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Title: Will domestic consumers take up the Renewable Heat Incentive? An analysis of the barriers to heat pump adoption using agent-based modelling

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Abstract: The UK Government introduced the tariff-based domestic Renewable Heat Incentive (RHI) in April 2014 to encourage installation of renewable heat technologies as a key component of its carbon reduction policy. Of these, heat pumps are considered to be the most promising for widespread adoption and as such are the subject of this paper. Pilot studies prior to introduction of the policy identified non-financial barriers to uptake, such as the "hassle factor" involved, and initial figures indeed indicate that uptake is lower than expected. We analyse these non-financial barriers using an agent-based model and conclude that there is a tipping point beyond which adoption is likely to fall very sharply. We suggest that the RHI's complex and stringent compliance requirements for home inspections and heat emitter performance may well have driven adoption past this point and that further intervention may be required if the key aims of the RHI are to be achieved.

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## Highlights (for review)

- \* We examine the uptake of the UK Renewable Heat Incentive (RHI)
- \* We use Agent-based modelling to simulate uptake in a heterogeneous population
- \* Simulation modelling suggests that uptake is sensitive to non-financial barriers
- \* Non-financial barriers were introduced after RHI policy impact assessment
- \* New barriers combined with sensitivity could explain observed lower than expected uptake

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4 **Short Communication**  
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9 **Will domestic consumers take up the Renewable Heat Incentive?**  
10 **An analysis of the barriers to heat pump adoption using agent-**  
11 **based modelling**  
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23  
24 **Abstract**  
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27 The UK Government introduced the tariff-based domestic Renewable Heat Incentive (RHI) in April 2014 to  
28 encourage installation of renewable heat technologies as a key component of its carbon reduction policy. Of  
29 these, heat pumps are considered to be the most promising for widespread adoption and as such are the subject  
30 of this paper. Pilot studies prior to introduction of the policy identified non-financial barriers to uptake, such as  
31 the “*hassle factor*” involved, and initial figures indeed indicate that uptake is lower than expected. We analyse  
32 these non-financial barriers using an agent-based model and conclude that there is a tipping point beyond which  
33 adoption is likely to fall very sharply. We suggest that the RHI’s complex and stringent compliance  
34 requirements for home inspections and heat emitter performance may well have driven adoption past this point  
35 and that further intervention may be required if the key aims of the RHI are to be achieved.  
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45 *Keywords:* renewable heat incentive; feed-in tariff; agent-based model  
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48 **1. Introduction**  
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50 In April 2014 the UK’s Department of Energy and Climate Change (DECC) announced  
51 the inauguration of the domestic Renewable Heat Incentive (DECC 2014a), with the claim  
52 that it is “the world’s first long-term financial support programme for renewable heat,  
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4 offering homeowners payments to offset the cost of installing low carbon systems in their  
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6 properties". Similarly to feed-in tariffs that incentivise photovoltaic generators, the RHI  
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8 scheme offers a tax-free, index linked, per kWh tariff payment with 2014 rates between  
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10 £0.073 and £0.192 depending on technology. These payments are based on metered or  
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12 estimated thermal energy outputs from heat pumps, biomass boilers, and solar thermal panels,  
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14 with a tariff lifetime of seven years. In this paper we are concerned specifically with the  
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16 ability of the RHI to encourage the adoption of heat pumps on a sufficient scale to achieve  
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18 their expected major contribution to the government's ambitious strategy for reduction of  
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20 carbon emissions from the 22% of total energy use that is required for domestic heating.  
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22 Heat pumps are expected to be adopted initially in rural areas off the gas network, and then  
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24 penetrate suburban housing to become the main alternative to a heat network connection  
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26 (Figure 1).  
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32 **<Figure 1 here>**  
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35 Calculation of the tariff payable on a heat pump installation is based on some simple  
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37 principles. A heat pump delivers a thermal energy output  $E_o$  that is a multiple of the input  
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39 energy  $E_i$ , normally electricity. This multiple, known as the Coefficient of Performance  
40  
41 (CoP), is typically in the range 2-4. It is the additional thermal output that can be considered  
42  
43 renewable heat under this scheme because it is in effect extracted from the air in the case of  
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45 an air source heat pump (ASHP) or from the earth by a ground source heat pump (GSHP).  
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47 The renewable heat  $E_r$  potentially attracting a tariff is therefore given by:  
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$$E_r = E_o - E_i \quad (1)$$

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56 The UK policy is also affected by the European Union (EU) Renewable Energy  
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58 Directive (EU 2013), which requires that a heat pump must achieve a CoP of at least 2.5 for  
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60 any of its output to be considered renewable. This is not a trivial requirement in the UK; a  
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4 project to monitor 75 domestic heat pump installations revealed median CoP values of 2.2 for  
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6 GSHPs and 2.0 for ASHPs (Energy Saving Trust 2010). This relatively poor performance  
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8 compared to elsewhere in Europe has influenced the late introduction of more stringent  
9  
10 eligibility requirements for the RHI as described in Section 3 below.  
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### 14 ***1.1. Predicted impact of RHI and initial outcome***

15  
16 Predictions for the uptake of the RHI over the 7 financial years to 2020/21 are given in  
17  
18 DECC (2013b). Figure 2 shows the cumulative numbers of ASHPs and GSHPs expected to  
19  
20 be installed under central estimates. High levels of uncertainty on the cumulative totals for  
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22 2021 are recognised by DECC, corresponding to the error bars shown.  
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26 **<Figure 2 here>**

