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1 **Increasing vegetables purchase with a descriptive-norm message: A cluster**
2 **randomized controlled intervention in two university canteens**

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Abstract

Exposure to social norms is a popular way to foster healthy food behavior. Testing the robustness of this effect we report a field study assessing the impact of a vegetable-related descriptive norm message on vegetables purchase. The first contribution was to rely on a cluster randomized crossover design: Two canteens were randomly selected to display either a vegetable-related or a neutral-behavior norm message. After a first period of data collection, the displays were reversed for a second period: The number of vegetable portions on the main plate were recorded before, during and after the message display ($N = 12.994$). The second contribution was to test the impact of a message describing vegetables as the normative choice beyond the mere selection of vegetables, on the quantity of vegetables purchased in lunches containing some. Results indicated that the vegetable-related norm message led to a sustained probability of choosing vegetables, contrary to a decrease observed in the control condition. Moreover, students who ordered vegetables ordered a higher quantity when exposed to a vegetable-related message than before whereas quantity declined in the control condition. By treating both canteens as experimental and control and by analyzing both the presence and the amount of vegetables, these results extend and strengthen those previously observed, bringing support for the effectiveness of a descriptive norm message in eliciting healthier food behavior.

Keywords: Social norms; Descriptive norms; Field study; Cluster randomized crossover design; Vegetables purchase; Healthy eating

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Increasing vegetables purchase with a descriptive-norm message: A cluster randomized controlled intervention in two university canteens

Starting university is generally associated with an increased experience of autonomy and independence. Students organize their academic work (Stephens et al., 2018), their living arrangements and to some extent their financial budget. This autonomy also impacts students' dietary behavior (Papadaki et al., 2007). For example, the lack of experience in managing meals leads students living away from home to develop more unfavorable eating habits than those still living with their parents (Papadaki et al., 2007). Given the detrimental outcomes of poor eating habits on academic performance and health (Florence et al., 2008), helping students achieve a healthier diet is important. Recent studies (Thomas et al., 2017; Collins et al., 2018; Mollen et al., 2013) suggest that displaying prevention messages in student canteens can be an economic and efficient way to sensitize students to healthier food behaviors. The present paper tests the robustness of the positive impact of a social-norm intervention on vegetable purchase in a field study in university canteens relying on a design with a large sample and a control group. We also aim to extend the existing literature by investigating whether a norm-based message can induce both a greater selection of vegetables and a larger amount of vegetables purchased.

1. Changing Behaviors with Social Norms

Social norms define the valued or common behaviors for a given social group (Göckeritz et al., 2010). According to the Focus Theory of Normative Conduct, social norms drive individuals' choices and actions (Cialdini et al., 1991). The social norms that are prominent in an environment shape people's behavior (Schultz et al., 2007). Indeed, literature on health and behavior indicates that individuals use norms as a guide to behave efficiently (general behaviors: Cialdini & Glodstein, 2004; food intake: Higgs and Thomas, 2016), and that young people's eating habits are linked to the perceived peer norms (Stok et al., 2016; Lally et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2019; Rice & Klein, 2019).

To better understand how people's behaviors are influenced by norms, two different aspects of normative conduct have been distinguished (Cialdini et al., 1990). First, *injunctive*

29 norms refer to what should be done, the behavior that is socially approved or disapproved.
30 Second, *descriptive* norms refer to what is done by most people. The first type of norms
31 prescribes behavior, while the second describes behavior.

32 Many public-health campaigns use injunctive norms (e.g. “For your health, no more
33 than 2 alcohol drinks a day, and not every day”). However, injunctive norm messages can
34 actually promote counter-normative behaviors under specific circumstances (Rivis &
35 Sheeran, 2003; Lally et al., 2011). For example, teenagers exposed to an injunctive norm
36 message prescribing fruit consumption (“a majority of high school students think other high
37 school students should eat sufficient fruit”) reported lower fruit intake intentions than a group
38 exposed to no normative information (Stok et al., 2014). Reactance against injunctive
39 messages (Brehm, 1966) is especially likely among young people (Hong et al., 1994), for
40 whom healthy behaviors are not valued by their social group (Stead et al., 2011). Hence,
41 health behaviors interventions based on injunctive message could produce a “boomerang
42 effect”, inadvertently leading students to act even less healthy.

