

TOPICAL REVIEW • **OPEN ACCESS**

Demand-side challenges and research needs on the road to 100% zero-emission vehicle sales

To cite this article: Scott Hardman *et al* 2025 *Prog. Energy* **7** 022001

View the [article online](#) for updates and enhancements.

You may also like

- [Intercalation in Li-ion batteries: thermodynamics and its relation to non-ideal solid-state diffusion](#)
Marco Lagnoni, Gaia Armiento, Cristiano Nicoletta et al.
- [Comparison of energy prediction models for residential buildings: a case study in Himachal Pradesh, India](#)
Rajat Nainwal and Aniket Sharma
- [Static theoretical investigations of organic redox active materials for redox flow batteries](#)
Aleksandr Zaichenko, Andreas J Achazi, Simon Kunz et al.

Progress in Energy



TOPICAL REVIEW

OPEN ACCESS

RECEIVED
3 April 2024

REVISED
25 September 2024

ACCEPTED FOR PUBLICATION
13 December 2024







PUBLISHED
9 January 2025

Original content from this work may be used under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 licence](#).

Any further distribution of this work must maintain attribution to the author(s) and the title of the work, journal citation and DOI.



Demand-side challenges and research needs on the road to 100% zero-emission vehicle sales

Scott Hardman^{1,*} , Amrita Chakraborty¹ , Kelly Hoogland¹ , Claire Sugihara¹, John Paul Helveston² , Anders Fjendbo Jensen³, Alan Jenn¹ , Patrick Jochem⁴, Patrick Plötz⁵ , Frances Sprei⁶, Brett Williams⁷, Jonn Axsen⁸, Erik Figenbaum⁹, Jose Pontes¹⁰, Gil Tal¹ and Nazir Refa¹¹

- ¹ University of California, Davis, Davis, United States of America
 - ² George Washington University, Washington, DC, United States of America
 - ³ Technical University of Denmark, Kongens Lyngby, Denmark
 - ⁴ DLR (German Aerospace Center), Köln, Germany
 - ⁵ Fraunhofer (ISI) Institute for Systems and Innovation Research, Karlsruhe, Germany
 - ⁶ Chalmers University of Technology, Gothenburg, Sweden
 - ⁷ Center for Sustainable Energy, San Diego, United States of America
 - ⁸ Simon Fraser University, Burnaby, Canada
 - ⁹ TOI (The Institute of Transport Economics), Oslo, Norway
 - ¹⁰ EV Volumes, Trollhättan, Sweden
 - ¹¹ ElaadNL, Arnhem, The Netherlands
- * Author to whom any correspondence should be addressed.

E-mail: shardman@ucdavis.edu, amchakraborty@ucdavis.edu, kmhoogland@ucdavis.edu, ccsugihara@ucdavis.edu, jph@gwu.edu, afje@dtu.dk, ajenn@ucdavis.edu, Patrick.Jochem@dlr.de, patrick.ploetz@isi.fraunhofer.de, frances.sprei@chalmers.se, Brett.Williams@energycenter.org, jonn_axsen@sfu.ca, Erik.Figenbaum@toi.no, jose.pontes@ev-volumes.com, gtal@ucdavis.edu and Nazir.Refa@elaad.nl

Keywords: electric vehicle, demand, barriers, consumer, review

Abstract

Most net-zero emissions targets require electrification of the entire light-duty vehicle fleet, and before that the electrification of all new vehicle sales. In this paper, we review literature on demand-side issues related to achieving 100% zero-emissions vehicle sales, focusing on plug-in electric vehicles (PEVs). We discuss potential demand-side challenges to increasing PEV sales and related research gaps, including consumer factors (perceptions, knowledge, and consumer characteristics), demand-focused policy (incentives), infrastructure, and energy prices. While global PEV sales have substantially increased in recent years, several challenges remain: some demographic groups are currently underrepresented among PEV buyers (e.g. renters, lower income buyers), some car drivers are resistant to PEVs, incentives are influential but have predominantly benefited higher-income new-car buyers and are being phased out, infrastructure is not sufficiently developed or equally distributed, infrastructure is not user friendly, and some households lack charging access. Some issues we identify may be related to the early stage of the PEV market, though will need to be addressed to reach higher PEV sales and PEV fleet shares. Finally, we outline areas where more research is needed to understand and guide the PEV transition.

1. Introduction

More than 30 countries and several subnational regions have introduced, or indicated their intent to introduce, regulations requiring 100% zero emission vehicle (ZEV) sales by between 2025 and 2040 [1–3]. Many of these targets are tied to greenhouse gas emissions reductions targets, including 2050 net zero emission targets and the need to constrain global warming to 1.5 °C as determined in the Paris Climate Accords [4]. Most markets currently have low ZEV sales and even lower shares of ZEVs on the road. In 2023, 18% of global vehicle sales were ZEVs. The largest auto market, China, reached 30% and the second largest, USA, reached 10%, with some Nordic nations achieving sales of as high as 90% [5]. Of course, the stock of ZEVs lags this, at around 7.6% in China, 2.1% in USA, and 29% in Norway [6]. In short, most regions

pursuing 100% light-duty ZEV sales and eventually 100% ZEV stock still need large changes in their vehicle fleet.

Our aim with this paper is to identify potential challenges to higher ZEV sales and outline future research needs to help understand, and guide, the ZEV transition. Most existing studies do not consider challenges to reaching 100% sales. Therefore, we review studies related to ZEV demand to identify potential challenges to higher ZEV sales by highlighting areas where progress is lacking, or issues exist. Then, we identify areas where more research is needed based on the currently published literature. Some identified challenges and research questions may relate to the early stage of the ZEV market and could be resolved as the transition takes its natural course. However, if they are not resolved the issues may impact market growth.

We selected topics to include in this review in three workshops held with the authors and based on reviewing literature on factors related to ZEV demand to identify areas to include. Based on this, the authors proposed these topics as key issues and research areas related to ZEV demand and consumer adoption of ZEVs. The review is a narrative review, we did not develop a systematic review protocol, instead our goal was to identify and review key studies related to the topics we identify. We focus on plug-in electric vehicles (PEVs), including battery electric vehicles (BEVs) and plug-in hybrid electric vehicles (PHEVs). Among PEVs, only BEVs are fully zero-emission from a tailpipe perspective, though numerous policies globally include PHEVs as part of their definitions of ZEVs [7]. Therefore, we include evidence from studies on PHEVs. We do not consider fuel cell electric vehicles (FCEVs) due to the nascent status of the FCEV market.

We focus exclusively on demand-side or consumer factors, including characteristics of current adopters, consumer perceptions of PEVs, PEV use, incentives, and infrastructure issues that broadly relate to consumers. We do not discuss technical issues (technology development, electricity demand, etc) or supply-side issues (manufacturing, supply chain issues, etc). Supply-side issues are the topic of another review by Jenn *et al* [8]. Since most research on PEV adoption focuses on new PEV purchases, we primarily review literature on new vehicle adoption, although literature on used PEV adoption is included where available. We consider studies in all regions and draw from studies with a broad range of quantitative and qualitative methods. Finally, we only focus on PEVs but note that other sustainable transportation options can and are needed to contribute to meeting net zero targets, including active transportation, micromobility, transit, and reductions in car centric transportation [9]. We organize the literature review along different themes, including:

- Consumer perceptions and preferences: this includes perceptions related to technological, financial, and social factors, as well as issues related to PEV purchase intentions.
- Consumer characteristics: PEV adopter demographic profiles and lifestyles, attitudes, norms, and whether these attributes of PEV buyers are changing over time.
- PEV use: this includes how PEVs are being used by households, focusing on annual miles or kilometres driven.
- Consumer engagement: this includes literature on consumer awareness and knowledge of PEVs and how car buyers may learn about PEVs.
- Contextual factors: including incentives, infrastructure, and energy prices, and their impact on PEV demand.

The paper discusses findings from the literature in each of these areas in the above order. Following that we discuss potential challenges to higher ZEV sales and future research needs. In many areas we review there is a large and growing body of PEV research, using a wide variety of methods across different regions. One major distinction between studies is that some focus on understanding ZEV adopters (owners) versus potential future adopters. Both perspectives offer useful information and will be needed to guide the PEV transition. PEV adopter research provides more concrete evidence on consumer characteristics and behaviour but is limited in most markets to the earliest buyers and does not necessarily provide evidence regarding future buyers. Forward-looking consumer research typically relies on stated response methods such as choice experiments and helps to anticipate future adoption and behaviour.

2. Consumer perceptions and preferences

In this section we review research on consumer perceptions of PEV related attributes including technical and financial attributes. We include this area of research since negative perceptions of PEV attributes may be a barrier to continual market growth.

2.1. Perceptions of technical attributes

The limited driving range of BEVs has been one of the most commonly mentioned barriers to adoption [10], with some studies (published between 2012 and 2015, when the average BEV range was less than 200 km) finding range to be the most substantial barrier [11–13]. Consumers have perceived BEV ranges as insufficient compared to the range of ICEVs, to meet demand for general travel [14–16], for longer trips [17, 18], and for drivers with higher than usual travel demands [10, 11]. Whether range continues to be a barrier may depend on if consumer perceptions keep up with range improvements. Many of the studies that reported range as a barrier to PEV adoption were published before recent improvements in driving range¹². However, even recent studies suggest range may still be an issue. As Herberz *et al* [19] show, range is a psychological barrier rather than technical barrier, that can be partially addressed by providing information on the compatibility of BEV range with travel demand. Drivers may also be concerned about the impact of ancillary load (e.g. heating and cooling), driving style, weather, towing, and battery degradation on range [14, 20], and also if they only have one vehicle in their household [10].