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29 Data are now available for the uptake during the first 5 months of the policy – to 31  
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31 November 2014 (DECC 2014b, Table 2.1). These show 1435 applications for the ASHP tariff  
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33 and 292 for GSHP<sup>1</sup>. Since the predicted totals for 2014/15 were 15180 (ASHP) and 6600  
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35 (GSHP) these half-year figures are clearly dramatically below the levels anticipated even  
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37 allowing for some temporary impediments in the application process immediately following  
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39 introduction of the policy. This is surprising as, on the face of it, the RHI seems to be very  
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41 attractive as an investment when viewed in purely rational commercial terms. It is framed  
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43 initially to offer repayment of the consumer’s additional investment over that which would be  
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45 needed for a non-renewable heating system, with interest at 7.5% (DECC 2013b). This  
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47 apparent attractiveness combined with the evidence of lower adoption rates than predicted  
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49 suggests that there are other barriers discouraging uptake.  
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58 <sup>1</sup> These figures are the *applications* for RHI tariff – the figures for *acceptance* are somewhat smaller (1052  
59 ASHP and 196 GSHP). This difference can be due to a number of factors, including the time taken by the  
60 application process or ineligibility of a small number of installations. Note that legacy accreditations granted  
61 are not included in this figure as we are concerned with RHI incentivised adoption here.  
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4 In this timely short communication we investigate the sensitivity of the RHI policy to  
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6 these non-financial barriers using an agent-based modelling (ABM) approach, which  
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8 provides a different perspective to that employed in DECC planning. We begin with a review  
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10 of the modelling approach used by DECC's consultants, followed by an outline of the  
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12 consumer decision process as simulated in our ABM. The results from the ABM simulations  
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14 and their significance in relation to sensitivity to non-financial barriers are then presented.  
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16 We discuss the nature of these barriers and conclude by suggesting possible mitigations and  
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18 their policy implications.  
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## 22 23 **2. Methods**

### 24 25 *2.1. Analysis of modelling non-financial barriers during policy formation*

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27 Three studies were the main source of barrier analysis during the formation of this  
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29 policy, as cited in DECC (2013b). These were by Enviro Consulting (2008), Element Energy  
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31 (2008), and Ipsos-Mori (2013). Element Energy focused mainly on consumers' willingness to  
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33 pay a capital premium for lower running costs using a logit model. Logit models allow  
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35 consumer decision probabilities to be estimated from expressed preferences when presented  
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37 with choices (McFadden, 1974). This provided insight into the return on investment required,  
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39 and also costed some non-financial factors such as the disruption from installing the ground  
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41 loop for a GSHP (valued at £1600) and the benefit of recommendations from friends and  
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43 tradesmen (up to £1700). Enviro Consulting considered non-financial barriers, but quantified  
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45 only one at the consumer level – the additional "*hassle factor*" of selecting and installing  
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47 renewable heat technologies. This was valued at 3 days' time at £14 per hour totalling £315.  
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49 The other barriers concerned with consumer confidence and understanding were addressed by  
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51 costed proposals for national marketing and demonstration projects. The Ipsos-Mori study  
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53 provides valuable insights into consumer attitudes but does not attempt to quantify barriers.  
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57 In particular, Ipsos-Mori found from consumer workshops that when asked to choose  
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4 between home heating methods, it was the technology itself that mainly motivated 54% of  
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6 consumer decisions, based on an intuitive assessment of the appropriateness of the  
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8 technology for their home, whereas financial factors such as grants and running costs drove  
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10 37% of decisions. Crucially, the study also found that replacements were most often  
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12 prompted by existing heating systems breaking down (30% of all changes) and when these  
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14 were combined with non-emergency indicators that the system was reaching the point of  
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16 breakdown (“Broken down / near the end of its life”), 61% of those changing their heating  
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18 system cited this as the main reason (Ipsos-Mori, 2013 Fig. 21)  
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23 These pathfinder studies were not informed by knowledge of the eligibility  
24  
25 requirements that would be included in the final policy. These include two criteria with a  
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27 significant non-financial impact:  
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31 • An obligation to obtain an Energy Performance Certificate (EPC) and a Green  
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33 Deal Assessment (GDA) for the property (Ofgem 2014). These two reports  
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35 give the heat load and potential for energy efficiency improvements. If the  
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37 GDA recommends that loft or cavity wall insulation be fitted, this must be  
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39 completed to qualify for RHI payments.  
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43 • A minimum standard for heat emitter performance (DECC 2013d). Heat  
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45 emitters are the devices (such as panel radiators) that heat individual rooms  
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47 from the circulating hot water produced by the heat pump. A good heat emitter  
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49 allows the circulating temperature to be relatively low which then ensures a  
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51 CoP compliant with the EU directive mentioned in the introduction (EU, 2013)  
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53 and a higher level of renewable heat production.  
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57 The first of these requirements increases the “*hassle factor*”, as a minimum through the  
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59 need to procure an inspection of the dwelling. If cavity wall or loft insulation have to be  
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4 installed this will incur disruption and perception of additional cost, although in principle a  
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6 GDA should only recommend self-financing improvements – i.e. the savings should be  
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8 sufficient to repay a loan of the capital cost. The second requirement will only be satisfied for  
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10 many homes by replacement of existing heat emitters, for example by replacing each radiator  
11  
12 with a larger one or one with multiple panels. This will have an aesthetic and convenience  
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14 impact in living spaces in addition to the cost, thereby influencing the “appropriateness”  
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16 judgement of consumers which Ipsos-Mori found to be significant.  
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## 21 ***2.2. Agent-based modelling***

