The Adoption and Diffusion of Electronic Wallets

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Abstract—Despite the strong and consistent increase in the use of electronic payment methods worldwide, the diffusion of electronic wallets is still far from widespread. Analysis of the failure of electronic wallet uptake has either focused on technical issues or chosen to analyse a specific scheme. This article proposes a joint approach to analysing key factors affecting the adoption of e-wallets by using the 'Technology Acceptance Model' [1] which we have expanded to take into account the cost of using e-wallets. We use this model to analyse Monéo, the only French electronic wallet still in operation.

Keywords—Electronic wallet, adoption, ICT, TAM, Monéo, electronic payment.

I. INTRODUCTION

A FTER the initial craze for electronic wallets at the beginning of the 90s, and their subsequent failure, the 2000s have seen the arrival of a second generation of products such as Proton in Belgium and Monéo in France. However, the development of this second generation has not been smooth either. This highlights the fact that both the general public and retailers are reluctant to adopt e-wallets in two-sided markets where the cards are in direct competition with cash which they are supposed to be replacing.

This article explains the elements affecting the adoption of this electronic payment method using the 'Technology Acceptance Model" [1] which offers a conceptual framework for analysing the adoption of new technology from its perceived usefulness and ease of use. We propose extending this model to incorporate the cost of using e-wallets using the 'perceived advantage' variable that is the result of the relation between the perceived usefulness and the cost. Then we will try to explain the adoption of different e-wallets and of Monéo in particular by applying this new variable.

II. THE FACTORS FOR ADOPTING E-WALLETS

A. E-Wallets and Network Externalities

An Electronic Wallet is an e-moneyⁱ payment instrument. It is a smart card with a microprocessor whose memory is credited with purchasing power stored in a float account that has previously been deposited in a specialized company (Bank or e-money issuing company). This float account is debited at each purchase with no involvement from the issuer. The ewallet offers many advantages: transactions are secure, it is adapted to make micro payments, it is easy to use, universal

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(there no link with the bank account during the payment process), and it has a wide range of uses. It can be used for point of sale payments and for other applications (social security card, loyalty card, an e-key for building access...), as well as for Internet payments. The e-wallet is similar to the '*Télécarte*' smart card issued by *France Télécom*. Both systems use pre-payment, the difference being that the e-wallet is credited with a purchasing power shown in euros, whilst the *Télécarte* converts the top-up into telephone units. This example and the smart card's wide range of potential uses show that by combining services offered (travel pass plus e-wallet, phone-card plus e-wallet...) the opportunities for penetrating the market increase.

In France, the Monéo e-wallet was launched in 1999. It is either included as a chip in a bank card or comes as a standalone card. In fact, even though it is present in most bank cards, Monéo is seldom activated by the cardholders. According to official figuresⁱⁱ from BMS (Billettique Monétique Services, the Monéo promoter), only 1 million Monéo e-wallets had been activated by the end of 2005 even though more than 51.2 million bank cards were in circulation. Moreover, the system was generating around 78 million payments annually across a network of 100,000 affiliated retailers - around the same number of transactions as carried out using bank cards in a single day (bank cards are used for 6.27 billion transactions totalling 325.4 billion eurosⁱⁱⁱ). These figures highlight the difficulty the e-wallet is having taking off despite extensive trials and advertising campaigns. Around 300 million euros have been invested directly and indirectly to launch the scheme.

By analysing the many failures and rare successes of ewallets we can reach several conclusions. Firstly, setting up a new payment solution is a long process in which network externalities play a vital role [2]. These effects are only felt indirectly and over time as merchants decide to offer this payment solution: the more people use e-wallets, the greater the number of merchants inclined to offer this payment solution and, consequently, the more useful e-wallets will become.

Consequently, how extensively a payment method is accepted depends closely on the number of users. Eventually, it is the number of possible connections between users of a payment method that makes it useful [3].

Secondly, when network externalities occur, the consumer is not necessarily aware of the network effects they are experiencing. One result may be locked-in inefficient technology. Consumers do not choose a product uniquely on the basis of the intrinsic qualities of specific technology; they are also influenced by the number of people who have chosen one or another of the rival solutions in the past. That is what makes one technology more attractive and increases its chances to dominate in the future [4]. When launching of a method of payment it should be considered as a 'network good' because network effects are responsible for increasing adoption uptake. In much the same way Internet payment systems are affected by the same issues as 'network goods', which explains why the market is dominated by SSL in spite of its precarious security [5]. Its ease of use and the fact that it is already integrated into the two main Web browsers including 'Internet Explorer', has given it an installed base of users which other systems such as SET or 3D secure^{iv} can not rival, despite the fact that they provide better security. Shapiro and Varian [6] suggest subsidizing the development phase of the most efficient technology right from the start, so as to generate a large installed base and subsequently increasing prices. Furthermore, research carried out by Chakravarti & Xie [7] on the impact of a standards war on the adoption of a new technology product by consumers shows the necessity of communicating the relative advantages of e-wallets over the existing standard, in other words cash.

