqhi & MacKinnon, 2011). Mediation was  
546 considered to occur if the indirect effect ( $\alpha\beta$ ) was significant, and if additionally the mediation path  
547 through both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  was significant (see Figure 2). Table 7 shows the effect sizes, standard errors, and  
548 significance of the indirect effects.

549 All six dependent variable-mediator pairs showed significant indirect effects (Table 7), and in addition  
550 significant paths existed along  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in path diagrams (Figure 2), indicating that mediation occurred for

551 all six pairs. Large indirect effects found for environmentalist and social innovator symbolism support  
 552 H3a and H3b. In addition, indirect effect sizes for environmentalist symbolism were consistently larger  
 553 than for social innovator symbolism, further supporting H3a.

554 *Table 7: Indirect effect sizes with standard errors in parentheses. Significance tested using the*  
 555 *distribution of the product of coefficients method.*

	Impressions	Willingness to lease/buy	Willingness to pay
Environmentalist	0.35 (0.04)***	0.77 (0.10)***	0.65 (0.13)***
Social Innovator	0.15 (0.03)***	0.57 (0.09)***	0.27 (0.09)**

556 <sup>+</sup>  $p < 0.10$ , \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

557  
 558 Figure 2 (a, b, and c) presents models of mediation paths. Each path  $\tau$  describes the direct effect of  
 559 concern about climate change on each dependent variable, as described in equation 1, while the path  $\tau'$   
 560 describes the effect of concern about climate change on each dependent variable when the impact of  
 561 either environmentalist or innovator symbolism is controlled for. Baron and Kenny (1986) specify the  
 562 use of unstandardized coefficients for this comparison. In Figure 2, paths  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are always positive and  
 563 statistically significant, and  $\tau'$  is always smaller than  $\tau$  such that the model passes the difference in  
 564 coefficients test (Baron and Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon et al., 2002). Thus, in conjunction with the  
 565 findings on the significance of indirect effect sizes presented in Table 7, Figure 2 supports H3a and H3b  
 566 that the relationship between concern about climate change and EV adoption intentions is mediated by  
 567 environmentalist and social innovator symbolism.

568 *Figure 2a-c: Causal chain path diagrams depicting the mediating roles of environmentalist and innovator*  
 569 *symbolism in the relationship between concern about climate change and EV adoption intentions.*<sup>4</sup>

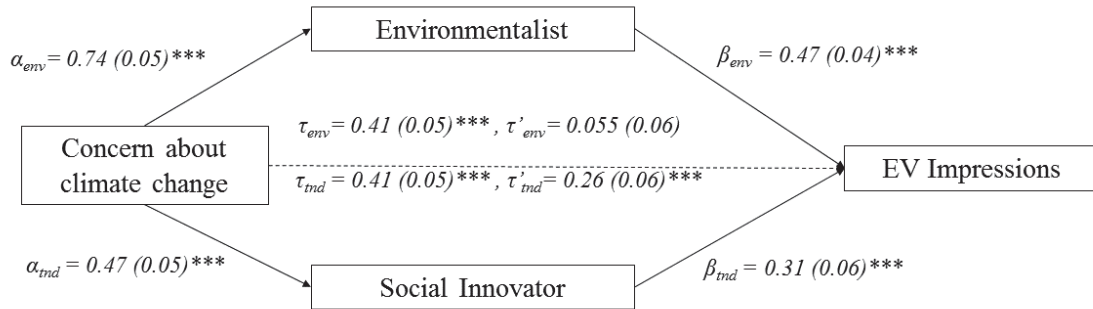
570

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<sup>4</sup> *Mediation of the relationship between concern about climate change and EV adoption intention are shown for three dependent variables (impressions, willingness to lease/buy, willingness to pay). Labels ( $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\tau$ ,  $\tau'$ ) correspond to the paths described in equations 1, 2, and 3. The direct effect is shown by  $\tau$ , and the indirect path passes through the mediator via  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .  $\tau'$  represents the size of the former direct path ( $\tau$ ) when the indirect path through  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is simultaneously taken into account.*

