The Impact of Dynamic Prices on Electric Vehicle Public Charging Demand: Evidence from a Nationwide Natural Field Experiment*

Louise Bernard
Centre for Net Zero

Andy Hackett
Centre for Net Zero

Robert D. Metcalfe
Columbia University
Centre for Net Zero & NBER

Luca A. Panzone
Newcastle University

Andrew R. Schein
Centre for Net Zero

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Abstract

Understanding how to effectively influence electric vehicle (EV) charging behavior is critical for managing electricity grids powered by high levels of variable renewable generation. We present results from a large-scale natural field experiment conducted in the United Kingdom, involving 110,000 EV customers and 60% of the country's public charging infrastructure. Customers were randomly assigned to different experimental price levels, applied to about one-fifth of chargers in the network, to reflect prices closer to the real-time marginal social cost of electricity. This allows us to isolate the causal effects of price on charging demand. We find that customers are highly responsive to price: a 40% reduction in charging costs increased platform-wide charging activity by 117%, while a 15% price cut led to a 30% increase. Decomposing the increase in charging, we estimate that approximately half reflects substitution between charging apps, and half reflects new induced demand. Our findings suggest that dynamic pricing for public EV charging generates large consumer welfare gains.

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1 Introduction

Road transport is responsible for approximately 15% of global greenhouse gas emissions (IPCC, 2022), a share that rises to around 25% in the United States and the United Kingdom, with most emissions stemming from cars and light-duty vehicles (EPA, 2023; Department for Transport, 2024). To reduce these emissions, policymakers have primarily focused on encouraging the replacement of internal combustion engine (ICE) vehicles with electric vehicles (EVs) (Rapson and Muehlegger, 2023*a*). According to the International Energy Agency (2024*a*), a medium-sized ICE vehicle currently emits roughly twice as much CO_2e as an EV, and this gap is expected to widen as electricity systems further decarbonize. The United Kingdom and European Union have set aggressive EV adoption targets for the 2030s.[1]

As EVs become a major driver of residential and public electricity demand, understanding the price elasticity of EV charging is essential for energy economists, regulators, and policymakers. This paper provides the first large-scale experimental estimate of that elasticity in public charging, a key public infrastructure challenge. From a general economics perspective, we study how consumers respond to short-run variation in marginal cost for a durable good's primary energy input, one of the few contexts where real-time marginal cost pricing is observable and manipulable at scale. This context offers rare insight into demand behavior in a high-frequency, high-salience, decentralized energy market.[2]

The anticipated growth in EV adoption will place new demands on electricity grids. Without intervention, unmanaged charging is likely to strain networks during peak periods, leading to grid instability, higher infrastructure costs, and ultimately increased costs for consumers (Richardson, 2013; Anwar et al., 2022; Bailey et al., 2024; Sarda et al., 2024; Li and Jenn, 2024; Turk et al., 2024). Dynamic pricing has been proposed as a way to enable flexibility in EV charging demand, shifting consumption away from peak periods and toward times when variable renewable energy is abundant - or even in excess - thereby reducing both the cost and carbon intensity of electricity supply (Mura-

[1] The UK plans to end the sale of new cars powered solely by ICE by 2030, and hybrids and vans by 2035 (Department for Transport, 2025*b*). The European Union has legislated to effectively ban new ICE cars by 2035 as part of its "Fit for 55" climate package (European Commission, 2023). The US previously aimed for 50% of new vehicle sales to be electric by 2030, but this executive order has since been revoked by the Trump administration (The White House, 2025).

[2] While there is important general interest work on the price elasticity of gasoline demand (Parry and Small, 2005; Bento et al., 2009; Edelstein and Kilian, 2009; Davis and Kilian, 2011; Allcott and Wozny, 2014; Li et al., 2014; Coglianese et al., 2017; Levin et al., 2017; Knittel and Tanaka, 2021), no credible price elasticity of public EV charging demand exists.

tori, 2018; Birk Jones et al., 2022). In essence, it can bring prices closer to the real-time marginal social cost of electricity. However, the literature provides no causal evidence of this marginal pricing setup affecting EV charging demand.

Another potential benefit of dynamic pricing is to lower EV running costs for consumers, particularly for those more reliant on public charging infrastructure. Alongside sensitivity to upfront costs (Holland et al., 2021; Muehlegger and Rapson, 2022), price elasticity of EV demand reflects these recharging expenses (Zhang et al., 2018; Zhou and Li, 2018; Borlaug et al., 2020; Burlig et al., 2021; Bushnell et al., 2022; Gillingham et al., 2023; Barwick et al., 2024; Dorsey et al., 2025). Understanding how responsive consumers are to charging costs is therefore relevant to welfare analysis of various EV policies (Arkolakis et al., 2025). Many countries have implemented substantial incentives to promote EV adoption, which offer significant welfare benefits (Rapson and Muehlegger, 2023*b*; Gillingham et al., 2023; Allcott et al., 2024; Hahn et al., 2024; Knittel and Tanaka, 2024).

While observational studies have examined EV charging behavior,[3] there has been no experimental evidence to date on how price influence public charging demand among a representative population of EV users. Our paper presents the first field experiment to estimate the causal impact of public charging costs on charging demand and to assess the flexibility of charging behavior in response to periods of low marginal electricity costs, whether due to abundant renewable generation or unexpectedly low demand. We conducted the natural field experiment across the UK, covering approximately 60% of the country's public charging network. We reduced 18% of these chargers' prices during dynamic pricing events. Importantly, participants were unaware of the experiment, eliminating concerns about selection bias or experimenter demand effects. Our data allow us to observe a substantial share of EV charging behavior across the country, providing a uniquely comprehensive view of how public charging demand responds to dynamic pricing.

The nationwide field experiment was administered in collaboration with Octopus Electroverse, a public EV charging platform. The Electroverse app displays a map of public EV chargers across the United Kingdom, centered by default on the user's geolocation and showing an area of approximately 1 square kilometer. For each charger, the app provides real-time, accurate information on location, price per kilowatt-hour, and sta-

[3]For instance, Quirós-Tortós et al. (2015); Motoaki and Shirk (2017); Sheldon et al. (2019); Lee et al. (2020); Nehiba (2024); Weekx et al. (2025).

tion congestion (as price change was unrelated to congestion, our effects were not driven by price as a signal for charger abundance).[4] Access to full and accurate information is critical for realizing the benefits of the public EV charging network (Asensio et al., 2025).

The Electroverse platform enabled us to adjust public charging prices as part of the experimental design. We reduced prices during specific periods when the marginal social cost of electricity was low, designed to incentivize EV charging at times of high low-carbon electricity supply and to support grid balancing. These lower prices were made possible by procuring wholesale electricity at lower costs and passing the savings on to consumers. The app notified users in advance - usually day-ahead - of these dynamic pricing events at participating chargers, which generally lasted for two hours.

We analyzed the charging behavior over an 11-week period of all UK EV drivers who had an Electroverse account and push notifications enabled, encompassing 109,711 eligible drivers, approximately 5% of the UK EV market.[5] Using an incomplete crossover experimental design, each customer was exposed to three out of four randomly assigned experimental conditions at different points in time: a 40% price reduction; a 15% price reduction; a carbon information message encouraging charging when "the grid is green" (with no price reduction); and a control condition (with no price change or informational message). By randomly lowering prices to better reflect marginal social costs, and by independently varying carbon messaging, we are able to causally estimate the impacts of price incentives and non-price signals on public EV charging demand.

1.1 Primary findings

We find that demand for public EV charging is highly responsive to price, with point elasticities ranging from –2 to –7 depending on context, suggesting substantial short-run flexibility in how and when consumers choose to refuel EVs. These estimates are among the highest elasticities observed in electricity markets and carry significant implications for welfare analysis, marginal cost pricing, and infrastructure investment. We begin by presenting several descriptive insights into charging behavior, followed by four main results from our natural field experiment.

[4] The app is free to any EV consumer and has many product features: (i) interactive map and filters to easily locate chargers by filtering based on connector types, charging speeds, availability (congestion), and network providers; (ii) plan trips with charging stops tailored to the EV's battery capacity and connector type; and (iii) the ability to initiate and monitor charging sessions directly from the consumer's phone, eliminating the need to interact with the charger physically.

[5] We assume 2.2 million EVs, including plug-in hybrids, in the UK (Society of Motor Manufacturers and Traders, 2025).

Given our EV charger data, we estimate the first load duration curve for public EV charging across a country. We find that at peak, only 25% of the network is being used, and for more than 50% of the time, less than 10% of the EV charging network is being used. In addition, congestion at the location level is rare during our trial (see Figure 4). This demonstrates that during this experiment, we are not facing congestion due to supply side constraints. Using data from users of a major public EV charging app, we document the following baseline patterns: (i) most users are infrequent public charger users, likely because they rely primarily on home charging; (ii) among frequent users, charging typically occurs close to home, either at locations within 1 kilometer or at nearby fast chargers within a 5-kilometer radius; (iii) a substantial share of charging occurs far from home, likely reflecting usage during longer-distance travel; and (iv) weekend charging is disproportionately associated with chargers located farther away, suggesting more out-of-home travel on weekends. Since representative data on EV charging behavior is often scarce, these descriptive findings offer a valuable foundation for understanding the demand characteristics of our study sample.

Directly from the field experiment, first, we find very large demand responsiveness to the price. A 40% reduction in the charging price at the subset of participating chargers caused a 117% increase in demand across the network of charging points within the app, while a 15% price reduction led to a 30% increase. We estimate that equates to point price elasticities of demand of -2.9 and -2 respectively. These price elasticities of demand rise to -3.8 and -7.1 when we focus on consumption impacts at charging points that reduced prices during the events rather than the whole Electroverse network–i.e., when we incorporate switching to participating chargers. The effects were consistent and persistent across the whole time period. Conversely, non-price messages to charge when the grid was "green" had no impact on charging demand.

Second, we find some evidence of substitution from other charging apps but detected very little displacement of demand.[6] Approximately half of the observed treatment effect is attributable to users shifting from other apps – accessing the same chargers available through the Electroverse app — to using Electroverse. The remaining half represents genuinely new, or induced, demand during the treatment periods. Due to this demand shift from other apps and not time or location, we estimate the price elasticity from a 15% and 40% price reduction to be -1 and -1.45 respectively. However, we find no evidence of

[6]This distinction is possible due to the high-resolution data we collected, which includes public charging activity across both participating and non-participating chargers, as well as total electricity consumption at participating chargers, regardless of the app used. Additionally, for a subset of customers, we obtained half-hourly household electricity consumption data.

temporal displacement within the public charging network or in-home charging behavior.[7] If any intertemporal shifting of demand occurred, either across time within the day or between public and private charging, it appears to be extremely diffuse.

Third, we find variation in treatment effects consistent with economic theory. First, we observe heterogeneity by income: customers living in lower-income areas exhibit more elastic demand.[8] We also find substantial differences by vehicle type: large-battery EVs (over 77 kWh) show far greater increases in charging demand, as one would expect, which results in a price elasticity of -4.86 for these consumers, compared to -1.77 among those in the smallest battery quartile (14–51 kWh). In addition, we observe heterogeneity by situational context. Price elasticity is higher on weekends than weekdays, and varies by time of day: mornings show the largest absolute increases in demand, while evenings show the largest relative increases.[9] Finally, we find that proximity to public chargers is also an important moderator of responsiveness – as distance to the nearest charger increases and charging presumably becomes more costly (in terms of time and battery energy), responsiveness declines.

We find that the experimental price reduction prompted consumers to try public chargers they had not previously used: 43% of EV drivers used a new charger during the experimental period. 25% of new demand is a new charging brand, so 59% of new location are also new brand. However, this demand change did not persist—drivers were no more likely to return to the new charger after the experiment ended than the control group. This pattern suggests that consumers were already near-optimized in their charging behavior, despite briefly responding to the temporary price incentive. This stands in contrast to some earlier findings that emphasize suboptimal travel or location choices (Larcom et al., 2017).

Fourth, we find that reducing EV public charging prices closer to the marginal social cost has economic welfare benefits.[10] Given the large random price change, we can estimate the consumer surplus of EV public charging. At existing market prices, we find that for every £1 spent on EV charging, there is a consumer surplus transfer of £0.53. However, we also estimate the total consumer surplus change of moving to the wholesale

[7] During the study period, home charging remained cheaper than public charging, although public charging is much faster than home charging (so opportunity cost of time should also be included here). Outside of price-decrease hours, public charging rates ranged from £0.50 to £0.90 per kWh. In contrast, customers on fixed-rate home tariffs paid £0.25–£0.27 per kWh, while those on a managed charging tariff paid just £0.07 per kWh during off-peak periods.

[8] For customers in local authorities with average disposable income below £19,000 per year, the price elasticity of demand in response to the 40% price increase is -4.32. All other quintiles show weaker responses.

[9] These patterns are consistent with when people's value of time is lower (Goldszmidt et al., 2020).

[10] This result has been noted in other energy markets, see Joskow and Wolfram (2012); Hahn and Metcalfe (2021); Borenstein and Bushnell (2022); Hinchberger et al. (2024); Imelda et al. (2024).

marginal cost from the current market price for charging. At this point, we find that for every £1 spent on EV charging, there is a consumer surplus transfer of £5.63.

1.2 Contribution to the existing literature

Our natural field experiment contributes to the growing literature in energy economics on demand flexibility, price elasticity of demand, and EV charging behavior. In particular, we build on three recent important and innovative studies — Bailey et al. (2023), Garg et al. (2024), and La Nauze et al. (2024) — that examine how price variation affects EV charging. These studies focus on home charging (Bailey et al., 2023; La Nauze et al., 2024) and workplace charging (Garg et al., 2024), and consistently find that consumers respond to lower prices. Estimated elasticities range from –0.4 for Australian Tesla owners receiving 50–80% price reductions during peak hours (La Nauze et al., 2024), to –0.44 for UCSD employees offered a 50% discount on workplace charging (Garg et al., 2024), to –1.6 for Calgary customers responding to a 23% overnight price reduction (Bailey et al., 2023).

Our study differs from these studies in four key ways. First, we examine the price elasticity of demand for many public chargers across the whole country, and merge in additional data that also allow us to capture substitution between public and home charging home charging. Second, our experiment is a large-scale natural field experiment with no additional self-selection into the trial aside from having a notification enabled Electroverse account in the UK, providing excellent external validity (Harrison and List, 2004), whereas Bailey et al. (2023), Garg et al. (2024), and La Nauze et al. (2024) are smaller framed field experiments with voluntary participation. Our partnership with a major public charging app enabled us to access granular charging and home consumption data without requiring selection (i.e., opt-in). Third, participants in our study were unaware they were part of an experiment, avoiding potential experimenter demand effects and Hawthorne effects that can arise in opt-in settings (Levitt and List, 2009). Fourth, our within-subject randomization across approximately 110,000 drivers allows us to estimate heterogeneous treatment effects with greater statistical power, in contrast to the between-subject designs and smaller samples in prior work. Taken together, we believe our study

meaningfully extends this important literature.[11,12]

We also relate to the literature on new peak energy demand. The strong responsiveness to reductions in price has implications for a static time-of-use (ToU) tariff system: Bailey et al. (2024) showed that EV charging that is optimized by ToU can cause new peaks that might offset some of the benefits of such a system (see also Powell et al. (2022); Li and Jenn (2024)); this effect might not appear with a more dynamic pricing tool like the one used in our study.[13]

Furthermore, we contribute to the growing literature using large and novel datasets to better understand what influences a consumer's driving and refueling behavior. For instance, Burlig et al. (2021) shows that EVs do not drive as much as the average ICE vehicle, implying that EVs might be complements to normal cars rather than substitutes.[14] Similarly, Dorsey et al. (2025) examines the value of EV charging demand over gasoline demand using multiple datasets; they estimate that people with EVs have annual refueling time costs of $7,763 (compared to $675 for ICE drivers), and ICE drivers make refueling decisions primarily driven by a station's *long-run* - rather than *current* - fuel price. Interestingly, our price elasticities (-2 to -2.9) are larger than the gas price elasticities in the literature (e.g., -0.3 to -0.4 in Coglianese et al. (2017); Knittel and Tanaka (2021); Levin et al. (2017)). There could be many reasons for this (e.g., day ahead notice, short-term nature, etc.), but it does suggest that there are large social economic benefits of aligning charging prices with marginal cost.[15]

Our findings are also relevant to literature arguing for the importance of supply-side factors in EV adoption rates and the overall EV policy debate (Li et al., 2017; Zhou and Li, 2018; Meunier and Ponssard, 2020; Springel, 2021; Remmy et al., 2022; Cole et al., 2023; Heid et al., 2024). These supply side factors depend in part on consumers' responsiveness to charging prices, which our study suggests is substantial. This relates, for example, to understanding the elasticity of investment in charging infrastructure, where demand

[11] Like Bailey et al. (2023), we find no effect of environmental messaging on charging behavior. Our null result is even stronger than that in Ito et al. (2018), who finds initial but diminishing effects, and contrasts with the positive effects reported in Garg et al. (2024). The absence of effects in our study may stem from the lack of self-selection and the broader population included.

[12] Our research is also related to studies on static time-of-use pricing, which have found significant shifts in home EV charging to off-peak hours (Burkhardt et al., 2023).

[13] Given that the EV dynamic charging prices are adjusting to the marginal cost of generation and where the marginal generator would likely be natural gas or renewables, there might be some attractive properties to such pricing, as opposed to coal (Gillingham et al., 2025).

[14] There is also a rich survey literature on the charging preferences of EV drivers (Carley et al., 2019; Forsythe et al., 2023).

[15] The use of daily high-frequency data in our setting is fundamental to be able to measure such price elasticities of fuel demand (Hughes et al., 2008; Levin et al., 2017).

and supply dynamics have created a "chicken-and-egg" problem for policymakers: should they prioritize subsidizing EV adoption or the deployment of EV charging networks (Cole et al., 2023)?[16] Our price elasticities can be used to help understand this question, and is applicable to the related IO literature on induced new demand versus charger switching demand and charger competition.

Finally, our results have implications for policy responses to local charging costs.[17] Electricity in charging stations is generally more expensive than in residential settings because of additional costs to suppliers, such as those associated with running and maintaining charging infrastructure (Office for Zero Emission Vehicles, 2024).[18] Policymakers are exploring ways to reduce these costs, with a view to encouraging EV adoption at scale, but also to address equity concerns. Households less likely to have access to off-street parking for EV chargers, such as multiple-dwelling properties (Azarova et al., 2020) tend to correlate with lower income and property value (Chester et al., 2015; Zhang and Fan, 2025). These neighborhoods were the ones with the larger elasticities in our field experiment. While currently the vast majority of EV drivers in the UK (93%) have access to home charging (Britain Thinks, 2022), consumers may become more reliant on public charging as EV diffusion moves from "early adopter" to "early majority" (Rogers, 2003).[19] By 2040, it is expected that most people would be using public charging to some extent, including to supplement home or workplace charging (International Energy Agency, 2024*b*). Therefore, our estimated price elasticities of demand are important for understanding the benefits of such public infrastructure investment.

The remainder of the article is structured as follows. First, we describe the study design, including details of the experimental manipulations, the timing of the dynamic pricing events, the incomplete crossover randomization approach, and the data and analytical methods used. Next, we present key descriptive statistics. Subsequently, we present the full set of results, covering treatment effects and tests for demand displacement. We then examine welfare impacts before concluding with a discussion of the results' potential

[16] In the United States, subsidies have supported both EV purchases and charging infrastructure development, particularly under the Infrastructure Investment and Jobs Act (IIJA) and the Inflation Reduction Act (IRA), with a focus on benefiting low- and middle-income households. The United Kingdom has pursued the same goal through a combination of financial incentives, regulation (namely a mandate on new car sales), and charging infrastructure grants (the Local EV Infrastructure Fund).

[17] Our research is in similar spirit to Holland et al. (2016), whereas we are focusing on local charging costs and the local externalities it can create, rather than the direct health costs from local EV charging.

[18] We acknowledge however that the speed of the kWh going into the EV in public chargers is usually a lot quicker than for at-home chargers. Therefore, in terms of cost, once we include people's value of time, it is unclear whether public is more costly than at-home chargers.

[19] Early EV adopters are higher-income households (Borenstein and Davis, 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2019; Davis, 2019; Gillingham et al., 2023), and are thus more likely to have a garage and driveway for home charging than middle- and lower-income households, especially on multi-family dwelling.

implications for energy and transport policy.

2 Experimental design

In this section, we present the sample selection in the experiment (Section 2.1), the design of the treatments (Section 2.2), our use of crossover randomization (Section 2.3), the randomization protocol (Section 2.4), the scheduling of the treatment (Section 2.5), and the availability of data before and during the field experiment (Section 2.7).

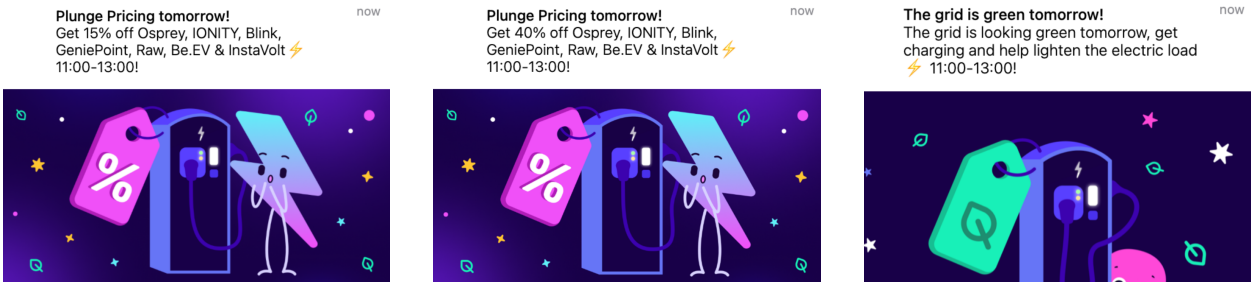
2.1 Eligibility into the field experiment

We implemented our field trial using eligible customers of the Electroverse app. Electroverse is the largest consumer EV charging network in Europe. It is a two-sided platform connecting customers and public chargers; in the UK, Electroverse covers approximately 60% of the public charging network, connecting customers to more than 65,000 charging points[20] from approximately 100 charging point operators (CPOs). A subset of CPOs on the network is supplied by Octopus Energy Limited. Octopus Energy Limited and Electroverse, both part of Octopus Energy Group, make direct procurement savings at these charging points by encouraging customers to charge at times when wholesale electricity prices are lower. Seven of *these* CPOs participated in the dynamic pricing events, comprising 18% of Electroverse charging points (11% of the UK public network): Be.EV (770 charging points), Blink Charging (3,607), GeniePoint (1,675), IONITY (394), InstaVolt (1,372), Osprey (2,549), and Raw Charging (1,569). All remaining chargers did not offer the dynamic pricing intervention. Among participating chargers, only 16% were slow chargers (under 7kW), 37% were fast chargers (under 50kW), 38% were rapid (under 150kW) and 9% were ultra fast chargers (from 150kW to 500kW) as shown in Table A1. We also show how much of the additional consumption is drawn from fast chargers in Figure A9.

Customers were deemed eligible for the field trial if, at the time of randomization on 16/12/2024, they met the following criteria: i) they had an active Electroverse account; ii) their device language was set to English; iii) they had enabled push notifications in the app; and iv) they had not opted out of receiving "Plunge Pricing" notifications (the

[20] Note that a specific charging location can have multiple physical charging devices, and a device can have multiple pieces of Electric Vehicle Supply Equipment (EVSE). When we refer to a charging point or charger throughout the rest of the report, we are referring to an EVSE.

Figure 1: Visual representation of the three notifications used in the experiment



(a) 15% price decrease (b) 40% price decrease (c) Green message

Notes: Customers in our sample were exposed to one of four trial arms: a control treatment or one of three push-notification-based treatments. These notifications are what are displayed on people's phones.

marketing term for the price decreases). A total of 109,647 customers met these criteria at the beginning of the study; 64 new customers enrolled during the trial and were automatically assigned to a treatment group, with a final sample of 109,711 customers.[21] Our analysis was restricted to chargers within Great Britain, where the price decreases applied.[22]

2.2 Intervention design

The customers in our sample were exposed to one of four trial arms: a control treatment or one of three push-notification-based treatments (as shown in Figure 1), with the in-app experience shown in Figure 2.[23,24]

Control group: Customers in the control group did not receive any push notifications about events' price decreases.