Apart from network externalities, the weak penetration of ewallets into the European market can be explained by the fact that their promoters are confronted by the problem of a twosided market made up of merchants and consumers [8]. However, the development of this market depends mainly on consumers adopting this technology, as the merchant will equip himself if there is a sufficient potential user base.

B. Explanatory Models for Technology Acceptance

Ever since the earliest diffusion of Information and Communication Technology, literature on information systems has offered numerous models to explain how the technology is adopted within organizations. The standard reference model is the 'Technology Acceptance Model' (TAM) by Davis [1].

This model is an adaptation of the theory of reasoned action proposed by Ajzen and Fishbein [9] to explain and predict the behaviour of people in a specific situation. (Figure 1 depicts a simplified version of the model). The TAM postulates that two particular beliefs - perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use - are of primary relevance to ICT acceptance behaviour.



Fig. 1 Technology Acceptance Model (adapted from Davis et al. 1989)

Perceived usefulness is defined as "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her performance".

Perceived ease of use is defined as "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be effortless".

Numerous works have validated this model in different contexts by using quantitative research methodology: email, Computer aided software engineering, e-library [10]. They have helped prove a statistical relation between the variables thought to be determining and measures representing user behaviour. A fundamental limitation of this model is that it explains statistically (a snapshot at a given moment) a dynamic phenomenon (which is developing over time). The in-depth understanding of an eventual relation between factors and behaviour is still beyond the reach of this type of model.

Moreover, this initial TAM model assumes that the decision to purchase is made by the company or organisation [11]. The user is thus uniquely confronted by the choice of whether or not to use this technology. Yet, when one is considering adopting an e-wallet, the perceived usefulness (expectation of result) must also take into consideration the cost of this payment instrument, which will determine its relative perceived advantage. We therefore end up with an expanded TAM that can be used to understand consumer acceptance of a technology and not only by users within an organisation.



Fig. 2 Expanded TAM



Within the enlarged TAM, two dimensions should be taken into consideration when assessing the perceived relative advantage of e-wallets: the perceived usefulness and the cost. The consumer may be prepared to pay a certain amount (either a set price and/or per transaction) to use this method of electronic payment if the perceived usefulness is superior to that of cash for which there is no direct cost.



Fig. 3 Model for assessing e-wallets

If these two dimensions for assessing methods of payment for consumers are presented graphically, we end up with four situations.

Squares B and D represent situations in which the cost of use is high. If the perceived usefulness is low, failure is highly probable. On the other hand, if the perceived usefulness is high, the situation is indeterminate. In this case it is recommended to reduce the costs whilst increasing (or at least conserving) the level of usefulness for the consumers.

Squares A and C represent situations in which the cost of use is low. If the perceived usefulness is also low, the situation will be undermined as the consumers will choose between this method of payment and cash. On the other hand, if the perceived usefulness is high, this method of payment is likely to be chosen over cash.

Currently in Europe, most e-wallets stand a high risk of being rejected (Fig. 3 square D). Indeed, the level of usefulness perceived by the consumer is often very low because these e-wallets only allow them to carry out payment operations and consumers do not want to bear the cost of use as there exists a substitute which is almost perfect and free: cash.

E-wallet promoters should implement a policy aimed at increasing the usefulness perceived by the consumer and/or reducing the costs they incur.

Several studies show that consumers see e-wallets as a substitute for notes and coins [12]. The usefulness of an ewallet depends therefore in its faculty to fulfil the traditional functions of cash more efficiently and possibly to fulfil others. For example, it has been clearly identified that there is an advantage for consumers to own an e-wallet in situations where a micro payment has to be made and where it may be difficult to find the exact amount of money needed for the payment. One of the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the relative failure of Mondex's introduction trial in New York [13] highlighted the necessity of offering e-wallets where they would be most useful, for example for automatic payments (vending machines, launderettes...).

The e-wallet can also be useful to the consumer if it makes the payment process in itself simpler or faster [14]. This is one of the justifications for adding on complementary services to e-wallets. When taking public transport, the user will usually have to queue to buy a ticket, pay, go through a ticket control system, and finally hold on to the ticket for inspection. With the e-wallet, all these steps can be covered in one single action. The user presents his e-wallet at the control point activating the payment and registering it (this provides proof of being in possession of a valid ticket and the payment registering also updates the e-wallet's accounting system). The process is therefore both simplified and speeded up by using an e-wallet.