22 Agent-based Modelling (ABM) is well suited for the fine grained modelling of heterogeneous  
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24 households (Bonabeau, 2002; Gilbert, 2008, p. 14), which is necessary to assist  
25  
26 understanding of the observed response to the RHI scheme and to explore the factors  
27  
28 affecting the adoption rate. Detailed justification of this approach will be given in a further,  
29  
30 extended paper. The simulation covers a small geographical area and runs with 48 time steps  
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32 per day, for 3 years, with realistic weather input provided via a file containing a year's  
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34 representative data. Heating demand is calculated from the desired set point temperature of  
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36 the house (20 °C) and the outside temperature from the weather file - each agent maintains a  
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38 physical model of its heating demand in order to capture the heterogeneous incentive to each  
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40 individual household.  
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46 For the simulation runs, we initialised 4000 households, representing an off gas grid  
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48 semi-rural area. About 2.2 million off gas grid dwellings in the UK are identified by DECC  
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50 (2013e). Such areas should, by design, find the RHI scheme most attractive and so should  
51  
52 exhibit a higher adoption rate for RHI-eligible technologies than on-grid properties. Houses  
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54 were initialised with varying building physics characteristics (heat loss rate and thermal  
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56 mass) and either oil fired or liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) fired heating systems (50% of  
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houses oil, 50% LPG). These varying physical characteristics generate differing dynamic heat loads and corresponding projected economic benefits for each household.

The model is designed to take account of three factors influencing heat pump adoption:

1. The economic implications of adoption, based upon a simple payback period
2. The social observation of adoption (representing the impact of local recommendation identified by Element Energy (2008) and the “appropriateness” recognised by Ipsos-Mori (2013)).
3. The “*hassle factor*” of adoption recognised as significant in all studies.

These variables were assigned quantified values as follows:

### 2.3. Economic factor

$$x_{saving} = x_{direct} + x_{RHI} \quad (2)$$

$$x_{payback} = \frac{7 * x_{saving}}{C} \quad (3)$$

$$x_{econ} = 1 - \left( \frac{x_{payback}}{7} \right) \quad (4)$$

where  $x_{direct}$  = estimated annual saving on heating bills from using a heat pump compared to the household’s current technology and  $x_{RHI}$  = estimated annual RHI income for the heat pump, both based on heat load of the individual household.  $C$  is the cost of installation (the simulation generates an installation quotation randomly selected from a uniform distribution between £7000 – 11000 for ASHP and £11000-15000 for GSHP (EST, 2014))

#### 2.4. Social factor

$$x_{social} = \frac{\sum(x_{neighbour})}{count(neighbours)} \quad (5)$$

$x_{neighbour}$  represents the opinion of an each neighbour on heat pump adoption. Where a neighbour has a heat pump,  $x_{neighbour}$  is assigned randomly in the range [-1,1], resulting in 50% positive and 50% negative about installation and an average neutral influence. Where a neighbour has no heat pump,  $x_{neighbour}$  is always zero (neutral). A neighbour of an agent is defined as any other household agent within  $6 \pm 3 \text{ km}^2$  of that agent geographically.

#### 2.5. Hassle factor

$$x_{hassle} = \text{hassle factor of installing various technologies} - \text{expressed as a value in the range [0,1]} \quad (6)$$

In this simulation, values for *hassle* of each technology were fixed as GSHP = 0.9; ASHP = 0.7; heating oil = 0.2; liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) = 0.1.

#### 2.6. RHI adoption decision

The variables were combined as a simple weighted sum for each agent, a technique common to similar ABMs (e.g. Lee et al., 2014; Stephan and Sullivan, 2004):

$$x_{decision} = w_{econ} \cdot x_{econ} + w_{social} \cdot x_{social} - w_{hassle} \cdot x_{hassle} \quad (7)$$

where  $w$  variables represent the weight assigned by householders to the various factors. These parameters were held constant over the agent population in the current study, but varied between runs of the simulation as described below.

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<sup>2</sup> This value may seem unusual. Each agent has its own neighbourhood radius selected from a normal distribution  $R \sim N(5,2.5)$  where the mean and SD are in geographical units for the map projection used in the geography for the simulation – where the unit of measurement is 0.017453292519943295 degrees at a latitude of ~52 degrees North

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4 The decision to adopt was taken as shown in Figure 3. A fault in their existing system is  
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6 the dominant trigger for consumers to consider replacement. Surveys by Which? (2014)  
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8 indicate that about 50% of gas and oil boilers need a repair in the first 6 years of their life. To  
9  
10 allow for other events, such as a house move or high annual servicing cost, agents consider  
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12 replacement on average every 5 years. The assignment of fault / failure is stochastic, so some  
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14 agents will have their decision process triggered more often, whilst others will experience  
15  
16 less frequent failure.  
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21 **<Figure 3 here>**  
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24 For this set of experiments, the decision threshold for all agents was set to 0.5. This value was  
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26 chosen such that the simulation gave adoption rates across all heat pumps similar to DECC's  
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28 prediction when  $w_{hassle}$  and  $w_{social}$  were set to zero.  
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### 30 31 **3. Results** 32

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34 Experiments were conducted altering the balance of the weights given by household  
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36 agents to the factors. Firstly the sensitivity to the economic factor was explored using the runs  
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38 summarised in Table 1. Each parameter setting was run 10 times with different random seeds  
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40 due to the stochastic nature of the simulation. Results for each run were plotted, along with  
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42 the ensemble average – an example is given in Figure 4  
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46 **<Table 1 here>**  
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49 **<Figs 4A and 4B here>**  
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52 Combining results over ensembles of runs, we plot the mean number of adoptions at 3  
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54 years (i.e. the endpoint of the bold blue line in Figure across all 13 ensembles) varying as a  
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56 function of  $w_{hassle}$  (Figure 5). The data shown are for the ensembles described in Table 1 with  
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58 a constant  $w_{social} = 0.5$ , however the result is robust across values of  $w_{social}$ .  
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4 <Figs 5A, B and C here>  
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#### 7 4. Discussion