15% price decrease group: Participants in this treatment received a push notification

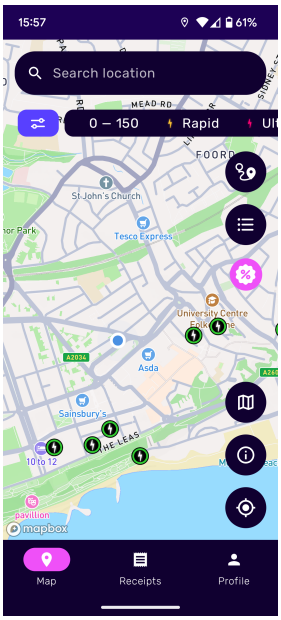
[21] Our pre-analysis plan had dictated excluding new customers, fleet users, and super users (a customer marker defined by Electroverse), but they were automatically randomized following the same process as existing customers (see Section 2.4), which we had not realized *in advance* would occur. For this reason, we have *included* these 330 customers in our analyses. We show that our results are almost unchanged in Table A38.

[22] Electroverse also operates in other countries, and British customers in our sample could use charging points outside the UK during the life of the trial, without receiving a price decrease. These transactions were excluded from our analysis.

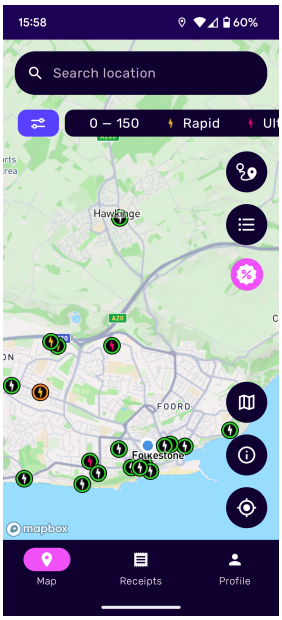
[23] In the framework of Athey (2025), this field experiment places us in the economist as market designer category.

[24] The default map setting is Zoom Level 16, roughly the level at which individual buildings are visible. (For more information on zoom levels, see https://docs.mapbox.com/help/glossary/zoom-level/.) However, the user can zoom in and out of the map and can search across the whole country. The users can also use the app to determine the compatibility of charging station to their vehicle, which is relatively homogeneous (Li (2019) shows the importance of such standards for welfare). Interestingly, the user can see location, price, speed and type of charger, and available chargers. This may mean more diversity in location of chargers compared to traditional gasoline markets, where stations tend to be concentrated on major commuting paths (Houde, 2012).

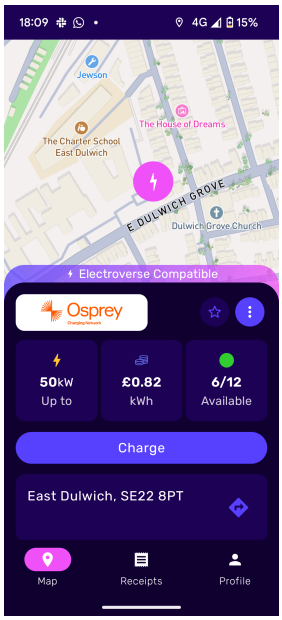
Figure 2: The Electroverse app under different pricing conditions



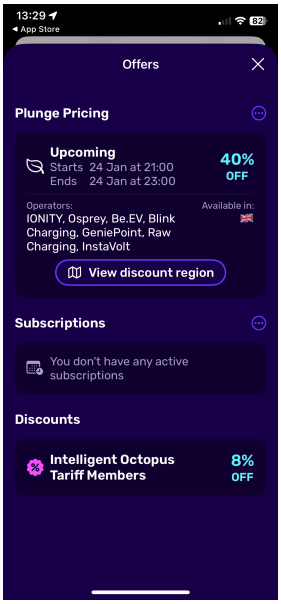
(a) No event – map view



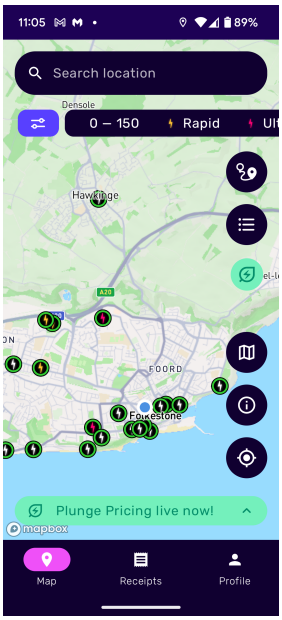
(b) No event – zoomed out map view



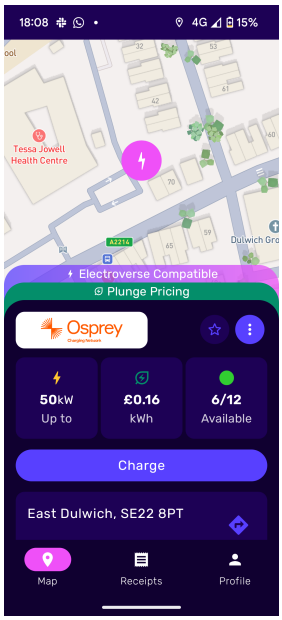
(c) No event – charger view



(d) Upcoming event – offers view



(e) Event – zoomed out map view



(f) Event – charger view

Notes: Panels (a), (b), and (c) show the Electroverse app under normal pricing conditions: (a) is the standard map view, (b) is a zoomed-out map view, and (c) is a charger-specific view (for an Osprey charger). Panel (d) shows the "Offers" tab when a dynamic pricing event is upcoming (note that the map is still the default screen, even in the lead-up to dynamic pricing events). Panels (e) and (f) show the map and charger views, respectively, during an active event. Discounted chargers are not flagged visually, but users can filter for participating CPOs such as Osprey.

about a low price decrease, 15%, at selected charging stations. The message[25] read: *Plunge Pricing tomorrow! Get 15% off [operators names] [time slot]!* Participants could then locate eligible charging stations on the map in the app. Customers were entitled to the price decrease if they started charging during the specified time window, even if the session ended after the window closed. Since electricity unit rates varied across operators and stations, we used a fixed proportional price decrease to keep the message simple and clear.

40% price decrease group: This group received a push notification offering a high price decrease, 40%, at selected charging stations. The message was similar in structure: *Plunge Pricing tomorrow! Get 40% off [operators names] [time slot]!* The price decrease conditions were identical to those in the low price decrease group, with users able to locate eligible stations in the app and receive the price decrease for any charging session initiated during the event window.

Green message group: Customers in this treatment received a push notification highlighting the low-carbon intensity of electricity during dynamic pricing events – i.e., when the grid was "green" – but without any mention of price or price decreases. The message read: *The grid is green! The grid is looking green tomorrow, get charging and help lighten the electric load [time slot].* The message was designed to promote a pro-environmental goal by informing consumers when electricity was greenest. This treatment allows us to compare the effectiveness of pro-environmental messages and price incentives. It also allows us to understand the impact of incentives, holding fixed the receipt of a notification.

We have three main hypotheses in our field experiment. Our first null hypothesis is that reducing the charging price by 40% has no impact on charging demand; our second null hypothesis is that the 15% price decrease has no impact on demand; our third null hypothesis is that a green message will not affect charging demand. These three hypotheses belong to the same family so we will adjust for multiple hypothesis testing in our analysis.

2.3 Crossover randomization

Our study involved three "blocks" of events with four different experimental manipulations. A crossover design with four manipulations allows for a maximum of 4!=24

[25] On the first event, the message read "today" as the event was later that day; this is true for the 40% and green message notifications for the first event, too.

possible sequences. To simplify the design while maintaining balance, we used a Latin square design to ensure uniformity within sequences (each treatment appears an equal number of times in every sequence) and within blocks (each treatment appears an equal number of times in each block). As shown in Table 1, we ran the trial for only three periods, leading to a four-treatment, three-block (4 x 3) incomplete crossover design (see e.g., Jemielita et al. (2019)). The blocks also had varying lengths (in terms of number of events).

Table 1: Experimental design

	Sequence 1	Sequence 2	Sequence 3	Sequence 4	Events
Block 1	40% decrease	15% decrease	Control	Green message	8
Block 2	15% decrease	Control	Green message	40% decrease	6
Block 3	Control	Green message	40% decrease	15% decrease	4
Participants	26,805	27,448	27,685	27,773	

Notes: Total number of participants in our sample at the final day of the experiment: 109,711. Our experiment followed an incomplete Latin square design with one-week wash-out periods between blocks. Block lengths varied by the number of events.

The use of within-customer randomization (i.e., a crossover design) offered several advantages in our experimental setting. Most notably, this design enhanced statistical power by exploiting within-individual variation, thereby allowing us to detect treatment effects with greater precision. By observing how the same customer responded to different treatment conditions over time, we eliminated time-invariant unobserved heterogeneity, improving the efficiency of our estimates (List, 2025).

This design also facilitated the identification of heterogeneous treatment effects. By observing how each participant responds to multiple treatments, we could better estimate how individual characteristics influence treatment effects.

Finally, the within-subject design better reflected the dynamic pricing environments that customers are likely to encounter in the future. It is increasingly common for energy prices to vary temporally in response to marginal system costs, and customers are accustomed to receiving varying offers from firms over time. As such, our design was not only analytically advantageous but also more representative of real-world pricing practices, enhancing the external validity of our findings.

In our setting, there are two concerns about the within-customer randomization. The first is any carryover effects: the impact of one treatment may spill over into subsequent periods, contaminating later outcomes. We reduce this likelihood by having washout pe-

riods (over a week), since we find that people charge their EV more than once a week, so one week's washout would set everyone back to the baseline charging behavior. The second is order effects, in that customers might respond differently just because Treatment A came before B. Again, the washout period helps this from occurring. Such a design has been suggested by List (2025) for removing both carryover and order effects from the within estimator. We tested both carryover and ordering effects (see Section 4.2.1) and did not find any such effects, suggesting that our washout design was successful.

2.4 Randomization

Due to the crossover design, participants were randomized into treatment sequences rather than static treatment groups, as shown in Table 1. Sequence assignment was based on Electroverse's internal user IDs, which are unique, positive integers assigned sequentially according to the customer's join date. We implemented randomization using the modulo (mod) function in Python, which allocated customers to one of four sequences based on the remainder when their user ID was divided by 4 (i.e., 0, 1, 2, or 3).[26] This approach ensured balanced assignment across the user base, while preserving randomness with respect to the time when a customer joined the Electroverse platform.

2.5 Scheduling of dynamic pricing events

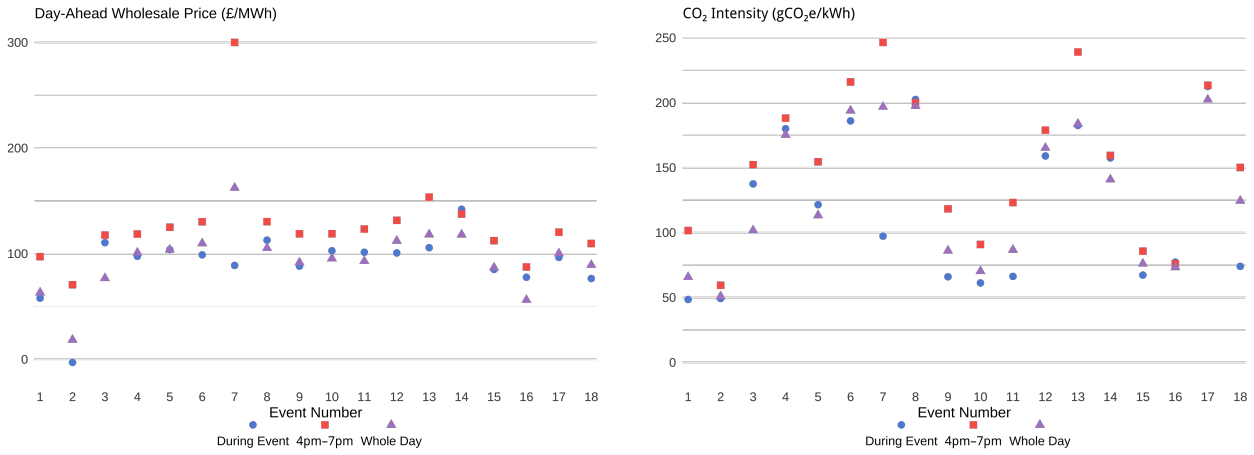
As part of our field experiment, we held 18 dynamic pricing events between December 2024 and March 2025, which are reported in Table A2. Participants who were in one of the two price decrease groups were eligible if they *started* charging in the time window of the dynamic pricing events listed in Table A2, irrespective of the length of the charge. All events lasted two hours, except for events on December 28, 2024 (three hours) and January 02, 2025 (one hour). Dynamic pricing events were not scheduled to happen at a predetermined time interval; rather, Electroverse identified events within a given week to correspond to times when the price of wholesale electricity was predicted to be low with high probability. Figure 3 confirms that events tended to occur during hours with lower day-ahead prices (£/MWh) and CO_2e intensity (gCO_2e/kWh) compared to day as a whole, and especially to the 4pm-7pm period.

Averaged across all three treatment groups and all events, the notification was sent

[26] Implemented as `user_id % 4` in Electroverse's data environment.

around 18 hours before the dynamic pricing event.

Figure 3: Day-Ahead prices (left) and CO_2e intensity (right)



Notes: These figures show average day-ahead prices (£/MWh) and CO_2e intensity (gCO_2e/kWh) during event hours (blue circle), 4pm-7pm (red square), and the across the whole day (purple triangle) for each day that had a dynamic pricing event. Events tended to occur during hours with lower day-ahead prices (£/MWh) and CO_2e intensity (gCO_2e/kWh) compared to day as a whole, and especially to the 4pm-7pm period. (4pm-7pm is traditionally considered the most supply-constrained "peak" hours in Great Britain.) We retrieved carbon intensity data from Great Britain's National Energy System Operator (NESO), using https://carbonintensity.org.uk/.

2.6 The Unbiasedness of the Treatment Effect Due to Randomization

Our randomization design ensures strong internal validity by satisfying both the assignment mechanism and exclusion restrictions necessary for identifying an unbiased treatment effect.

First, the three assignment mechanism conditions are met: (i) non-zero probability—every Electroverse customer had a chance of assignment to any of the four experimental sequences; (ii) individualism—treatment assignment for one customer was independent of others' assignments and outcomes; and (iii) unconfoundedness—treatment was assigned independently of potential outcomes.

Second, we satisfy four exclusion restrictions. (i) SUTVA holds: a customer's potential outcomes do not depend on the treatment assigned to others, and there is no variation in treatment form.[27] (ii) Observability is ensured: treatment is assigned only to observed customers, and while post-assignment attrition is possible, we test and find no evidence

[27] The charging network is uncongested (see the load duration curve in section 3.1), so treated users do not affect charger availability or outcomes for others. Were the network congested, treated users might crowd out all other users, biasing estimates upward. However, even if the charging network was crowded, someone in the treated group who charged in the incentive time period crowds out all other users equally, so the SUTVA violation effects would be tiny if not negligible. See Goldszmidt et al. (2020) for a discussion of these issues in a two-sided platform randomization.

that treatment affects outcome observability. (iii) Complete compliance is guaranteed: all treated customers received the assigned message.

With these conditions satisfied, (iv) we have statistical independence, ensuring that treatment assignment is independent of potential outcomes. This validates our use of randomization to recover an internally unbiased estimate of the impact of charging prices on charging demand.

2.7 Data

Our analysis used observed charging behavior via the Electroverse app. We focused on two main behavioral outcomes: i) whether a customer initiated a charge during the specified time window of the event; and ii) the volume of electricity consumed during charges, measured in kWh.

The dataset also included a range of individual-level variables. In particular, we observed pre-trial electricity consumption in September, October, and November 2024, and charging behavior (kWh charged, GBP spent, number of receipts, number of different charging stations visited) between January 1st and November 30th 2024. For the 89,202 participants (80%) who indicated the model of their EV, we included the usable battery capacity of the vehicle (we used the largest battery for those who owned more than one EV). We also recorded the customer's home postcode at the time they joined the Electroverse app (full information was available for 77,595 customers, 70% of the sample); we used this information to link contextual variables such as average income in the customer's local authority (Office for National Statistics, 2024), whether their home postcode was classified as rural[28] (Office for National Statistics, 2025, from the 2011 census), and the number of public EV chargers in their local authority as of January 2025 (Department for Transport, 2025*a*).

In addition to these charging data from Electroverse, we also integrated two other key data sources. First, we observed electricity consumption at the household level for a subset of customers with linked home smart meter data. This enabled analysis of potential spillover effects between home and public charging behavior. Second, we had access to high-frequency electricity consumption data from the public EV chargers participating in the dynamic pricing events, which allowed us to compare user-level responses with

[28] This classification includes farming communities, rural tenants, and aging rural dwellers (retirees who move to rural areas).

aggregate demand patterns at the station level.

3 Descriptive statistics

3.1 Load Duration Curve

In this section, we discuss the Load Duration Curve (LDC) for Electroverse chargers. A LDC provides a ranked view of power demand across time on the Electroverse Network, which accounts for around 60% of public charging infrastructure in the UK. It shows how frequently demand nears peak capacity, and how often infrastructure is operating below its potential. This LDC is important to plot out as we would like to know, ex ante, whether the UK was close to a congested network, which might temper any treatment effects from the field experiment.

More precisely, we present an analysis of usage patterns across approximately 49,000 electric vehicle supply equipment (EVSE) points in the UK, covering the period from December 19, 2024 to March 3, 2025.[29] Drawing on availability data provided by CPOs, we constructed a LDC to estimate the network's active demand profile over the course of the trial in panel (a) of Figure 4. The resulting LDC reveals a minimum estimated load of 72 megawatts and a peak approaching 460 megawatts — a wide range that reflects the high variability in user demand and chargers type. However, it is clear that at maximum demand, only 25% of the network is being used. And for about 50% of the time, at most 10% of the charging network is being used.[30] The red dots on the figure are the MW during each price plunge events, which shows that the events are not triggered during peak congested times for the grid..

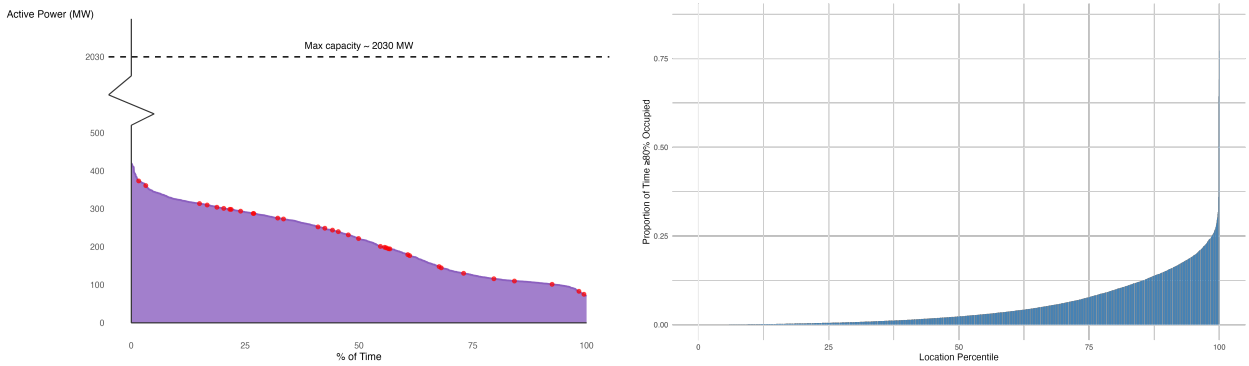
Panel (b) of Figure 4 shows the share of time that each charging location (a location can have several EVSEs) was occupied at or above 80% over the course of the trial. Chargers are ordered along the x-axis from least to most heavily used, and the y-axis shows the proportion of time spent at high occupancy. The distribution is heavily right-skewed: approximately 99% of locations were occupied at 80% for less than 25% of the time, indicating that high congestion was rare at most sites. Only a small fraction of chargers

[29] These 49,000 EVSEs represent the subset of the 65,000 EVSEs in our sample that were used at least once during the trial period. We exclude the others because they may have issues that prevented their use, which are not yet reflected in Electroverse's administrative data.

[30] In Figure A17, we show the same curve by charger speed. High speed chargers' LDC slopes are steeper, indicating more variability in peak demand and highlighting the potential for flexibility for high speed chargers.

saw sustained high utilisation, while the vast majority are only briefly busy.

Figure 4: Utilization patterns across the Electroverse charging network



(a) Load duration curve (EV charging)

(b) Share of time each location was at or above 80% occupancy during the trial

Notes: Panel (a) presents the Load Duration Curve (LDC), showing the ranked estimated demand across all active chargers from December 19, 2024 to March 3, 2025. The red dots show MW during price plunge events. Panel (b) displays the share of time each charging location operated at or above 80% occupancy, sorted from least to most congested.

There are, however, important limitations to this analysis. In the absence of direct metering data for many devices, we relied on nameplate power ratings and observed availability to estimate load — a method that captures theoretical capacity rather than actual energy transferred. As a result, the estimates may overstate demand in cases where high-powered chargers are online but lightly used (e.g., a 150 kW charger delivering just 30 kW). This limitation is important to consider when interpreting the curve's upper and lower bounds. Nonetheless, the LDC provides meaningful insights into overall system usage, potential stress points, and opportunities for more intelligent demand-side management. We do not appear to be near any system-wide congestion at any point in time.

3.2 EV charging demand patterns and sample characteristics

We examined customers' charging behavior in the year prior to the trial's commencement and present here some stylized facts about public charging usage. Most EV owners appeared to have access to home chargers; public charging was often used occasionally, especially during weekends and holiday trips. The average distance between home locations (measured as the centroid of users' home postcodes) and charger locations increased sharply during public and school holidays (Figure A11), and to a lesser extent on week-

ends (Figure A12). However, public charging was also used locally by high-frequency users, either at slow charging stations located very close to home (under 600 m) or at fast chargers within 5 km of home.[31]

These use cases are reflected in the underlying composition of Electroverse users. Using a k-means clustering algorithm, we identified three distinct behavioral segments, which we grouped into three main user profiles.[32] The first consisted of users charging almost exclusively on slow chargers (84% of sessions on average). This group likely used public charging as a substitute for home charging. The second group included users with around 15 sessions annually, who charged at a median distance of 5 km and used fast chargers for 97% of their sessions. The proximity of the charger, type and frequency suggests that these users charged in "destination" chargers, typically found at places people visit, such as hotels, restaurants, or shopping centers. The third group comprised long-distance users — we included customers that only charged abroad and more occasional chargers in the UK (average 7 sessions per year), with median distances consistently exceeding 120 km from home. This group included weekend users (80% of sessions on weekends), holiday users (70% during holidays), and work-related users (80% on weekdays and less than 5% during holidays).

We present a density plot of users' median distance to chargers in Figure A13. Local slow-charging users were characterized by a distinct concentration of charging very close to home, with a sharp peak below 1 km. In contrast, long-distance users displayed a clearly separate distribution, with median distances typically well above 100 km. The overlap between local and long-distance users was minimal, indicating distinct usage patterns.

Our sample comprised a large user base and we saw no systematic differences in pre-trial charging behavior between the randomized treatment sequences.[33] Table A34 presents summary statistics for the full sample of 109,711 customers. In the 12 months prior to the trial (19 December 2023 to 18 December 2024), customers charged on average 121.9 kWh in five transactions and visited two different charging stations for a total cost of approximately £81. In the three months before the trial started, customers charged

[31] Most on-street charging in residential areas offers slower charging speeds compared to fast charging stations, which are typically located near supermarkets, public parking, or other business hubs.

[32] We have data on pre-trial charging behavior for 54,547 out of 109,711 users in our sample. In order to unpack user differences, we classified users into three groups using a k-means clustering algorithm, based on four behavioral indicators: the median distance from home to charging points, the share of sessions at high-speed chargers, the share of sessions occurring on weekends, and the share of sessions during school or bank holidays. This method allowed us to reduce the dimensionality of the data and draw meaningful comparisons between groups.

[33] However, as discussed in Section 4.4, our treatment effect heterogeneity analyses found that local users were much more engaged than more occasional trip users.

in public stations for around 13 kWh of electricity per month. On average, customers had been members of Electroverse for 16 months. A series of Kruskal–Wallis tests reveals no significant differences across these variables among the four sequences described in Table 1.

4 Results

This section presents the results of the experiment, examining how the different randomized interventions influenced consumer EV charging demand. The analysis follows an Intention-To-Treat (ITT) approach: participants are included for analysis in the sequence they were originally assigned to, regardless of whether they actively engaged in the trial. This method is particularly appropriate in our context: participants assigned to the control group never received notifications, making it impossible to determine a measure of engagement with the intervention, while participation in treatment groups was voluntary and therefore endogenous. More importantly, the charging behavior of consumers remains observable in the dataset even after they chose to drop out by disabling the notifications on their app; their exclusion would bias the results by omitting non-adherence to the intervention, when non-adherence itself can be influenced by the intervention.