570

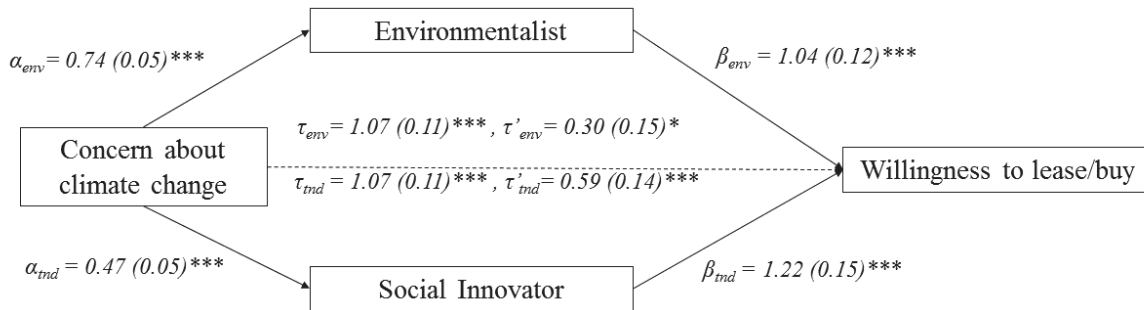
571 2a) Dependent variable: EV impressions



$\alpha\beta_{env} = 0.35 (0.04), 95\% \text{ CI}; \text{LL: } 0.28; \text{UL: } 0.43$   
 $\alpha\beta_{tnd} = 0.15 (0.03), 95\% \text{ CI}; \text{LL: } 0.09; \text{UL: } 0.21$

572

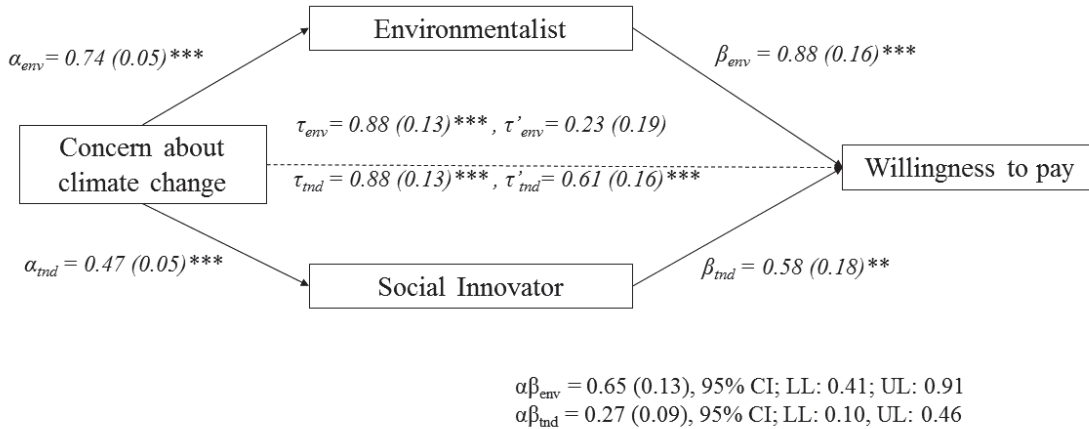
573 2b) Dependent variable: willingness to lease/buy EV



$\alpha\beta_{env} = 0.77 (0.10), 95\% \text{ CI}; \text{LL: } 0.58; \text{UL: } 0.97$   
 $\alpha\beta_{tnd} = 0.57 (0.09), 95\% \text{ CI}; \text{LL: } 0.41; \text{UL: } 0.76$