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9 Firstly it is noticeable (Figure 4) that the model shows adoption reaching a plateau. In  
10 the runs with high rates of adoption (e.g. ensembles 1-6 from Table 1), this plateau is reached  
11 early in the simulation (within the first 3 years). With slower rates, the plateau is not reached  
12 until later. For high levels of  $w_{econ}$  coupled with low levels of  $w_{hassle}$ , adoption rates are high  
13 in general and GSHP adoption in particular is high. This is surprising as the high GSHP  
14 adoption in our simulation is due to the compelling nature of the purely economic case if no  
15 additional *hassle factor* is present; however lower rates were predicted in the economic  
16 analysis conducted by DECC. As  $w_{hassle}$  increases, the overall adoption remains high until  
17  $w_{hassle}$  rises above 0.15 at which point the adoption drops off dramatically.  
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30 It should be noted that the economic factors in this model do already reflect the degree  
31 of *hassle* identified in the DECC impact assessment and supporting documents (DECC,  
32 2013b; Enviro Consulting, 2008; Element Energy, 2008; Ipsos-Mori, 2013). However, the  
33 simulation results indicate that relatively low levels of additional hassle can lead to a tipping  
34 point at which take-up drops off dramatically (Figure 5). It therefore appears that adoption  
35 rates are highly susceptible to factors such as the heterogeneity of the adopting population  
36 and the process of decision making (including binary decision making such as that reflected  
37 in Figure 2), that are not purely economic and which are difficult to model other than with an  
38 ABM approach.  
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#### 51 5. Conclusion and Policy Implications

52 It is noticeable that the current uptake of RHI for heat pumps is well below the run rate  
53 for new installations that prevailed prior to introduction of the policy, which was estimated  
54 by Delta (2012) to be in the region of about 4,000 GSHPs and 12,000 ASHPs per annum. The  
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4 DECC first year predictions of about 7,000 and 15,000 respectively therefore represent a  
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6 modest acceleration that might reasonably be expected as a result of the incentive.  
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10 The modelling results presented here indicate that adoption is sensitive to non  
11 economic factors and there is a level of “*hassle factor*” above which uptake of heat pump  
12 technology falls away rapidly despite the existence of a robust economic incentive. Agent-  
13 based modelling has been shown to be useful in investigating these effects and may be of use  
14 in exploring the need for further policy interventions in this area, for example to facilitate  
15 energy service contracts that reduce the risk to the consumer from an unfamiliar technology,  
16 or to amend building regulations so that uptake is promoted.  
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26 Process (Green Deal assessment) and performance (heat emitter size) requirements  
27 have been added to the RHI but not included in its impact assessment. Although apparently  
28 modest when measured in cost and time relative to the installation and operating costs of any  
29 heating system, these seem to have added to the *hassle factor* sufficiently to take the policy  
30 into the unstable region identified in the modelling where uptake falls away sharply. The  
31 implication of this is that policy objectives are not being met.  
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41 This outcome raises the question of whether or how policy change might mitigate these  
42 process disincentives. Homes that are properly insulated and heat emitters that are adequate  
43 for good heat pump CoPs are clearly essential requirements for delivery of the carbon  
44 reduction goals of the policy. However, the complex process and rules documented in the  
45 “Essential Guide to Applicants” (Ofgem 2014) may well deter potential adopters of heat  
46 pumps at a time when their existing heating system has failed. Predictability and speed in  
47 installation are highly desirable given the high proportion of new heating installations that are  
48 distress purchases. It is likely that consumers need a “one stop shop” – a supplier that can  
49 provide a package deal that will satisfy all the RHI requirements and quickly install the  
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4 system for a completely predictable cost and timescale. To reduce the effect of barriers on  
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6 consumers in order that policy goals are achieved, simplification of the installation and  
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8 application process may be needed.  
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11 It may be that market forces will in time stimulate packaged and simplified offers to  
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13 consumers that will allow RHI uptake to recover to the levels predicted by DECC, however it  
14  
15 seems likely that further policy change in order to address some of the issues identified by  
16  
17 this paper will be needed.  
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25  
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**Figure captions:**

*Figure 1 Strategy for decarbonisation of domestic heating to 2050. Source: DECC (2013a)*

*Figure 2 Predicted cumulative installs of ASHP and GSHP attracting RHI (DECC 2013b)*

*Figure 3 Household agents' decision algorithm, triggered by heating failure perception, which is evaluated daily.*

*Figure 4A: Cumulative adoption of ASHP in simulation, plotted for zero hassle factor (ensemble 1)*

*Figure 4B: Cumulative adoption of GSHP in simulation, plotted for zero hassle factor (ensemble 1)*

*Figure 5A: Total heat pump adoption at 3 years into simulation against  $w_{hassle}$*

*Figure 5B: ASHP adoption at 3 years into simulation against  $w_{hassle}$*

*Figure 5C: GSHP adoption at 3 years into simulation against  $w_{hassle}$*

**Table captions:**

*Table 1 Weighting factors in agent-based model testing sensitivity to increased hassle*

**Table 1 Weighting factors in agent-based model testing sensitivity to increased hassle**

<b>Ensemble number</b>	<b><math>W_{econ}</math></b>	<b><math>W_{hassle}</math></b>	<b><math>W_{social}</math></b>
1	1	0	0.5
2	1	0.01	0.5
3	1	0.025	0.5
4	1	0.05	0.5
5	1	0.075	0.5
6	1	0.1	0.5
7	1	0.125	0.5
8	1	0.15	0.5
9	1	0.175	0.5
10	1	0.2	0.5
11	1	0.3	0.5
12	1	0.5	0.5
13	1	1	0.5

**Fig\_1 UK strategic framework for low carbon heat in buildings DECC**

Time →

Dense Urban  
22%

We should facilitate heat networks in denser urban areas where there is limited space for heat pumps. Storage on the networks will help with grid balancing that could be a major barrier to building-level renewable heat dependent on electricity

Suburban  
59%

In all locations and building types, continue to drive down demand for heat through increasing thermal efficiency and influencing consumer behaviour.