Other comparative advantages of e-wallets, whether real or assumed, often state how they can accomplish traditional functions of cash:

- the e-wallet can facilitate conserving and transporting value by avoiding carrying around heavy or bulky notes and coins,
- it facilitates payments by cutting out the need to count and recognize coins, thus speeding up payment,
- it is supposed to increase the security of value, by limiting the risks in the case of loss or theft, and guarantees anonymity of payments.

These functions are fulfilled to a greater or lesser degree by different e-wallets. As for security, the Monéo system offers little more guarantees than a bank note. In order to reduce investment costs, its designers fitted it with a chip which is much less secure (and much less expensive) than those used on a bank card. In the event of a fraudulent reloading (which according to the UFC – Federal Union of Consumers in France – is not difficult at all^v), the customer risks losing up to 100 euros which corresponds to the maximum amount that can be loaded on the card plus a deductible which could be as high as 275 euros to which you must also add another deductible of 275 euros if the reloading by bank card, making a total of 650 euros. Moreover, Monéo is not an anonymous payment instrument as the issuer can track the user's consumer habits.

The e-wallet will be considered useful when available in situations where the consumer recognizes its advantage over cash; if it fulfils certain functions better than cash, or if it is combined with complementary services which the consumer considers to be useful in themselves.

However, although it is necessary for the consumers to recognize the usefulness of an e-wallet, this is not enough to guarantee its success, particularly if there are costs linked to its use (Fig. 3, square C).

The e-wallet's cost burden is a crucial factor. As long as the advantages that the e-wallet offers to one of the parties do not compensate for the share of the cost incurred, the e-wallet has little chance of being widely adopted. The questioning of ewallet users [12] revealed that when faced with a free alternative, consumers prefer to use that solution if it is easily accessible. Currently, Monéo is still an expensive option for both parties in the transaction. Retailers must carry the cost of installing a payment terminal as well as the transaction costs when they use the system. The banks offer them two rates: a fixed monthly charge of around 5 euros or a commission which may vary between 0.3% and 0.9% on each transaction. The card carriers pay an annual charge of between 7 and 12 euros even though this service is free in most other European countries (Spain, Holland, Austria, Norway, Switzerland). Moreover, the business strategy chosen by some e-wallet issuers which means that retailers and card users have to carry the cost of the system is difficult to justify from an economic point of view as, contrary to cash which brings them no benefits, the money in the e-wallets' float account (prepayment system) can be invested and generate interest revenue. The revue generated would allow them, much as providers of free Internet services such as Google, to consider an alternative business strategy.

Finally, the use of a payment method is based on confidence and its universality, two qualities which themselves depend on our social experience. If we continue to use coins and notes extensively to pay for purchases, it is because in our experience they are universally accepted. In order for a consumer to consider the e-wallet as a credible payment method, it must guarantee a certain universality of use. But, as we have already seen, when its usefulness becomes low, if the cost for using an e-wallet is too high, the consumer will prefer to use cash. Consequently, for its most common use, point of sale payments, the consumer often perceives the e-wallet's utility as limited. He is therefore unwilling to pay to use it. The consumer will not consider ewallets as universal, as in most cases its cost makes it useless. Moreover, as e-wallets are generally billed by fixed charge payments rather than by transaction, giving the consumer the impression that he is paying for all the payments he makes, even though the e-wallet is only useful for a tiny fraction of all these payments. However, the adoption of a discriminating pricing system that would bill only for certain uses is not a workable solution today [15]. It would call for technical measures and a structure of costs close to those of credit cards.

IV. CONCLUSION

The key factors of success of this payment method are security, anonymity of transactions, the cost of transactions, as well as the plurality of functions (payment, travel card, e-key for building access, etc.). These key factors, already known to banks from their experience with bank cards, have often been neglected and explain why many e-wallets have encountered problems developing. It is therefore necessary to wait several years before seeing e-wallets really emerge as a credible alternative to cash payments for point of sale purchases, and still more time before they can compete with micro payment solutions on the Internet. That is why Monéo has redefined its strategy since 2004 concentrating on specific and captive markets such as municipal services or student services; more specifically for payment in pay and display machines and university restaurants respectively. In the latter, students had little choice in adopting the Monéo as some university restaurants didn't accept other payment methods. Student protests were held to denounce these practices and ended with 8 Monéo reloading terminals being destroyed in Tours^{vi}. One can legitimately wonder if Monéo's change in strategy doesn't reflect an acknowledgement of powerlessness in its ability to become a universal method of payment.

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