Wicki *et al* [10] identified long charging times as one of the top three concerns reported in the literature. Several studies conducted in North America, Europe, and Asia find charging is the most substantial barrier for PEV purchase [12, 13, 20–24]. Lack of access to charging stations while at home is a commonly reported barrier, particularly for consumers without access to a private garage or dedicated parking space [25, 26]. Several studies find home charging is the most influential in the decision to purchase a PEV [17, 27–29]. Kurani [30] found that in 2021 car owners perceived there are not enough places to charge a PEV in California despite growth in EVSE deployment. In addition to a perceived lack of charging, consumers can be deterred from purchasing PEVs due to the complexity of charging infrastructure, including the large variety of user interfaces, payment and interoperability issues [26, 31–33], and difficulty locating public charging stations [14, 17]. Research is also beginning to highlight issues with public infrastructure reliability [34], which could impact the experiences of PEV buyers and perceptions of prospective PEV buyers which could in turn impact demand.

While some studies found acceleration, smoothness, and decreased noise as benefits of BEVs, other studies found that BEVs were viewed less favourably in terms of performance [10, 14, 16]. This discrepancy may be at least partially attributable to a lack of knowledge and experience with PEVs, as numerous studies find perceptions of PEV driving performance are positively correlated with experience [27, 35, 36]. Safety concerns are also prevalent in older studies, including the 2012 studies by Egbue and Long [37] and Graham-Rowe *et al* [38] and in more recent studies on emerging PEV markets [14]. Negative perceptions of safety include concerns over the safety of the battery as well as the vehicle itself [39]. Consumers also report the lack of diversity in vehicle types, drivetrain options (e.g. four-wheel or all-wheel drive), body types (e.g. sedans, hatchbacks, pickup trucks) [14], and the limited number models to choose from as barriers to purchase [11]. While the number of PEV models in the U.S. Europe, and Asia is increasing, some models are in low supply, and less mature PEV markets face limited vehicle choices [40]. Other issues include a lack of brand choice, a lack of used PEVs, and supply shortages or long waiting periods for vehicles [14, 41, 42].

Finally some consumers also report avoiding PEV purchases because they did not like how the vehicles looked or because they lacked joy [14, 17]. Some consumers are also skeptical that PEVs can provide social and environmental benefits [14, 17, 20] and have concerns on whether environmental harms from battery manufacturing might mitigate emissions savings [14, 15, 17, 20]. Perhaps because of some of these perceptions, Kurnai [43] reports that 17% of California drivers indicate they would never consider purchasing a PEV.

2.2. Perceptions of financial attributes

Purchase price is frequently mentioned as a barrier to PEV adoption [10, 15, 40, 44], and two studies from 2016 and 2017 found this to be the largest barrier [21, 24]. While lower operating costs can result in cost savings over the lifetime of the vehicle, that is not always the case in instances of lower gasoline and higher electricity prices [45, 46]. Consumers may also ignore any potential savings and focus on upfront costs [18, 40], doubt longer term savings [10], lack the expertise needed to calculate total cost of ownership savings [16], or be unaware of vehicle economy or fuel expenditures [47]. Some consumers also perceive PEVs as more expensive to maintain and repair than ICEVs [10, 14], sometimes due to concerns about battery degradation and the potential need to replace the battery [11].

¹² In 2022, the sales weighted average BEV range was approximately 350 km (217 miles) in the US and 300 km (186 miles) in European countries, compared to less than 200 km (125 miles) in all regions 10 years ago [163].

3. Consumer characteristics

Here we summarize trends in PEV consumer characteristics, we include this area of research as studies show PEV buyers are different in many areas compared to conventional vehicle buyers. For the PEV market to reach higher levels of adoption PEV buyers should have similar characteristics as new car buyers, and for higher levels of fleet adoption similar characteristics as all drivers.

3.1. Sociodemographic & household characteristics of ZEV consumers

In many cases new technology adopters differ from the general population, and so far, this is the case for PEV adopters. Stated preference studies in the US and EU often find PEV buyers are likely to be highly educated, have a higher than average household income, own multiple vehicles, are younger or middle aged, and live in a detached house or single family home [25, 35, 48–51]. Studies with samples of early adopters generally show PEV buyers are similar to what stated preference studies predicted. PEV buyers are generally higher income, highly educated, own multiple vehicles, and are more likely to be male in some markets [52–55]. Rather than being younger to middle aged, PEV adopters are middle to later aged. Some longitudinal or multiple cross-sectional studies show demographics are changing over time, the reported changes have been small so far and are mostly related to changes in PEV buyer income, education, or buyer age. Notably there has been little change to PEV buyer gender (adopters are mostly male) in some markets (e.g. USA and Germany) and home ownership (adopters mostly own their home) [54–57]. Research also suggests PEV buyers are often clustered in specific regions characterized by higher income households and a high proportion of houses that are detached or single family homes [58–60].

Research on used PEV buyers is in a nascent stage but is beginning to show used PEV buyers are also different from the general used car buying population. Used PEV buyers are more likely to own their home, live in a detached house, have a higher level of education, and have a higher household income [61], though used PEV owners may be more geographically dispersed than new PEV owners [62].

The characteristics of new and used PEV buyers mean that both those interested in buying PEVs and those adopting them are currently and historically dissimilar to conventional car owners (a much more diverse population) though they are becoming more similar to *new* car buyers who have higher incomes, are older, are more likely to have a college degree, own their home, and identify as white [55, 56, 63]. This means PEV owners also share many characteristics with early adopters of new technologies in general [64].

3.2. Lifestyles, attitudes, and norms of PEV buyers

Studies have also investigated how PEV adoption is related to beliefs, attitudes, and norms [65], sometimes using frameworks such as the theory of planned behaviour [66], theory of reasoned action [67], value-belief-norm theory [68], and other theories. Studies that consider attitudes generally consider respondents evaluations and perceptions related to specific issues, often technology, the environment, or transportation issues. Studies that consider norms typically consider aspects like subjective norms which pertain to participants perceptions of societal expectations on certain behaviours. Beliefs are often related to aspects that precede consumer attitudes and norms and relate to consumer thoughts on various issues.

Attitudes, beliefs, or norms related to PEV adoption typically include factors related to the environment or technology. Having positive attitudes toward pro-environmental behaviour is significantly related to PEV acceptance in 33 of the 38 studies reviewed by Wicki *et al* [10]. Studies also find concern on dependence on foreign oil [49, 69] and local air pollution [69] are correlated with PEV adoption. Wicki *et al* [10] also found interest in technology was significantly related to PEV adoption in 7 of 12 studies that included technology as a measure. While interest in technology is related to PEV adoption some consumers are resistant to new technology in general [64], and the same resistance has been found for PEVs [20]. Some consumers view PEVs as unproven technology [14, 38]. While the data from these studies was collected in earlier years, a study with 2021 data found that some California car owners still perceived PEVs as being unproven technology not ready for mass markets [43].

4. PEV use

Here we consider PEV use, focusing on the annual miles or kilometres PEVs are driven. We include this since studies show differences in PEV use compared to conventional vehicles. How PEVs are used may relate to demand, for example, if PEVs are driven less than conventional vehicles this could point to a lack of demand among higher mileage users. Additionally, to reach higher PEV sales the vehicles may need to be like-for-like replacements for conventional vehicles.

Several studies have explored PEV use, often focusing on annual vehicle miles or kilometers travelled. Large sample size studies (on the order of 100 000 vehicles) using vehicle odometer readings [70] and

estimated VMT from home charging data [71] have concluded that PEVs are driven significantly less than conventional vehicles, approximately 7000–8000 miles per year compared to 11 000–12 000 for conventional vehicles. Older survey-based studies have drawn the same conclusions [72]. However, these differences may reflect the demographics of early adopters, most of whom own multiple vehicles, have different demographic attributes, and may have different driving needs, or they may be due to other factors such as higher leasing rates (leases have annual mileage caps) or limited driving range and/or charging infrastructure. Higher-range BEVs and BEVs with dedicated charging infrastructure (e.g. Teslas) have been found to have higher mileage than other PEVs [70]. Some recent survey based studies [73, 74] and studies using vehicle loggers [75] have found PEVs are driven at similar rates as conventional vehicles, although these studies have smaller sample sizes (on the order of 1000).

In places with a more developed PEV market and infrastructure, such as Norway, there is growing evidence that PEVs are being driven further than gasoline vehicles [76] or a similar amount [77, 78]. This could mean early observed VMT differences will be short-lived as more diverse buyers adopt PEVs and more PEV options become available in the future. This is important as PEV adoption by higher-mileage drivers has larger net environmental benefits.

5. Consumer engagement

Here we review literature on consumer awareness, experience, and knowledge of PEVs, which we broadly refer to as engagement. Research shows PEV sales are correlated with measures of PEV awareness [79, 80] and there is positive a correlation between PEV adoption and having personal communications with PEV owners [14, 81, 82]. The latter is one potential explanation for PEV buyers being clustered in specific regions, due to social network effects, where PEV adoption increases because more people observe PEVs or engage with other PEV owners [58]. However, among the general population, studies show a lack of consumer knowledge, awareness, and familiarity of PEVs [43, 83], which affects attitudes and willingness to adopt PEVs [10, 16–18, 20]. Research has also found little change in awareness, knowledge, and consideration over time, with Kurani [30] finding few changes between 2014 and 2021 and Long *et al* [84] finding little change between 2013 and 2017. Whether awareness or knowledge have changed after those years is not yet clear.

While technological progress continues, less progress has been made on improving consumer awareness, perceptions, and knowledge of PEVs. Several cross sectional studies in North America [30, 43, 84, 85] show little change in consumer knowledge, perceptions, and consideration to purchase a PEV. This may indicate there is a disconnect between the technical improvements of PEVs and perceptions of PEVs, although it is unclear whether this is because of a lag in buyers' perceptions about PEV advancements or because they still perceive them to be unsuitable even with these advancements. Research also shows increased resistance to PEVs among new car buyers [43], low support for ZEV sales regulations [86], and lessening support for PEV incentives over time [87].