Suburban areas are potentially last on the list, with high efficiency condensing boilers remaining a useful transitional technology into the 2030s

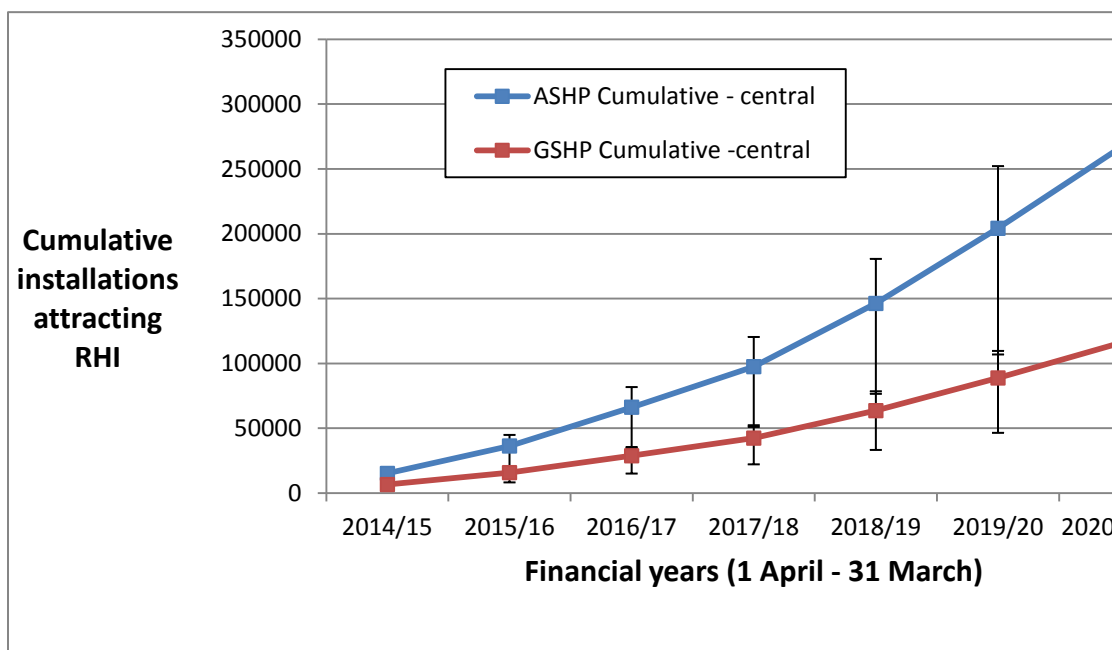
Gas used for heating, in more efficient systems such as gas absorption heat pumps ...