574

575 2c) Dependent variable: willingness to pay



576

### 577 3.4 Normative messaging intervention

#### 578 3.4.1 Validity check

579 A validity check was included whereby responses to two questions were expected to differ as a function  
 580 of the persuasive message received. These include the fuel and maintenance cost questions (see Section  
 581 2.3.3.1), which we expected those who received the financial message to rate lower (indicating lower  
 582 costs associated with EVs vs. conventional vehicles). Using Wilcoxon rank-sum tests (the non-parametric  
 583 alternative to the independent samples t-test, given the non-normal distributions of the relevant variables),  
 584 we did not find statistically significant differences on responses to the fuel cost question. However, those  
 585 who received financial messaging reported marginally lower maintenance costs than those who received  
 586 social messaging ( $U = 13909.5, p < 0.09, M_{\text{financial}} = 2.83, \text{Mdn}_{\text{financial}} = 3, M_{\text{social}} = 3.02, \text{Mdn}_{\text{social}} = 3$ ),  
 587 which was in the predicted direction. This provides modest evidence that respondents read messages.

#### 588 3.4.2 Influence of messaging on adoption intentions

589 A set of regression models was conducted to test H4. Impressions, willingness to lease/buy, and  
 590 willingness to pay were the dependent variables, and type of messaging received was the sole  
 591 independent variable. Contrary to expectations, type of messaging had no impact on adoption likelihood  
 592 ( $\beta = 0.05, \text{sd} = 0.13, p < 0.38$  for impressions,  $\beta = -0.01, \text{sd} = 0.36, p < 0.83$  for willingness to lease/buy;  
 593 and  $\beta = 0.07, \text{sd} = 0.39, p < 0.21$  for willingness to pay). We additionally tested whether messaging type  
 594 acted as a moderator of the relationships between each of the dependent variables and income, symbolic  
 595 attributes, and instrumental attributes, and found no evidence for moderation in any of these cases.

## 596 4 Discussion

597 This study builds on previous findings that symbolic attributes are important predictors of EV adoption  
 598 intentions (Noppers et al., 2014; Schuitema et al., 2013). We refined the concept of symbolic attributes,  
 599 defining this construct as “attributes which reflect specific aspects of self-identity”. We advance prior  
 600 work which has fallen short of examining symbolism associated with specific aspects of self-identity, the  
 601 impacts of such symbolism on adoption intentions, or symbolism alongside other important predictors of  
 602 EV adoption (Axsen and Kurani, 2013; Krupa et al., 2014). Specifically, we define and evaluate two

603 specific aspects of self-identity that EVs may be perceived to reflect: environmentalist and social  
604 innovator.

#### 605 **4.1 Specification of symbolic attributes reflecting aspects of self-identity**

606 Environmentalist, innovator, and social responsibility symbolism of self-identity were expected to load  
607 onto separate factors. Instead, we found two factors: environmentalist and social innovator symbolism,  
608 supporting H1a, but not H1b.

609 Innovator and social responsibility may load together due to the fact that both questions tapped a social  
610 element, i.e., by asking about being a “trendsetter”, and by asking about taking responsible action for  
611 societal good, both of which indicate setting a positive example for others in a social group. This aligns  
612 with prior suggestions that EVs and hybrids have the potential to embody new combinations of meanings,  
613 and in particular it appears they may bridge areas of innovation and social responsibility (Heffner et al.,  
614 2007). Hybrids are sometimes seen by their owners as “...symbols of advocating to vehicle  
615 manufacturers. By purchasing [a hybrid], households see themselves as providing support to automakers  
616 that have developed hybrid technology, and punishing those who have not” (Heffner et al., 2007). This  
617 supports the idea that EVs may embody self-identities focused on both innovation as well as feelings of  
618 socially responsibility, i.e., that EVs act as symbols for those who want to set socially responsible trends.

619 Also notable is that seeing driving an EV as “doing the right thing” loaded with environmentalist  
620 symbolism in the factor analysis. This highlights that respondents saw performing PEBs as doing the  
621 right thing, which may also indicate past exposure to pro-environmental social norms. California has been  
622 a leader of environmental policy since the 1960s (Sperling and Eggert, 2014), which has involved  
623 conveying various pro-environmental messaging to residents over the years.