Studies have also identified some dealerships and salespeople as a barrier to PEV adoption [14, 15, 40, 44, 88–90]. Studies have found car sellers were uninformed, misinformed, and unmotivated to learn about PEV technology, charging, and incentives, leading to poor customer experiences. Dealers have also been found to directly misinform customers about PEV range, incentives, and charging experiences as well as be dismissive of PEV technology, leave them out of conversations, steer customers away from them, and portray them as an inferior technology [44, 90]. These barriers may be a result of a lack of knowledge about PEVs, expected difficulties in selling them to customers [40, 44], and the potential for PEVs to contribute less to post-sale service revenue given their lower maintenance requirements compared to conventional vehicles [20, 90].

6. Contextual factors

In this section we review literature on contextual issues including studies on PEV incentives, infrastructure, and energy pricing. We consider these three areas since they, in addition to the other areas reviewed above, are often related to PEV sales or adoption.

6.1. Incentives

Most leading PEV markets provide financial purchase incentives for PEVs in the form of grants, rebates, vehicle tax discounts or waivers, or income tax credits [91]. These lower the cost of PEVs for consumers, though 100% of the incentive value is not necessarily received by consumers, as automakers may also adjust vehicle prices based on the availability of incentives. Research from North America [53, 80, 92–94], Europe [95, 96], and Asia [97] shows incentives are positively related to PEV sales, adoption decisions, and preferences for PEVs. Other incentives are also positively related to PEV sales, these include policies that discourage conventional vehicles and provide exemptions for PEVs. This includes PEVs receiving waivers to

licensing restrictions in Chinese cities [98–101] and exemptions for PEVs to access special lanes or central areas of cities (e.g. carpool lanes, bus lanes, congestion charge zones, low emissions zones) [32, 102, 103]. The only studies we identified that considered changes to incentives impacts over time found incentives increased in importance during the periods studied [53, 94].

Studies show higher income buyers and buyers of longer range and more expensive PEVs are less dependent on incentives [53, 57, 94, 104, 105] while lower and middle income buyers are more dependent to incentives [93, 94, 105–109]. Nonetheless, higher income households and households in higher income and non-disadvantaged areas receive a disproportionate number of PEV incentives [109, 110], though a large portion of this may be attributable to new-car buying rather than specific to PEVs and rebates [56]. Changes to incentive designs and targeting incentives to lower income buyers are improving incentive distribution, and incentive recipients are becoming more similar to new car buyers in some cases [56]. Some programs are designed specifically for lower income buyers, and research shows these may be more cost effective than incentives that are not targeted [57, 111]. Incentive impacts also differ based on when they are received by buyers, with incentives delivered at the point of purchase being more impactful than post purchase rebates or income tax credits [112]. Incentives received at the point of purchase may also better serve lower income buyers as they directly reduce purchase price [113]. Research has also found low awareness of incentives in the general population [43, 83, 104, 114] and that awareness correlates with incentive impacts [80]. Finally some tax credit designs are not equitably designed, the US federal tax credit in particular is tied to household income so can mean lower income buyers receive a smaller credit [113], though buyers can now transfer the credit to a dealer to receive the full amount.

6.2. Infrastructure

In section 2.1 we discussed perceptions of infrastructure, and here we consider research on charging infrastructure impacts on PEV demand. First, several studies show that home charging infrastructure is influential in the decision to purchase or consider a PEV [25, 32, 115] and is correlated with the decision to continue owning a PEV [116]. After home, some studies find workplace charging is often the next most influential location of PEV charging [32, 117, 118]. The impact of public charging on PEV sales, PEV purchase, or preferences is not yet clear; the relationship may be only correlational [119, 120], some studies show a causal relationship [98, 104, 121], others find no relationship [28, 122], and some contest that infrastructure causes PEV sales and suggest the impact of infrastructure on sales is mediated by other factors, for example attitudes or norms and prior interest in PEVs [123–125].

Even if it is not clear how infrastructure impacts sales, both slow and fast charging is still needed for drivers to use a PEV. To reach 100% PEV fleet penetration, charging must be accessible essentially everywhere in some form to facilitate all travel, including long-distance travel. However, this is not currently the case with infrastructure not equally or equitably distributed. Those living in multifamily building (apartments, condos, etc) are less likely to have access to charging while at home [126–129]. Additionally, studies from the US and UK show lower income and Black and Hispanic communities have lower access to public and private infrastructure [61, 130–132] than higher income or non-minority communities.

6.3. Energy prices

The final area of research we consider are studies that consider the relationship between energy prices (i.e. liquid fuel/gasoline and electricity prices) and PEV sales. PEV demand may be influenced by both liquid fuel and electricity prices, with lower electricity prices and higher fuel prices potentially positively impacting PEV sales. Studies in several regions have found fuel prices, often in combination with other incentives, taxes for conventional vehicles, or demographics correlate with PEV demand [104, 122, 133–135]. Changes in liquid fuel prices may have a larger impact on PEV demand than changes in electricity prices, potentially because of a lack of awareness about electricity prices as well as regional and temporal variation in electricity prices [136]. A potential explanation offered by Bushnell *et al* [136] is that liquid fuel expenditure is also generally higher than electricity expenditure over a vehicle's lifetime and home charging cost is obscured in household electricity bills.

Finally some research is beginning to show a relationship between PEV ownership and residential solar photovoltaic ownership [137]. Potentially due to this providing lower cost electricity, at least during sunny periods, which leads to lower operating costs for PEVs [138]. An additional synergetic integration of the charging process into the electricity system, where low electricity prices are used for charging the car—or even allow a feeding-back of electricity to the grid, the so called vehicle-to-grid (V2G)—could also lead to decreasing electricity costs for flexible PEV users [139, 140]. How the availability of V2G may impact demand for PEVs is not currently clear.

7. Discussion of challenges and research needs

Here we discuss emergent challenges in reaching higher ZEV sales based on our evaluation of the literature. We also outline areas where more research may be needed to better understand and address some trends we identify (see table 1).

7.1. Consumer perceptions and preferences

While progress been made on technical aspects of PEVs, including increasing range, reducing charging times, and expanding infrastructure access [141] consumer perceptions may not have improved at the same rate. This may mean perceptions will not always align with technical advances in PEV technology, and overcoming perceived barriers will require approaches beyond technical improvements. Further because PEV range, refuelling time, and infrastructure availability are still behind that of conventional vehicles, some buyers may resist PEVs until they are more directly comparable to conventional vehicles or until buyers understand more about PEVs and how they fit their mobility needs [142]. Research will need to consider if and when perceptions of PEV attributes match improvements in the technical attributes of PEV models and when PEVs are broadly perceived as viable alternatives for conventional vehicles for most vehicle buyers.

Progress on PEV purchase price has been mixed. At the lower end of the market, PEVs with long driving ranges are becoming more available at more affordable prices, but the average cost of PEVs has increased and is diverging from the price of conventional vehicles in the US [143]. Reductions in PEV cost due to reduced battery costs and increased economies of scale have translated into longer driving ranges instead of lower prices, and projections that PEVs will reach price parity [144] are not supported by historical PEV price trends [143, 145]. This could be due to automaker decisions on the variety of PEV models they supply, often focusing on larger or more expensive models in some markets. Regardless, until lower cost models are available, research may need to consider how this impacts demand for PEVs, how price changes impact adoption, and if (or how) consumers evaluate higher purchase prices compared to conventional vehicles and how they consider potential operating cost savings.

7.2. Consumer characteristics

PEV buyer average income, level of education, age, and number of household vehicles are progressing closer to the average of new car buyers [56], although it is unclear how incentive discontinuities may impact this (which we discussed in section 6.1). The little change to PEV buyer gender and home ownership may indicate some buyers face barriers in choosing a PEV. Lacking dedicated home charging is typically reported as the explanation for fewer renters purchasing PEVs, but why other genders are not purchasing PEVs in higher numbers in some markets (notably the United States and Germany) remains unclear and warrants more research. Most PEV adoption has also been among multi-vehicle households. Research shows single vehicle households are more concerned about PEV range [10]. Whether the concerns of single vehicle households will change overtime is not clear and requires further research.

As for attitudes, beliefs, and norms of PEV buyers, existing studies test a limited set of these when studying the correlation with PEV interest, including anywhere from three (local air pollution, greenhouse gas emissions, and oil dependency) [69] to six measures formed from a list of 21 statements (on car ownership, mobility, PEVs, and environmental issues) [65]. The choice to include these variables may be because PEV interest is correlated with a few beliefs and attitudes early adopters have (e.g. pro environmental, pro technology). Since not all consumers are motivated for environmental or technology related reasons [146], growing the PEV market may require PEVs to take on other meanings. For the market to have more diversity among PEV owners, different vehicle models and marketing strategies may be needed so that PEVs appeal to more consumers. Most studies, while including the key variables associated with PEV interest so far, may omit variables that could elicit PEV interest among future buyers. For example, in the United States, outdoor lifestyles are featured in many conventional vehicle marketing campaigns, and especially for trucks and SUVs [147]; if PEVs are framed in this way, outdoor lifestyle could become correlated with PEV adoption or adoption intent. Research should continue to identify who PEVs appeal to and how to ensure PEVs appeal to consumers with differing attitudes, beliefs, and norms.

7.3. PEV use

Some research shows PEVs are on average being driven fewer miles than conventional vehicles [70], while other studies show PEVs are driven a similar amount [73, 74]. PEVs being driven less could be due to PEV buyers having more vehicles in their households than conventional vehicle owners, meaning fewer miles or kilometres are driven in their PEV. The differences could also be due to PEVs being leased at higher rates than conventional vehicles and buyers reducing miles to remain under lease mileage limits. The discrepancy could also be due to PEV buyers having different demographics to the car driving population. The discrepancy

Table 1. Demand related research questions, the rationale for these questions, and source of literature for the rationale.