43 Descriptive norms, which describe how people actually behave in a given situation
44 and a given social group (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004), have been found to be especially
45 effective to promote healthy behaviors concerning tobacco (Sheikh, 2017), alcohol
46 (Neighbors et al., 2004), and daily exercises (Burger & Shelton, 2011). Interestingly,
47 describing how the majority acts influences behavior even in situations where individuals lack
48 the cognitive resources needed for effortful and conscious information processing (Jacobson
49 et al., 2011). Indeed, descriptive norms operate as a decision heuristic, indicating what is
50 appropriate in the situation and driving behavior even if individuals are not influenced at a
51 higher cognitive level. Hence, Stok et al. (2014) observed that a descriptive message in favor
52 of fruit intake (“a majority of high school students try to eat sufficient fruit themselves”)
53 increased self-reported fruit intake compared to an injunctive norm message, although it did
54 not significantly influence the consumption intention declared by students. These findings are
55 congruent with the idea that a descriptive message can impact behavior without affecting its
56 corresponding cognition (Stok et al., 2014). The positive influence of descriptive norms on

57 food-related behaviors has been consistently observed in laboratory studies (Burger et al.,
58 2010; Stok et al., 2014; Lapinski et al., 2017).

59 **2. Increasing Vegetable selection via Descriptive-Norm Messages in Field** 60 **Studies**

61 Drawing on these laboratory findings, real-world interventions have been designed to
62 assess the effect of descriptive-norm messages on eating behaviors. Mollen et al. (2013) were
63 the first to compare the effect of a norm-based message on students' food choices (burger or
64 salad) in a campus food-court. Students were exposed either to a healthy injunctive norm
65 ("Have a tossed salad for lunch!"), a healthy descriptive norm ("Every day more than 150 [name
66 of university] students have tossed salad for lunch here"), an unhealthy descriptive norm
67 ("Every day more than 150 [name of university] students have a burger for lunch here") or no
68 message (control condition). Food choices were recorded through a questionnaire
69 administered after lunch. Among students who correctly reported seeing the message, those
70 exposed to the healthy descriptive norm had higher chances of choosing a salad in comparison
71 to students in the unhealthy or the control condition. The injunctive healthy norm had a
72 significant effect on healthy decisions compared to the unhealthy descriptive norm condition
73 but not to the control condition.

74 Moving beyond self-reported behavior, Thomas et al. (2017) explored the influence of a
75 descriptive norm message ("Most people here choose to eat vegetables with their lunch") on
76 actual food selection. Vegetable purchase was recorded in the cashier point of three
77 workplace restaurants during three 2-week stages: A first no-message stage (pre-
78 intervention stage), before displaying the descriptive-norm message for two weeks
79 (intervention stage), followed by a 2-week stage without the message (post-intervention
80 stage). The percentage of meals purchased with vegetables significantly increased when the
81 norm message was displayed in comparison to the pre-intervention stage, and this effect
82 persisted after the message removal. The benefit of descriptive norm intervention on actual
83 vegetables selection was recently confirmed in two studies conducted in student canteens

84 (Collins et al., 2019). Relying on a similar three-stage design (i.e., pre-intervention,
85 intervention, post-intervention), Collins et al. (2019) showed that a descriptive-norm message
86 (“Did you know that most students here choose to eat vegetables with their meal”) increased
87 the percentage of meals with vegetables in comparison to the pre-intervention stage. This
88 effect was sustained during post-intervention in their first study but in the second.

89 These findings plead in favor of the implementation of norm-based interventions in collective
90 catering sites. And indeed, exposure to social norms is often presented as an easy and
91 efficient way to change individuals’ behavior (e.g., Higgs, 2015). This literature is popularized
92 outside the academic world to inform policy making (e.g., Hallsworth et al., 2018; OECD,
93 2019) and has already been applied in large scale campaigns (e.g., Perkins et al., 2010).

94 Despite this popularity - or maybe *because of* this popularity - the literature on social norms
95 should tackle the current question of replication and findings robustness that shakes many
96 scientific fields (e.g., Hetherington, 2018; Pashler & Wagenmakers, 2012). This paper aims
97 at contributing to this important matter by (1) testing the impact of a descriptive-norm based
98 message on vegetable purchase in a field study with (2) a large sample, a control group with
99 a randomization by canteens (i.e., cluster-randomized crossover design) and an appropriate
100 analytical strategy for such a design.