...and hybrid systems that comprise boilers and electric heat pumps

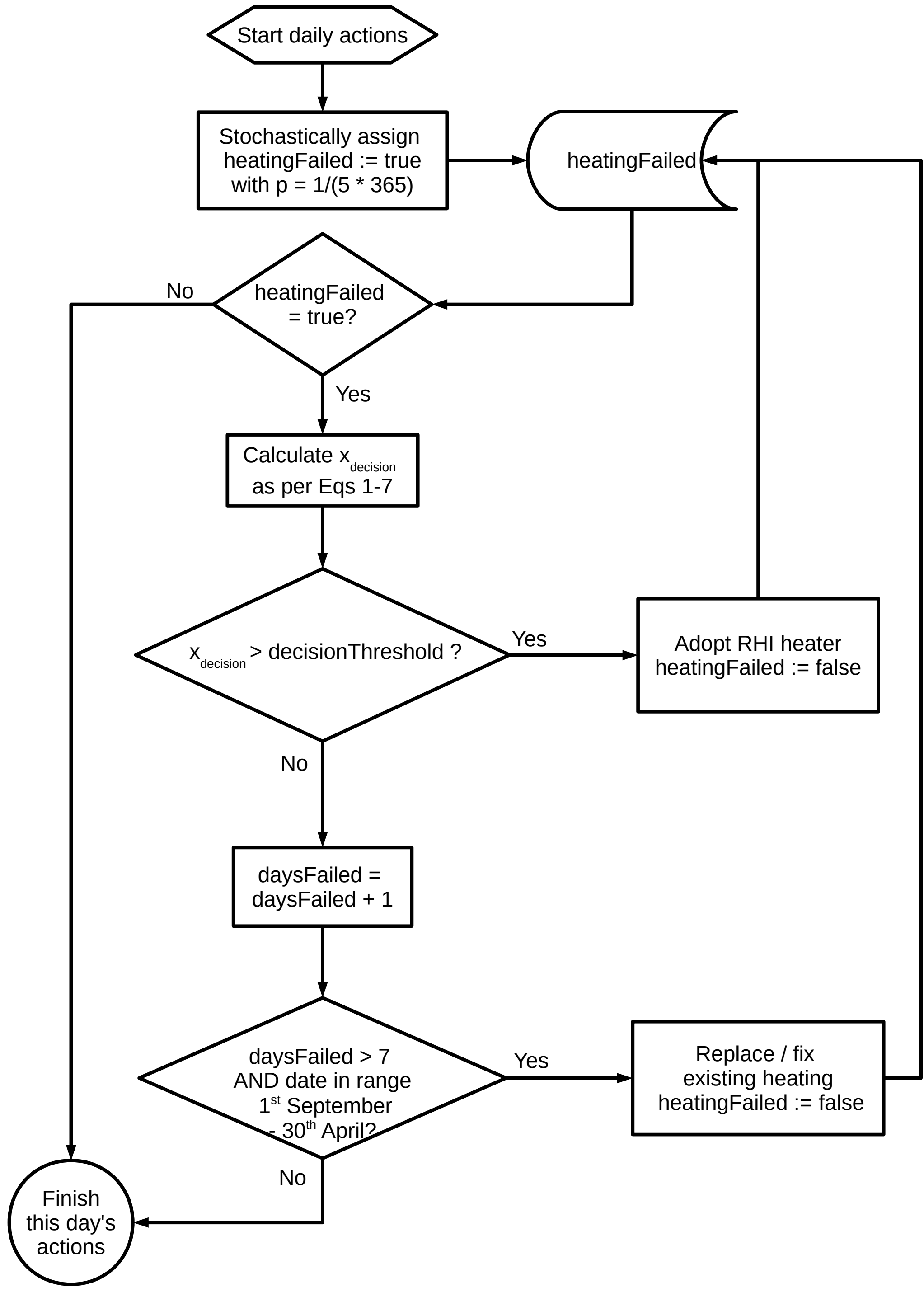
Rural  
19%

High electric heat pump penetration faces fewer barriers in homes that are less clustered, starting with buildings off the gas grid which are more likely to have space and be using expensive, high carbon forms of fuel such as heating oil