Theme	Research question	Rationale	Source	
Consumer characteristics	Why are fewer female car buyers purchasing PEVs in some markets?	Fewer females are purchasing PEVs in some markets, including the USA and Germany.	[52–56]	
	How can PEV adoption be increased among female car buyers?	Fewer renters and apartment dwellers are purchasing PEVs in some markets.	[56, 63]	
	Why are fewer renters & those in apartments or condos purchasing PEVs? How can increased PEV adoption be facilitated among car owners in these house types?			
	How will incentive discontinuities and changes to incentive eligibility criteria impact PEV buyer demographics?	The impact of incentives on PEV adoption is related to demographics (including income), removal of incentives could impact buyers whose adoption is dependent on incentives including middle- and lower-income buyers.	[53, 93, 94, 105–109]	
	How will the introduction of new models (e.g. PEV trucks, and more model choice) change PEV buyers demographics?	Consumers have reported a lack of model availability as a barrier to adoption, model availability is increasing including in the truck segment, demographics are typically correlated with vehicle choice.	[11, 14]	
	Will used PEVs lead to PEV market diffusion to new groups of buyers?	New PEV buyers and new vehicle buyers have different characteristics from the general population and used vehicle buyers. Current evidence shows used PEV buyers have so far been similar to new PEV buyers.	[61]	
Consumer perceptions	What (if any) geo-spatial trends exist in PEV adoption patterns? Are PEVs being adopted in concentrated areas or are they becoming more evenly adopted? To what extent is this due to spatial trends in new-car buying?	PEV adoptions is clustered in specific regions and neighbourhoods, often with higher adoption in higher income areas.	[58–60]	
	How can policymakers support ZEV adoption among low-income and minority buyers?	Low-income and minority households are not adopting new or used PEVs at the same rate as high-income households but will need to adopt PEVs when the fleet transitions to higher PEV shares.		
	Why are buyers resistant to PEVs and why have some perceptions not changed overtime when sales have increased and PEV technology has improved?	Consumer knowledge and awareness has not substantially improved when PEV technology, sales, and infrastructure has substantially improved.	[30, 43, 84, 85]	
Consumer perceptions	Why are some consumers opposed to PEVs in general, purchasing a PEV, and PEV related policies, and can or will their perceptions change?	Some consumers are opposed to PEVs, PEV supporting policy, and PEV incentives.	[30, 86, 87]	
	If vehicle price is a barrier to PEV adoption, will lower PEV prices impact this perception? Will lower operating costs offset higher upfront costs for buyers? Will incentives be needed to achieve widespread affordability?	Price is reportedly a barrier to PEV adoption, PEV prices are higher than conventional vehicles on average.	[10, 15, 40, 44]	

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Theme	Research question	Rationale	Source
	Are all dealers and car salespeople a barrier to PEV purchase? If not, which are not serving as a barrier and which are serving to facilitate PEV adoption, how, and why?	Car dealers have been dismissive to PEV buyers and may be a barrier for PEV purchase.	[44, 90]
PEV use	Are electric vehicles being used similarly as conventional vehicles? If not, what explains any differences?	Some studies show PEVs are driven less than conventional vehicles, whereas other studies show they are driven similarly.	[70–74]
Consumer Knowledge	How can buyers' knowledge and awareness of PEVs be improved?	Consumer knowledge and awareness has not substantially improved when PEV technology, sales, and infrastructure has improved.	[30, 43, 84, 85]
	How can consumer awareness of PEVs be improved and how can resistance to PEVs be overcome among certain buyers?	Some buyers are resistant to PEVs and PEV supporting policy.	[43]
Incentives	Are incentives increasing in importance over time? At which point will they no longer be needed and how should they be phased out?	Incentives may be increasing in importance over time, are still important for some adopters, and related to PEV sales but are being discontinued in some markets.	[53, 94]
	How will changes to incentive designs and their administration impact their effectiveness?	Incentive impacts differ based on when they are received by PEV buyers, changes to point of purchase incentives (e.g. in the US) may change their effectiveness.	[112]
	How should incentives be designed and administered such that they reach the lowest income buyers, households in disadvantaged communities, and to buyers whose PEV purchase is dependent on incentives?	Lower income PEV adopters purchase of PEVs is more dependent on incentives, but most incentives have been received by higher income new-car buyers, incentive designs are not optimal to support lower income buyers.	[109, 110]
	How will incentive discontinuities impact PEV buyer demographics and PEV sales?	Incentives positively relate to PEV adoption, and the impact of incentives is related to demographics (including income). Incentives are being removed or reduced in many regions removal of incentives could impact buyers whose adoption is dependent on incentives	[80, 92–97]
	What incentive designs can be most effective in increasing the share of PEV sales (feebates, tax schemes, grants, rebates, etc) without unwanted substitution effects from other modes?	Incentive impacts differ based on when they are received by PEV buyers, changes to point of purchase incentives (e.g. in the US) may change their effectiveness.	[112]
	Are incentives needed for second hand/used PEV purchases?	Incentives are being offered for used PEVs, little evidence exists on the need for these or their impact on adoption decisions.	

(Continued.)

Table 1. (Continued.)

Charging infrastructure	Does charging infrastructure correlate with or cause PEV sales and how can infrastructure be effective in promoting PEV sales?	Some research shows PEV charging can cause PEV sales, other studies show a correlational relationship, and others suggest other factors cause sales and infrastructure facilitates adoption.	[28, 104, 119, 120, 122–125]
	What mix of infrastructure can support PEV adoption among later adopters of PEVs? Are the charging needs and charging behaviour of early adopters different than those of later adopters?	Our understanding of infrastructure needs of PEV adopters is based on the earliest adopters of PEVs. The needs of later adopters may differ.	
	What mix of infrastructure can support PEV adoption and continued PEV ownership for those without access to home charging including households living in multi-unit dwellings?	Home charging has been the most influential charging location in the decision to purchase a PEV in some studies. Households living in multi-unit dwellings are adopting PEVs at a lower rate than households in single family dwellings and have less access to home charging. Discontinuing PEV adoption is correlated to a lack of home charging access.	
	Is infrastructure sufficiently accessible in all communities? What are the charging needs for underserved and disadvantages communities? What charging will best support these communities PEV charging needs?	Charging infrastructure has not been evenly distributed in some regions, and the understanding of infrastructure needs often focuses on current PEV adopters. Underserved. Low income, and minority community charging needs are not well understood.	[61, 130–132]
	Will issues with charging reliability impact demand for PEVs?	Public charging is experiencing reliability issues which may impact the experiences of PEV adopters, and could negatively impact PEV demand.	[34]
Energy prices	Will higher electricity prices and lower fuel prices impact PEV demand? What relative fuel and electricity prices can motivate PEV adoption?	Gasoline fuel prices are related to PEV demand, though demand may be less sensitive to electricity prices at present potentially due to a lack of awareness of electricity prices.	[104, 122, 133–135, 159]

could also be due to shorter driving ranges of PEVs and because infrastructure is still being developed. If PEVs are driven more miles than conventional vehicles this could be due to PEVs having lower operating costs or multi vehicle households preferentially driving a PEV rather than an ICEV due to these costs. Either way more research is needed to understand any differences in PEV use, determine whether PEVs will be adopted by households who drive more miles annually, and understand if PEVs may lead to more or less miles driven.

7.4. Consumer engagement

Research shows the general population is not substantially engaged with the PEV transition; this may partly explain why perceptions lag technical improvements. Regardless more may need to be done to engage consumers and car salespeople on a larger scale than has been done so far. This may include automakers providing more information and using more conventional advertising to promote PEVs. Beyond purely information and advertising, consumers may also benefit from hands-on experience operating or even simply riding in PEVs, which has been found to reduce concerns on issues including PEV range [10, 36, 40]. Second research in the US, Canada, and Norway shows increased resistance to PEVs or PEV supporting policy [30, 86, 87]. Support for PEVs has also become partisan in the United States, with Democratic voters more likely to adopt a PEV than Republican voters [148], potentially due to differences in perceptions of climate change by political affiliation and the connection between climate change and PEVs. It could be argued that those who resist PEVs will have to buy a PEV eventually because of sales regulations. However, the reasons for opposing a PEV should be researched so that they can be understood and addressed. Slower rates of adoption among those opposed to PEVs could limit progress to greenhouse gas reduction goals, and ignoring those who are resistant to policy can pose risks since policies with substantial opposition can fail [149].

7.5. Contextual factors

Most studies on the impact of incentives find a positive and significant relationship between the availability of incentives and PEV adoption or adoption intent [18], and a potentially increasing importance of them over time [53, 94]. The impact differs based on how incentives are distributed to buyers, incentives delivered at the point PEV acquisition being more impactful and efficient [112]. This may not matter for many PEV markets since incentives are commonly delivered at the point of purchase. However, in the United States, some are still delivered post-purchase, which will likely limit their efficacy.

Many regions are beginning to phase out purchase incentives and lane access or parking incentives, partly due to increasing costs or concerns that such incentives lead to substitution from other transport modes. Considering that incentive effectiveness is correlated with certain demographics and incentives may increase in importance over time [53, 94], discontinuities could negatively impact some buyers, such as lower and middle-income households. Though more research is needed to understand the change in incentive impacts over time and when they may be phased out. Some markets are incentivizing PEV adoption through revenue neutral policy such as feebates, where a fee is applied to conventional vehicles and rebates given to PEVs, with the latter being funded by the fees. Feebates are currently in operation in France and used to operate in Sweden (the fee in Sweden is still in place, rebates have been removed). These incentives may increase PEV sales and be more financially sustainable [150–152].