4.1 Our empirical strategy

Our empirical strategy follows our pre-analysis plan (PAP) in our pre-registration of the field experiment (AEARCTR-0015061).[34] To formally estimate the effect of our interventions on consumer charging behavior, we employ regression analyses. In particular, our analyses focus on two primary outcomes: (1) the volume of electricity charged (in kWh), and (2) the likelihood that a customer charges at all during a dynamic pricing event. For both outcomes, we estimate an OLS regression of the form:

$$Y_{it} = \alpha + \beta\, T_{it} + \gamma' Z_i + \delta_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{1}$$

where Y_{it} is the outcome for customer i during event t, T_{it} is a vector of treatment

[34] In the notes section for every figure and table, we specify whether the analysis was in the PAP or whether it is new analysis that deviates away from the PAP. We also list deviations in Appendix A3.

indicators for the Green message, 15% price decrease, and 40% price decrease (the Control group is the omitted category), Z_i is a vector of time-invariant consumer covariates (specifically: kWh charged in September 2024 (set to 0 if the customer was not yet a member), kWh charged in October 2024 (0 if not a member), kWh charged in November 2024 (0 if not a member); and a binary indicator for whether the customer charged at least once between January and November 2024). These variables are intended to capture persistent differences in baseline usage patterns across individuals, improving precision in our estimates by accounting for variation that is predictive of the outcome. While such controls may reduce residual variance and partially account for temporal dependence in behavior, they do not fully eliminate serial autocorrelation. Accordingly, we account for potential within-customer autocorrelation by clustering standard errors at the customer level; δ_t event fixed effects; and ε_{it} is the error term, clustered at the customer level.

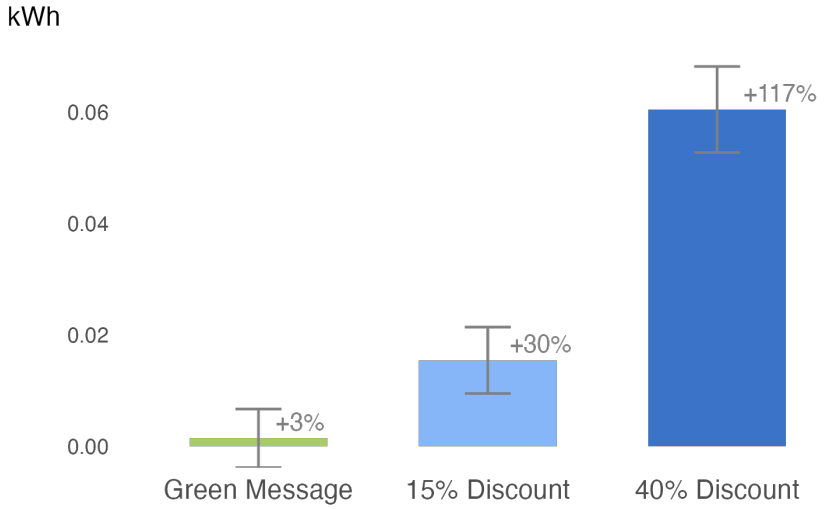
The above specification captures average treatment effects, controlling for prior engagement with the platform and customer baseline consumption.

4.2 Main results

Our primary estimates assessed how electricity consumption responded to each treatment during dynamic pricing events. Figure 5 and Table A3 show our core pre-registered specification and results. Customers in the 40% price decrease group increased their consumption by an average of 0.0517 kWh during dynamic pricing events, a 117% increase over the control group. Those offered a 15% price decrease increased usage by 0.017 kWh – a 30% increase over the control group, approximately a quarter of the effect of the larger price decrease. The green message alone did not produce a statistically significant change in consumption. The primacy of financial incentives is consistent with our survey evidence in Section 4.6, where approximately 70% of drivers cited cost savings as the primary motivation for taking part.

To account for the several outcomes and treatment arms, we applied two corrections to our p-values. First, we applied multiple hypothesis testing corrections to account for testing across two outcomes, kWh used and whether or not the user charged, and across the three treatment coefficients. Using the Romano-Wolf stepwise procedure to control the family-wise error rate (FWER), we found that the 15% and 40% discount treatments remained statistically significant at the 1% level ($p < 0.001$). We then applied the same approach — wild bootstrapping with stepwise multiple testing correction — to test the

Figure 5: Treatment effect (kWh charged per event)



Notes: Bars show treatment effects (kWh per dynamic pricing event) from Table A3, our primary analysis as specified in our pre-analysis plan. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Labels show the % change relative to the average consumption of 0.0517 kWh in the Control group. The 40% price decrease increased consumption by 117%, while the 15% price decrease led to a smaller but positive effect of 30%. The green message did not significantly affect usage.

joint significance of the three treatment effects. Again, we found strong evidence of joint significance, with a corrected p-value less than 0.001.

Table A4 presents estimates of treatment effects under progressively richer specifications, allowing us to assess the stability of our results to the inclusion of potentially confounding covariates. Model (1) includes only the main treatment indicators. Model (2) implements the crossover estimator from Piantadosi (2005, p. 523), which accounts for block fixed effects and treatment-by-block interactions. Column (3) adds time-invariant consumer covariates from Table A3, as well as day fixed effects. Across models (1)–(3), the estimated effects of the three interventions remain robust.

4.2.1 Testing for carryover effects

Given our within-subject experimental design, we tested for potential carryover effects. To do this test, we measured daily consumption during the two washout periods - one between block 1 and block 2, and one between block 2 and block 3 - to determine whether consumers in different groups manifested different charging behavior. We assigned treatment on the basis of the experimental manipulations consumers were exposed to in the block that was just completed. Results in Table A33 show that during washout consumers charging behavior did not differ across the groups, with all posi-

tive but non-significant coefficients. Additionally, we compared consumption treatment group interactions with blocks in Tables A4 and A28; we found no significant interaction between treatment groups and blocks, an indication that the effects we observed and did not extend beyond the intervention period, providing complementary evidence against significant spillover effects. Finally, we examined how treatments affected whether customers unsubscribed from subsequent notifications, as well as whether notifications were delivered as intended; see Appendix A2.11. Overall opt-out rates were very low across all treatments.

4.3 Testing for displacement and substitution in energy consumption

This section explores the sources of increased electricity consumption during dynamic pricing events, as identified in Section 4.2. The results in Section 4.2 show a general increase in electricity consumption during event hours when a dynamic pricing event is in effect. This may originate from two distinct behavioral responses. First, the increase in kWh charged may reflect an overall increase in energy demand, as consumers drive more and require additional electricity due to lower charging costs. Second, the increase may stem from displacement or substitution of charging activity. This second mechanism includes temporal displacement (e.g., consumers delay or advance charging to align with the event), spatial displacement (e.g., users opt for public instead of home charging), or platform-based substitution (e.g., users charge via Electroverse rather than competing public charging apps). These forms of displacement do not imply more total charging, but rather a reallocation of when, where, or through which platform charging occurs.

Understanding the balance between net new charging and different sources of displacement is important from a system-level perspective. The objective of demand flexibility is to influence real electricity consumption to support system balancing. Temporal displacement of demand benefits the system, as does spatial displacement if demand is shifted to areas of high supply. That said, net new consumption can also contribute meaningfully to grid flexibility by absorbing surplus renewable generation or alleviating stress during periods of over-supply. However, if the observed increase in charging during events simply reflects shifts from alternative charge-point operators or payment platforms - rather than a genuine rise in electricity demand - then the intervention offers limited value for system balancing.

4.3.1 Displacement between charging point operators

First, we examined whether treatment effects differed depending on operator participation in the dynamic pricing events. The regression results presented above referred to all chargers in the dataset. As noted in section Section 2.1, only seven operators were part of the dynamic pricing events.[35] As a result, many receipts that appeared in the previous regression were generated from charging points managed by CPOs that did not participate in dynamic pricing events. In this subsection, we analyzed treatment effects in participating vs non-participating charging points separately. Figure 6 and Table A28 break down the results from Table A3 by whether the operator participated in the dynamic pricing events.

We found no evidence of a significant displacement from non-participating charging points to participating ones. We find that the effect observed above is concentrated at participating operators' stations – where a 40% price decrease increases consumption by 282%, while a 15% price decrease increases the amount of kWh purchased by about 57% – whereas the price decreases had no effect on charging behavior in chargers operated by non-participating CPOs. The green message did not significantly influence behavior across either set of chargers.

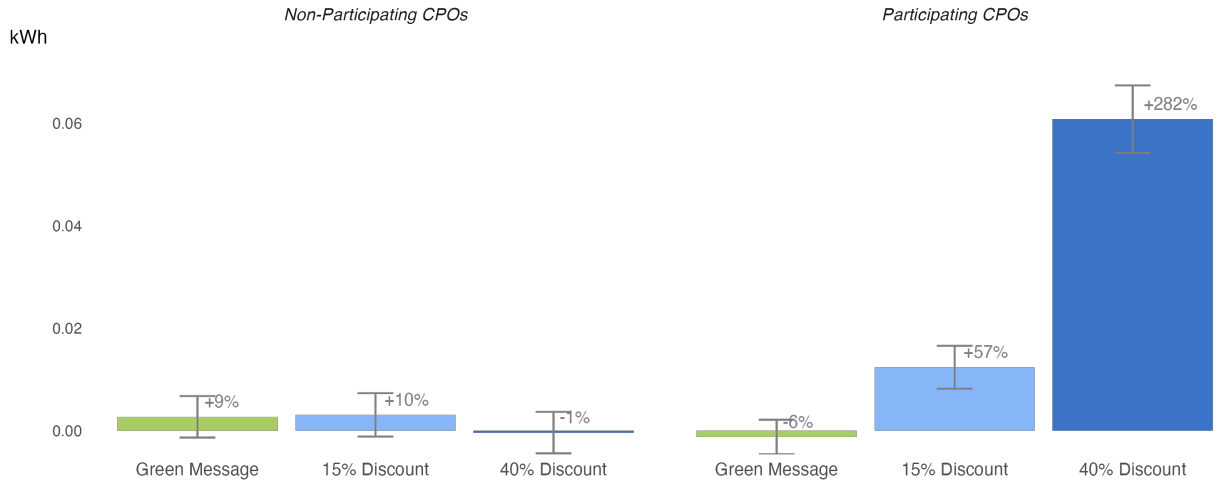
In interpreting the treatment effect, the hypothetical "scaled-up" impact on demand – if all chargers in Electroverse's network participated in dynamic pricing events, rather than just the seven CPOs who did so during our trial – likely falls between two extremes: for the 40% price decrease, the 117% increase in demand across the entire network from Figure 5, versus the 282% increase when focusing only on the participating charging points in Figure 6. While this suggests a hypothetically far greater significant response, we caution against assuming this effect size would be replicated across the whole charging network because additional participating charges may, in part, cannibalize demand. In other words, there may be a dilution effect where total customer response is limited by a finite amount of responsive users. However, including all stations in the broader network may lead to an underestimation of the true "scaled-up" treatment effect, as it fails to fully capture the intensified response among users at the participating stations.[36]

Note that we did not observe switching from chargers within the Electroverse network to chargers outside the network. However, we believe such switching is minimal,

[35] These seven operators account for approximately 12,000 charging points, representing 18% of the Electroverse charging network.

[36] In addition to these considerations, it is possible that current Electroverse customers may differ from future ones in their response to dynamice pricing.

Figure 6: Treatment effect (kWh), by whether the charging point operator (CPO) participated in dynamic pricing events.



Notes: Bars show treatment effects (kWh per dynamic pricing event) from Table A28, a spatial displacement check specified in our pre-registered analysis plan (as our second of three exploratory analyses). Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Labels show the % change relative to Control group consumption. The effects were concentrated at charging points operated by CPOs that participated in the dynamic pricing events, where a 40% price decrease increased consumption by 282% and a 15% price decrease by 57% (from a control group average of 0.0215 kWh. No significant changes were observed at non-participating CPOs (control group average of 0.0302). The green message did not yield statistically significant effects in either case.

based on our finding that, among CPOs within the Electroverse network, we found no displacement from non-participating to participating CPOs during events.

4.3.2 Temporal demand displacement

Time-from-notification displacement A key question in understanding displacement is whether the notification changed the behavior of consumers: EV owners planning to charge their vehicles on the day of an event may have changed their plans once they were made aware of the approaching dynamic pricing event. To this extent, consumers who received a notification (all except the Control group) were, on average, *sent* a notification 18.02 hrs prior to an event. The notification was *delivered* 17.97 hrs before the event, and those who *clicked* the message did so on average 16.19 hrs before the start of the event (note that consumers may be able to view the notification on a phone without clicking it, while phone settings might also prevent a phone to send delivery notifications). This long notice period gave consumers time to adjust their charging plans. Our expectation was that users might curtail charging after learning about an upcoming price decrease, in order to charge during the event instead.

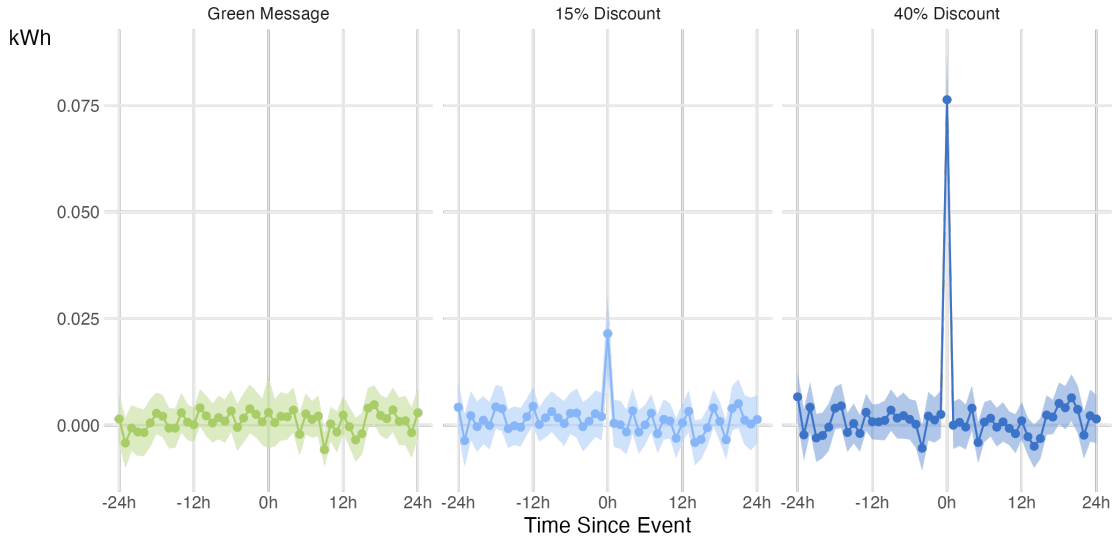
However, we found no evidence of this behavior. Table A31 regresses the amount of electricity charged at Electroverse chargers between the time a notification was sent, delivered, and clicked, and the starting time of an event, over treatment variables, block variables, and their interactions. For control group users (who received no notifications), we measure usage as the kWh charged between the average notification time of those who received a notification and the start of the event. The results in Table A31 show a small reduction in the amount of electricity charged in public charging stations across all treatment groups. The coefficients are not statistically significant, and they are small; for example, the 40% price decrease group shows a reduction of around -0.001 kWh, which represents approximately 1.7% of the effect observed in Table A3 (0.0517 kWh). This suggests a no – or very diffuse – reduced charging activity between notification and event start time.

Event study analysis To examine more precisely whether EV charging was displaced to hours outside the dynamic pricing periods, we conducted an event study analysis centered on each event. Specifically, we estimated a series of separate OLS regressions, based on our main specification (Equation (1)), to measure treatment effects on electricity consumption (in kWh) for each hour within a 24-hour window surrounding the event. This resulted in 49 regressions: one for each of the 24 hours before the plunge, 24 hours after, and the event period itself. To ensure clean identification, we restricted this analysis to the nine events with non-overlapping 24-hour windows. The outcome variable was hourly kWh charged, and all users were included regardless of whether they charged during the event.

As shown in Figure 7, we found no notable reduction in consumption in the hours before or after the events, suggesting minimal evidence of displacement. Instead, consumption increased sharply at the start of the dynamic pricing event, consistent with the findings from our main regression. We also conducted an event study with 48 hours before and after the event (restricting the analysis to the three events that were spaced sufficient far from other events to enable this analysis). As shown in Figure A10, we find similar absence of temporal displacement when we go further back and forward in time.

Potential for difficult-to-detect, diffuse demand displacement Despite the lack of evidence for temporal load-shifting outside event periods, we suspect there may be displacement that was too diffuse to detect. We note the power limitations of our analyses:

Figure 7: Event study estimates of treatment effects (kWh) before, during, and after dynamic pricing events, by treatment arm.



Notes: Point estimates and 95% confidence intervals from an event study regression specified in our pre-registered analysis plan (as our first of three exploratory analyses). This analysis differs slightly from our pre-analysis plan, where we planned to regress treatment interacted with the time since event. Due to computational limitations, we instead ran the main specification independently for each time period before and after events. Consumption rose sharply at the start of the dynamic pricing event for the 15% and 40% price decrease treatments, with little evidence of displacement before or after the event. Consumption remained unchanged for the green message treatment.

only approximately 4% of customers charged at least once during events, and only approximately 0.25% of customer-event observations were non-zero. Our pre-analysis plan calculated a minimum detectable effect size (MDES) of around 16% of typical charging consumption (kWh) during events. An ex-post MDES calculation yielded a very similar figure.[37]

Displacement in any given two-hour window outside event periods may have occurred at smaller magnitudes per customer and thus may have fallen below this detection threshold. Extending the analysis window to longer periods did not dramatically improve detectable effect sizes: for instance, over a full day, the MDES remained approximately 8% of Control customers' consumption.[38] Although we appear to observe demand creation, we acknowledge that some degree of hard-to-detect displacement may still underlie these observed effects.

4.3.3 Demand substitution

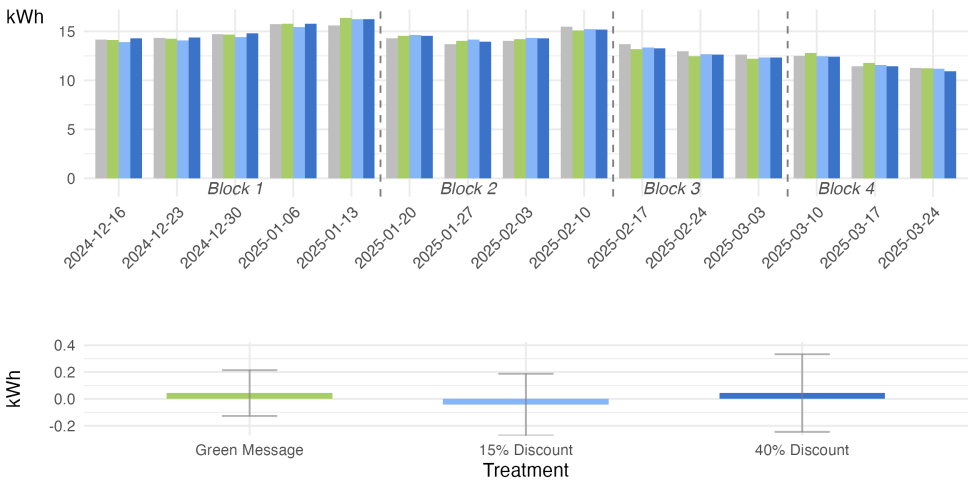
Home charging To assess whether the increase in EV charging during dynamic pricing events reflects a substitution away from home charging, we analyzed home electricity consumption for a subset of 17,188 Octopus Energy customers. For these users, we observed daily home electricity usage (in kWh) across the 74 trial days, spanning 11 weeks from December to March. To do so, we estimated the main regression Equation (1) but changed the main outcome to daily home consumption.

Figure 8 and Table A32 present the results. The top panel of the figure shows average daily home energy consumption by treatment group across all trial weeks. Consumption is generally higher at the start of the trial (December) and tapers off by March, reflecting expected seasonal variation. There are no discernible differences between groups over time. The bottom panel reports treatment effects from Table A32, again showing no statistically significant differences between treatments and control. These findings suggest little evidence of displacement to home charging: participants exposed to price decrease did not appear to reduce their home energy usage relative to Control customers.

[37] We use the standard error of the estimated treatment effect from Table A3 (≈ 0.0030 kWh). Using the conventional threshold for 80% power at the 5% significance level (i.e., 2.8 standard errors from the null), the MDES is $2.8 \times 0.0030 = 0.0084$ kWh, which represents approximately 16% of average in-event consumption among Control customers.

[38] We again used the Rule of 2.8 with the standard error from Table A31 to derive this figure: $(0.0064 \times 2.8)/0.2268 = 8\%$ of the mean.

Figure 8: Average daily consumption (kWh) recorded at home (top), impact of treatment (kWh) (bottom).



Notes: The top panel of the figure shows average daily home energy consumption by treatment group across all trial weeks. Bars show estimated daily electricity consumption at home (kWh). The bottom panel shows treatment effects from Table A32, a robustness check outlined in our pre-registered analysis plan. Error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Estimates are based on a subset of our sample – 17,188 Octopus Energy customers – observed over the 74 trial days. No statistically significant differences in home energy use are detected across treatment groups.

App substitution Our treatment effects, as established in Section 4.2, indicated a notable increase in electricity consumption during dynamic pricing events. However, a critical question is whether this increase reflects genuinely new demand or merely a shift in payment platform, as customers might switch from other public charging apps to Electroverse in response to price changes. Understanding this distinction is important for assessing the effectiveness of demand-side interventions from a grid operator's perspective, where only net new demand contributes to alleviating systems stress or supporting renewable integration.

Quantifying the extent of platform-switching is challenging, as our results only observe charging sessions initiated via the Electroverse platform. However, all CPOs participating in the dynamic pricing intervention procured their electricity through Octopus Energy Limited, as described in Section 2, providing us with access to smart meter consumption data at the relevant charging points. This allowed for a valuable cross-validation: we could compare changes in electricity usage recorded through Electroverse receipts with changes in overall energy consumption at the same charging points.[39] To our knowledge, this kind of cross-platform validation using independent consumption

[39]While smart meter data could not be disaggregated by treatment group, we applied a consistent pre-post estimation strategy to both data sources, allowing us to assess how much of the observed increase in Electroverse activity reflected actual system-level demand turn-up.

data is rarely possible in public EV charging studies, and offers an important methodological contribution to the evaluation of dynamic pricing and other demand-side flexibility interventions.

To directly compare these measures, we first estimated the total increase in electricity usage based on our main treatment effect estimates from Table A3 (0.0154 and 0.0604).[40] We applied this to the proportion of treated users in each arm ($\approx 25\%$), the total number of users in the sample (109,711), and the number of events (18). This produced an estimated increase of approximately 37,422 kWh.

We used this estimate to validate our pre-post comparison approach, which also measured changes in energy usage from receipts data. The pre-post method yielded a slightly higher estimate of 38,972 kWh compared to our experiment's estimate, but the two figures were closely aligned, confirming the pre-post method's validity . When we extended this approach to include all users at participating charging points,[41] the estimated increase rose to 57,517 kWh. In other words, users in the experimental sample accounted for approximately 68% of the kWh recorded in the receipts.

We repeated the same calculations using receipts from charging points for which we have smart meter data.[42] We found an increase of 27,215 kWh from users in the experimental sample and 41,135 kWh from all users. This again suggests that around 66% of electricity delivered through these chargers came from the experimental group, indicating similar usage patterns across participating stations.

Next, we applied the same pre-post estimation strategy to the smart meter data for the relevant charging points, which yielded an estimated increase in consumption of 19,726 kWh. To ensure comparability with the receipts-based estimates, we scaled this figure by 68%, corresponding to the share of receipts attributable to users in our experimental sample at these charging points. The adjusted smart meter-based estimate was 13,366 kWh, approximately half the size of the increase estimated using receipts.