101 **3. Methodological Limitations of Field Studies**

102 The extant field studies on norm-based interventions to promote vegetable purchase
103 suffer from two important limitations. The first limitation concerns suboptimal internal validity
104 due to weak designs. One study used a one-group pretest-posttest design (Thomas et al.,
105 2017) in which vegetable selection was recorded during a pre-intervention stage (i.e., no
106 message displayed), then when the intervention message was displayed, then during a post-
107 intervention stage after the message was removed. Because of the lack of a comparison
108 group, no causality conclusion can be drawn about the effect of the intervention on vegetable
109 selection, as any change from pre- to posttest could be due to time trend or individual
110 changes unrelated to the intervention. Collins et al., (2019) used a similar pretest-posttest

111 design with a comparison group. Indeed, the norm-based message was displayed in one
112 canteen while a health message was displayed in another canteen. This however creates a
113 confound between the type of message (norm vs. health) and the canteen, precluding again
114 clear conclusion about whether changes in vegetable selection were caused by the type of
115 message or preexisting differences between the canteens and their customers. Mollen et al.,
116 (2013) used an experimental design with three experimental messages (including descriptive
117 norm) and a control group. However, they relied on self-reported food-choices limited to the
118 participants who correctly recalled the experimental messages displayed in the canteens.
119 This firstly limits their conclusion about the impact of the messages to this particular
120 population. It secondly led to the exclusion of almost 78% of the participants in the
121 experimental groups, resulting in small sample sizes (n ranging from 33 to 42), which
122 reduces the chances that the results reflect a true effect (Button et al., 2013). To our
123 knowledge, only one other paper (Thorndike et al., 2016) presents a randomized controlled
124 trial but the reported results show no significant increase from baseline of healthy food
125 purchase for participants who received social norms feedback compared to the control
126 group. Connected research was conducted on food selection in grocery stores, not
127 restaurants. The field studies on this related behavior however suffer similar limitations, with
128 a confound between stores and type of messages (control vs. norm-based; Payne et al.,
129 2015), small samples and results above the conventional level of significance (Salmon et al.,
130 2015), or combining social norm message with another nudge (Huitink et al., 2020).

131 The available evidence documenting the effectiveness of using social norms to
132 increase vegetable selection in field studies is not strong. Although great efforts have been
133 made to test the impact of such interventions, more compelling evidence needs to be
134 provided. The current research was specifically designed to address this issue. We recorded
135 a large sample of actual vegetable purchase in a pretest-posttest design implemented in two
136 similar student canteens. To allow for stronger conclusions about causality, canteens were
137 randomly assigned to a vegetable-related norm message and a neutral behavior-related
138 norm message. More specifically, our study relied on a cluster randomized crossover design,

139 in which each message was administered to each cluster in separate periods of time (Arnup
140 et al., 2017; Rietbergen & Moerbeek, 2011). During the first period, the experimental
141 message was displayed in one canteen (cluster A) while the control message was displayed
142 in the other canteen (Cluster B). During the second period, displays were reversed. We
143 believe that such a stronger design does not only provide more reliable evidence about the
144 effectiveness of a norm-based message to foster vegetable selection, it also provides a more
145 robust test of the social norm theoretical approach. The present research also aimed to
146 extend the extant literature by investigating whether descriptive norms about vegetable
147 purchase can influence not only the selection of vegetables but also the quantity of
148 vegetables purchased.

149 **4. Of the Extended Impact of Descriptive-Norm Message: from vegetable** 150 **selection to quantity**

151 Previous studies focused on food selection as behavioral outcome, and assessed
152 whether descriptive norm messages increase self-reported food choice (Mollen et al., 2013)
153 or the percentage of actual meals containing vegetables (Collins et al., 2019; Thomas et al.,
154 2017; Thorndike, et al., 2016). Nevertheless, an important question remains unanswered:
155 Does a descriptive norm-message lead people who purchase vegetables, to purchase a
156 greater amount of vegetables? Descriptive norms motivate individuals to behave in a certain
157 way by providing information on what is effective or adaptative to do (Cialdini et al., 1991). If
158 the behavior appears as efficient and adapted, we can expect that more individuals will make
159 the decision to produce the behavior but also that individuals who decided to produce the
160 behavior will produce it more. Accordingly, Agerström et al. (2016) observed that not only a
161 descriptive norm message increased the number of students initiating the expected behavior,
162 here donation, but it also increased the amount of donation. The positive impact of a
163 descriptive norm message about prevalence on both frequency and intensity can also be
164 expected on a health-related behavior. Indeed, health prevention messages often emphasize
165 both the frequency and quantity of behaviours to be performed (e.g., World Health