Finally, many incentive programs are not equitably designed, this may be partly because incentives were originally designed to help start the PEV market. However more recently stakeholders are considering how to most efficiently use incentives and how to create a more equitable PEV market. If funding for incentives is limited, it may be necessary to target incentives to those who need them most. As discussed in [113] incentives should include increased incentive allocation for lower income buyers, implement purchase price caps or income caps to exclude those who do not need incentives, allow buyers to claim the incentive regardless of purchase location (e.g. not only at a dealership), allow lower income buyers to apply the credit to used PEVs, not tie incentive amounts to tax liability (as is the case for the US federal tax credit in some cases), apply incentives at the point of PEV purchase, provide assurances on incentive availability in the case of funding discontinuities (which have been a recurring issue with California programs [153]), increase awareness of available incentives, and support other ownership models for PEVs, including car sharing.

Next, considering current research on PEVs and infrastructure, it is not clear whether infrastructure correlates with PEV sales, whether sales are caused by infrastructure, or some combination of the two. Understanding whether infrastructure influences sales or vice versa is important for several reasons. If PEV sales influence the density of charging infrastructure, the charging network could be unevenly developed and mostly serve past and existing buyers while not supporting future buyers. Stakeholders also need to understand this relationship since infrastructure is sometimes considered a tool to increase PEV sales, but this may not be the case with other actions needed to encourage PEV adoption. It is also important to understand

whether experiences and perceptions of infrastructure, including user interfaces, payment, interoperability, and reliability issues impact infrastructure's role in encouraging or facilitating PEV adoption.

Since home charging is influential in the decision to purchase a PEV, the most frequently used charging location, important in continuing PEV ownership [32, 116], and because a higher portion of future new and used PEV buyers are likely to reside in homes without home charging [154], research should consider what forms of charging infrastructure can encourage households without home charging to purchase and use PEVs. This may include workplace, near home (not in a private driveway or garage), or public fast charging. Research should also explore how to increase home charging access for households who cannot afford home charger installation, for whom home charging is prohibitively expensive, how to install charging in multi-unit housing parking lots, and how renters can install home chargers.

Since research shows underserved or lower income communities have less access to charging [130–132], policymakers, charging providers, and researchers will need to focus specifically on these communities' needs to understand what types of charging may best serve them (e.g. helping make single-family residences charge-ready through electrical upgrades, supplying near-home charging for multi-family-housing residents, providing electric mobility hubs, etc). Without consideration of how to provide access to charging, there is a risk of perpetuating underinvestment in transportation access in historically underserved communities. The US federal Justice40 initiative directs 40% of federal investments in PEV charging to disadvantaged communities [155]. While this may increase the distribution of PEV charging in underserved communities, equally distributed charging infrastructure may not serve the needs of PEV buyers in the same way across different communities, especially because public charging costs are far higher than home charging costs [156]. Policymakers, researchers and other stakeholders should investigate the needs of different communities, include communities in planning processes through engagement, community led analysis, community organization, and allowing communities to participate in budgetary processes [157].

Lastly energy prices (both gasoline and electricity) may impact PEV adoption, though more so gasoline than electricity prices based on current evidence. Some regions, for example the United States, have relatively cheaper gasoline compared to markets with a higher PEV market share [158]. If buyers are motivated by operating cost savings and when more price sensitive consumers begin to consider PEVs, the relative gasoline versus electricity costs may not motivate consumers in regions without clear operating cost benefits to purchase a PEV. More research is needed to understand how buyers respond to gasoline and electricity costs.

7.6. Future research needs

Here we list the future research needs (see table 1) discussed above and highlight some other general research needs. Although reports and presentations including annual metrics are becoming more prevalent, we were only able to identify a small number of studies on PEV adoption that consider changes over time [43, 53, 84, 87, 94], there is a need for more longitudinal studies or multiple cross-sectional studies, including both studies on PEV adopters and studies of the general population using quantitative or qualitative methods. More studies like these may help understand the trajectory of the PEV market, help inform how policy can be continually revised, anticipate challenges to PEV adoption, and determine if the PEV market is headed towards its goals. Similarly, there is also a need for repeated studies of the same topics to understand whether identified challenges continue to be an issue. One example is the study by Forsythe *et al* [159] which is a replication study of a 2012 survey [160] on car buyer preferences and PEVs survey fielded again in 2021. Another example is the repeated examination of rebate influence from 2013–2015 in California [53] that was repeated for 2016–2017 [161]. This is important because most studies (with the potential exception of some recent papers on Norway) focus on the earliest adopters of PEVs meaning less is known about mainstream car buyers. Finally, there is a need to expand PEV research to more regions, a lot of current research focuses on developed PEV markets (e.g. China, USA, and Europe), as PEVs expand into new regions and markets more research will be needed on those regions. In addition, based on insights from the literature, table 1 outlines specific questions that we identify as important to understanding challenges to reaching 100% ZEV sales.

8. Conclusion

In this paper, we considered potential demand side challenges in moving toward 100% ZEV sales (focusing on PEVs), something that is necessary to meet net zero emissions targets, and future research needs to understand and guide this transition. Most studies do not consider 100% PEV sales targets, and their aim was not to understand potential challenges to 100% PEV sales. PEVs remain a minority of vehicles on the road in all regions at 2.1% in the USA, 5.0% in the UK, 5.4% in Germany and 7.6% in China [6]. We therefore use the literature to identify trends that may relate to challenges in increasing PEV sales and future research needs based on the findings of prior studies. Since all studies are conducted in the context of the PEV transition being in its infancy relative to the goal of 100% sales and eventually 100% adoption, some trends and issues

may only reflect the early stage of the PEV market, but if they continue could make reaching 100% sales more difficult. The current understanding of buyer attitudes, demographics, charging behaviours, and other issues represent an understanding of the earliest PEV adopters. We may not understand mainstream buyers and how their perceptions, motivations, and needs differ from early PEV buyers, nor how they may use PEVs, such as for long distance trips, vacation travel, or for general travel for single vehicle owners.

We identify challenges related to consumer characteristics, consumer perceptions, consumer engagement, PEV use, incentives, charging infrastructure, and energy prices. Challenges related to sociodemographic and lifestyle factors include needing to engage female car buyers (in some markets) and renters or apartment dwellers, understanding the needs of single vehicle owning households, understanding how to support lower income households, and understanding the needs and perceptions of buyers who are not early adopters. Challenges related to consumer engagement with PEVs include a lack of change in consumer awareness of PEVs overtime and in some cases worsening perceptions of PEVs and resistance to PEV related policy. Challenges for incentives include potential impacts to the PEV market from incentive discontinuities and incentive designs that are not sufficient for lower income buyers. Challenges related to infrastructure include needing to address PEV charging needs in underserved communities, understanding the needs of those without home charging access, moving past considering infrastructure as an engagement strategy and using other engagement strategies to increase awareness of charging, consideration of infrastructure planning to meet all travel including long distance travel, and understanding whether issues with infrastructure could impact PEV demand. Challenges related to energy prices relate to regions with cheaper liquid fuel and more expensive electricity prices.

Many regions are introducing 100% ZEV sales targets or mandates, and it could be argued that since automakers must only sell ZEVs by a certain date some issues discussed here are not relevant. For example, policymakers could leave automakers to solve issues of incentives, engagement, and infrastructure, and ignore consumer concerns and resistance to ZEVs and ZEV policy. However, without widespread support, policies can fail [149] and as the ZEV market expands beyond motivated and interested early buyers to consumers who do not support ZEV policy and those that indicate they would never purchase a ZEV [43, 86], incentives, engagement strategies, and infrastructure may be needed to broaden support for ZEV policy and convince those resistant to ZEVs to purchase them. Interventions by policymakers may also make it easier for automakers to sell ZEVs, which may increase their support for the policy and prevent them from seeking changes to policy as they have in the past [162]. Policymakers may also need to intervene where automakers and infrastructure providers may not, for example in making ZEVs more accessible and ensuring charging infrastructure is deployed in regions where automakers and infrastructure providers may not install charging infrastructure.

Data availability statement

No new data were created or analysed in this study.

Acknowledgements

This study was in part made possible with funding received by the University of California Institute of Transportation Studies from the State of California through the Road Repair and Accountability Act of 2017 (Senate Bill 1). The authors would like to thank the State of California for its support of university-based research, and especially for the funding received for this project. The authors would also like to members of the International EV Policy Council for who participated in workshop discussions related to the topic of this report, but who are not listed authors, including Ahmet Mandev, George Beard, Zoe Long, and Debapriya Chakraborty.

ORCID iDs

Scott Hardman  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0476-7909>

Amrita Chakraborty  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8048-7282>

Kelly Hoogland  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5791-0767>

John Paul Helveston  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2657-9191>