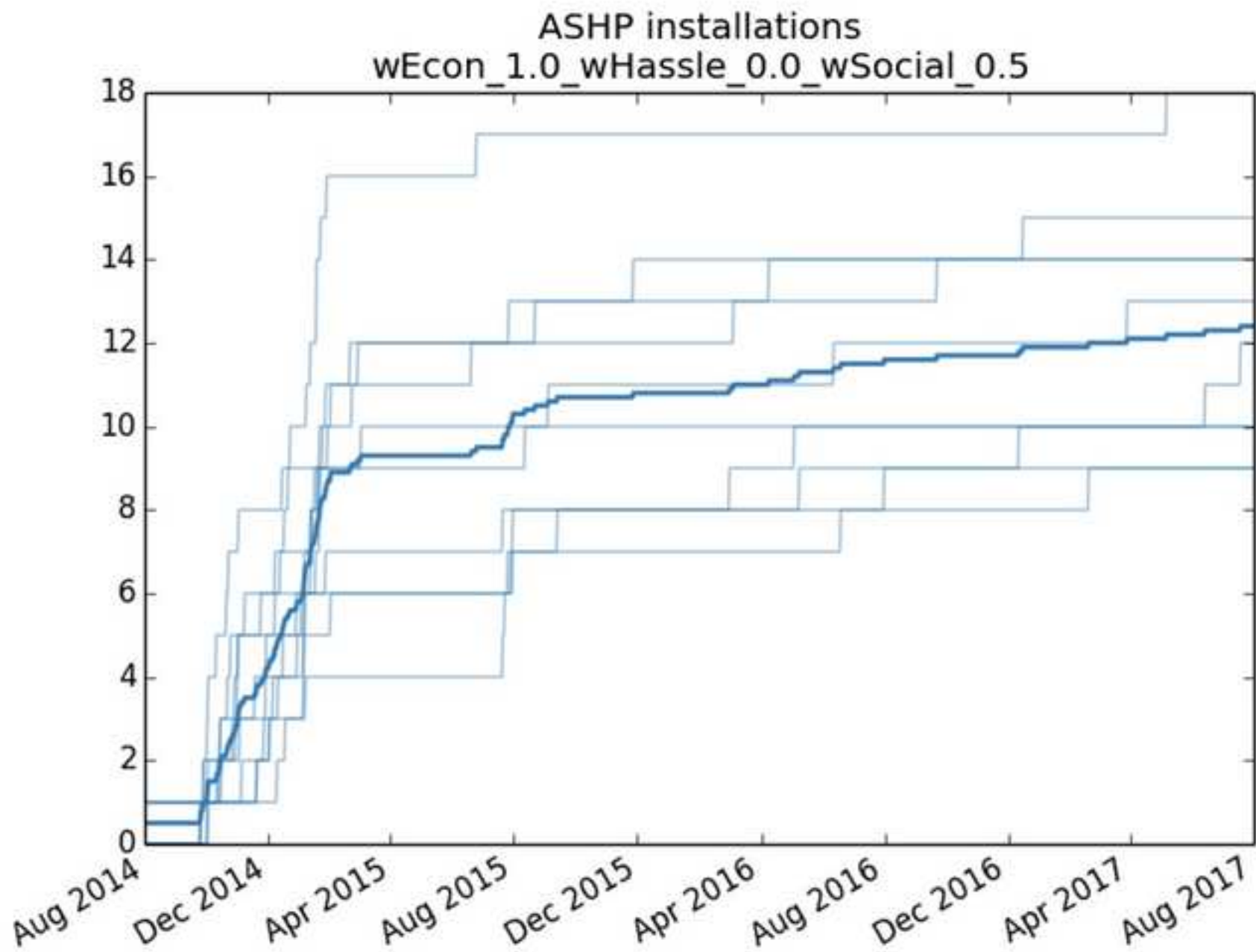
Fig\_2\_HP\_expected\_deployment



Fig\_3\_Household\_agents\_decision\_algorithm



Fig\_4A\_ASHP\_adoption\_over\_single\_ensemble



Fig\_4B\_GSHP\_adoption\_over\_single\_ensemble

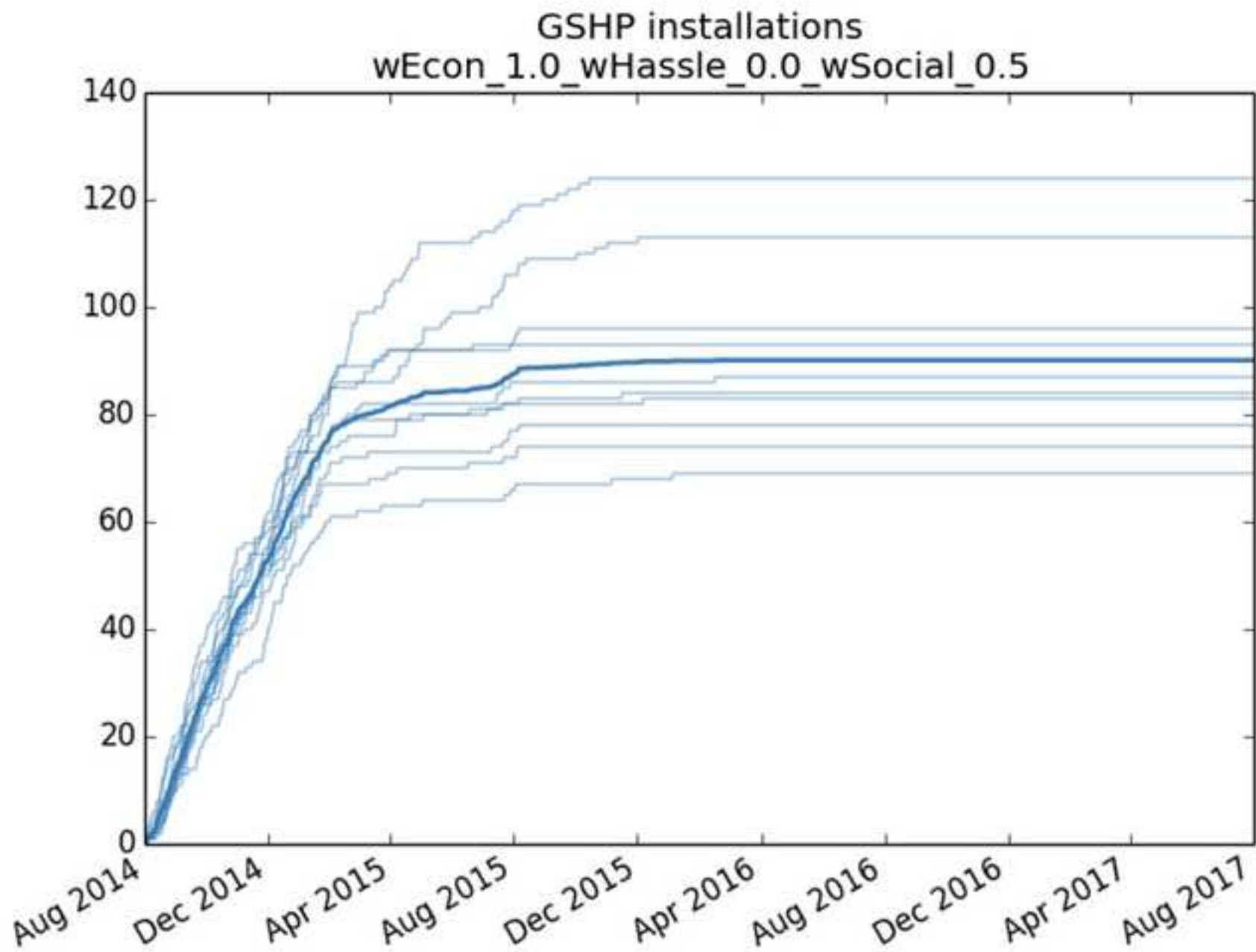