Thus, of the increase in electricity usage via the Electroverse app, a substantial portion seemed to be due to platform switching rather than net new demand. Specifically, approximately 51% of the increase in Electroverse receipts seems to come from users

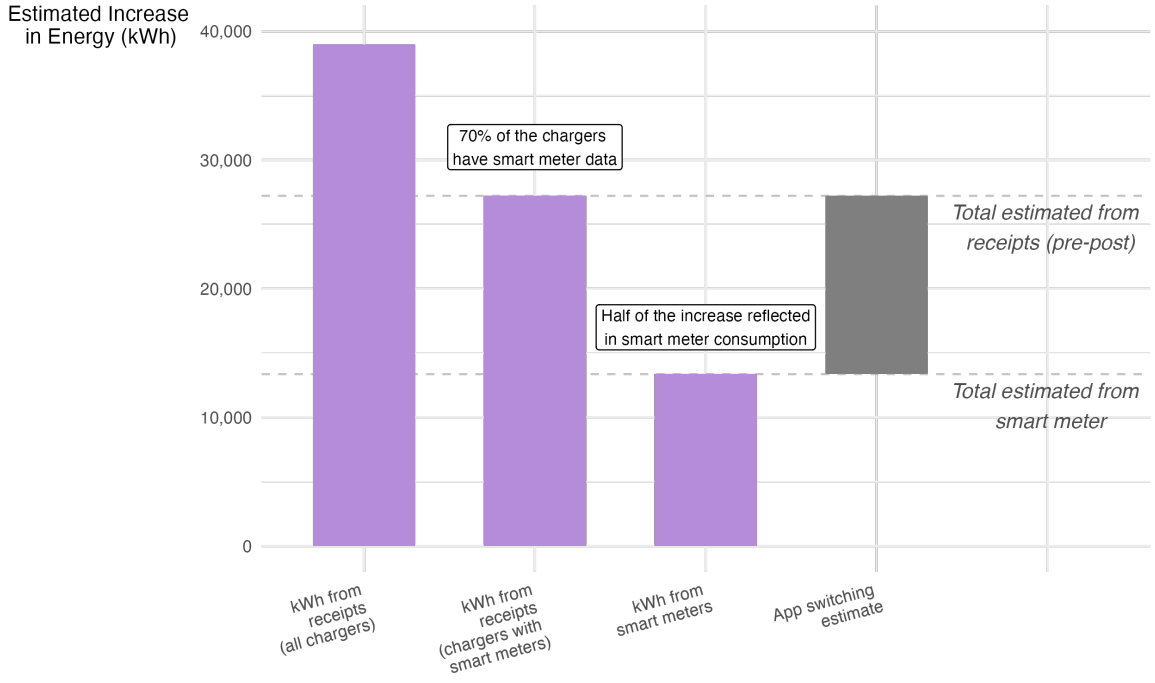
[40] For this analysis, we ignored the green message treatment effect as it was not different from 0 at conventional levels of statistical significance.

[41] This includes customers who were not randomized into treatment groups due to ineligibility, such as not having push notifications enabled or being registered in a different app country.

[42] We observe half-hourly consumption for only 68% of the charging stations in our dataset. Reasons for missing data include older meters without smart capabilities, smart meters without half-hourly readings enabled, malfunctioning smart meters, or poor address matching between the Octopus Energy Limited and Electroverse datasets.

shifting their charging activity from other charging platforms.[43] This finding underscores the importance of distinguishing between changes in platform choice and changes in total electricity demand when evaluating demand-side interventions. Figure 9 provides a visual breakdown of the app substitution effect.

Figure 9: Comparison of receipts and smart meter-based estimates



Notes: This figure compares pre-post estimates using all charging points and charging points with smart meter data available. Comparing the receipts-based and smart meter estimates (purple bars two and three), using the same chargers, reveals a smaller increase in smart meter usage. Overall, the comparison between bars two and three – visually decomposed in bar four – suggests that approximately half of the observed rise in receipts-based demand reflects substitution from other platforms, rather than it all being attributable to a net increase in demand. This exploratory analysis was not pre-specified in our analysis plan.

4.4 Conditional average treatment effects

We explored how treatment effects varied across different consumer subgroups by interacting the interventions with key demographic and contextual variables. We interacted treatment dummies with respondents' demographic characteristics to help explain the heterogeneity observed in the coefficients (for full tabular results, see Appendix A2.3

[43] EV drivers may prefer using the native payment platform of the CPO. However, Electroverse offers convenience when traveling by allowing access to multiple networks through a single app, without the need to register for each CPO individually.

– Tables A5 to A15). These analyses were not pre-specified, with the exception of the distance analysis, which was pre-specified in the exploratory section of the pre-analysis plan. To investigate this variation, we used the following covariates: (i) user profile based on past charging history; (ii) whether the customer was "active," defined as having charged at least once between January and November 2024; (iii) the customer's local authority average gross disposable income, divided into quintiles; (iv) and (v) distance to the nearest charger and participating charger, each divided in five distance bands; (vi) whether the customer lived in a rural area, where EV adoption is generally lower (McKinney et al., 2023); (vii) EV battery size, divided into quintiles based on the usable capacity within our sample,[44] measured as the usable capacity of the EV battery (for users with multiple EVs, the largest battery was used); and (viii) the new and used vehicle price, each divided into quintiles based on our sample distribution. To assess whether treatment effectiveness varied by time of day, we also interacted treatments with a set of dummies for time of day (based on the following intervals: Morning-baseline, >6am–12 noon; Afternoon, >12–6pm; Evening, >6pm–midnight; Night, >midnight–6am) and with whether the event occurred on a weekday or weekend.

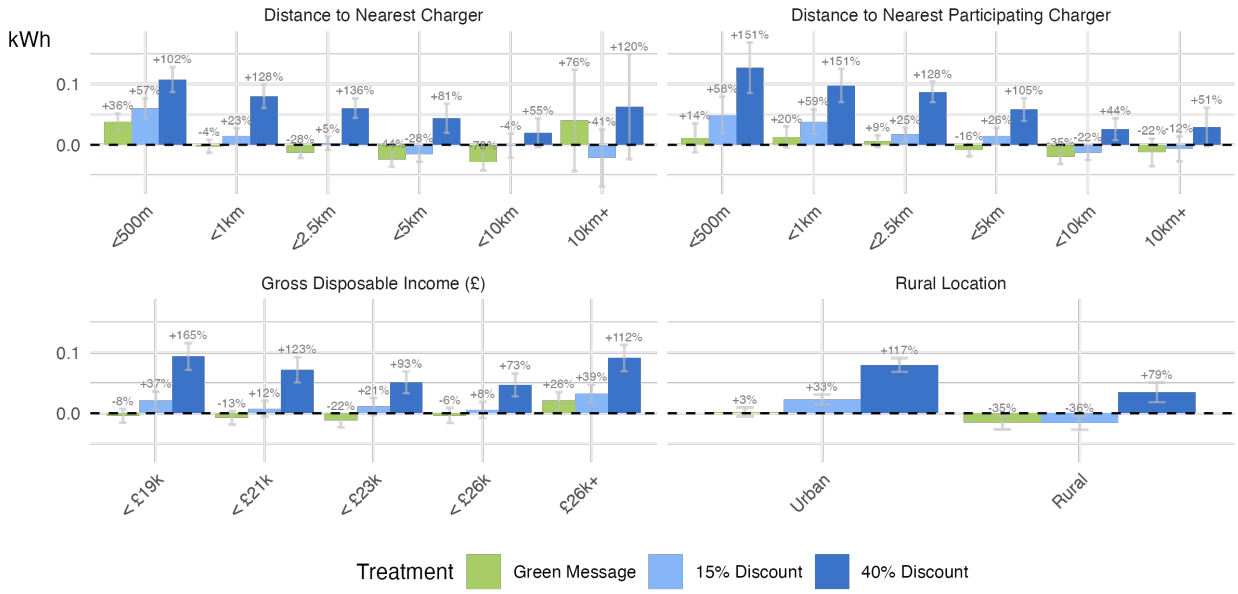
Treatment effects varied by user profile, reflecting differences in charging behavior and price sensitivity. Treatments were most effective among local users and almost null for more occasional users who rely on Electroverse during weekend and holiday trips away from home (left-hand side of Figure A2).[45] Among local users, the treatments were also more effective for those who primarily used fast-charging chargers, compared to those who mostly used slow chargers near their home; we speculate that the latter customers may not have a home charger. For those using local slow chargers, which are generally cheaper, it may be that the price decreases at fast chargers were not sufficient for them to travel to these instead. As local users tend to be more frequent users, treatments were also more effective among active users, defined as those who charged at least once between January and November 2024 (right-hand side of Figure A2).[46] Interestingly, the green message was effective at eliciting a response from both local and more active users, with an impact smaller than the price drops for fast chargers but comparable to the 15% price reduction among local slow-charging users.

[44] We excluded plug-in hybrids from this analysis

[45] These users typically charged within 5 km of their listed home address, based on the clustering analysis described in more detail in Section 3.2.

[46] The decision not to focus our sample on "active" customers by excluding "non-active" users was based on the rationale that dynamic pricing could encourage non-active users to become active, and we do observe some of this shift on the "extensive" margin.

Figure 10: Treatment effects (kWh) by geography



Notes: This figure shows how treatment effects on kWh charged vary by geography. Top-left: users farther from chargers are less responsive to dynamic pricing. Top-right: this effect is stronger when measuring distance to participating chargers. Bottom-left: we observe a U-shaped relationship by local authority income. Bottom-right: urban users show higher baseline usage and stronger treatment effects.

We also found considerable variation in responses by location, particularly based on proximity to charging infrastructure (top left-hand side of Figure 10). The largest effects were observed among users whose postcodes are within 500 meters of any charger, with effects declining sharply, and becoming negligible, beyond 10 km (this latter group is small and has large standard errors, so coefficients should be interpreted with caution). Notably, the green message elicited an increasing treatment effect among users located within 500 meters of a charger, contrary to the overall result. However, beyond 2.5 km, the green message may have even backfired, with users in this group less likely to charge than those in the control group. While these coefficients should not be interpreted causally, as they may reflect user sorting rather than a direct effect of the treatment, they nonetheless highlight the importance of charger convenience and proximity in enabling behavioral flexibility. As expected based on the analysis presented in Section 4.3.1, effects were strongest for the 15% and 40% price drop treatments. There was essentially no impact of the price drops for users located more than 10 km from a participating charger (top right-hand side of Figure 10). The intervention was also more effective among customers in urban, rather than rural areas (bottom right-hand side of Figure 10), potentially due to greater distances to chargers or greater access to off-street home charging.

Treatment effects varied by socioeconomic context. They were less effective among customers in higher-income localities (bottom left-hand side of Figure A2). The lower price sensitivity observed in wealthier areas may reflect greater access to home charging, given previous studies have found a correlation between off-street parking and property value (Chester et al., 2015; Zhang and Fan, 2025). It is also possible that households with less disposable income are more price-responsive - particularly given the comparatively high public charging rates - which previous studies have suggested may be the case for gasoline prices (West and Williams, 2017). That said, our data suggested a potential U-shaped relationship: dynamic pricing events elicited stronger responses in lower-income areas *and* in the highest income quintile.

Treatment effects also varied according to *some*, but not all, hypothetically relevant EV characteristics. As expected, we found larger effects for owners of vehicles with larger battery capacities (left-hand side of Figure A5). However, we did not observe any consistent patterns in response to treatments based on the new or used price of the vehicle (middle and right-hand side of Figure A5).

Treatment was also heterogeneous with respect to when events happened – though the times of day featuring the largest absolute (kWh) effects diverged from the times featuring the largest relative changes in demand. While the effect in kWh was the largest in the morning, the relative change compared to the control group average for that period of the day was the highest in the evening (left-hand side of Figure A7), suggesting relatively higher elasticity during those hours. The price decreases had a greater absolute effect on weekends, though the relative effects were similar regardless of weekday versus weekend (right-hand side of Figure A7).

We focused our interpretation of heterogeneity analysis on customers responsiveness to the 40% discount. However, we note that the 15% price decrease followed a similar pattern to the 40% price decrease, though with a smaller magnitude and a faster decline in its effect over distance. Finally, the green message treatment's effects were concentrated among the most active local users and those from higher-income areas.

4.5 Spatial EV charging demand patterns during the trial

Charging activity during dynamic pricing events was geographically concentrated, with notable differences in location patterns between participating and non-participating charging point operators. Figures A14 and A15 show the density of public EV charg-

ers which customers used to charge when a plunge event was on (including the Control and green message treatments). As discussed previously, because transactions were run through CPOs' chargers, we can separate whether the CPO participated in dynamic pricing events or not. As the map illustrates, the majority of charging stations were not participating. Both participating and not participating chargers are mostly located around urban areas. However, there is still a noticeable difference in spatial distribution. Figure A15 shows the relative participation of electric vehicle chargers across UK postcode areas, calculated as the share of participating chargers in each area divided by the national share. Areas shaded in darker green have a higher-than-average level of participation, while lighter areas indicate under-representation. Notably, charger participation is disproportionately high in regions such as Northern Ireland, the Midlands, parts of the North West, and South West England. In contrast, areas with below-average participation include much of Scotland, northern and central Wales, and several southern urban zones including parts of London.

Transaction-level data from the field experiment reveal how charging behavior varied across treatment groups during dynamic pricing events. Table A35 reports descriptive statistics for transactions observed during the dynamic pricing events in our field experiment, classed by treatment the consumer faced when the transaction occurred. Receipts originated from both those charging stations that participated in dynamic pricing events, and those that did not. Since the data reflect only sessions where charging occurred, group differences capture patterns among those who opted to charge, rather than isolating the causal impact of treatment. In the table, we observe slightly higher kWh charged among the 15% and 40% price decrease groups, suggesting a somewhat increased consumption among those who chose to charge (i.e., an extensive margin effect). The average price paid (£/kWh) is significantly lower when a price decrease is in place; however, note that the reduction in price is not exactly 15% or 40% relative to the control and green message groups, because not all receipts happened in CPOs that participated in dynamic pricing events, and consumers did not always select 15% and 40% price decrease chargers even when eligible for a price decrease.

We can also look at how event-level outcomes varied across dynamic pricing events and treatment groups. Figure A16 provides a descriptive overview of charging activity across dynamic pricing events, measured by the number of receipts (i.e., individual charges) recorded during a plunge event. This figure does not reflect energy consumed, but it hints at underlying treatment effects. Specifically, we observe that the 15% price

decrease encouraged additional charging on the extensive margin, and the 40% price decrease generated even more uptake. Cross-referencing dates with the timing observed in Table A2, this figure also reveals substantial variation across event types: daytime and evening events attracted more activity compared to overnight or early-morning events, as did events held over the weekend.

4.6 Where did the extra charging demand come from? Evidence from a consumer survey

To better understand the mechanisms behind the increased charging observed in our field experiment, we supplemented our quantitative analysis with a short consumer survey. The previous sections showed that consumers offered a 40% price decrease charged more, but we found only small, statistically insignificant signs of displacement. To explore users' charging habits, motivations, and engagement with the dynamic pricing events, we sent a survey to a random sample of 2,000 customers who had charged during a dynamic pricing event. Of these, 420 customers (21%) responded. Roughly 61% of respondents reported having a home charger, with most indicating that 80–90% of their charging occurs at home. However, about a third relied heavily on public charging, pointing to two distinct groups: those who responded opportunistically to price decreases while away from home, and those more structurally dependent on public infrastructure.

Reported behaviors among participants indicated a mix of substitution and new demand, which supports our analysis of Electroverse charging data. Of the 103 participants, 36.9% reported changing *when* they charged, 23.3% changed *where* they charged, and 8.7% charged more than usual. While the sample was small, these responses suggested that the treatment effects observed in Tables A3 and A4 reflected a blend of time and location shifting, as well as some true demand creation.

Public charging behavior appears motivated largely by cost, convenience, and speed. More than half of survey respondents reported using the platform for the majority of their public charging sessions. When choosing a charger, the most important factors reported were the cost of electricity, charger availability, and charging speed—ranked well above considerations like proximity or amenities.

Engagement with the price reductions was mixed. Among consumers who responded to questions about the events, 68.6% recalled receiving a notification about a dynamic pricing event, but only 24.5% reported participating. The most common reasons for non-

participation were not needing to charge at the time (38.9%) or seeing the notification too late (19.6%). Among the 103 respondents who did participate, most cited cost savings as their primary motivation (68.9%), while others were already planning to charge (22.3%) or were motivated by a desire to support grid decarbonization (6.8%).

5 Welfare impacts

The consumer surplus generated by lowering the price of EV charging reflects substantial gains in welfare for consumers, as they benefit both from lower prices and increased usage. We show this surplus visually in Figure 11. At the standard price of £0.70/kWh (which was the control group approximate average price), consumers in our field experiment purchased 25,524 kWh, resulting in total spending of £17,867. When prices were discounted by 40% to £0.42/kWh, demand increased to 40,434 kWh, accounting for app substitution,[47] and total spending decreases to £16,982. The total consumer surplus rises significantly, reaching £17,981 — equivalent to £1.05 of surplus for every £1 spent by customers.[48] The gain in surplus from the price reduction alone, captured by the medium-shaded purple area under the demand curve, is £8,983, or about £0.53 of incremental surplus per pound spent by customers.[49]

Zooming into the margin, we see that the additional unit of electricity consumed at the lower price yields a marginal consumer surplus of approximately £0.64 per kWh. This translates to a marginal benefit of £1.52 per £1 spent by customers, demonstrating how effective price reductions can be at unlocking latent demand and delivering high value to consumers, particularly when electricity is inexpensive to generate and supply.

If prices were reduced further to reflect the marginal cost of supply — assumed here to be approximately £0.10/kWh (i.e., £100/MWh – see Figure 3) — the welfare gains would become even larger (assuming a constant price elasticity of demand). At this marginal price, consumption would expand to 60,746 kWh, and consumer spending would fall to just £6,075. Yet total consumer surplus would climb to £34,169, or more than £5.63 in

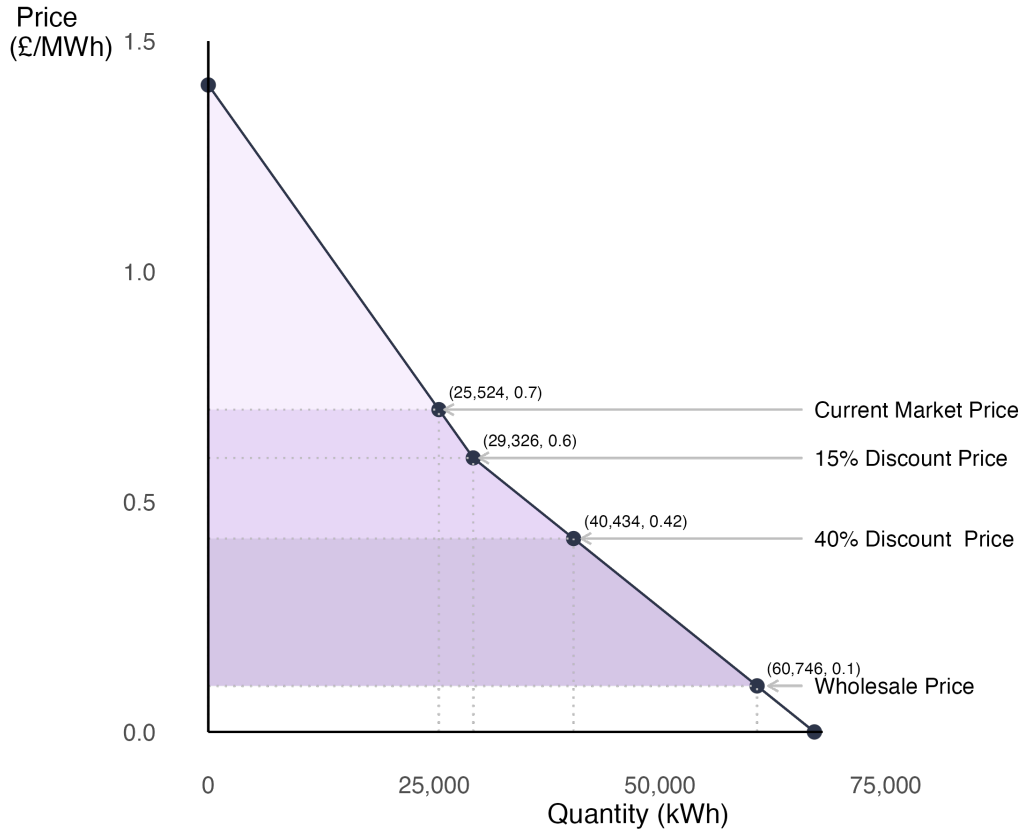
[47] To calculate these figures, we use the treatment coefficients from Table A3, multiplied by the average number of customers in our trial branch - 26,979 (1/4 of the sample), and number of events - 18, and then halved due to our finding that app substitution accounting for approximately 50% of the overall demand increase; we believe this is a fair approximation for total new demand per trial arm. This method may be conservative with respect to our consumer surplus estimates, since we are not accounting for the consumer surplus increases of the customers switching from other payment platforms to Electroverse to obtain cheaper electricity. (We do not know the change in consumer surplus of these consumers since we do not have data on their counterfactual demand.)

[48] The surplus is calculated as the ratio of total consumer surplus over total consumer spending

[49] The incremental surplus is calculated as the change in consumer surplus from original price to 40% divided by the consumers' spending at 40% discount

surplus per pound spent. The increase in surplus compared to the original price would be £19,413, a nearly threefold return per unit of spending by customers. This highlights the considerable deadweight loss associated with pricing electricity well above marginal cost, and the efficiency gains that can be achieved by aligning retail prices more closely with marginal cost, especially in contexts where low-carbon or surplus generation is abundant.

Figure 11: Consumer surplus change from price reductions



Notes: Demand curve and consumer surplus graph. This graph shows the demand curve for electric charging accounting for app substitution. We have assumed a kinked linear demand curve for simplicity, where the kink is at the 15% discount level, and we have extrapolated the rest of the graph linearly. The light purple shaded region shows the consumer surplus (£8,997) at the original non-discounted price of £0.70/kWh where demand is 25,524 kWh. The medium purple region shows the change in consumer surplus (£8,984) from the original price to when it is discounted by 40%, where demand becomes 40,434 kWh. The darker purple region further shows the change in consumer surplus (£16,189) if charging prices are equivalent to wholesale prices of approximately 10p/kWh, in which case we estimate demand would become 60,746 kWh.

Building on this, we estimate that dynamic public EV pricing could substantially lower the energy cost per mile for EV drivers without off-street parking. Our survey results suggest one-third of our sample relied on public charging, but this proportion is likely to grow in future. Based on the highest price reduction tested in our trial, these users could reduce their energy cost per mile from 15–24p to 9–14p. This brings them

close to parity with the energy cost per mile for ICE vehicles, which ranges from 13 to 17p, and narrows the gap with home charging, typically between 2 and 7p per mile (Office for Zero Emission Vehicles, 2024; Zapmap, 2025).

From a grid balancing perspective, we calculate that our treatments resulted in a total increase in charging consumption through Electroverse of 37.4 MWh. However, we note that approximately half of this treatment effect appears to be due to app substitution (see Section 4.3.3). From the perspective of grid system operators, only net new demand contributes to alleviating system stress or integrating renewable generation. Consequently, we estimate that the demand increase, net of app substitution, amounted to 18.7 MWh over our 11-week trial.

Distribution Network Operators (DNOs) in Great Britain differ in how much they value demand turn-up to manage local network constraints. Publicly available data from UK Power Networks (UKPN), the DNO for London, the South East, and the East of England, shows that it pays an average of £446/MWh for demand turn-up services (UK Power Networks, 2025). While this figure is not directly comparable to wholesale electricity prices, as it reflects payment for increased demand rather than total consumption, it can be used to approximate the value of the 18.7 MWh of demand turn-up observed in our field experiment. If procured by a DNO offering similar compensation to UKPN, this demand response would be worth approximately £8,415.

This estimate provides a rough indication of the potential grid-balancing value of the turn-up we identified in our 11-week trial, based on a subset of participating chargers, at the distribution level. The net demand turn-up would be larger over the course of the year and with greater coverage of the charging network. It may also contribute to absorbing excess renewable generation to address constraints on the transmission network, potentially contributing to a reduction in curtailment if targeted in the right locations (for example, Scotland, where growing curtailment of renewable generation due to transmission constraints is increasing balancing costs for the system operator (National Electricity System Operator, 2024). We also note that grid constraints will change over time and are highly sensitive to changes in grid infrastructure, electricity markets, and balancing services.[50]

[50] There are also potential CO_2e abatement benefits from demand turn-up, assuming that it displaced consumption during higher-CO_2e-intensity times of day, although they are small because of the relatively clean UK grid. Although we did not find direct evidence of such temporal displacement, we can make a hypothetical assumption that the turn-up displaced consumption during the evening peak (4pm-7pm). Under this assumption, we estimate that 914 kg of CO_2e would be abated. To arrive at this figure, we summed the combined treatment effects' impact during each event and multiplied the total by the difference in carbon intensity between the event hours and the 4pm-7pm peak hours, based on NESO's published grid carbon intensity for each half-hour of each day. However, we must adjust this estimate to

The costs of the intervention are potentially zero, as the price decrease comes from Electroverse passing on lower procurement costs during low-cost periods. We therefore conclude that the intervention generates economic welfare gains, stemming from benefits for consumers, and potentially the grid and CO_2e abatement. Benefits would increase with increased adoption of EVs, which comprise only 4% of cars on UK roads today, and greater charging infrastructure. Higher penetration of renewable generation, particularly if this outstrips transmission network expansion, may also increase the value of smart public charging in future.