166 Organization campaign “5 A Day” recommends eating at least 5 portions of fruits and
167 vegetables per day). In doing so, public campaigns suggest that the appropriate behavior is
168 the combination of these two factors. In a field study on food choice at school, Thompson et
169 al. (2007) showed a positive correlation between perceived descriptive norms related to the
170 selection of vegetable (e.g. “Most kids eat a serving of cooked vegetables at school lunch”)
171 and the amount of vegetables consumed recorded over a week’s lunches. We therefore
172 predicted that the descriptive norm message about healthy eating would increase both the
173 frequency of the behavior (i.e., number of meals purchased with vegetables) and the
174 intensity of the behavior (i.e. the amount of vegetables selected).

175 **5. Overview and Hypotheses**

176 We drew on previous studies in collective catering sites (Collins et al., 2019; Thomas
177 et al., 2017) to conduct a field experiment testing the effect of a descriptive norm message
178 on vegetable purchase in two university canteens. The number of portions of vegetables on
179 the students’ main plate (from 0 to 4) was collected during three stages: a pre-intervention
180 stage, an intervention stage (during which a vegetable-related norm message or a neutral
181 behavior-related norm message was displayed) and a post-intervention stage (in which no
182 message was displayed). The type of message was randomly displayed in one or the other
183 canteen during the first period of observation, then crossed during a second period of
184 observation.

185 We firstly hypothesized that the norm-based intervention would increase the
186 likelihood of purchasing vegetables (presence on the plate versus not). In comparison to the
187 pre-intervention stage, displaying a vegetable-related norm message should increase the
188 number of plates with vegetables. The impact of the message might last after removal
189 (Collins et al., 2019; Thomas et al., 2017) but should be less strong so we expect the number
190 of plates containing vegetables in the post-intervention stage to still be higher than during the
191 pre-intervention stage but to decrease compared to the intervention stage. When the neutral
192 behavior-related norm message was displayed, we did not expect to observe this pattern.
193 Secondly we expected the intervention to increase the amount of vegetables ordered. In

194 comparison to the pre-intervention stage, the vegetable-related norm message should
195 increase the number of vegetable portions on the main plate. Again, the impact of the
196 message should lessen after its removal so we expect the number of vegetable portions to
197 decrease in the post-intervention stage compared to the intervention stage. When the neutral
198 behavior-related norm message was displayed this pattern was not expected. These
199 hypotheses were specified before the data were collected.

200 **6. Method**

201 **6.1. Participants**

202 Participants were students purchasing a meal from one of two on-campus canteens.
203 All aspects of this study were performed in accordance with the ethical standards and we
204 obtained a posteriori ethical approval (CERT-TP n°2020-07-03). A total of 12.994 meal
205 purchases were recorded (47.08% by women, 52.54% by men, 0.38% by a person of
206 undetermined gender – gender was categorized on visual appraisal by the observers).

207 **6.2. Design**

208 The study took place in the two larger university canteens of the University of Poitiers.
209 Located in the same area (distant from 0.68 miles) and run by the same public service, they
210 mainly serve students and offer the same self-service meals five days a week. The daily offer
211 includes a main course and two side dishes. At the food counters, a choice between meat
212 and fish is available as well as at least one type of carbs and two types of vegetables. During
213 a first period of observation, one canteen was randomly selected to display the vegetable
214 descriptive-norm message, while the other displayed the neutral behavior descriptive-norm
215 message. During the second period of observation the messages were reversed at both
216 locations. For each period of observation, data was collected during three days (Monday,
217 Tuesday and Thursday) for three consecutive weeks corresponding to three stages: the first
218 week formed the pre-intervention stage, the second week the intervention stage (i.e.,
219 messages are displayed), and the last week the post-intervention stage (i.e., after the
220 message removal). Data collection took place from the 20th of November to the 7th of

221 December 2017 for the first period, and from the 22th of January to the 8th of February 2018
222 for the second one¹.

223 **6.3. Sample size**

224 Small effects have been documented in previous field studies testing the influence of
225 social norm interventions on vegetable purchase in canteens (Collins et al., 2019: $1.24 < OR$
226 < 1.62 , $0.04 < F < 0.09$; Thomas et al., 2017: $1.2 < OR < 1.4$, $0.03 < F < 0.08$). Using
227 simulation (Reich et al., 2012), we estimated the smallest effect size detectable in our
228 cluster-randomized crossover design with 80% power and a 5% alpha level. The numbers of
229 canteens and periods were fixed at 2 and the smallest canteen-period size to 2800
230 observations. We set the vegetable purchase baseline rate to be 60% (Collins et al., 2019)
231 and the variation in purchase rate across canteens to be of .01. We simulated 500 datasets
232 assuming data would be analyzed using a fixed-effects logistic regression model. The results
233 indicated that we had sufficient power to detect an effect associated with an odd ratio of 1.12.