#### 624 **4.2 The predictive strength of symbolic attributes reflecting self-identity**

625 Both environmentalist and social innovator symbolism are strong and independent predictors of EV  
626 adoption intentions, supporting H2a. This finding expands the literature, which has identified the  
627 importance of similar constructs separately but not examined them together (Axsen and Kurani, 2013;  
628 Krupa et al., 2014; Noppers et al., 2014). We confirm that environmentalist symbolism in particular is a  
629 powerful predictor for EV adoption intentions, and although previous research examining impacts of  
630 environmental imagery on hybrids used different analysis methods (Krupa et al., 2014), the greater  
631 significance of environmentalist symbolism as predictor in our model may indicate that this symbolic  
632 attribute has a greater impact on adoption intentions for EVs compared to hybrids; this possibility should  
633 be considered in future studies of low-emissions vehicles.

634 Additionally, our finding in support of H2b that environmentalist symbolism is the strongest predictor of  
635 EV adoption intentions across three dependent variables, over and above EV instrumental attributes as  
636 well as demographic and psychological characteristics, emphasizes that this particular type of symbolism  
637 should be included in future models. This construct is distinct from the measures of concern about  
638 climate change that have often previously been examined (Carley et al., 2013; Egbue and Long, 2012;  
639 Krupa et al., 2014; Skippon and Garwood, 2011), and also distinct from constructions of environmental  
640 attributes examined previously<sup>5</sup> (Noppers et al., 2014; Schuitema et al., 2013) due to its measurement of

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<sup>5</sup> Noppers et al. (2014) examined environmental attributes in terms of “low CO<sub>2</sub> emissions” and “environmentally friendly”.



641 EV reflections of environmentalist self-identity. Environmental self-identity has been linked to feeling a  
642 moral obligation to act pro-environmentally, which in turn affects PEBs such as EV adoption (Van der  
643 Werff et al., 2013b). The predictive strength (for EV adoption intentions) of seeing EVs to symbolize  
644 environmentalist self-identity extends these findings, and may in part be due to desires to show that one  
645 has acted on this type of moral obligation.

646 Providing context for our findings on social innovator symbolism, altruistic signaling can serve as a way  
647 to gain social status, particularly if such a signal is costly (costly signaling; Griskevicius et al., 2010).  
648 This may explain the significance of innovator symbolism for predicting willingness to lease/buy an EV.  
649 Paying additional money to set an environmentally friendly trend may be a new form of altruistic  
650 signaling offered by EVs, as suggested by the observation in Heffner et al. (2007) that EV purchases may  
651 be made with the intent to reward automakers for providing environmentally-friendly options. This is  
652 supported by previous observations that EV symbolism was rated higher by potential early adopters if  
653 they perceived instrumental attributes to be lower (Noppers et al., 2015). Additionally, consumers who  
654 perceived that EVs were not easy to use had stronger adoption intentions (Peters and Dütschke, 2014),  
655 which may indicate another form of “costly” signaling in terms of embracing a technological learning  
656 curve alongside additional monetary costs for trendsetting technologies.

657 There is some indication that decisions to purchase an EV may rest on a temporally-sensitive series of  
658 symbolic meanings. Specifically, we find that perceiving EVs as social innovator symbols is a strong  
659 predictor of willingness to lease/buy, but a relatively weak or insignificant predictor for impressions and  
660 willingness to pay. This suggests a shift in particular aspects of self-identity that are most valuable at  
661 different stages of adoption decision-making. Further research is needed to understand the process of EV  
662 adoption decision making over time, as well as the role that experience with EVs plays at these various  
663 stages.