6 Conclusion

This study finds that public EV charging demand is highly price elastic — much more so than residential electricity or gasoline demand. This likely reflects the flexibility drivers have over when and where they charge. By contrast, a non-price environmental encouragement had no effect, consistent with earlier findings. Lower prices at public chargers may thus help reduce reliance on home charging and support broader EV adoption.

We observe clear demand responses to dynamic pricing events but no significant evidence of load-shifting outside them. The lack of observed substitution from home or other chargers may reflect limited statistical power or unobserved behaviors, such as choosing an EV over an ICE vehicle. We do find substantial customer switching from competing platforms to Electroverse in response to price changes.

Our results highlight the potential for demand flexibility in public charging, especially when prices align with real-time grid conditions. While static pricing currently dominates, dynamic pricing could improve grid efficiency. Such pricing does not require vertically integrated firms, as was the case here. Operators can still pass through low wholesale prices under varied business models, provided they are themselves exposed to those price signals through the design of wholesale markets. One example is dynamic time-of-use tariffs available to non-domestic electricity customers, including charge point operators. Open data schemes for charge point operators could also ensure drivers are exposed to dynamic prices across the entire charging network, support a transparent and

account for the app substitution effect, which leads to a revised estimate of approximately 450 kg of CO_2e abatement. According to the UK government's Department for Energy Security and Net Zero (2023) valuation of carbon, CO_2e abatement in 2025 is valued at £260 in $£_{2020}$ per metric ton (approximately £325 in $£_{2025}$). Therefore, the hypothetical CO_2e abatement resulting from our experiment is worth approximately £146. Applying these effects across this year (52 weeks, rather than just 11) would imply approximately 2100kg of CO_2 abatement, or £686.

competitive retail market.

Flexible public charging supports both customer affordability and grid integration of renewables. Realizing this potential will depend on market designs that reflect the true time- and location-specific value of electricity, including network constraints. With the right incentives, public charging can become a valuable tool for managing growing EV demand.

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A1 Appendix figures

A1.1 Conditional average treatment effects (CATEs) analysis figures

To contextualize the heterogeneity analysis presented in the CATE figures below, Figure A1 summarizes the number of users in each subgroup used to compute conditional treatment effects. We report group sizes for the binary activity split (active vs. inactive), the user segmentation used in our profiles clustering, as well as categories based on distance to chargers, battery capacity, and EV price brackets.

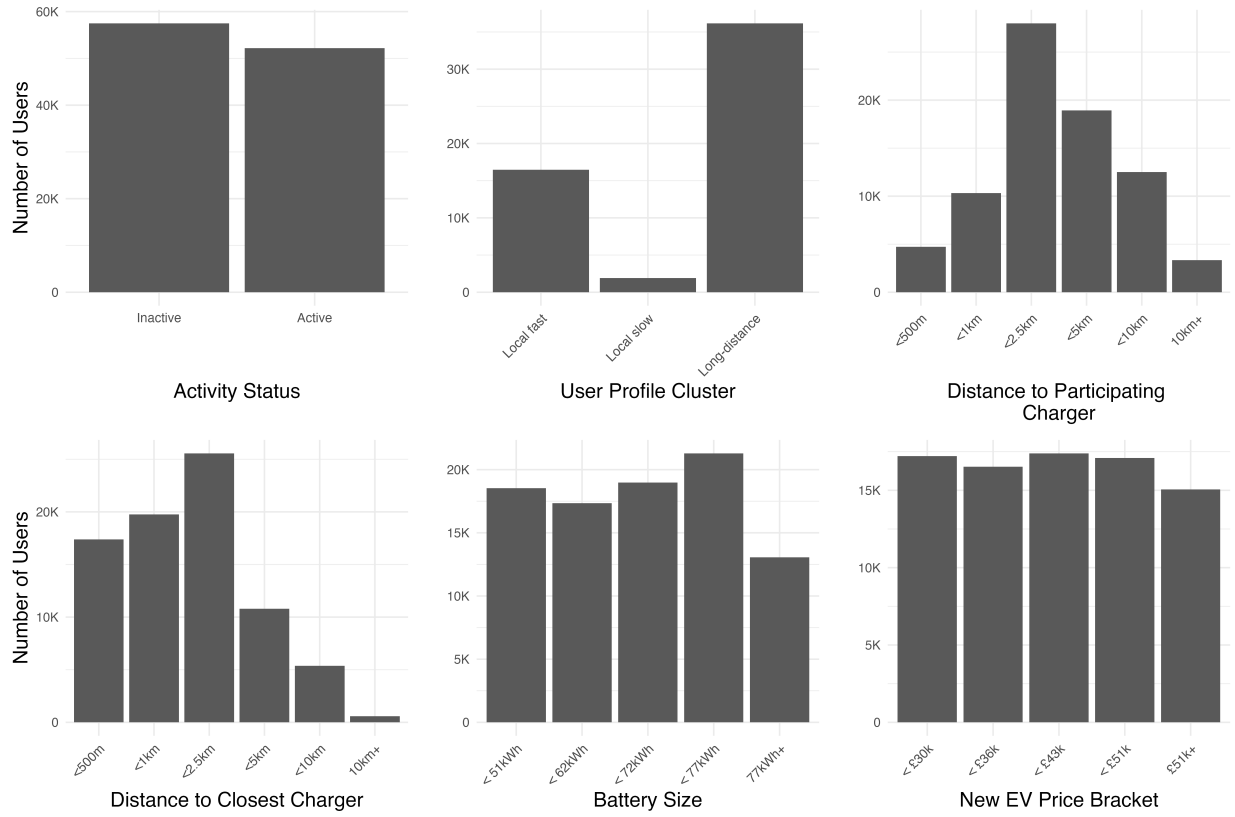


Figure A1: User characteristics frequency

A1.1.1 CATEs by user type

We explored how treatment effects vary by different aspects of customers/users of the Electroverse app.

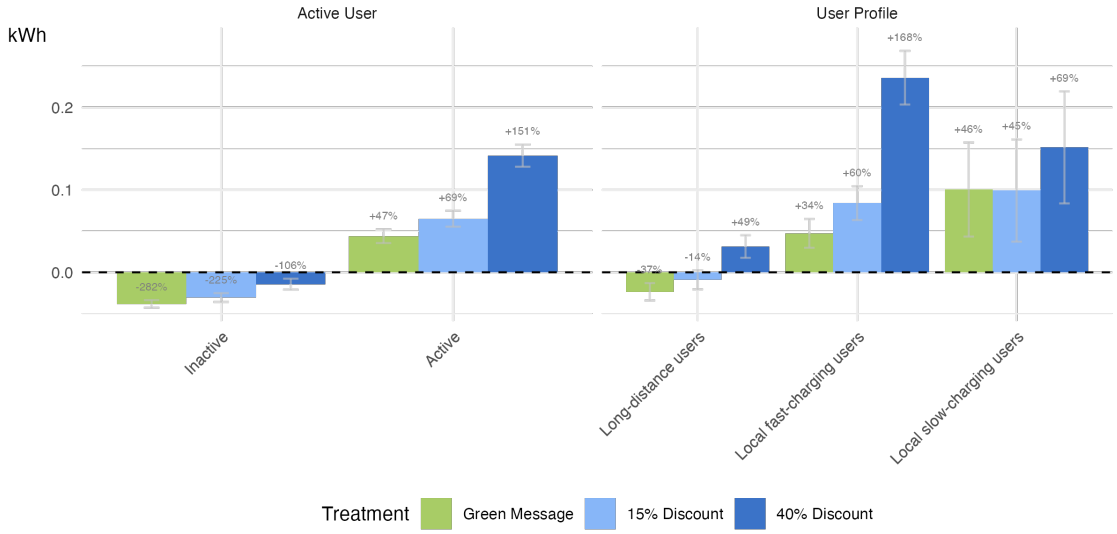
The left-hand side of Figure A2 shows the interaction between treatment groups and

whether a user was "active", measured as having charged at least once in the period Jan-Nov 2024. (See Table A6 for tabular results.)

The right-hand side of Figure A2 shows how treatment effects vary by user profile, based on pre-trial charging behavior. Occasional users who charge only during trips (long-distance users) showed very little engagement with dynamic pricing events. In contrast, local users accounted for most of the treatment response, particularly those who rely on fast charging stations. Interestingly, the green message appears effective in increasing charging rates among these users. (See Table A5 for tabular results.)

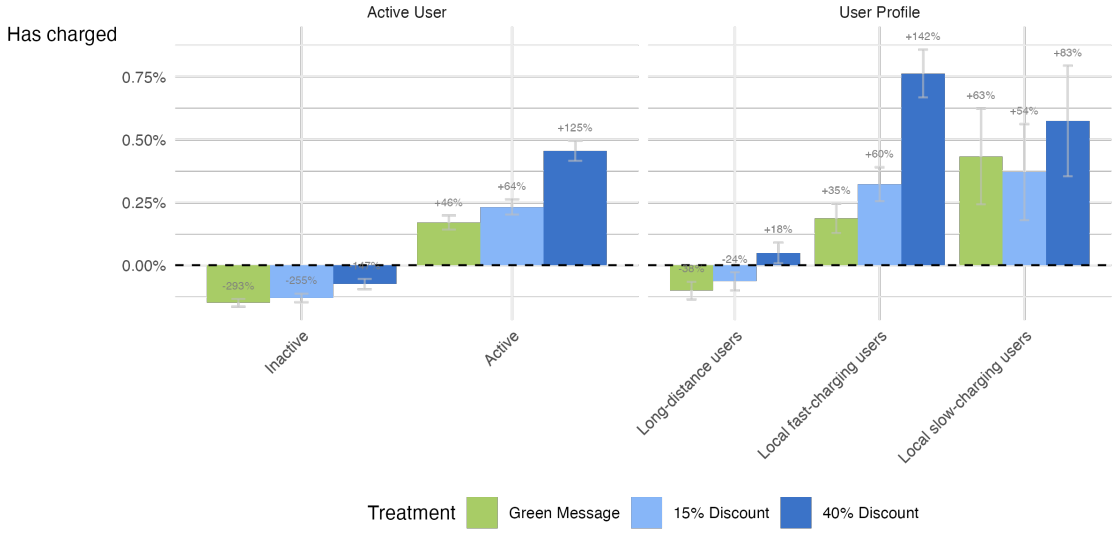
In Figure A3, we show the same analysis for whether or not a customer has charged during the events. We find the same patterns.

Figure A2: Treatment effects (kWh) by user characteristics



Notes: This figure shows how treatment effects on kWh charged vary across user types. The left panel splits users by prior app activity (i.e., whether they had charged at least once before the trial), while the right panel breaks users into clusters based on pre-trial charging behavior. Results suggest stronger treatment effects among more engaged users, particularly local fast-charging users.

Figure A3: Treatment effects on charging incidence (binary) by user characteristics



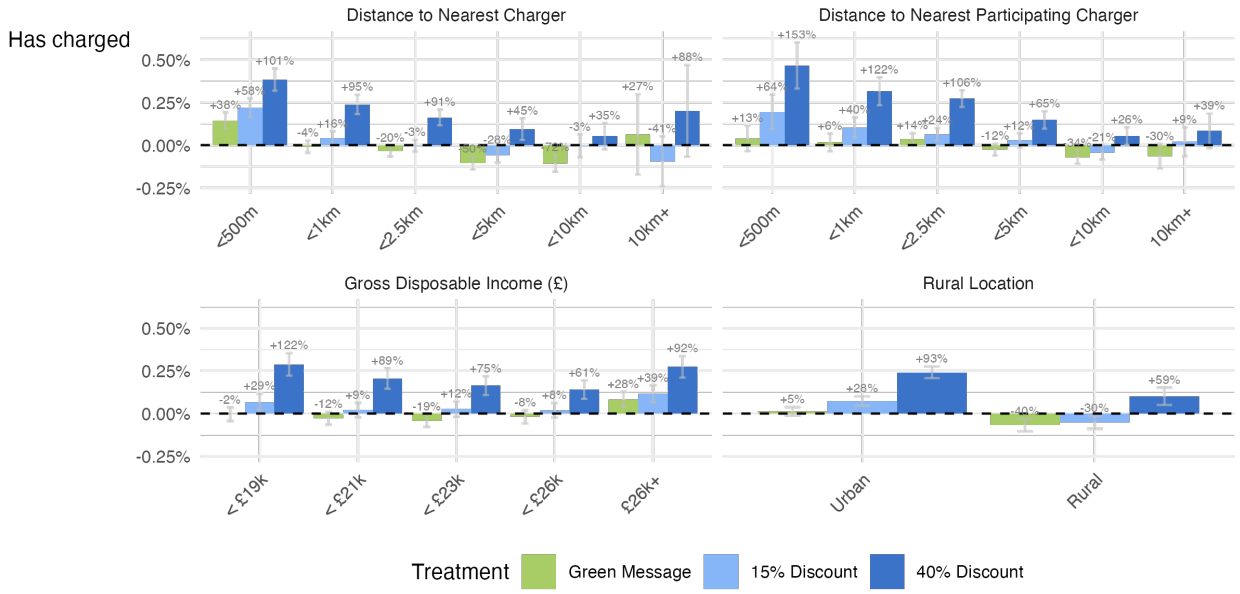
Notes: This figure replicates the analysis in Figure A2, but for the binary outcome of whether a user charged during events. Patterns are consistent: treatment effects are concentrated among previously active and fast-charging local users.

A1.1.2 CATEs by geography

We next analyzed how treatment effects vary by distance to the nearest charger and other geographical parameters.

The top left-hand side of Figure 10 shows the interaction between treatment groups and distance to the nearest charger. There was a clear negative relationship between distance and engagement with dynamic pricing events. Interestingly, we see an increase in treatment effect for the green message as long as the distance to the nearest charger is under 500 m. However, past 2.5 km, the green message may be backfiring, with users in this group even less likely to charge than the control group. (See Table A7 for tabular results.)

Figure A4: Treatment effects on charging incidence (binary) by geography



Notes: This figure replicates the analysis in Figure 10 using the binary outcome of whether a user charged during events. The same patterns hold across all geographic dimensions.

The top right-hand side of Figure 10 shows the same interaction but for distance to the nearest *participating* charger. As expected from the participating stations analysis, the effects are stronger for the treatment arms with 15% and 40% decrease in price. There is effectively no impact of the price decrease past 10 km. (See Table A8 for tabular results.)

The bottom left-hand side of Figure 10 displays the treatment effects in relation to users' local authority Gross Disposable Income (2022). The data suggests a U-shaped

relationship: dynamic pricing events elicited stronger responses in lower-income areas, while the highest income quintile showed a greater reaction across all treatments, including the green message. (See Table A10 for tabular results.)

Finally, the bottom right-hand side of Figure 10 illustrates the treatment effects by user location (rural vs. urban). Urban users exhibited higher kWh charging than rural users overall and also demonstrated a greater increase in charging compared to the urban control group. (See Table A9 for tabular results.)

In Figure A4, we show the same graphs for whether or not participants have charged during the events. We find again the same pattern.

A1.1.3 CATEs by EV characteristics

We next analyzed how treatment effects varied by characteristics of the customer's vehicle.

The left-hand side of Figure A5 shows the treatment effects across EV battery size quintiles. A clear positive correlation existed between battery size and charging increase, both in absolute kWh and relative to the control group within each quintile. Hybrid vehicles were excluded from this analysis. (See Table A15 for tabular results.)

The middle panel of Figure A5 shows the interaction between treatment groups and the price of EV as if it were new, based on pricing from Autotrader, CarGurus, specific EV brand websites, and other popular UK car purchasing sites. There was no clear interaction between treatment effects and value of the EV. (See Table A11 for tabular results.)

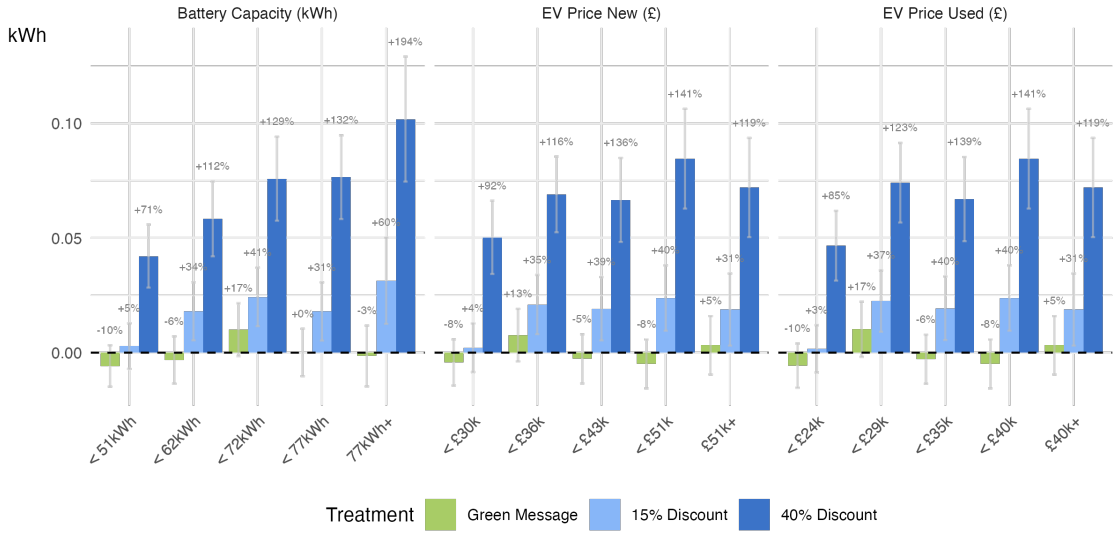
Finally, the right-hand side of Figure A5 shows the interaction between treatment groups and the price of EV (used), based on pricing from Autotrader, CarGurus, specific EV brand websites, and other popular UK car purchasing sites. There was no clear interaction between treatment effects and value of the EV. (See Table A12 for tabular results.)

In Figure A6, we show the same graphs for whether or not participants have charged during the events. We find a slightly different patterns: participants with smaller batteries are more likely to charge during the events than participants with larger batteries (however, the relative increase compared to the control groups are similar). It shows that part of the larger consumption by battery size is mostly a mechanical results of the larger batteries.

When looking at EV prices, we find EV owners in the highest price quintiles are less

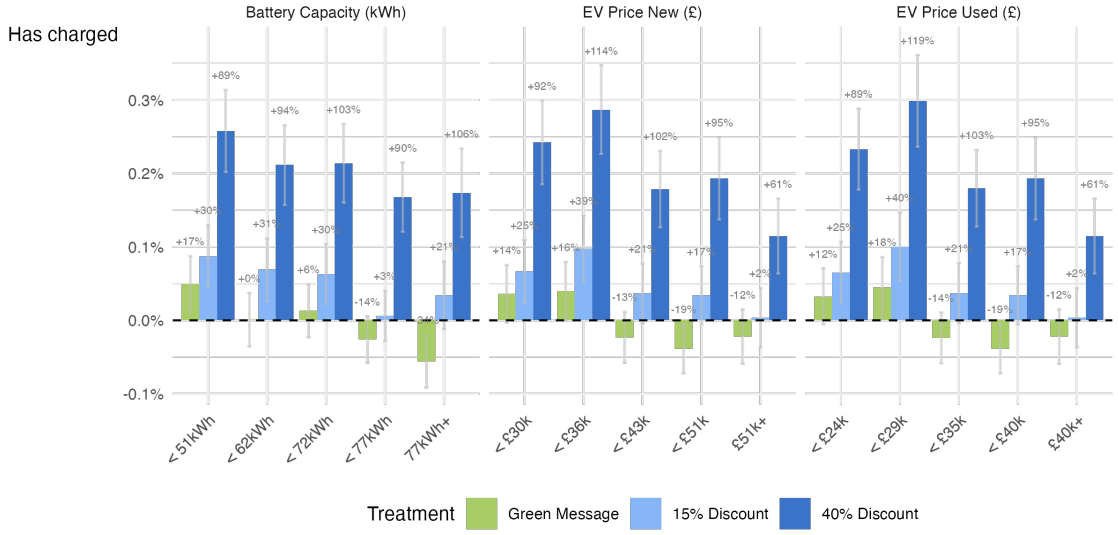
likely to charge than other drivers both in absolute and relative terms.

Figure A5: Treatment effects (kWh) by battery capacity and EV price



Notes: This figure shows how treatment effects vary by vehicle characteristics. Left: charging increases with battery size, likely reflecting both capacity and usage patterns. Middle and right: no clear relationship is observed between treatment effects and vehicle price (new or used). Hybrid vehicles excluded.

Figure A6: Treatment effects on charging incidence (binary) by battery capacity and EV price



Notes: This figure replicates the analysis in Figure A5 using the binary outcome of whether a user charged during events. Users with smaller batteries are slightly more likely to charge, suggesting that differences in total kWh partly reflect battery capacity. High-value EVs are associated with lower event participation.

A1.1.4 CATEs by time-related event characteristics

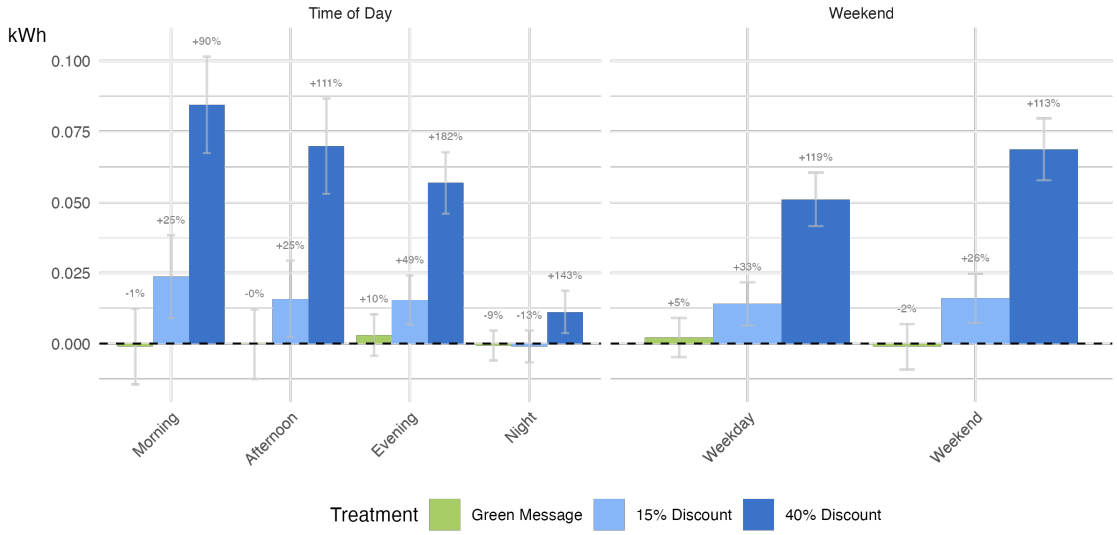
Finally, we analyzed how treatment effects varied depending on when the event occurred.

The left-hand side of Figure A7 shows the interaction between treatment groups and time of the day. While the effect in kWh was the largest in the morning, the *relative* change compared to the control group average for that period of the day was the highest in the evening. (See Table A13 for tabular results.

Finally, the right-hand side of Figure A7 shows the interaction between treatment groups and weekday vs weekend. While the absolute kWh charged was higher during weekends, the *relative* increases compared to the control group were of similar magnitude for all treatments. (See Table A14 for tabular results.)