Alan Jenn  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4232-0697>

Patrick Plötz  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6790-0183>

References

- [1] Plötz P, Axsen J, Funke S A and Gnann T 2019 Designing car bans for sustainable transportation *Nat. Sustain.* **2** 534–6
- [2] Department for Transport, UK 2021 *COP26 Declaration on Accelerating the Transition to 100% Zero Emission Cars and Vans* (available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/cop26-declaration-zero-emission-cars-and-vans/cop26-declaration-on-accelerating-the-transition-to-100-zero-emission-cars-and-vans>)
- [3] California Air Resources Board *Advanced Clean Cars II Regulations: All New Passenger Vehicles Sold in California to Be Zero Emissions by 2035* pp 1–59 (available at: <https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/our-work/programs/advanced-clean-cars-program/advanced-clean-cars-ii>)
- [4] United Nations Climate Change 2016 *The Paris Agreement* (available at: <https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement>)
- [5] EV Volumes EV Data Center *EV Volumes* (available at: www.ev-volumes.com/datacenter/) (Accessed 27 July 2023)
- [6] Hardman S, Shafaeen M and Tal G 2024 Identifying mass market adoption in the transition to electric vehicles *Environ. Res. Lett.* **19** 111005
- [7] Axsen J, Hardman S and Jenn A 2022 What do we know about zero-emission vehicle mandates? *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **56** 7553–63
- [8] Jenn A et al 2024 Supply-side challenges and research needs on the road to 100% zero-emissions vehicle sales *Progress in Energy*
- [9] Creutzig F J et al Demand, services and social aspects of mitigation *Climate Change 2022—Mitigation of Climate Change* (Cambridge University Press) pp 503–612
- [10] Wicki M, Brückmann G, Quoss F and Bernauer T 2022 What do we really know about the acceptance of battery electric vehicles?—Turns out, not much *Transp. Rev.* **43** 1–26
- [11] Adhikari M, Ghimire L P, Kim Y, Aryal P and Khadka S B 2020 Identification and analysis of barriers against electric vehicle use *Sustainability* **12** 4850
- [12] Franke T, Neumann I, Bühler F, Cocron P and Krems J F 2012 Experiencing range in an electric vehicle: understanding psychological barriers *Appl. Psychol.* **61** 368–91
- [13] Schneiderer T, Franke T, Günther M and Krems J F 2015 Does range matter? Exploring perceptions of electric vehicles with and without a range extender among potential early adopters in Germany *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **8** 198–206
- [14] Krishna G 2021 Understanding and identifying barriers to electric vehicle adoption through thematic analysis *Transp. Res. Interdiscip. Perspect.* **10** 100364
- [15] Kurani K S, Caperello N, TyreeHageman J and Davies J 2018 Symbolism, signs, and accounts of electric vehicles in California *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **46** 345–55
- [16] Rezvani Z, Jansson J and Bodin J 2015 Advances in consumer electric vehicle adoption research: a review and research Agenda *Transp. Res. D* **34** 122–36
- [17] Axsen J, Langman B and Goldberg S 2017 Confusion of innovations: mainstream consumer perceptions and misperceptions of electric-drive vehicles and charging programs in Canada *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **27** 163–73
- [18] Hardman S, Chandan A, Tal G and Turrentine T 2017 The effectiveness of financial purchase incentives for battery electric vehicles—a review of the evidence *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **80** 1100–11
- [19] Herberz M, Hahnel U J J and Brosch T 2022 Counteracting electric vehicle range concern with a scalable behavioural intervention *Nat. Energy* **7** 503–10
- [20] Tarei P K, Chand P and Gupta H 2021 Barriers to the adoption of electric vehicles: evidence from India *J. Clean. Prod.* **291** 125847
- [21] Adepetu A and Keshav S 2017 The relative importance of price and driving range on electric vehicle adoption : Los Angeles case study *Transportation* **44** 353–73
- [22] Jabbari B, Chernicoff W and Mackenzie D 2017 Analysis of electric vehicle purchaser satisfaction and rejection reasons *Transp. Res. Rec.* **2628** 110–9
- [23] She Z, Sun Q, Ma J and Xie B 2017 What are the barriers to widespread adoption of battery electric vehicles ? A survey of public perception in Tianjin, China *Transp Policy* **56** 29–40
- [24] Vassileva I and Campillo J 2017 Adoption barriers for electric vehicles : experiences from early adopters in Sweden *Energy* **120** 632–41
- [25] Jensen A F, Thorhauge M, Mabit S E and Rich J 2021 Demand for plug-in electric vehicles across segments in the future vehicle market *Transp. Res. D* **98** 102976
- [26] Visaria A A, Jensen A F, Thorhauge M and Mabit S E 2022 User preferences for EV charging, pricing schemes, and charging infrastructure *Transp. Res. A* **165** 120–43
- [27] Skippon S and Garwood M 2011 Responses to battery electric vehicles: UK consumer attitudes and attributions of symbolic meaning following direct experience to reduce psychological distance *Transp. Res. D* **16** 525–31
- [28] Bailey J, Miele A and Axsen J 2015 Is awareness of public charging associated with consumer interest in plug-in electric vehicles ? *Transp. Res. D* **36** 1–9
- [29] Dunckley J and Tal G 2016 Plug-in electric vehicle multi-state market and charging survey EVS29 No. pp 1–12 (available at: www.epri.com/research/products/000000003002007495)
- [30] Kurani K S 2022 *2021 Multi-State Zero Emission Vehicle Market Study Volume 1: Zero Emission Vehicle States* (Institute of Transportation Studies)
- [31] Lorentzen E, Haugneland P, Bu C and Hauge E 2017 Charging infrastructure experiences in Norway—the worlds most advanced EV market *EVS30* pp 1–11
- [32] Hardman S et al 2018 A review of consumer preferences of and interactions with electric vehicle charging infrastructure *Transp. Res. D* **62** 508–23
- [33] Figenbaum E, Wangsness P B, Amundsen A H and Milch V 2022 Empirical analysis of the user needs and the business models in the Norwegian charging infrastructure ecosystem *World Electr. Veh. J.* **13** 185
- [34] Liu Y et al 2023 Reliability of electric vehicle charging infrastructure: a cross-lingual deep learning approach *Commun. Transp. Res.* **3** 100095
- [35] Jensen A F, Cherchi E and Mabit S L 2013 On the stability of preferences and attitudes before and after experiencing an electric vehicle *Transp. Res. D* **25** 24–32
- [36] Roberson L A and Helveston J P 2020 Electric vehicle adoption: can short experiences lead to big change? *Environ. Res. Lett.* **15** 0940c3
- [37] Egbue O and Long S 2012 Barriers to widespread adoption of electric vehicles: an analysis of consumer attitudes and perceptions *Energy Policy* **48** 717–29

- [38] Graham-Rowe E, Gardner B, Abraham C, Skippon S, Dittmar H, Hutchins R and Stannard J 2012 Mainstream consumers driving plug-in battery-electric and plug-in hybrid electric cars: a qualitative analysis of responses and evaluations *Transp. Res. A* **46** 140–53
- [39] Schuitema G, Anable J, Skippon S and Kinnear N 2013 The role of instrumental, hedonic and symbolic attributes in the intention to adopt electric vehicles *Transp. Res. A* **48** 39–49
- [40] O'Neill E, Moore D, Kelleher L and Brereton F 2019 Barriers to electric vehicle uptake in Ireland: perspectives of car-dealers and policy-makers *Case Stud. Transp. Policy* **7** 118–27
- [41] Tal G, Nicholas M, Turrentine T S and Turrentine T 2017 *First Look at the Plug-in Vehicle Secondary Market* (Institute of Transportation Studies) (available at: <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/22p191zs>)
- [42] Turrentine T, Tal G and Rapson D 2018 *The Dynamics of Plug-in Electric Vehicles in the Secondary Market and Their Implications for Vehicle Demand, Durability, and Emissions* (available at: https://ww2.arb.ca.gov/sites/default/files/2020-04/14_416_ac.pdf)
- [43] Kurani K S 2022 *2021 Zero Emission Vehicle Market Study: Volume 2: Intra-California Regions Defined by Air Districts* (Institute of Transportation Studies)
- [44] De Rubens G Z, Noel L and Sovacool B K 2018 Dismissive and deceptive car dealerships create barriers to electric vehicle adoption at the point of sale *Nat. Energy* **3** 501–7
- [45] Rapson D S and Muehlegger E 2023 The economics of electric vehicles *Rev. Environ. Econ. Policy* **17** 274–94
- [46] Chakraborty D, Buch K and Tal G 2021 *Cost of Plug-in Electric Vehicle Ownership: The Cost of Transitioning to Five Million Plug-In Vehicles in California* (available at: <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/48c2z787>)
- [47] Turrentine T S and Kurani K S 2007 Car buyers and fuel economy? *Energy Policy* **35** 1213–23
- [48] Hidrue M, Parsons G, Kempton W and Gardner M 2011 Willingness to pay for electric vehicles and their attributes *Resour. Energy Econ.* **33** 686–705
- [49] Carley S, Krause R M, Lane B W and Graham J D 2013 Intent to purchase a plug-in electric vehicle: a survey of early impressions in large US cities *Transp. Res. D* **18** 39–45
- [50] Hackbarth A and Madlener R 2013 Consumer preferences for alternative fuel vehicles: a discrete choice analysis *Transp. Res. D* **25** 5–17
- [51] Plötz P, Schneider U, Globisch J and Dütschke E 2014 Who will buy electric vehicles? Identifying early adopters in Germany *Transp. Res. A* **67** 96–109
- [52] Axsen J, Goldberg S and Bailey J 2016 How might potential future plug-in electric vehicles buyers differ from current owners? *Transp. Res. D* **47** 357–70
- [53] Johnson C and Williams B 2017 Characterizing plug-in hybrid electric vehicle consumers most influenced by California's electric vehicle rebate *Transp. Res. Rec.* **2628** 23–31
- [54] Lee J H, Hardman S J and Tal G 2019 Who is buying electric vehicles in California? Characterising early adopter heterogeneity and forecasting market diffusion *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **55** 218–26
- [55] Fevang E, Egenbaum E, Fridstr L, Halse A H, Hauge K E and Johansen G 2021 Who goes electric? The anatomy of electric car ownership in Norway *Transp. Res. D* **92** 1–20
- [56] Williams B D H 2023 Assessing progress and equity in the distribution of electric vehicle rebates using appropriate comparisons *Transp Policy* **137** 141–51
- [57] Williams B D H and Pallonetti N 2023 Rebate influence on electric vehicle adoption in California *EVS36*
- [58] Chakraborty D, Bunch D S, Brownstone D, Xu B and Tal G 2022 Plug-in electric vehicle diffusion in California: role of exposure to new technology at home and work *Transp. Res. A* **156** 133–51
- [59] Morton C, Anable J, Yeboah G and Cottrill C 2018 The spatial pattern of demand in the early market for electric vehicles: evidence from the United Kingdom *J. Transp. Geogr.* **72** 119–30
- [60] Sinton J, Cervini G, Gkritza K, Labi S and Song Z 2024 Examining electric vehicle adoption at the postal code level in US states *Transp. Res. D* **127** 104068
- [61] Canepa K, Hardman S and Tal G 2019 An early look at plug-in electric vehicle adoption in disadvantaged communities in California *Transp Policy* **78** 19–30
- [62] Tal G, Jae Hyun L, Chakraborty D and Davis A 2020 *Where are Used Electric Vehicles and Who are the Buyers?* (National Center for Sustainable Transportation)
- [63] Williams B 2022 *CVRP 2020* (Data Brief: Consumer Characteristics)
- [64] Rogers E M 2003 *Diffusion of Innovations* (Free Press)
- [65] Hausteijn S and Jensen A F 2018 Factors of electric vehicle adoption: a comparison of conventional and electric car users based on an extended theory of planned behavior *Int. J. Sustain. Transp.* **12** 484–96
- [66] Ajzen I 1991 The theory of planned behavior *Organ. Behav. Hum. Decis. Process.* **50** 179–211
- [67] Fishbein M and Ajzen I 2011 *Predicting and Changing Behavior the Reasoned Action Approach* (Psychology Press)
- [68] Stern P C, Dietz T, Abel T, Guagnano G A and Kalof L 1999 A value-belief-norm theory of support for social movements: the case of environmentalism *Hum. Ecol.* **6** 17
- [69] Hardman S and Tal G 2018 Who are the early adopters of fuel cell vehicles? *Int. J. Hydrogen Energy* **43** 17857–66
- [70] Zhao L, Ottinger E R, Yip A H C and Helveston J P 2023 Quantifying electric vehicle mileage in the United States *Joule* **7** 2537–51
- [71] Burlig F, Bushnell J, Rapson D and Wolfram C 2021 *Low Energy: Estimating Electric Vehicle Electricity Use* (available at: www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/pandp.20211088)
- [72] Davis L W 2019 How much are electric vehicles driven? *Appl. Econ. Lett.* **26** 1497–502
- [73] Chakraborty D, Hardman S and Tal G 2022 Integrating plug-in electric vehicles (PEVs) into household fleets- factors influencing miles traveled by PEV owners in California *Travel Behav. Soc.* **26** 67–83
- [74] Jia W and Chen T D 2022 Beyond adoption: examining electric vehicle miles traveled in households with zero-emission vehicles *Transp. Res. Rec.* **2676** 642–54
- [75] Tal G, Nicholas M A and Turrentine T S 2020 *Advanced Plug-in Electric Vehicle Travel and Charging Behavior Final Report*
- [76] Bloomberg 2022 *Electric Cars Start Covering More Ground Than Combustion Counterparts* (available at: www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2022-07-20/electric-cars-start-covering-more-ground-than-combustion-counterparts)
- [77] Egenbaum E and Kolbenstvedt M 2016 *Learning from Norwegian Battery Electric and Plug-in Hybrid Vehicle Users* (Institute of Transportation Economics)
- [78] Egenbaum E 2019 *Battery Electric Vehicle User Experiences in Norway's Maturing Market* (available at: www.toi.no/getfile.php/1350950-1568357724/Publikasjoner/TØI%20rapporter/2019/1719-2019/1719-2019_Summary.pdf)