Fig 5A\_Total\_heat\_pump\_adoptions\_wsocial\_set\_to\_0.5

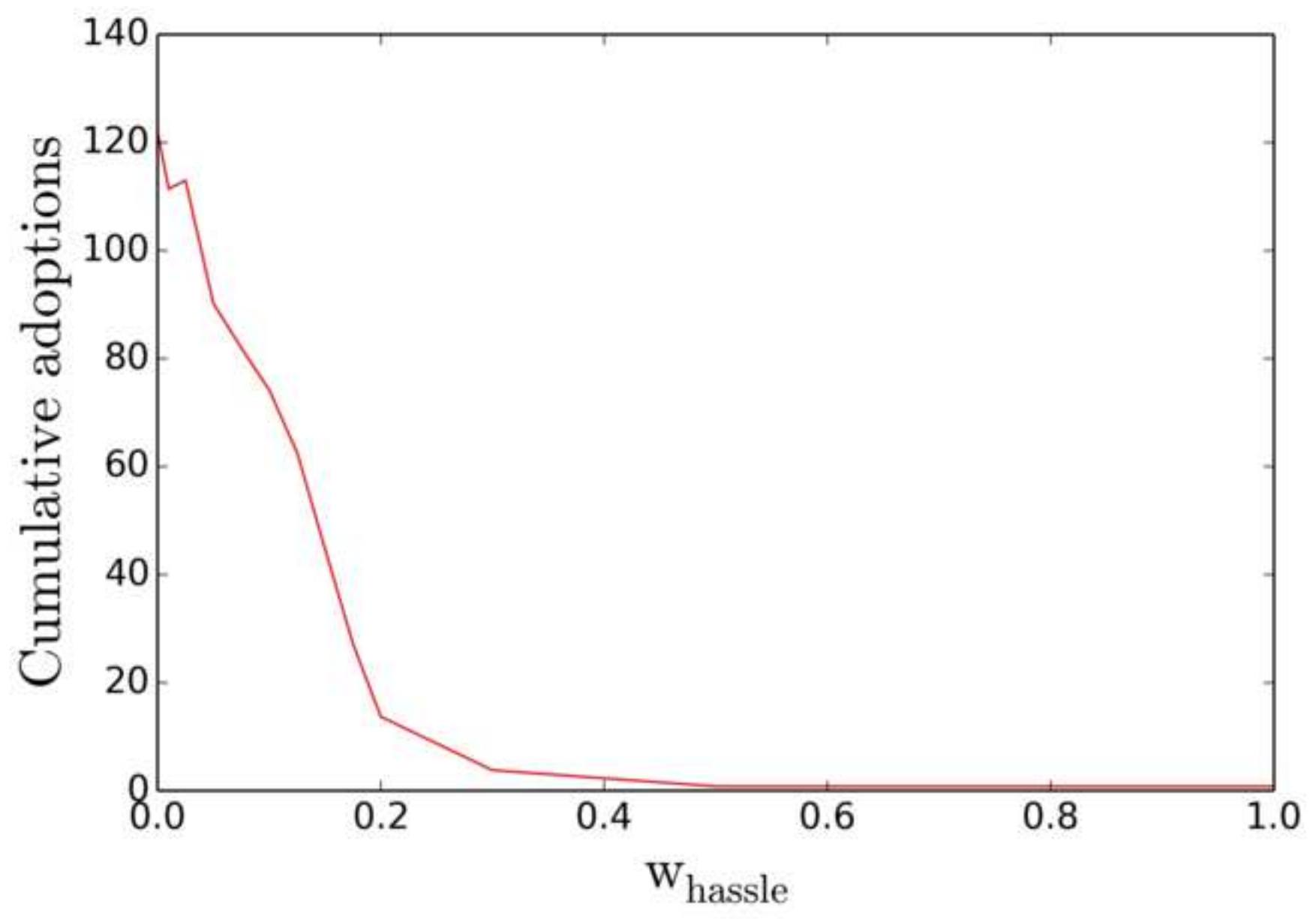




Fig 5B\_ASHP\_adoptions\_wsocal\_set\_to\_0.5

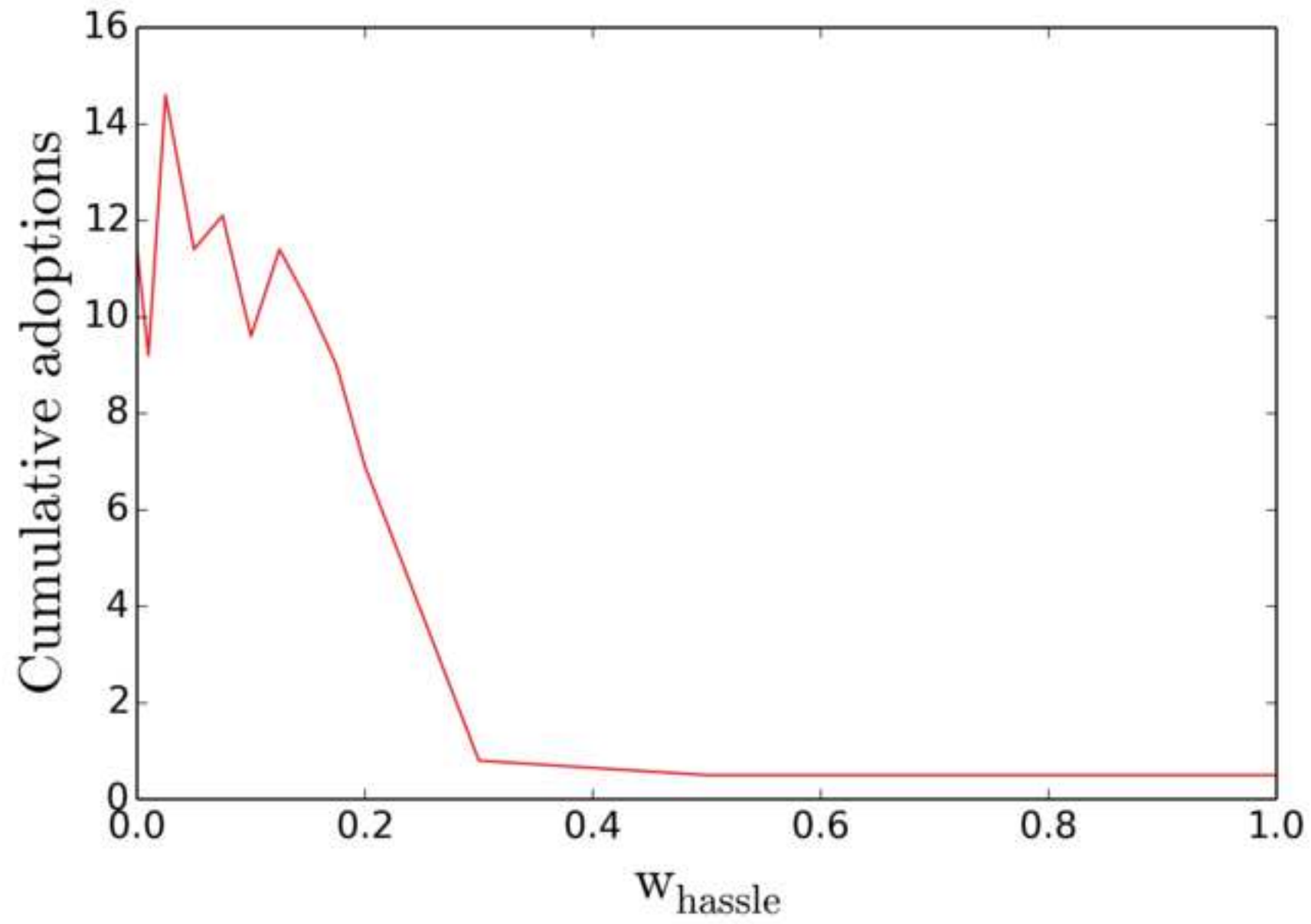


Fig 5C\_GSHP\_adoptions\_wsocal\_set\_to\_0.5