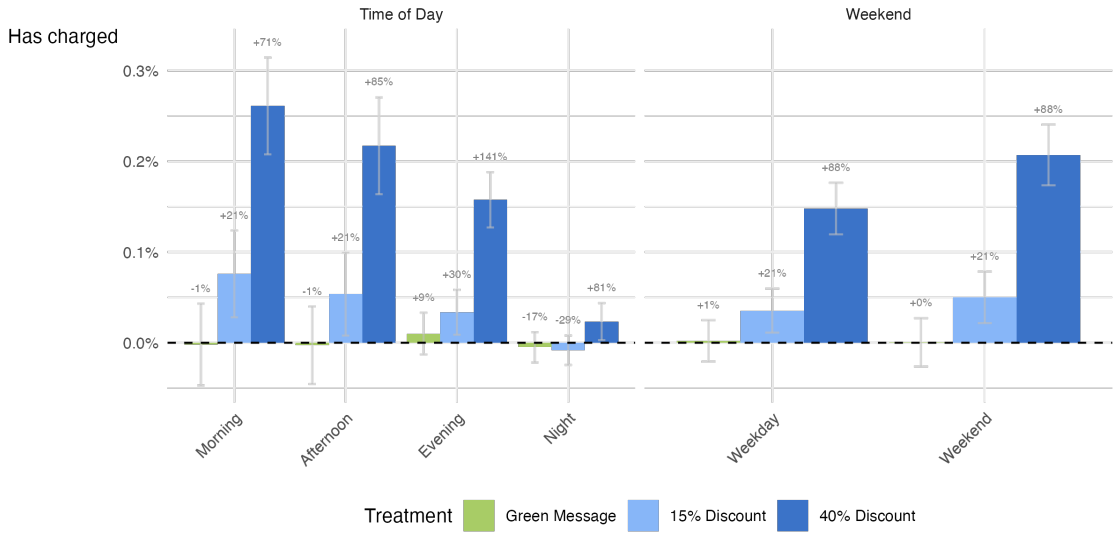
As before, we show very similar results when looking at whether or not participants have been charging during events in Figure A8.

Figure A7: Treatment effects (kWh) by time of the day and weekday vs weekend



Notes: This figure shows how treatment effects vary by time of day (left) and weekday vs. weekend (right). The absolute effect is highest in the morning, but relative increases are strongest in the evening. Weekend charging is higher overall, but relative treatment effects are similar to weekdays.

Figure A8: Treatment effects on charging incidence (binary) by time of the day and weekday vs weekend

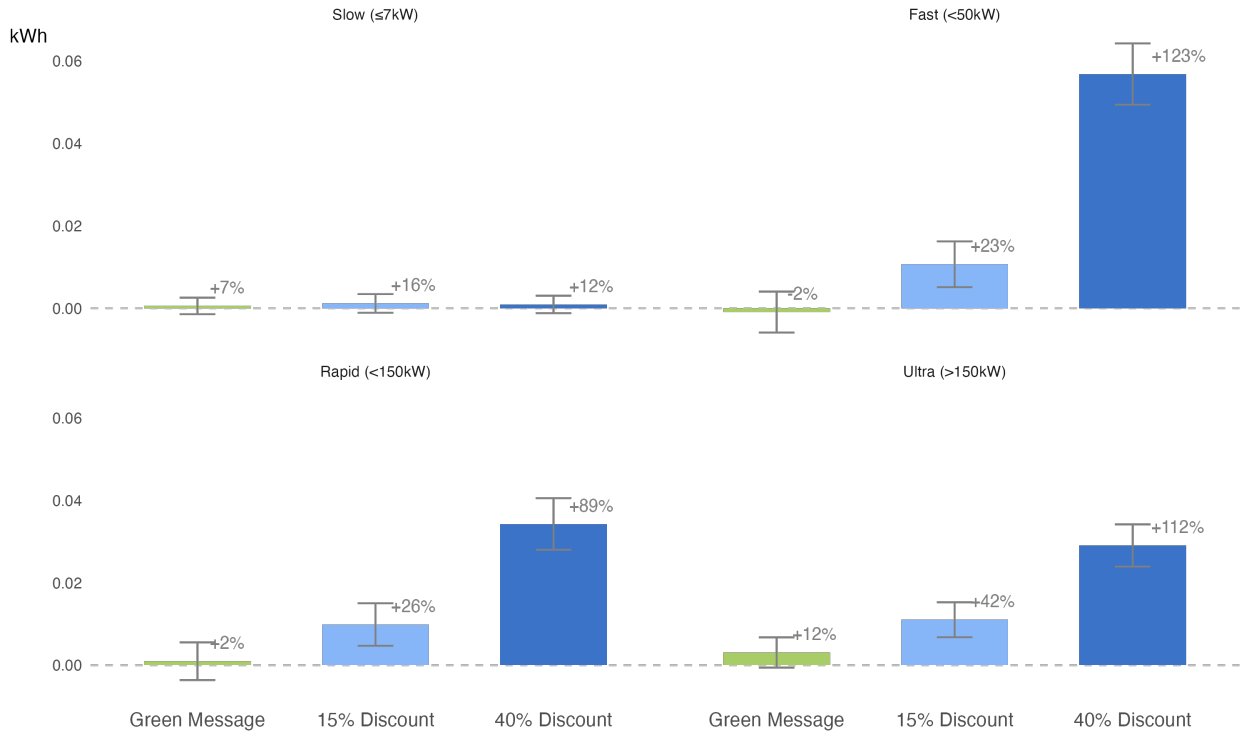


Notes: This figure shows treatment effects on the probability of charging during an event by time of day (left) and weekday vs. weekend (right). The pattern mirrors the kWh analysis: higher absolute engagement in the morning and on weekends, but stronger relative shifts in the evening.

A1.2 Consumption during events by charger speed

In this section, we decomposed the consumption during events by the type of chargers used during the transaction. The consumption during the events comes from fast chargers (> 7kW), which is likely driven by the composition of chargers among participating CPOs (see Table A1.

Figure A9: Treatment effects (kWh) by speed of the charger



Notes: This figure breaks down consumption during events by the speed of the charger used. Most of the observed increase comes from fast chargers (>7kW), reflecting the charger mix among participating operators. See Table A1 for details.

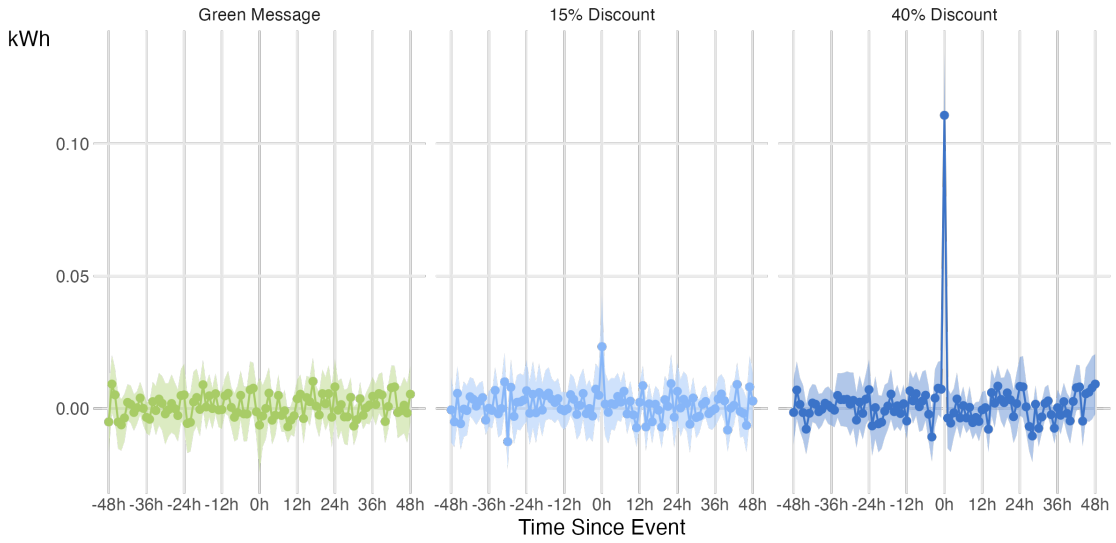
Most of the participating EV charging stations are fast chargers (above 50 kW), typically located at destination sites such as supermarkets or leisure centers. This contrasts with slow chargers, which are more often associated with off-street residential settings. In Table A1, we report the breakdown of Electric Vehicle Supply Equipment (EVSE) — that is, the physical charging units installed at charging stations — separately for participating and non-participating CPOs, by charger speed. Participating chargers tend to be faster.

Table A1: EVSE Speed Distribution by Participation Status

speed	Non-participating	Participating
Slow (7kW)	23468 (47.5%)	1906 (16.0%)
Fast (<50kW)	16685 (33.8%)	4363 (36.6%)
Rapid (<150kW)	5266 (10.7%)	4550 (38.1%)
Ultra (>150kW)	4002 (8.1%)	1117 (9.4%)

A1.3 Event study - 48 hours before and after event

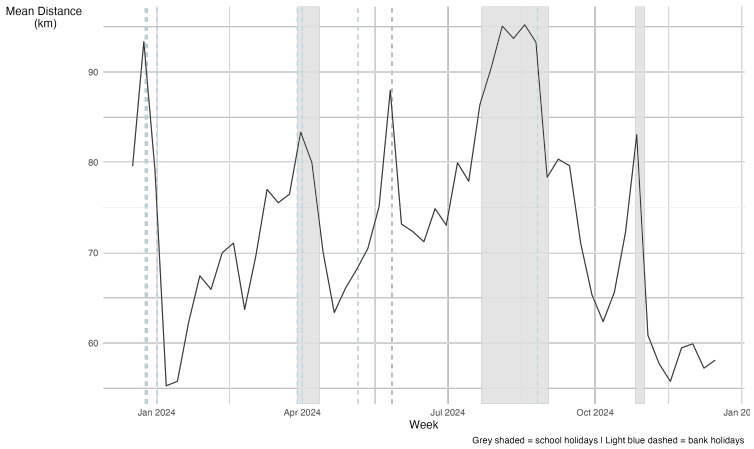
Figure A10: Event study for 48h window around the events



Notes: This graph shows the main regression for 48h before and after events – only for the three events that had 48 hours "before" and "after" not overlapping with other events' "before" and "after" periods.

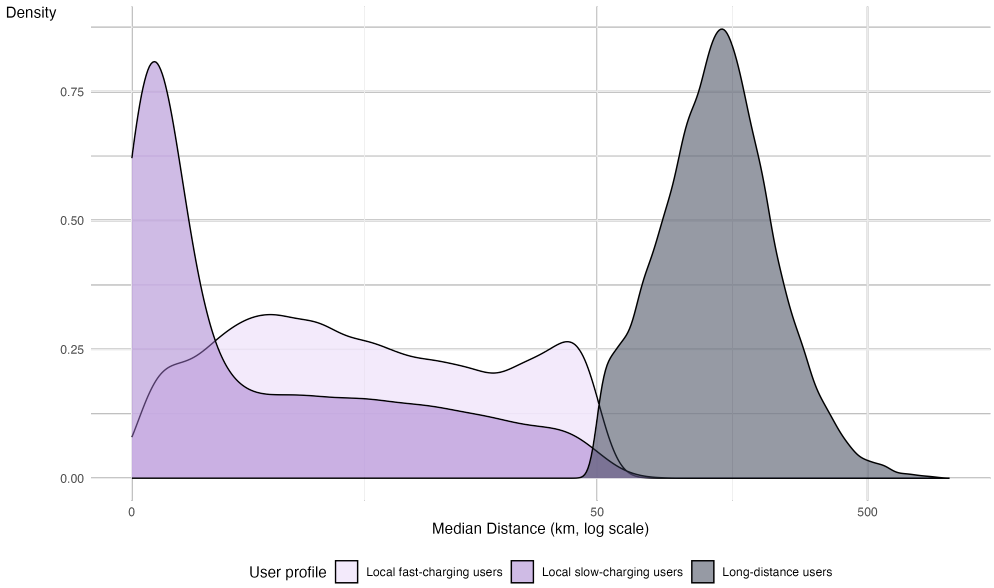
A1.4 Descriptive figures

Figure A11: Weekly mean distance to chargers



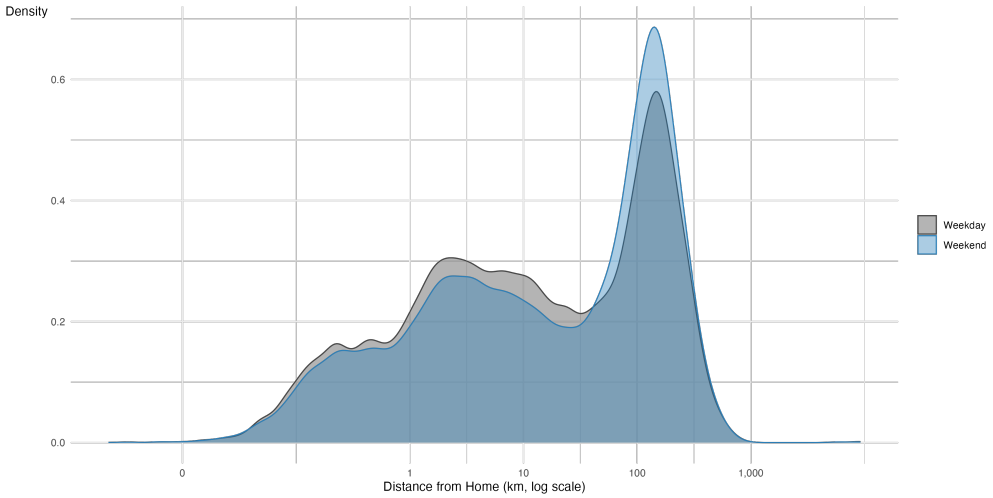
Notes: Mean distance between users' home postcodes (centroids) and charger locations for all charging sessions in 2024. Distances increase notably during school and bank holidays, suggesting greater use of public charging during longer trips.

Figure A13: Median distance to charger by user profile



Notes: Distribution of users' median distance to charger, by user profile. Local users predominantly charged within 1 km of home, while long-distance users typically charged over 100 km away. The x-axis is shown on a logarithmic scale to better represent the skewed distribution and to highlight both local and long-range behavior.

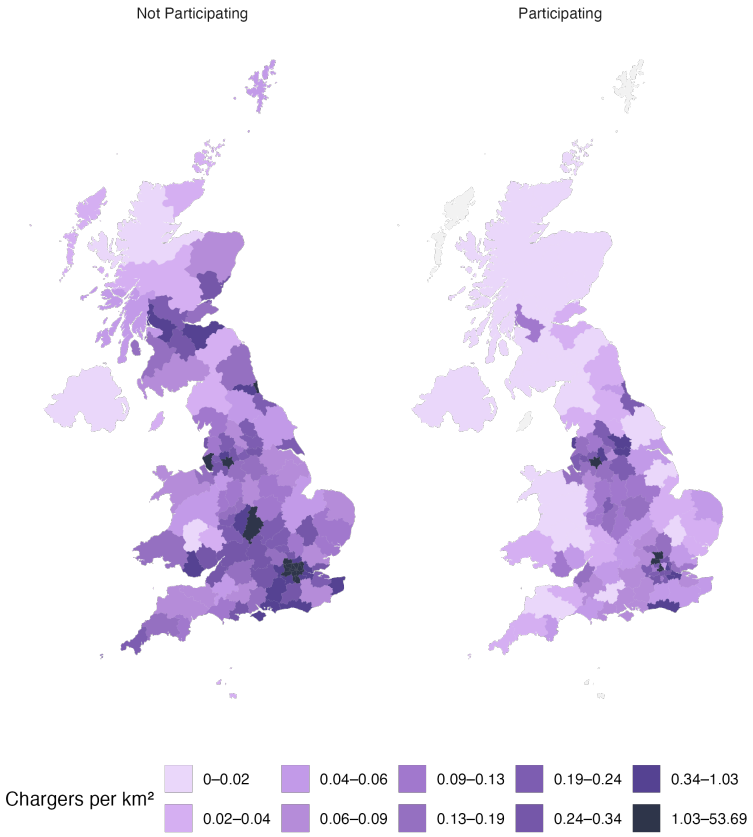
Figure A12: Distance to chargers for weekdays and weekends



Notes: Mean distance between users' home postcodes (centroids) and charger locations, averaged by day of the week. Weekend charging is associated with longer travel distances, indicating more frequent long-distance charging behavior.

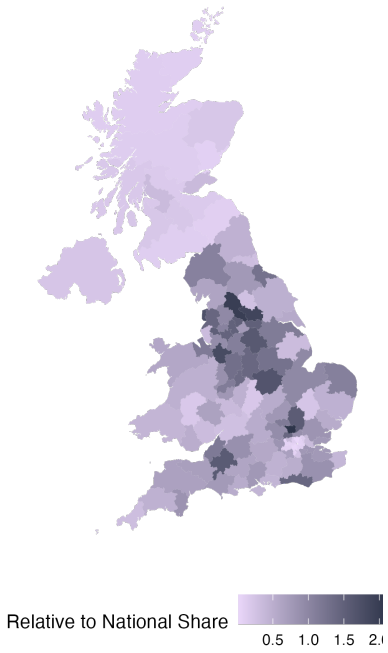
A1.5 Maps

Figure A14: Density of chargers who offered dynamic pricing in our trial, by postcode area of Great Britain



Notes: This map shows the density of public EV charging stations used at least once during the trial period, aggregated at the UK postcode area level and separated by whether the charging point operator participated in dynamic pricing events. While charging activity was geographically concentrated in urban areas for both groups, there are notable differences in spatial distribution, with higher participation rates in regions such as the Midlands, parts of the North West, and South West England.

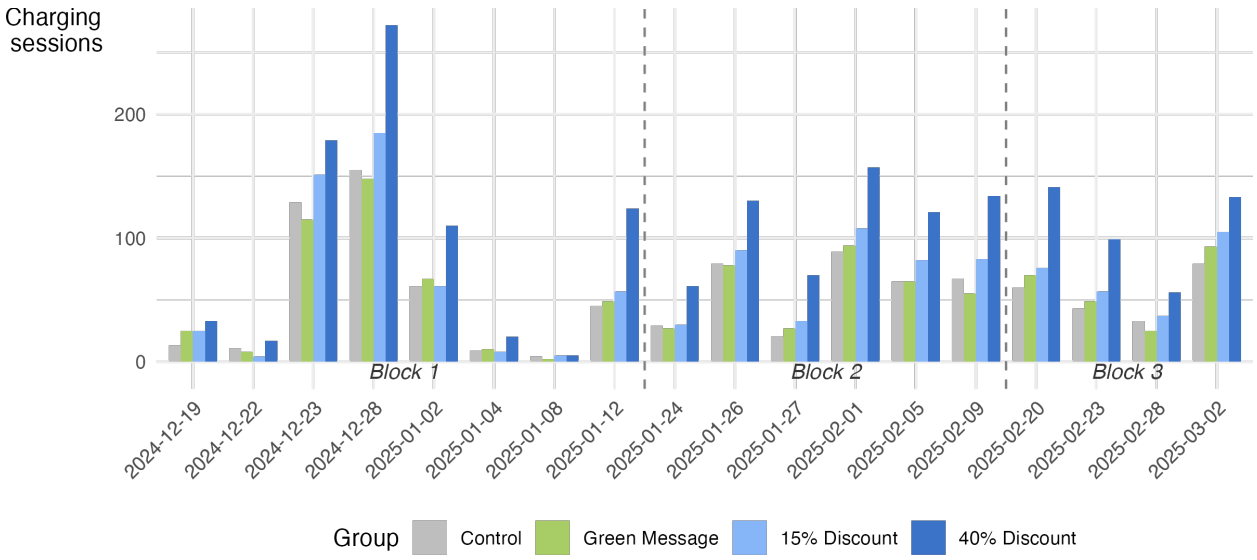
Figure A15: Share of participating charging stations relative to the national average by postcode area



Notes: This map shows the relative participation of public EV chargers across UK postcode areas, calculated as the share of participating chargers in each area divided by the national average. Darker areas indicate above-average participation, while lighter areas indicate below-average representation.

A1.6 Receipts per event

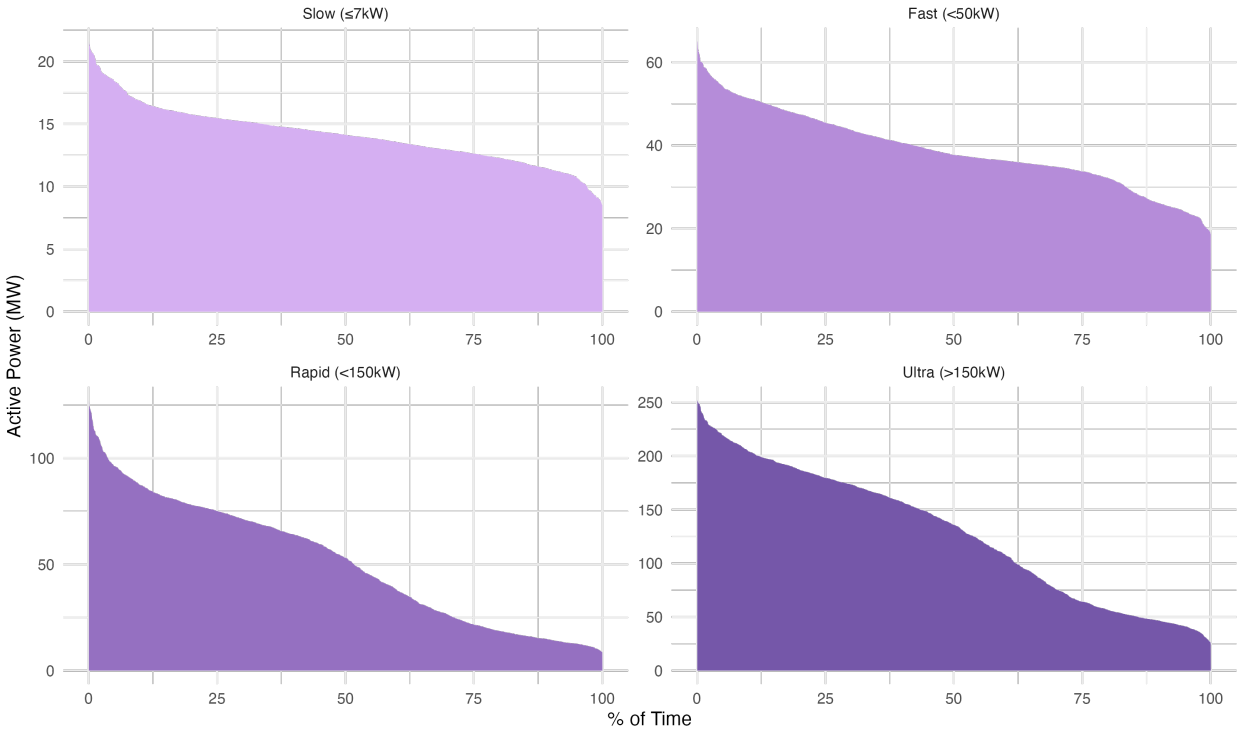
Figure A16: Number of charging sessions during dynamic pricing events, by treatment



Notes: Bars show the total number of receipts (i.e., charging sessions) recorded during each dynamic pricing event. This figure captures activity on the extensive margin rather than energy consumed. The 15% and 40% price decreases are associated with increased charging frequency. Event-level variation reflects differences in timing (e.g., daytime vs. overnight) and day of week (e.g., weekend vs. weekday), as detailed in Table A2.

A1.7 Load Duration Curve by charger speed

Figure A17: Load duration curve by charger speed



Notes: This figure presents the Load Duration Curve (LDC) for Electroverse chargers by charger speed, using data from December 19, 2024 to March 3, 2025. The LDC ranks demand levels over time and helps assess how often the charging network approaches capacity. High-speed chargers (particularly rapid and ultra-rapid) show steeper LDC slopes, indicating more variable peak demand and a greater potential for flexibility. The maximum theoretical capacity of each charger type is as follows: 196 MW for slow, 465 MW for fast, 673 MW for rapid, and 1,067 MW for ultra-rapid chargers.