- [79] Vergis S and Chen B 2015 Comparison of plug-in electric vehicle adoption in the United states: a state by state approach Res. *Transp. Econ.* **52** 56–64
- [80] Jenn A, Springel K and Gopal A R 2018 Effectiveness of electric vehicle incentives in the United States *Energy Policy* **119** 349–56
- [81] Axsen J and Kurani K S 2012 Interpersonal influence within car buyers' social networks: applying five perspectives to plug-in hybrid vehicle drivers *Environ. Plann. A* **44** 1047–65
- [82] Meckler-Pacheco A 2022 *How Do Consumers Become Aware of Electric Vehicles? A Qualitative Approach* (Institute of Transportation Studies)
- [83] Krause R M, Carley S R, Lane B W and Graham J D 2013 Perception and reality: public knowledge of plug-in electric vehicles in 21 U.S. Cities *Energy Policy* **63** 433–40
- [84] Long Z, Axsen J, Kormos C and Goldberg S 2019 Are consumers learning about plug-in vehicles? Comparing awareness among Canadian new car buyers in 2013 and 2017 *Transportation Research Board 98th Annual Meeting*
- [85] Kurani K S 2019 *The State of Electric Vehicle Markets, 2017: Growth Faces an Attention Gap* (Institute of Transportation Studies)
- [86] Long Z, Axsen J and Kitt S 2020 Public support for supply-focused transport policies: vehicle emissions, low-carbon fuels, and ZEV sales standards in Canada and California *Transp. Res. A* **141** 98–115
- [87] Aasness M A and Odeck J 2023 Road users' attitudes towards electric vehicle incentives: empirical evidence from Oslo in 2014–2020 *Res. Transp. Econ.* **97** 101262
- [88] Cahill E, Davies-Shawhyde J and Turrentine T S 2014 New car dealers and retail innovation in California's plug-in electric vehicle market October (available at: https://escholarship.org/content/qt9x7255md/qt9x7255md_noSplash_eda8065e888034a7e30519afe73d3e4c.pdf)
- [89] Matthews L, Lynes J, Riemer M, Del T and Cloet N 2017 Do we have a car for you? Encouraging the uptake of electric vehicles at point of sale *Energy Policy* **100** 79–88
- [90] Turrentine T et al *Driving the Market for Plug-in Vehicles: Increasing Consumer Awareness and Knowledge* (available at: <https://ucdavis.app.box.com/v/outreach-education-guide>) (Accessed 25 August 2022)
- [91] Kong N, Kohn E, Christopher H and Scott H 2021 *Electric Vehicle Incentives in 15 Leading Electric Vehicle Markets* (Institute of Transportation Studies)
- [92] Breetz H L and Salon D 2018 Do electric vehicles need subsidies? Ownership costs for conventional, hybrid, and electric vehicles in 14 U.S. Cities *Energy Policy* **120** 238–49
- [93] Clinton B C and Steinberg D C 2019 Providing the Spark: impact of financial incentives on battery electric vehicle adoption *J. Environ. Econ. Manage.* **98** 102255
- [94] Jenn A, Lee J H, Hardman S and Tal G 2020 An in-depth examination of electric vehicle incentives: consumer heterogeneity and changing response over time *Transp. Res. A* **132** 97–109
- [95] Münzel C, Plötz P, Sprei F and Gnann T 2019 How large is the effect of financial incentives on electric vehicle sales?—A global review and European analysis *Energy Econ.* **84** 104493
- [96] Mpoi G, Milioti C and Mitropoulos L 2023 Factors and incentives that affect electric vehicle adoption in Greece *Int. J. Transp. Sci. Technol.* **12** S2046043023000023
- [97] Xue Y, Zhang Y, Wang Z, Tian S, Xiong Q and Li L Q 2023 Effects of incentive policies on the purchase intention of electric vehicles in China: psychosocial value and family ownership *Energy Policy* **181** 113732
- [98] Wang N, Tang L and Pan H 2017 Effectiveness of policy incentives on electric vehicle acceptance in China: a discrete choice analysis *Transp. Res. A* **105** 210–8
- [99] Liu X, Sun X, Zheng H and Huang D 2021 Do policy incentives drive electric vehicle adoption? Evidence from China *Transp. Res. A* **150** 49–62
- [100] Yang X 2023 *Essays on transportation and environmental regulations PhD Thesis* (The George Washington University)
- [101] Li S, Zhu X, Ma Y, Zhang F and Zhou H 2022 The role of government in the market for electric vehicles: evidence from China *J. Policy Anal. Manage.* **41** 450–85
- [102] Figenbaum E 2017 Perspectives on Norway's supercharged electric vehicle policy *Environ. Innov. Soc. Transit.* **25** 14–34
- [103] Sheldon T L and DeShazo J R 2017 How does the presence of HOV lanes affect plug-in electric vehicle adoption in California? A generalized propensity score approach *J. Environ. Econ. Manage.* **85** 146–70
- [104] Narassimhan E and Johnson C 2018 The role of demand-side incentives and charging infrastructure on plug-in electric vehicle adoption: analysis of US States *Environ. Res. Lett.* **13** 074032
- [105] Williams B D H 2022 *Targeting Incentives Cost Effectively: "Rebate Essential" Consumers in the New York State Electric Vehicle Rebate Program*
- [106] Zhang Y, (Sean) Qian Z, Sprei F and Li B 2016 The impact of car specifications, prices and incentives for battery electric vehicles in Norway: choices of heterogeneous consumers *Transp. Res. C* **69** 386–401
- [107] Linn J 2022 *Is There a Trade-Off Between Equity and Effectiveness for Electric Vehicle Subsidies?* p 55 (available at: https://media.rff.org/documents/WP_22-7.pdf)
- [108] Muehlegger E and Rapson D S 2022 Subsidizing low- and middle-income adoption of electric vehicles: quasi-experimental evidence from California *J. Public Econ.* **216** 104752
- [109] Sheldon T L 2022 Evaluating electric vehicle policy effectiveness and equity *Annu. Res. Econ.* **14** 669–88
- [110] Guo S and Kontou E 2021 Disparities and equity issues in electric vehicles rebate allocation *Energy Policy* **154** 112291
- [111] Sheldon T L and Dua R 2019 Assessing the effectiveness of California's "replace your ride *Energy Policy* **132** 318–23
- [112] Roberson L A and Helveston J P 2022 Not all subsidies are equal: measuring preferences for electric vehicle financial incentives *Environ. Res. Lett.* **17** 084003
- [113] Hardman S, Fleming K, Kare E and Ramadan M 2021 A perspective on equity in the transition to electric vehicle *MIT Sci. Policy Rev.* **2** 46–54
- [114] Hardman S, Kurani K S and Chakraborty D 2020 The usual policy levers are not engaging consumers in the transition to electric vehicles: a case of Sacramento, California *Environ. Res. Commun.* **2** 085001
- [115] Zhenghong L and Greene D 2011 *Promoting the Market for Plug-In Hybrid and Battery Electric Vehicles: Role of Recharge Availability* (Oak Ridge National Laboratory)
- [116] Hardman S and Tal G 2021 Understanding discontinuance among California's electric vehicle owners *Nat. Energy* **6** 538–45
- [117] Gnann T, Plötz P and Wietschel M 2019 Can public slow charging accelerate plug-in electric vehicle sales? A simulation of charging infrastructure usage and its impact on plug-in electric vehicle sales for Germany *Int. J. Sustain. Transp.* **13** 528–42
- [118] Lee J H, Chakraborty D, Hardman S J and Tal G 2020 Exploring electric vehicle charging patterns: mixed usage of charging infrastructure *Transp. Res. D* **79** 102249