### 664 **4.3 Concern about climate change: mediation**

665 Previous literature has found that concern about climate change directly predicts EV adoption intentions  
666 (Carley et al., 2013; Egbue and Long, 2012; Krupa et al., 2014; Skippon and Garwood, 2011), but this has  
667 not previously been examined alongside seeing EVs as social innovator or environmentalist symbols.  
668 Additionally, self-identity has been found to fully mediate the relationship between valuing the  
669 environment and actions to alleviate environmental harm (Van der Werff et al., 2013a), so we expected  
670 that social innovator and environmental symbolism associated with EVs would mediate the relationship  
671 between concern about climate change and EV adoption intentions (H3a and H3b). Our findings  
672 confirmed this hypothesis. This extends the literature by uncovering a mediating effect of self-identity  
673 symbolism associated with EVs, i.e., that seeing EVs to reflect environmentalist and social innovator self-  
674 identities mediates the relationship between concern about climate change and intent to purchase an EV.

675 On a practical note, our findings indicate that those concerned about climate change value the potential of  
676 EVs to reaffirm their environmentalist and social innovator identities. This has implications for EV  
677 marketing and uptake strategies. Educating people about the realities of climate change, and explaining  
678 why it needs to be mitigated, may not be sufficient to encourage people to take mitigating action if they  
679 do not feel that protecting the environment, or being a social innovator, are aspects of their identity. A  
680 different approach, perhaps with greater appeal to the ability of EVs to reflect environmentalist or social  
681 innovator identities, may be more effective in encouraging adoption.

682 **4.4 Effects of messaging**

683 To our surprise, we did not find any effects of persuasive messaging on adoption intentions, thus H4 was  
684 not supported. This may be because social norms of EV ownership were already apparent among our  
685 sample of L.A. residents at the time of data collection, even if they did not receive the social norms  
686 messaging in our study. California is at the forefront of EV adoption across the U.S. with EVs  
687 constituting 1.5% of new vehicle sales in 2014 when data were collected (California New Car Dealers  
688 Association, 2014), vs. 0.7% across the U.S. (IEA, 2016). In addition, L.A. is a recognized leader of  
689 progressive municipal energy policy (Pincetl et al., 2016). For EV policy in particular, in 2012 L.A. set a  
690 target to have 80,000 EVs by 2015, and promoted electric buses and trucks alongside initiatives to  
691 increase availability of charging stations, while additionally working with a regional collaborative to  
692 promote EVs (IEA, 2012). Thus, L.A. residents are likely to have seen EVs around town, which could  
693 plausibly convey positive social norms about them. This could have muted the impact of the social norms  
694 messaging, either because the message did not convey new norms, or because the financial group also  
695 subscribed to such norms. Alternatively, one brief message may not have been sufficient to influence  
696 social norms. It is also possible that the financial messaging had a positive impact on EV adoption  
697 intentions on par with effects of social norms messaging, hence failing to produce a distinguishable  
698 difference between the two messaging types. Further research should test marketing approaches to  
699 encourage EV uptake to discern what strategies work best, and for which consumers.

700 **5 Conclusion**

701 Previous studies have operationalized symbolic attributes broadly in terms of EVs as status symbols, but  
702 have not examined the predictive power of EVs reflecting specific aspects of self-identity. We advance  
703 this literature by refining the concept of symbolic attributes to include specific reflections of self-identity,  
704 examining whether EV adoption intentions are impacted by seeing EVs as symbols for environmentalist  
705 and social innovator self-identities. We evaluate the relative importance of these symbolic attributes  
706 reflecting specific aspects of self-identity alongside a set of additional variables that prior studies have  
707 linked to EV adoption, and find that perceiving EVs to reflect environmentalist self-identity was the  
708 strongest and most consistent predictor of EV adoption intentions.

709 Concern about climate change has previously been found to influence EV adoption intentions, but  
710 mechanisms for this concern translating into action have not previously been examined. We find that  
711 seeing EVs as environmentalist and social innovator symbols mediates the relationship between concern  
712 about climate change and EV adoption intentions. That is, individuals who are concerned about climate  
713 change perceive stronger reflections of environmentalist and innovator identities in EVs, and this in turn  
714 leads to stronger intent to adopt EVs. This indicates that efforts intended to increase EV adoption should  
715 couch EVs as reflections of these aspects of self-identity, not so much as tools to address climate change  
716 per se.