A2 Appendix tables

A2.1 Event characteristics

Table A2: Characteristics of dynamic pricing events

	Plunge Date	Time	Type	Notice (hrs)	Notice Type
Block 1					
	19/12/2024	10pm–midnight	Evening	12	Same-day
	22/12/2024	5am–7am	Night	17	Day-ahead
	23/12/2024	11am–1pm	Morning	18	Day-ahead
	28/12/2024	9am–11am	Morning	18	Day-ahead
	02/01/2025	noon–2pm	Afternoon	19	Day-ahead
	04/01/2025	5am–7am	Night	14	Day-ahead
	08/01/2025	3am–5am	Night	9	Day-ahead
	12/01/2025	7pm–9pm	Evening	26	Day-ahead
Washout					
Block 2					
	24/01/2025	9pm–11pm	Evening	28	Day-ahead
	26/01/2025	9am–11am	Morning	20	Day-ahead
	27/01/2025	9pm–11pm	Evening	28	Day-ahead
	01/02/2025	noon–2pm	Afternoon	19	Day-ahead
	05/02/2025	noon–2pm	Afternoon	19	Day-ahead
	09/02/2025	5pm–7pm	Afternoon	24	Day-ahead
Washout					
Block 3					
	20/02/2025	11am–1pm	Morning	18	Day-ahead
	23/02/2025	7pm–9pm	Evening	26	Day-ahead
	28/02/2025	9pm–11pm	Evening	25	Day-ahead
	02/03/2025	11am–1pm	Morning	18	Day-ahead

A2.2 Main results

Table A3: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged

Dependent Variables:	Consumption (kWh)	Has Charged (binary)		
Model:	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	OLS	OLS	Probit	Marginal effects
Variables				
Green Message	0.0015	4.4×10^{-5}	0.0065	3.78×10^{-5}
	(0.0027)	(8.94×10^{-5})	(0.0153)	(8.92×10^{-5})
15% Discount	0.0154***	0.0004***	0.0682***	0.0004***
	(0.0030)	(9.7×10^{-5})	(0.0152)	(0.0001)
40% Discount	0.0604***	0.0018***	0.2327***	0.0018***
	(0.0039)	(0.0001)	(0.0146)	(0.0002)
kWh - September	0.0006***	1.63×10^{-5}***	0.0004***	
	(0.0001)	(3.1×10^{-6})	(8.07×10^{-5})	
kWh - October	1.66×10^{-5}	4.97×10^{-7}	9.29×10^{-6}***	
	(1.43×10^{-5})	(4.37×10^{-7})	(3.24×10^{-6})	
kWh - November	0.0018***	5.81×10^{-5}***	0.0016***	
	(0.0001)	(3.04×10^{-6})	(6.02×10^{-5})	
Active User	0.0344***	0.0016***	0.4781***	
	(0.0032)	(9.3×10^{-5})	(0.0140)	
Fixed-effects				
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Avg. Outcome				
Control	0.0517	0.0020	0.0020	
Fit statistics				
Observations	1,974,798	1,974,798	1,974,798	
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711	109,711	
R^2	0.00716	0.00814		
Pseudo R^2	0.00189	-0.00261	0.11995	
F-test	32.980	37.497		

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
Estimates in this table refer to the primary specification outlined in Section 1 of our pre-analysis plan. Romano-Wolf p-values (100 bootstrap replications) for the two main OLS outcomes are 0.77, 0.01 and 0.01 for Green Message, 15% Discount, and 40% Price Decrease, respectively.

Table A4: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)		
Model:	(1)	(2)	(3)
Variables			
Green Message	0.0005	-0.0007	0.0013
	(0.0027)	(0.0041)	(0.0040)
15% Discount	0.0150***	0.0105**	0.0106**
	(0.0031)	(0.0045)	(0.0044)
40% Discount	0.0599***	0.0553***	0.0549***
	(0.0040)	(0.0059)	(0.0059)
Green Message × Block 2		-0.0013	-0.0033
		(0.0065)	(0.0063)
15% Discount × Block 2		0.0057	0.0053
		(0.0072)	(0.0070)
40% Discount × Block 2		0.0077	0.0098
		(0.0094)	(0.0092)
Green Message × Block 3		0.0075	0.0059
		(0.0073)	(0.0072)
15% Discount × Block 3		0.0119	0.0141*
		(0.0081)	(0.0079)
40% Discount × Block 3		0.0092	0.0098
		(0.0104)	(0.0101)
kWh - September			0.0006***
			(0.0001)
kWh - October			1.66×10^{-5}
			(1.43×10^{-5})
kWh - November			0.0018***
			(0.0001)
Active User			0.0344***
			(0.0032)
Fixed-effects			
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes
Avg. Outcome			
Control	0.0517	0.0517	0.0517
Fit statistics			
Observations	1,974,798	1,974,798	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711	109,711
R^2	0.00101	0.00101	0.00717

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
Estimates in this table correspond to robustness checks out-lined in our pre-registered analysis plan.

A2.3 CATEs analysis tables

The estimates in these tables are based on a variation of the primary analysis outlined in our pre-registered analysis plan, where the treatment variables (Green message, 15% Discount, and 40% Discount) are interacted with selected covariates.

Table A5: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with User Profile

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message×Local fast-charging	0.0469***
	(0.0089)
Green Message×Local slow-charging	0.1002***
	(0.0291)
Green Message×Long-distance	-0.0235***
	(0.0054)
15% Discount×Local fast-charging	0.0830***
	(0.0105)
15% Discount×Local slow-charging	0.0990***
	(0.0316)
15% Discount×Long-distance	-0.0086
	(0.0059)
40% Discount× ocal fast-charging	0.2365***
	(0.0166)
40% Discount×Local slow-charging	0.1516***
	(0.0347)
40% Discount×Long-distance	0.0311***
	(0.0070)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	981,846
Number of Accounts	54,547
R^2	0.00235

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A6: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Active User

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Inactive	-0.0384***
	(0.0024)
Green Message × Active	0.0438***
	(0.0043)
15% Discount × Inactive	-0.0306***
	(0.0027)
15% Discount × Active	0.0650***
	(0.0049)
40% Discount × Inactive	-0.0145***
	(0.0034)
40% Discount × Active	0.1416***
	(0.0069)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711
R^2	0.00196

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A7: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Distance to Nearest Charger

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × <500m	0.0371***
	(0.0072)
Green Message × <1km	-0.0030
	(0.0055)
Green Message × <2.5km	-0.0129***
	(0.0046)
Green Message × <5km	-0.0240***
	(0.0062)
Green Message × <10km	-0.0283***
	(0.0073)
Green Message × 10km+	0.0400
	(0.0425)
15% Discount × <500m	0.0592***
	(0.0085)
15% Discount × <1km	0.0138**
	(0.0065)
15% Discount × <2.5km	0.0018
	(0.0056)
15% Discount × <5km	-0.0154**
	(0.0065)
15% Discount × <10km	-0.0019
	(0.0101)
15% Discount × 10km+	-0.0216
	(0.0238)
40% Discount × <500m	0.1079***
	(0.0105)
40% Discount × <1km	0.0794***
	(0.0098)
40% Discount × <2.5km	0.0602***
	(0.0082)
40% Discount × <5km	0.0435***
	(0.0122)
40% Discount × <10km	0.0170
	(0.0119)
40% Discount × 10km+	0.0628
	(0.0441)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,430,352
Number of Accounts	79,464
R^2	0.00136

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A8: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Distance to Nearest Participating Charger

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × <500m	0.0112
	(0.0123)
Green Message × <1km	0.0123
	(0.0087)
Green Message × <2.5km	0.0059
	(0.0049)
Green Message × <5km	-0.0090*
	(0.0053)
Green Message × <10km	-0.0208***
	(0.0058)
Green Message × 10km+	-0.0126
	(0.0116)
15% Discount × <500m	0.0486***
	(0.0152)
15% Discount × <1km	0.0375***
	(0.0104)
15% Discount × <2.5km	0.0162***
	(0.0057)
15% Discount × <5km	0.0143**
	(0.0068)
15% Discount × <10km	-0.0128**
	(0.0063)
15% Discount × 10km+	-0.0070
	(0.0106)
40% Discount × <500m	0.1300***
	(0.0213)
40% Discount × <1km	0.0970***
	(0.0140)
40% Discount × <2.5km	0.0867***
	(0.0085)
40% Discount × <5km	0.0578***
	(0.0095)
40% Discount × <10km	0.0243***
	(0.0091)
40% Discount × 10km+	0.0271*
	(0.0161)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,401,156
Number of Accounts	77,842
R^2	0.00131

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A9: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Urban	0.0021
	(0.0037)
Green Message × Rural	-0.0153***
	(0.0057)
15% Discount × Urban	0.0226***
	(0.0043)
15% Discount × Rural	-0.0157***
	(0.0058)
40% Discount × Urban	0.0795***
	(0.0058)
40% Discount × Rural	0.0343***
	(0.0082)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,427,940
Number of Accounts	79,330
R^2	0.00126

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A10: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Gross Disposable Income (£)

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < £19k	-0.0043
	(0.0058)
Green Message × < £21k	-0.0075
	(0.0058)
Green Message × < £23k	-0.0119**
	(0.0056)
Green Message × < £26k	-0.0037
	(0.0063)
Green Message × £26k+	0.0212***
	(0.0069)
15% Discount × < £19k	0.0209***
	(0.0076)
15% Discount × < £21k	0.0072
	(0.0067)
15% Discount × < £23k	0.0112
	(0.0071)
15% Discount × < £26k	0.0053
	(0.0068)
15% Discount × £26k+	0.0317***
	(0.0077)
40% Discount × < £19k	0.0934***
	(0.0113)
40% Discount × < £21k	0.0715***
	(0.0106)
40% Discount × < £23k	0.0510***
	(0.0091)
40% Discount × < £26k	0.0468***
	(0.0097)
40% Discount × £26k+	0.0909***
	(0.0111)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,427,940
Number of Accounts	79,330
R^2	0.00126

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A11: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with EV Price New (£)

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < £30k	-0.0043
	(0.0051)
Green Message × < £36k	0.0076
	(0.0058)
Green Message × < £43k	-0.0027
	(0.0054)
Green Message × < £51k	-0.0049
	(0.0054)
Green Message × £51k+	0.0032
	(0.0065)
15% Discount × < £30k	0.0021
	(0.0054)
15% Discount × < £36k	0.0209***
	(0.0066)
15% Discount × < £43k	0.0192***
	(0.0070)
15% Discount × < £51k	0.0238***
	(0.0073)
15% Discount × £51k+	0.0188**
	(0.0080)
40% Discount × < £30k	0.0503***
	(0.0081)
40% Discount × < £36k	0.0690***
	(0.0084)
40% Discount × < £43k	0.0666***
	(0.0093)
40% Discount × < £51k	0.0845***
	(0.0111)
40% Discount × £51k+	0.0720***
	(0.0110)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,498,788
Number of Accounts	83,266
R^2	0.00123

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A12: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with EV Price Used (£)

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < £24k	-0.0056
	(0.0049)
Green Message × < £29k	0.0102*
	(0.0061)
Green Message × < £35k	-0.0029
	(0.0054)
Green Message × < £40k	-0.0049
	(0.0054)
Green Message × £40k+	0.0032
	(0.0065)
15% Discount × < £24k	0.0017
	(0.0053)
15% Discount × < £29k	0.0225***
	(0.0068)
15% Discount × < £35k	0.0193***
	(0.0071)
15% Discount × < £40k	0.0238***
	(0.0073)
15% Discount × £40k+	0.0188**
	(0.0080)
40% Discount × < £24k	0.0466***
	(0.0078)
40% Discount × < £29k	0.0741***
	(0.0089)
40% Discount × < £35k	0.0669***
	(0.0094)
40% Discount × < £40k	0.0845***
	(0.0111)
40% Discount × £40k+	0.0720***
	(0.0110)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,498,788
Number of Accounts	83,266
R^2	0.00124

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A13: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Time of Day

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Morning	-0.0010
	(0.0069)
Green Message × Afternoon	-0.0002
	(0.0063)
Green Message × Evening	0.0030
	(0.0038)
Green Message × Night	-0.0007
	(0.0027)
15% Discount × Morning	0.0237***
	(0.0074)
15% Discount × Afternoon	0.0158**
	(0.0069)
15% Discount × Evening	0.0154***
	(0.0045)
15% Discount × Night	-0.0010
	(0.0029)
40% Discount × Morning	0.0844***
	(0.0087)
40% Discount × Afternoon	0.0698***
	(0.0086)
40% Discount × Evening	0.0568***
	(0.0056)
40% Discount × Night	0.0112***
	(0.0038)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711
R^2	0.00105

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A14: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Weekend

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Weekday	0.0021
	(0.0035)
Green Message × Weekend	-0.0011
	(0.0041)
15% Discount × Weekday	0.0140***
	(0.0039)
15% Discount × Weekend	0.0160***
	(0.0045)
40% Discount × Weekday	0.0510***
	(0.0048)
40% Discount × Weekend	0.0687***
	(0.0056)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711
R^2	0.00102

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A15: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Battery Capacity (kWh)

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < 51kWh	-0.0058
	(0.0046)
Green Message × < 62kWh	-0.0032
	(0.0053)
Green Message × < 72kWh	0.0101*
	(0.0059)
Green Message × < 77kWh	7.96×10^{-5}
	(0.0053)
Green Message × 77kWh+	-0.0015
	(0.0068)
15% Discount × < 51kWh	0.0029
	(0.0051)
15% Discount × < 62kWh	0.0180***
	(0.0065)
15% Discount × < 72kWh	0.0243***
	(0.0065)
15% Discount × < 77kWh	0.0180***
	(0.0065)
15% Discount × 77kWh+	0.0313***
	(0.0096)
40% Discount × < 51kWh	0.0421***
	(0.0070)
40% Discount × < 62kWh	0.0583***
	(0.0083)
40% Discount × < 72kWh	0.0758***
	(0.0093)
40% Discount × < 77kWh	0.0765***
	(0.0093)
40% Discount × 77kWh+	0.1018***
	(0.0139)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,605,636
Number of Accounts	89,202
R^2	0.00126

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A16: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Battery Capacity (kWh)

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < 51kWh	0.0005**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < 62kWh	1.11×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < 72kWh	0.0001
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < 77kWh	-0.0003
	(0.0002)
Green Message × 77kWh+	-0.0006***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < 51kWh	0.0009***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < 62kWh	0.0007***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < 72kWh	0.0006***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < 77kWh	6.06×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × 77kWh+	0.0003
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × < 51kWh	0.0026***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < 62kWh	0.0021***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < 72kWh	0.0021***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < 77kWh	0.0017***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × 77kWh+	0.0017***
	(0.0003)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,605,636
Number of Accounts	89,202
R^2	0.00167

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A17: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with User Profile

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Local fast-charging users	0.0019***
	(0.0003)
Green Message × Local slow-charging users	0.0043***
	(0.0010)
Green Message × Long-distance users	-0.0010***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × Local fast-charging users	0.0032***
	(0.0003)
15% Discount × Local slow-charging users	0.0037***
	(0.0010)
15% Discount × Long-distance users	-0.0006***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × Local fast-charging users	0.0076***
	(0.0005)
40% Discount × Local slow-charging users	0.0057***
	(0.0011)
40% Discount × Long-distance users	0.0005**
	(0.0002)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	981,846
Number of Accounts	54,547
R^2	0.00325

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A18: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Active User

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Inactive	-0.0015***
	(7.94×10^{-5})
Green Message × Active	0.0017***
	(0.0001)
15% Discount × Inactive	-0.0013***
	(8.69×10^{-5})
15% Discount × Active	0.0023***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × Inactive	-0.0008***
	(0.0001)
40% Discount × Active	0.0046***
	(0.0002)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711
R^2	0.00263

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A19: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Distance to Nearest Charger

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × <500m	0.0014***
	(0.0002)
Green Message × <1km	-9.47×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
Green Message × <2.5km	-0.0004**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × <5km	-0.0010***
	(0.0002)
Green Message × <10km	-0.0011***
	(0.0002)
Green Message × 10km+	0.0006
	(0.0012)
15% Discount × <500m	0.0022***
	(0.0003)
15% Discount × <1km	0.0004**
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × <2.5km	-4.53×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × <5km	-0.0006***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × <10km	-4.02×10^{-5}
	(0.0003)
15% Discount × 10km+	-0.0009
	(0.0007)
40% Discount × <500m	0.0038***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × <1km	0.0024***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × <2.5km	0.0016***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × <5km	0.0009***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × <10km	0.0005
	(0.0004)
40% Discount × 10km+	0.0020
	(0.0014)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,430,352
Number of Accounts	79,464
R^2	0.00188

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A20: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Distance to Nearest Participating Charger

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × <500m	0.0004
	(0.0004)
Green Message × <1km	0.0002
	(0.0003)
Green Message × <2.5km	0.0004**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × <5km	-0.0003
	(0.0002)
Green Message × <10km	-0.0007***
	(0.0002)
Green Message × 10km+	-0.0006*
	(0.0004)
15% Discount × <500m	0.0019***
	(0.0005)
15% Discount × <1km	0.0010***
	(0.0003)
15% Discount × <2.5km	0.0006***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × <5km	0.0003
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × <10km	-0.0004**
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × 10km+	0.0002
	(0.0004)
40% Discount × <500m	0.0047***
	(0.0007)
40% Discount × <1km	0.0032***
	(0.0004)
40% Discount × <2.5km	0.0027***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × <5km	0.0015***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × <10km	0.0005**
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × 10km+	0.0008
	(0.0005)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,401,156
Number of Accounts	77,842
R^2	0.00180

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A21: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Urban	0.0001
	(0.0001)
Green Message × Rural	-0.0007***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × Urban	0.0007***
	(0.0001)
15% Discount × Rural	-0.0005***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × Urban	0.0024***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × Rural	0.0010***
	(0.0003)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,427,940
Number of Accounts	79,330
R^2	0.00172

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A22: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Gross Disposable Income (£)

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < £19k	-4.31×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £21k	-0.0003
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £23k	-0.0004**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £26k	-0.0002
	(0.0002)
Green Message × £26k+	0.0008***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £19k	0.0007***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £21k	0.0002
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £23k	0.0003
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £26k	0.0002
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × £26k+	0.0011***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × < £19k	0.0029***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £21k	0.0020***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £23k	0.0016***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £26k	0.0014***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × £26k+	0.0027***
	(0.0003)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,427,940
Number of Accounts	79,330
R^2	0.00172

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A23: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with EV Price New (£)

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < £30k	0.0004*
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £36k	0.0004**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £43k	-0.0002
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £51k	-0.0004**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × £51k+	-0.0002
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £30k	0.0007***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £36k	0.0010***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £43k	0.0004*
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £51k	0.0003*
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × £51k+	3.51×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × < £30k	0.0024***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £36k	0.0029***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £43k	0.0018***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £51k	0.0019***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × £51k+	0.0011***
	(0.0003)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,498,788
Number of Accounts	83,266
R^2	0.00169

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A24: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with EV Price Used (£)

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × < £24k	0.0003*
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £29k	0.0004**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £35k	-0.0002
	(0.0002)
Green Message × < £40k	-0.0004**
	(0.0002)
Green Message × £40k+	-0.0002
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £24k	0.0007***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £29k	0.0010***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £35k	0.0004*
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × < £40k	0.0003*
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × £40k+	3.51×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × < £24k	0.0023***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £29k	0.0030***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £35k	0.0018***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × < £40k	0.0019***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × £40k+	0.0011***
	(0.0003)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,498,788
Number of Accounts	83,266
R^2	0.00169

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A25: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Time of Day

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Morning	-2.09×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
Green Message × Afternoon	-2.82×10^{-5}
	(0.0002)
Green Message × Evening	0.0001
	(0.0001)
Green Message × Night	-4.89×10^{-5}
	(8.5×10^{-5})
15% Discount × Morning	0.0008***
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × Afternoon	0.0005**
	(0.0002)
15% Discount × Evening	0.0003***
	(0.0001)
15% Discount × Night	-8.25×10^{-5}
	(8.28×10^{-5})
40% Discount × Morning	0.0026***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × Afternoon	0.0022***
	(0.0003)
40% Discount × Evening	0.0016***
	(0.0002)
40% Discount × Night	0.0002**
	(0.0001)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711
R^2	0.00142

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

Table A26: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged interacted with Weekend

Dependent Variable:	Has Charged (binary)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message × Weekday	2.02×10^{-5}
	(0.0001)
Green Message × Weekend	5.01×10^{-6}
	(0.0001)
15% Discount × Weekday	0.0004***
	(0.0001)
15% Discount × Weekend	0.0005***
	(0.0001)
40% Discount × Weekday	0.0015***
	(0.0001)
40% Discount × Weekend	0.0021***
	(0.0002)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711
R^2	0.00139

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

A2.4 Consumption during events by charger speed

Table A27: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged by EVSE speed

Dependent Variables:	Slow (kWh)	Fast (kWh)	Rapid (kWh)	Ultra (kWh)
Model:	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Variables				
Green Message	0.0005	-0.0009	0.0010	0.0031
	(0.0010)	(0.0025)	(0.0023)	(0.0019)
15% Discount	0.0011	0.0106***	0.0099***	0.0110***
	(0.0012)	(0.0028)	(0.0026)	(0.0022)
40% Discount	0.0009	0.0568***	0.0343***	0.0290***
	(0.0011)	(0.0038)	(0.0032)	(0.0026)
kWh - September	3.55×10^{-5}	0.0004***	0.0004***	0.0004***
	(4.53×10^{-5})	(9.19×10^{-5})	(9.4×10^{-5})	(9.63×10^{-5})
kWh - October	4.2×10^{-6}	1.34×10^{-5}	6.78×10^{-6}	1.73×10^{-5}
	(5.04×10^{-6})	(1.13×10^{-5})	(5.99×10^{-6})	(1.49×10^{-5})
kWh - November	0.0005***	0.0015***	0.0014***	0.0012***
	(7.86×10^{-5})	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(9.38×10^{-5})
Active User	-0.0020	0.0354***	0.0192***	0.0118***
	(0.0017)	(0.0030)	(0.0028)	(0.0025)
Fixed-effects				
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Avg. Outcome				
Control	0.0073	0.0463	0.0383	0.0259
Fit statistics				
Observations	1,974,798	1,974,798	1,974,798	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711	109,711	109,711
R^2	0.00312	0.00568	0.00527	0.00579

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
This table show consumption in kWh by speed categories as follows:
Slow (≤7kW), Fast (<50kW), Rapid (<150kW), and Ultra (>150kW).

A2.5 Spatial displacement

Table A28: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged, by participating CPOs

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)	
	Participating CPOs	Non-Participating CPOs
Model:	(1)	(2)
Variables		
Green Message	-0.0012	0.0027
	(0.0017)	(0.0021)
15% Discount	0.0124***	0.0031
	(0.0021)	(0.0022)
40% Discount	0.0608***	-0.0004
	(0.0034)	(0.0021)
kWh - September	0.0002***	0.0003***
	(6.19×10^{-5})	(9×10^{-5})
kWh - October	1.26×10^{-5}	3.94×10^{-6}
	(1.35×10^{-5})	(5.24×10^{-6})
kWh - November	0.0007***	0.0011***
	(8.31×10^{-5})	(8.37×10^{-5})
Active User	0.0283***	0.0061***
	(0.0025)	(0.0022)
Fixed-effects		
Date	Yes	Yes
Avg. Outcome		
Control	0.0215	0.0302
Fit statistics		
Observations	1,974,798	1,974,798
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711
R^2	0.00267	0.00560
Pseudo R^2	0.00082	0.00191
F-test	12.226	25.727

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
The estimates of this table refer to the charging spatial displacement checks indicated in our pre-registration plan, exploratory analysis 3.

A2.6 New location visit & Return visits

Table A29 reports regression results estimating the likelihood that a charging session occurs at a new location, using treatment group assignment as the explanatory variable (using simple linear probability model). The analysis mirrors the main regressions on overall charging activity: we find no significant effect for the Green Message group, while both the 15% and 40% price reduction treatments lead to statistically significant increases

in the probability of visiting a new location. These effects are consistent when estimated separately by trial block, suggesting no evidence of carry-over effects across blocks. The results indicate that financial incentives not only increase charging activity, but also encourage users to explore new locations, possibly reflecting willing to travel or trying new stations. To be noted, 59% of first visit to a location are also the first time using a charger of this CPO.

Table A29: Impact on First Location Visit During the Trial

Dependent Variable:	First Visit			
block	Full sample	Block 1	Block 2	Block 3
Model:	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Variables				
Green Message	-1.51×10^{-5}	4.21×10^{-5}	-0.0001	4.19×10^{-6}
	(5.9×10^{-5})	(8.98×10^{-5})	(0.0001)	(0.0001)
15% Discount	0.0002**	0.0002**	7.77×10^{-5}	0.0001
	(6.22×10^{-5})	(9.51×10^{-5})	(0.0001)	(0.0001)
40% Discount	0.0008***	0.0009***	0.0007***	0.0009***
	(7.3×10^{-5})	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0002)
kWh - September	1.43×10^{-6}	2.14×10^{-6}	-6.72×10^{-7}	3.18×10^{-6}*
	(9.26×10^{-7})	(1.44×10^{-6})	(1.47×10^{-6})	(1.89×10^{-6})
kWh - October	1.36×10^{-8}	-1.99×10^{-8}*	-3.3×10^{-8}*	1.51×10^{-7}
	(4.2×10^{-8})	(1.08×10^{-8})	(1.85×10^{-8})	(1.97×10^{-7})
kWh - November	7.62×10^{-6}***	5.86×10^{-6}***	1.03×10^{-5}***	7.15×10^{-6}***
	(9.83×10^{-7})	(1.36×10^{-6})	(1.9×10^{-6})	(2.12×10^{-6})
Active User	0.0010***	0.0011***	0.0010***	0.0008***
	(5.16×10^{-5})	(7.81×10^{-5})	(8.74×10^{-5})	(0.0001)
Fixed-effects				
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Avg. Outcome				
Control	0.0009	0.0009	0.0009	0.0008
Fit statistics				
Observations	1,974,798	877,688	658,266	438,844
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711	109,711	109,711
R^2	0.00151	0.00217	0.00101	0.00090

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

To further examine whether price plunge events foster sustained changes in user behavior, we analyze the likelihood of returning to the same location within 30 days following a customer's first visit. The unit of observation is the first visit by an account to a given location, and the analysis excludes any return visits that occurred during subsequent price plunge events, to isolate the effect of habit formation from short-term price

responsiveness. The results indicate that customers whose first visit occurred during a price plunge event are significantly less likely to return within 30 days than those whose initial visit happened outside the trial period. Specifically, only 14% of first visits during a price plunge are followed by a return within 30 days, compared to 22% when the initial visit occurs outside the trial. This difference is reflected in the regression results presented in Table A30, where the coefficient on "First Visit During Trial" is negative and statistically significant. When return visits during subsequent price events are included, the coefficient becomes positive, suggesting that repeated discounting can temporarily increase returns, but without these follow-up events, there is little evidence that the initial discount fosters long-term behavioral change. Overall, the findings suggest that while price plunges may attract first-time visits, they do not appear to translate into habitual usage.