- [119] Sierzchula W 2014 Factors influencing fleet manager adoption of electric vehicles *Transp. Res. D* **31** 126–34
- [120] Mersky A C, Sprei F, Samaras C and (Sean) Qian Z 2016 Effectiveness of incentives on electric vehicle adoption in Norway *Transp. Res. D* **46** 56–68
- [121] Haidar B and Aguilar Rojas M T 2022 the relationship between public charging infrastructure deployment and other socio-economic factors and electric vehicle adoption in France *Res. Transp. Econ.* **95** 101208
- [122] Wee S, Coffman M and La Croix S 2018 Do electric vehicle incentives matter? Evidence from the 50 U.S. States *Res. Policy* **47** 1–10
- [123] Hoogland K, Kurani K S, Chakraborty D and Hardman S 2022 *Understanding the Impact of Charging Infrastructure on the Consideration to Purchase an Electric Vehicle in California* (available at: <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/6jx7m6pd>)
- [124] White L V, Carrel A L, Shi W and Sintov N D 2022 Why are charging stations associated with electric vehicle adoption? Untangling effects in three United States metropolitan areas *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **89** 102663
- [125] Chakraborty D, Bunch D S, Lee J H and Tal G 2019 Demand drivers for charging infrastructure—charging behavior of plug-in electric vehicle commuters *Transp. Res. D* **76** 255–72
- [126] Sevier I, Mendez I, Khare E and Rider K 2017 *Preliminary Analysis of Benefits from 5 Million Battery-Electric Passenger Vehicles in California* (available at: www.energy.ca.gov/2017publications/CEC-999-2017-008/CEC-999-2017-008.pdf)
- [127] Lopez-Behar D, Tran M, Mayaud J R, Froese T, Herrera O E and Merida W 2019 Putting electric vehicles on the map: a policy agenda for residential charging infrastructure in Canada *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **50** 29–37
- [128] Pierce G, McOmber B and DeShazo J R 2020 *Supporting Lower-Income Households Purchase of Clean Vehicles* (available at: https://innovation.luskin.ucla.edu/wp-content/uploads/2020/08/Supporting_Lower-Income_Households_Purchase_of_Clean_Vehicles.pdf)
- [129] Ge Y, Simeone C, Duvall A and Wood E 2021 *There's No Place like Home: Residential Parking, Electrical Access, and Implications for the Future of Electric Vehicle Charging Infrastructure* (National Renewable Energy Laboratory)
- [130] Hsu C W and Fingermaier K 2021 Public electric vehicle charger access disparities across race and income in California *Transp. Policy* **100** 59–67
- [131] Hopkins E, Potoglou D, Orford S and Cipcigan L 2023 Can the equitable roll out of electric vehicle charging infrastructure be achieved? *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **182** 113398
- [132] Khan H A U, Price S, Avraam C and Dvorkin Y 2022 Inequitable access to EV charging infrastructure *Electr. J.* **35** 107096
- [133] Kangur A, Jager W, Verbrugge R and Bockarjova M 2017 An agent-based model for diffusion of electric vehicles *J. Environ. Psychol.* **52** 166–82
- [134] Plötz P, Gnann T and Sprei F 2016 Can policy measures foster plug-in electric vehicle market diffusion? *EVS29*
- [135] Gómez Vilchez J J, Jochem P and Fichtner W 2020 Interlinking major markets to explore electric car uptake *Energy Policy* **144** 111588
- [136] Bushnell J B, Muehlegger E and Rapson D S 2022 *Energy Prices and Electric Vehicle Adoption* (available at: https://www.nber.org/system/files/working_papers/w29842/w29842.pdf)
- [137] Chakraborty D, Lee J H, Chakraborty A and Tal G 2023 To adopt rooftop solar or not along with electric vehicles? Exploring the factors influencing co-adoption decisions among electric vehicle owners in California *Electr. J.* **36** 107315
- [138] Kaschub T, Jochem P and Fichtner W 2016 Solar energy storage in German households : profitability, load changes and flexibility *Energy Policy* **98** 520–32
- [139] Ensslen A, Ringler P, Dörr L, Jochem P, Zimmermann F and Fichtner W 2018 Incentivizing smart charging: modeling charging tariffs for electric vehicles in German and French electricity markets *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **42** 112–26
- [140] Baumgartner N, Weyer K, Eckmann L and Fichtner W 2023 How to integrate users into smart charging—a critical and systematic review *Energy Res. Soc. Sci.* **100** 103113
- [141] Muratori M et al 2021 The rise of electric vehicles—2020 status and future expectations *Prog. Energy* **3** 022002
- [142] Liao Y, Tozluoğlu Ç, Sprei F, Yeh S and Dhamal S 2023 Impacts of charging behavior on BEV charging infrastructure needs and energy use *Transp. Res. D* **116** 103645
- [143] Osaka S 2022 Batteries Are Getting Cheap So Why Aren't Electric Vehicles? Batteries are getting cheap So why aren't electric vehicles? (available at: <https://grist.org/article/batteries-are-getting-cheap-so-why-arent-electric-vehicles/>)
- [144] Slowik P, Isenstadt A, Pierce L and Searle S 2022 Assessment of light-duty electric vehicle costs and consumer benefits in the United States in the 2022–2035 time frame *ICCT—The Int. Council on Clean Transportation*
- [145] International Energy Agency 2022 *Global EV Outlook 2022 Securing Supplies for an Electric Future*
- [146] Williams B D H and Anderson J B 2023 From low initial interest to electric vehicle adoption: “EV Converts” in New York State’s rebate program *Transp. Res. Rec.* **2677** 866–82
- [147] Berk B The outdoors is having an automotive moment *Outside* (available at: www.outsideonline.com/outdoor-gear/cars-trucks/outdoors-automotive-advertising/)
- [148] Sintov N D, Abou-Ghalioum V and White L V 2020 The partisan politics of low-carbon transport: why democrats are more likely to adopt electric vehicles than Republicans in the United States *Energy Res. Social Sci.* **68** 101576
- [149] McConnell A 2015 What is policy failure? A primer to help navigate the maze *Public Policy Adm.* **30** 221–42
- [150] Wappelhorst S Incentivizing zero- and low-emission vehicles: the magic of feebate programs—*Int. Council on Clean Transportation* (available at: <https://theicct.org/magic-of-feebate-programs-jun22/>) (Accessed 20 September 2022)
- [151] Wappelhorst S Actions speak louder than words: the French commitment to electric vehicles—*Int. Council on Clean Transportation* (available at: <https://theicct.org/actions-speak-louder-than-words-the-french-commitment-to-electric-vehicles/>) (Accessed 20 September 2022)
- [152] Wappelhorst S and Tietge U. Sweden’s new Bonus-Malus scheme: from rocky roads to rounded fells? *Int. Council on Clean Transportation* (available at: <https://theicct.org/swedens-new-bonus-malus-scheme-from-rocky-roads-to-rounded-fells/>) (Accessed 6 August 2022)
- [153] Center for Sustainable Energy 2021 *Summary of CVRP Rebate Eligibility and Funding Availability over Time* (available at: <https://cleanvehiclerebate.org/en/content/summary-cvrp-rebate-eligibility-and-funding-availability-over-time-updated>)
- [154] Davis A, Chakraborty D and Tal G 2022 How many chargers must California install to complete the transition to electric vehicles? An analysis of electric vehicle adoption and potential charging infrastructure needs 2022–2045 *Under Rev.* (available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=4113824> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4113824>)
- [155] The White House *Justice40 Initiative* (The White House) (available at: www.whitehouse.gov/environmentaljustice/justice40/) Accessed 11 November 2022

- [156] Hardman S, Jenn A, Chakraborty D and Bunch D 2024 *Analyzing the Business Case and Consumer Preferences for Fast Chargers in California* (available at: <https://www.next10.org/publications/analyzing-business-case-and-consumer-preferences-fast-chargers-california>)
- [157] Karner A, London J, Rowangould D and Manaugh K 2020 From transportation equity to transportation justice: within, through, and beyond the state *J. Plan. Lit.* **35** 440–59
- [158] IEA 2023 *End-Use Prices Data Explorer* (available at: <https://www.iea.org/data-and-statistics/data-tools/end-use-prices-data-explorer>)
- [159] Forsythe C R, Gillingham K T, Michalek J J and Whitefoot K S 2023 Technology advancement is driving electric vehicle adoption *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci.* **120** e2219396120
- [160] Helveston J P, Liu Y, Feit E M, Fuchs E, Klampfl E and Michalek J J 2015 Will subsidies drive electric vehicle adoption? Measuring consumer preferences in the U.S. and China *Transp. Res. A* **73** 96–112
- [161] Williams B and Anderson J 2018 *Strategically Targeting Plug-in Electric Vehicle Rebates and Outreach Using Characteristics of “Rebate-essential” Consumers in 2016–2017*
- [162] Wesseling J H, Farla J C M and Hekkert M P 2015 Exploring car manufacturers’ responses to technology-forcing regulation : the case of California’s ZEV mandate *Environ. Innov. Soc. Transit.* **16** 87–105
- [163] International Energy Agency 2023 *Global EV Outlook 2023: Catching up with Climate Ambitions* (OECD)