717 **6 Limitations and Future Directions**

718 Our findings should be viewed in light of several limitations. First, our study relied on self-report, which  
719 is not as strong an outcome as observed behavior. Future work using actual EV purchase data is needed to  
720 address these limitations. Second, relative to L.A. County, our sample was older, and included higher  
721 proportions of people with higher educational attainment, incomes, and those who identified as

722 Caucasians. Third, a large number of initial respondents were dropped due to missing data. Drop-out  
723 analyses indicated that those retained in the final sample were more favorable towards EVs than those  
724 who were dropped, so our results may not capture the full range of variation in EV adoption likelihood.  
725 Hence, results may not generalize to all populations or settings. As consumers who are highly educated  
726 have been noted to be interested in EVs as early adopters (Carley et al., 2013), results may overestimate  
727 adoption willingness of those in later adopter groups (according to diffusion of technology). Additional  
728 work in non-early-adopter markets is needed to assess the generalizability of our results.

729 Fourth, we used a limited number of questions to assess symbolism. A larger number of questions  
730 designed to measure a greater spread of distinct symbolic reflections on self-identity could reveal  
731 additional clusters of meaning that influence adoption, such as technological or innovator symbolism  
732 separate from social and responsibility aspects, or use of EVs to signal anti-war ideologies (Heffner et al.,  
733 2007; Noppers et al., 2014). In addition, future work should also assess self-identity to provide further  
734 insights into how concern about climate change, self-identity, and symbolism work together to impact EV  
735 adoption intentions. Next, our assessment of instrumental attributes was limited in that it only considered  
736 estimated range, costs, and charging convenience, whereas previous studies of EVs have assessed  
737 additional instrumental attributes such as vehicle performance, comfort, and driving experience (Noppers  
738 et al., 2015; Schuitema et al., 2013); future studies would be well advised to consider all of these  
739 instrumental factors. Finally, we assessed estimated EV range, rather than asking respondents to report  
740 subjective concerns regarding range. Although we found that estimates of EV range, estimates of typical  
741 daily driving needs, and the difference between these two variables did not impact EV adoption  
742 intentions, it may still be the case that *concerns* regarding EV range could impact adoption intentions.  
743 Future work should consider perceptions of EV range limitations as well as associated feelings of anxiety  
744 or concern.

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948 **9 Appendix 1**

949 *Table A1: Descriptive statistics for key variables among main sample (246 < n < 355 respondents with*  
 950 *available demographic data) and sub-sample (n = 224 respondents with full data on demographic*  
 951 *variables)*