Table A30: Impact on Return Visits Within 30 Days

Dependent Variable:	Returned Within 30 Days
Model:	(1)
Variables	
First Visit During Trial	-0.0168**
	(0.0084)
kWh - September	6.68×10^{-5}*
	(3.58×10^{-5})
kWh - October	2.01×10^{-6}
	(1.55×10^{-6})
kWh - November	0.0002***
	(1.33×10^{-5})
Active User	-0.0309***
	(0.0031)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Fit statistics	
Observations	417,184
Number of Accounts	67,341
R^2	0.02422

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

A2.7 Temporal displacement

Table A31: kWh charged between notification and event start

Time from notification:	(1) Sent	(2) Delivered	(3) Clicked
Variables			
Green message	0.0033	0.0054	0.0055
	(0.0064)	(0.0064)	(0.0064)
15% Discount	0.0044	0.0060	0.0061
	(0.0066)	(0.0066)	(0.0066)
40% Discount	-0.0011	0.0008	0.0010
	(0.0068)	(0.0068)	(0.0068)
Active	0.0169	0.0167	0.0220
	(0.0126)	(0.0127)	(0.0125)
kWh September	0.0021***	0.0021***	0.0021***
	(0.0004)	(0.0004)	(0.0004)
kWh October	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
	(0.0000)	(0.0000)	(0.0000)
kWh November	0.0081***	0.0081***	0.0079***
	(0.0004)	(0.0004)	(0.0003)
Fixed effects			
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes
Avg. Outcome			
Control	0.2269	0.2269	0.2243
Time notification-event			
Hours	18.02	17.97	16.19
Fit statistics			
Observations	1,974,798	1,974,798	1,974,798
Consumers	109,711	109,711	109,711
R^2	0.02986	0.03014	0.02909
F-statistic	217.2***	217.5***	215.2***

Notes: The estimates in this table refer to robustness checks outlined in our pre-registered analysis plan, related to the temporal displacement of charging behavior in Exploratory Analysis 2.
All models have been estimated with a constant term.
Clustered (Consumer-level) standard errors are in parentheses.
Statistical significance is indicated as follows: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

A2.8 Home electricity consumption

Table A32: Impact on Home Consumption (kWh)

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)
Model:	(1)
Variables	
Green Message	0.0435
	(0.0870)
15% Discount	-0.0428
	(0.1173)
40% Discount	0.0436
	(0.1474)
kWh - September	-0.0013
	(0.0030)
kWh - October	0.00007
	(0.00005)
kWh - November	0.0006
	(0.0027)
Active User	1.057
	(2.832)
Fixed-effects	
Date	Yes
Avg. Outcome	
Control	13.9844
Fit statistics	
Observations	29,141,254
Number of Accounts	17,188
R^2	0.00332

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
The estimates in this table refer to robustness checks outlined in our pre-registered analysis plan.

A2.9 Electricity consumption during wash-out periods

Table A33: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged

Dependent Variables:	Consumption (kWh)	Has Charged (binary)		
Model:	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	OLS	OLS	Probit	Marginal effects
Variables				
Green Message	0.0174	0.0004	0.0161	0.0005
	(0.0120)	(0.0003)	(0.0099)	(0.0003)
15% Discount	0.0078	0.0003	0.0067	0.0002
	(0.0119)	(0.0003)	(0.0100)	(0.0003)
40% Discount	0.0147	0.0003	0.0099	0.0003
	(0.0130)	(0.0004)	(0.0109)	(0.0004)
kWh - September	0.0050***	0.0001***	0.0008***	
	(0.0007)	(1.96×10^{-5})	(0.0002)	
kWh - October	5.65×10^{-5}	1.58×10^{-6}	8.75×10^{-6}***	
	(3.72×10^{-5})	(1.09×10^{-6})	(3.22×10^{-6})	
kWh - November	0.0164***	0.0005***	0.0028***	
	(0.0006)	(1.53×10^{-5})	(0.0001)	
Active User	0.0863***	0.0071***	0.5423***	
	(0.0162)	(0.0004)	(0.0115)	
Fixed-effects				
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Avg. Outcome				
Control	0.4579	0.0158	0.0158	
Fit statistics				
Observations	1,316,532	1,316,532	1,316,532	
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711	109,711	
R^2	0.06346	0.06594		
Pseudo R^2	0.01129	-0.05174	0.14657	
F-test	412.97	430.27		

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
The estimates in this table refer to robustness checks not included in our pre-analysis plan, conducted to test for the presence of carryover effects in the crossover trial.

A2.10 Descriptive statistics

Table A34: Descriptive characteristics of the sample

	Sequence				Total	Kruskal–Wallis	
	1	2	3	4		χ^2	p
Consumption (kWh) – Sep	12.91 (48.78)	13.12 (59.14)	12.91 (49.07)	12.75 (49.73)	12.92 (51.86)	4.144	0.246
Consumption (kWh) – Oct	17.07 (262.91)	17.82 (494.83)	24.65 (1010.6)	14.45 (61.77)	18.51 (580.38)	1.616	0.656
Consumption (kWh) – Nov	14.4 (57.76)	14.41 (58.67)	14.51 (56.85)	13.9 (58.56)	14.3 (57.96)	3.968	0.265
Consumption (kWh) – Last Year	120.9 (502.06)	121.38 (671.74)	129.59 (1092.75)	115.7 (387.34)	121.9 (716.8)	4.821	0.185
Expenditures (£) – Last Year	80.38 (316.02)	80.94 (417.58)	84.32 (584.02)	77.8 (255.78)	80.86 (413.11)	4.996	0.172
Days since registration	488.69 (283.19)	493.55 (285.25)	491.48 (283.34)	493.85 (285.86)	491.91 (284.43)	5.946	0.114
Transactions – Last Year	5.01 (15.05)	5.11 (17.8)	5.11 (15.71)	4.95 (15.44)	5.05 (16.04)	4.834	0.184
Locations visited – Last Year	2.06 (4.15)	2.03 (4.13)	2.07 (4.07)	2.02 (4.09)	2.04 (4.11)	5.271	0.153
Consumers	26,805	27,448	27,685	27,773	109,711		

Notes: Cells report means with standard deviations in parentheses. Treatment sequence assignments are detailed in Table 1. Kruskal–Wallis tests assess equality of distributions across sequences.

Table A35: Descriptive characteristics of transactions

	Control	Green message	15% price decrease	40% price decrease	Total	χ^2
kWh charged	25.74 (15.52)	25.86 (15.53)	27.4 (16.74)	29.49 (17.01)	27.54 (16.45)	42.729***
Expenditures (£)	17.98 (11.87)	17.64 (11.77)	17.77 (11.41)	15.31 (9.81)	16.88 (11.08)	45.524***
Average price paid (£/kWh)	0.7 (0.3)	0.68 (0.21)	0.65 (0.16)	0.54 (0.57)	0.63 (0.39)	1123.121***
Number of observations	1,198	1,863	992	1,007	5,060	

Notes: Cells report means with standard deviations in parentheses. Treatment assignments follow the Latin Square design shown in Table 1. χ^2 values are from Kruskal–Wallis tests for equality of distributions across groups. Observations reflect only transactions in which users chose to charge during dynamic pricing events, so comparisons capture behavioral patterns among chargers rather than causal treatment effects. Price variation is influenced by CPO participation and consumer charger choice; as a result, realized price decreases differ from the nominal 15% and 40% values associated with treatment assignments.

A2.11 Notification and unsubscription analysis

To evaluate notification outcomes and user unsubscription behavior, we constructed an event-level user panel combining attempted notifications, unsubscribe events, treatment assignment, and baseline consumption covariates. Using this panel, we calculated and plotted the share of users who received a notification and those who unsubscribed, separately by treatment arm (Figure A18 and Figure A19). We then estimated the effect of each treatment on unsubscription using linear and probit regressions with date fixed effects and user-level clustering.

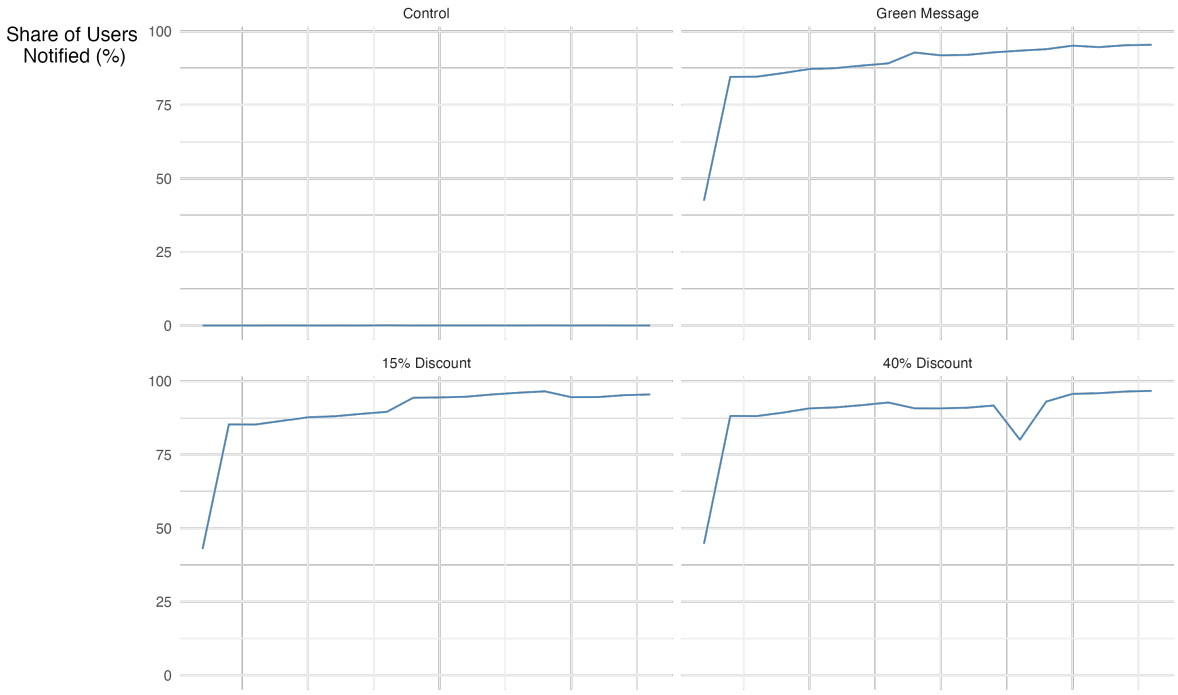
Figure A18 shows the share of users who were successfully notified on each event date, by treatment group. During the first notification event, a technical error prevented approximately half of the users in the treated groups from being contacted. We repeated our main analysis in Table A36, where we excluded from our sample for Event 1 those participants who were not in the trial notification list in the first event of the trial (irrespective of their group membership). Results were extremely similar to our main analysis (Table A3).

This issue was identified and fully resolved before the second event, after which notification rates rose sharply and remained above 90% for all treatment groups. The control group was not intended to receive notifications and is shown here for reference. A small number of users — fewer than 10 per event — received notifications intended for other treatment arms. These errors were typically associated with multiple accounts linked to the same device or phone number. In the analysis, we kept the original assignment as treatment. Figure A19 plots the share of users unsubscribing from future messages following each notification. Unsubscription rates were near zero for the control group but notably higher for all treated groups. The green message treatment consistently triggered the highest opt-out rates, followed by the 15% and 40% Discount groups. These patterns suggest that opt-out behavior was responsive to the type of message received, with non-financial appeals (like the green framing) generating more resistance than discount-based incentives. However, overall opt-out rates were very low across all treatments.

Table A37 presents estimates of the impact of different notification treatments on users' likelihood of unsubscribing. Column (1) reports results from a linear probability model with date fixed effects and standard errors clustered at the user level. Columns (2) and (3) report results from a probit model, with Column (3) showing average marginal effects derived from the specification in Column (2). In the probit model with date fixed effects, two date groups with no variation in unsubscription outcomes were automatically dropped. This excluded 219,422 observations, which do not contribute to estimation in nonlinear fixed effects models. Across specifications, all treatments significantly increased the likelihood of unsubscription relative to the control group. The green message treatment had the largest effect, increasing the probability of unsubscribing by approximately 0.26 percentage points. The 15% and 40% Discount treatments each increased unsubscription by about 0.16 percentage points. These marginal effects were small in absolute terms. All models included date fixed effects to account for time-specific factors influencing opt-out behavior. We kept unsubscribed users in all of our analyses following

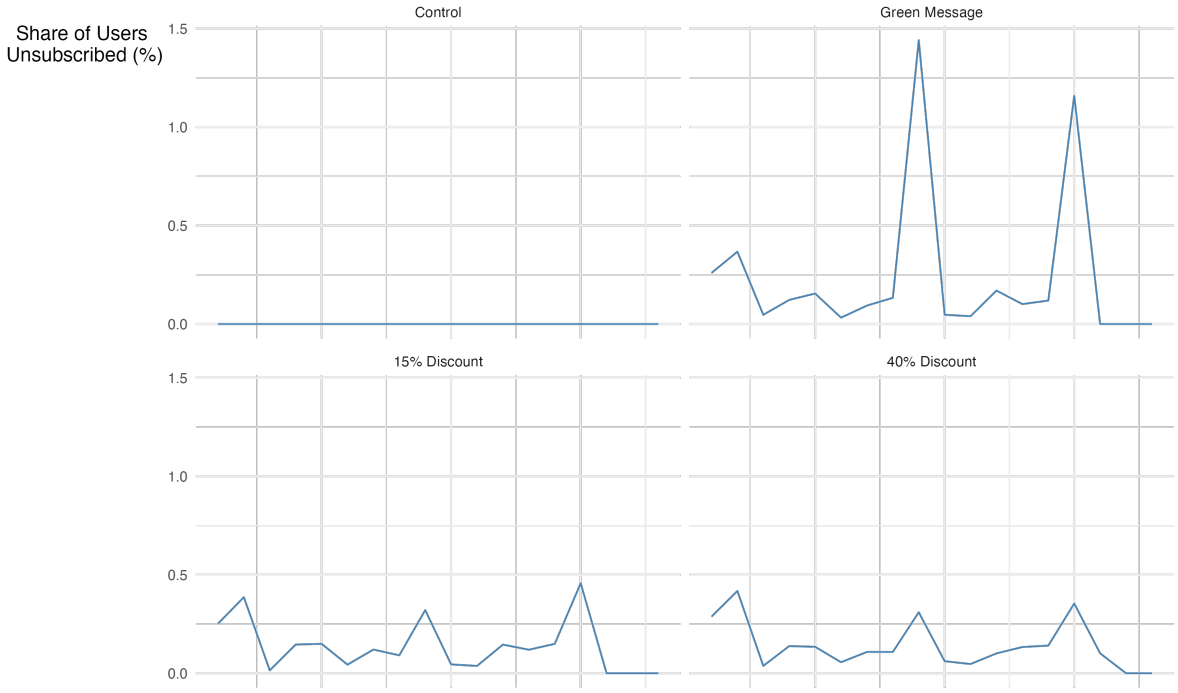
their original assignments.

Figure A18: Share of users notified (or attempted)



Notes: This figure shows the share of users in each treatment arm for whom a notification was attempted or successfully delivered on each event date. Notification rates were below 50% during the first event due to a technical issue, which was resolved before the second event. See Table A36 for a regression analysis showing that our results are robust to the removing non-contacted customers (including those who *would* not have been contacted, in the Control group). Control users were not meant to receive notifications and are shown for comparison only. A small number of users were sent incorrect messages due to account linkage errors; we maintain these users in their original treatment allocation in our analysis.

Figure A19: Unsubscription rate



Notes: This figure shows the share of users in each treatment arm who unsubscribed from notifications following each event. Unsubscription was nearly zero in the control group and highest in the green message group, followed by the 15% and 40% Discount groups. Despite variation across treatments, absolute unsubscription rates remained low overall.

Table A36: Robustness check: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged omitting Event 1 participants not in the notification list

Dependent Variable:	Consumption (kWh)	
Sample	Full sample	Excluding non contacted customers
Model:	(1)	(2)
Variables		
Treatment = GreenMessage	0.0015	0.0012
	(0.0027)	(0.0027)
Treatment = 15%Discount	0.0154***	0.0155***
	(0.0030)	(0.0031)
Treatment = 40%Discount	0.0604***	0.0619***
	(0.0039)	(0.0040)
kWh - September	0.0006***	0.0006***
	(0.0001)	(0.0001)
kWh - October	1.66×10^{-5}	1.66×10^{-5}
	(1.43×10^{-5})	(1.43×10^{-5})
kWh - November	0.0018***	0.0018***
	(0.0001)	(0.0001)
Active User	0.0344***	0.0355***
	(0.0032)	(0.0033)
Fixed-effects		
Date	Yes	Yes
Avg. Outcome		
Control	0.0517	0.0517
Fit statistics		
Observations	1,974,798	1,928,319
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711
R^2	0.00716	0.00717

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
The analysis excludes from Event 1 only those participants who were not in the trial notification list in the first event of the trial if they were allocated in one of the three treatment arms.

Table A37: Unsubscription rate by treatment

Dependent Variable:	Unsubscribed	
Model:	(1)	(2)
	OLS	Probit
Variables		
Green Message	0.0024^{***}	3.719^{***}
	(6.89×10^{-5})	(0.0123)
15% Discount	0.0014^{***}	3.552^{***}
	(5.28×10^{-5})	(0.0129)
40% Discount	0.0014^{***}	3.562^{***}
	(5.34×10^{-5})	(0.0125)
kWh - September	-3.7×10^{-7}	-3.05×10^{-5}
	(5.52×10^{-7})	(0.0002)
kWh - October	$-1.25 \times 10^{-8***}$	-0.0001
	(3.87×10^{-9})	(0.0002)
kWh - November	$-1.57 \times 10^{-6***}$	-0.0005^{**}
	(4.48×10^{-7})	(0.0002)
Activity	-0.0029^{***}	-0.4248^{***}
	(0.0008)	(0.0756)
Fixed-effects		
Date	Yes	Yes
Fit statistics		
Observations	1,974,798	1,755,376
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711
R^2	0.00234	
BIC	-7,537,653.7	34,871.9

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*

A2.12 Main analysis excluding customers pre-specified in the PAP

Table A38: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged

Dependent Variables:	Consumption (kWh)	Has Charged (binary)		
Model:	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	OLS	OLS	Probit	Marginal effects
Variables				
Green Message	0.0013	4.27×10^{-5}	0.0064	3.65×10^{-5}
	(0.0027)	(8.9×10^{-5})	(0.0154)	(8.88×10^{-5})
15% Discount	0.0155***	0.0004***	0.0695***	0.0004***
	(0.0030)	(9.67×10^{-5})	(0.0152)	(0.0001)
40% Discount	0.0602***	0.0018***	0.2343***	0.0018***
	(0.0039)	(0.0001)	(0.0146)	(0.0002)
kWh - September	0.0006***	1.63×10^{-5}***	0.0004***	
	(0.0001)	(3.12×10^{-6})	(8.09×10^{-5})	
kWh - October	1.65×10^{-5}	4.95×10^{-7}	9.25×10^{-6}***	
	(1.43×10^{-5})	(4.36×10^{-7})	(3.24×10^{-6})	
kWh - November	0.0018***	5.89×10^{-5}***	0.0016***	
	(0.0001)	(3.09×10^{-6})	(6.11×10^{-5})	
Active User	0.0351***	0.0017***	0.4933***	
	(0.0032)	(9.31×10^{-5})	(0.0143)	
Fixed-effects				
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Avg. Outcome				
Control	0.0512	0.0020	0.0020	
Fit statistics				
Observations	1,968,858	1,968,858	1,968,858	
Number of Accounts	109,381	109,381	109,381	
R^2	0.00729	0.00826		
Pseudo R^2	0.00193	-0.00264	0.12193	
F-test	33.474	37.967		

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
Estimates in this table refer to a non specified robustness checks excluding customers that joined after the start of the trial, are fleet or super users.

A2.13 Main analysis using individual fixed effects

Table A39: Impact of the experimental stimuli on kWh charged

Dependent Variables:	Consumption (kWh)	Has Charged (binary)		
Model:	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	OLS	OLS	Probit	Marginal effects
Variables				
Green Message	-0.0011	-2.02×10^{-5}	0.0061	0.0006
	(0.0031)	(0.0001)	(0.0250)	(0.0025)
15% Discount	0.0149***	0.0004***	0.0991***	0.0104***
	(0.0033)	(0.0001)	(0.0247)	(0.0028)
40% Discount	0.0592***	0.0018***	0.3553***	0.0446***
	(0.0041)	(0.0001)	(0.0248)	(0.0039)
Fixed-effects				
Date	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Account	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Avg. Outcome				
Control	0.0517	0.0020	0.0533	
Fit statistics				
Observations	1,974,798	1,974,798	76,086	
Number of Accounts	109,711	109,711	4,227	
R^2	0.07822	0.07816		
Pseudo R^2	0.02141	-0.02598	0.10397	
F-test	465.49	465.11		

Clustered (Account) standard-errors in parentheses
*Signif. Codes: ***: 0.01, **: 0.05, *: 0.1*
Estimates in this table refer to the main specification with individual (account) fixed effects.

A3 Deviations from our pre-registered analysis plan

This experiment was pre-registered with the American Economic Association (AEA) under Trial No. 0015061. While we aimed to follow the pre-registered analysis plan as closely as possible, a number of deviations became necessary in the course of implementation and analysis. Below, we detail the key departures from this plan. Where applicable, we have noted corresponding changes to specifications via footnotes in the main text.

Sample: Our pre-registered analysis plan had dictated excluding new customers, fleet users, and super users, but they were automatically randomized following the same process as existing customers (see Section 2.4), which we had not realized *in advance* would occur. For this reason, we have *included* these 330 customers in our analyses. We show that our results are almost unchanged in Table A38 (compare with main results in Table A3).

Outcome measure: Our pre-registered analysis plan defined two primary outcome measures: (1) a binary indicator for whether a consumer charged at any point during the event, and (2) total kWh charged during the event. For clarity and conciseness, our main analysis focuses on outcome (2). However, we have included regressions including the binary indicator as well in Table A3.

Event study: Our event study analysis differed slightly from our pre-analysis plan, where we planned to regress treatment interacted with the time since event. Due to computational limitations, we instead ran the main specification independently for each time period before and after events.

Regression specifications: In our pre-registered regression specification, we outlined three sets of controls: (1) time fixed effects, referring to dummies for time of day (e.g., morning, afternoon, evening, night), day of the week, and month of the transaction; (2) an individual-specific intercept; and (3) a vector of time-varying customer characteristics, such as the duration of the charge. In our final specification, we included event-level fixed effects and four time-invariant covariates: September, October, and November consumption (each set to zero for customers who had not yet joined Electroverse), and a binary indicator for whether the customer had at least one charge between January and November 2024. We did not include time-varying customer characteristics or individual fixed effects. This choice reflected a balance between model interpretability, statistical power, and computational feasibility. While individual fixed effects offer strong control for un-

observed customer-level differences, they reduce estimation power, and in probit models drop observations for customers with no variation in the outcome. Random effects were computationally intensive at the scale of the data. Controlling for pre-treatment charging behavior offered a tractable alternative that captures some of the same individual-level variation in a transparent and interpretable way. Note we show results using individual fixed effects in Table A39; results are very similar to our main results in Table A3.