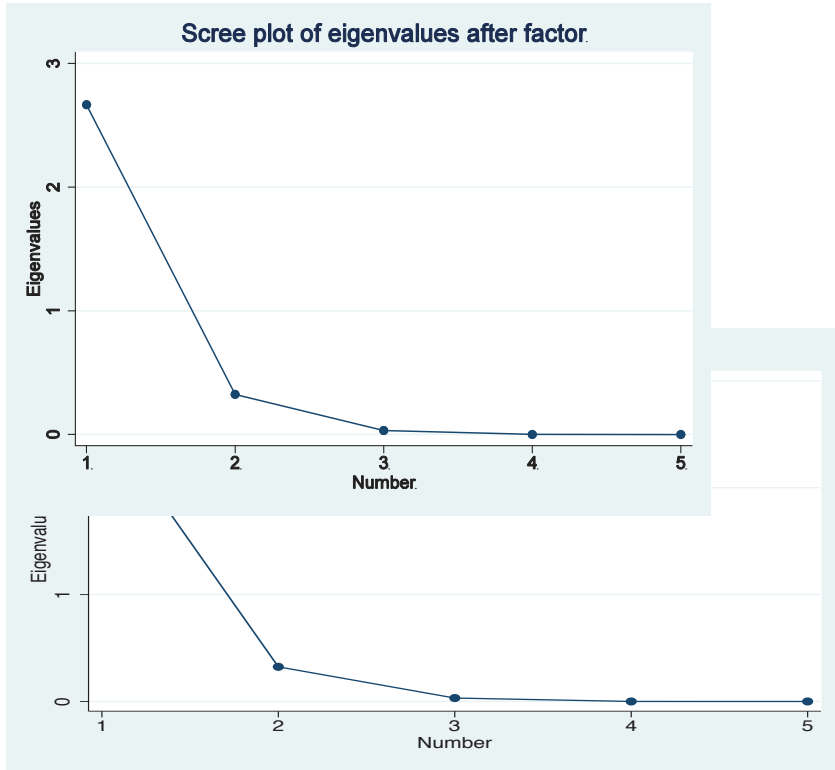
Characteristic	Sample (%) <sup>a</sup>	Sample (%) N = 224	Los Angeles County <sup>b</sup> (%)
<b>Ethnicity</b>	(N = 346)		
African American	2.3	1.8	8.1
Asian / Asian American	11.9	12.1	13.7
Caucasian	67.6	67.4	27.5
Latino	10.7	11.2	47.9
Native American / Pacific Islander	0.6 4.9	0.5 5.4	0.2 2.1
Multiracial	2.0	1.8	0.2
Other			
<b>Educational Attainment (&gt;= 25 yrs)</b>	(N = 353)		
Less than High School	1.1	0.9	23.4
High school diploma	4.3	3.13	20.5
Some college / Associate's degree	22.1 37.7	18.8 38.4	26.5 19.4
4-year college degree	34.8	38.8	10.2
Graduate / professional degree	98.9	99.0	76.6
High School diploma or higher	72.5	77.2	29.7
<b>Annual household income</b>	(N = 294)		
<\$25,000	9.9	8.9	Median household income: \$55,909
\$25,001-\$50,000	13.6	15.2	
\$50,001-\$75,000	20.4	21.9	
\$75,001-\$100,000	13.6	12.5	
>\$100,000	42.5	41.5	
Home ownership rate	(N = 355) 60.8	53.1	46.9
<b>Home type</b>	(N = 354)		
Single Family Home	52.8	46.4	49.7
Apartment/Condo	35.9	42.0	34.3
Duplex, Triplex	5.9	6.7	8.0
Townhouse	4.5	4.5	6.5
Mobile Home	0.6	0.5	1.5
Other	0.3	0	
Gender (% male)	(N = 284) 51.8	50.0	49.3
Age (median)	(N = 246) 53	48.0	35.1

952 <sup>a</sup> Not all respondents answered all demographic questions. Available data for respondents who answered  
 953 questions is as follows: N<sub>ethnicity</sub> = 346, N<sub>education</sub> = 353, N<sub>income</sub> = 294, N<sub>home ownership</sub> = 355, N<sub>home type</sub> = 354,  
 954 N<sub>gender</sub> = 284, N<sub>age</sub> = 246. <sup>b</sup>(U.S. Census Bureau, 2013).

956

957 **10 Appendix 2**

958 *Figure A1: Scree plot for symbolic attributes factor analysis; promax-rotated iterative principal factor*  
959 *analysis constrained to three factors*



960

961 **11 Appendix 3**

962 *Table A2: Promax rotated factor loadings and uniqueness of symbolic attributes items based on iterative*  
963 *principal factor analysis constrained to two factors*

Question	Factor 1: Environmentalism	Factor 2: Social Innovator	Uniqueness
(1) Owning an EV demonstrates to others that I care about the environment	0.78	0.05	0.37
(2) Changing from a gasoline-powered vehicle to an EV will lessen my impact on the environment	0.84	-0.03	0.32
(3) Driving an EV means that I am doing the right thing	0.72	0.27	0.19
(4) Driving an EV means that I am a trendsetter for environmentally friendly technologies	0.30	0.55	0.42
(5) Driving an EV means that I am socially responsible	-0.04	0.54	0.73
Eigenvalues	2.49	1.61	