234 **6.4. Material**

235 The messages were conveyed via posters. In the experimental condition, the
236 message described normative vegetable purchase (“Most students here choose to eat
237 vegetables at lunch”) whereas in the control condition the norm was about a recycling
238 behavior (“Most students here sort their tray after lunch”). The vegetable-related descriptive
239 norm message was based on the one used by Thomas et al.’s (2017) and Collins et al.’s
240 (2019)². The posters were printed in colour in two formats: the three biggest (210 mm x 297

¹ Beginning the data collection too early in the semester (September) is problematic with respect to the low frequentation of the canteens by new arriving students, and ending it too lately also because students attend less the canteens during exams period (after December, the 15th). Moreover, a one-week holiday divides each semester (at the end of October and end of February). Finally, we wanted the type of menu to be relatively constant and then to collect the data in the same season.

² Observations made during the first stage of our study confirmed the accuracy of the descriptive norm message (48% of trays contained vegetables).

241 mm) were displayed in the waiting area of the canteens and the two smallest (148 mm x 210
242 mm) were placed on each food-selection counter.

243 **6.5. Measures**

244 Five observers alternatively stood behind the cashier of both canteens to record the
245 customers' tray content. Data was collected at the lunchtime between 11:50 and 13:00 on
246 every Monday, Tuesday and Thursday. The tray content was recorded using a grid including
247 four items: "meat or fish" (V: meat; P: fish), "portions of vegetables in the main plate" that is
248 the proportion of the plate occupied by vegetables (from 0 = 0% to 4 = 100%), "appetizer"³
249 (crudités; half crudités; soup; cold meat; pasta salad), "fruit" (0 to 2). As in other studies,
250 potatoes and lettuce leaves (as decoration) were not counted as vegetables.

251 To assess inter-rater reliability, the five observers all coded the same trays during a
252 training session before actual data collection. The analysis of the inter-rater agreement
253 indicated satisfactory Cohen Kappa coefficients ranging from 0.73 (starters coding) to 0.83
254 (gender coding). Moreover, during actual data collection, as menus changed every day, the
255 observers of the two canteens daily reached agreement by phone on the coding for the
256 suggestion of the day.

257 **6.6. Data Analyses**

258 A pre-specified generalized linear model with canteen and period fixed effects was
259 used to examine the selection and amount of vegetables depending on the interaction
260 between the stage of intervention and the type of message. Because observations were
261 nested in periods and canteens, the data structure violates the assumption of independence
262 of residuals. To address this issue both fixed-effects models and multi-level models can be
263 performed. A fixed-effects model was preferred over a multi-level model because the latter
264 can produce biased estimates when the number of higher-order units is low (Maas & Hox,
265 2005; Sommet & Morselli, 2017). Fixed-effects models control for any canteen-period
266 variation and estimate the within canteen-period impact of the intervention.

³ Readers interested in the results on appetizers can find them in supplemental material

267 To test both our hypotheses on the selection of vegetables and the amount of
268 vegetables, and because the outcome (number of portions of vegetables) was highly skewed
269 with many zeros, we modeled those data with a negative binomial hurdle model (Atkins et al.,
270 2013). The hurdle model combines two simultaneous models: (i) a logistic regression model
271 for zeros vs. non zeros (i.e., presence or absence of vegetables), and (ii) a Poisson
272 regression (or “zero truncated count regression”) for the distribution of nonzero values (e.g.,
273 number of portions of vegetable in lunches with vegetables). Effect sizes are expressed with
274 an Odd Ratio (*OR*) for the logistic regression, and with an Incident Rate Ratio (*IRR*) for the
275 truncated Poisson regression. Values over 1.0 indicate an upper likelihood of having
276 vegetables on the plate, and of having a higher number of portions on the plate.

277 We hypothesized that when the message is related to vegetable-purchase norm the
278 presence of vegetables is more likely and the number of portions is higher during the
279 intervention stage than before and decreases after the intervention without falling back to the
280 baseline point (i.e., a moderate lasting impact of the intervention). To test this prediction, we
281 created two orthogonal contrasts coding the stages. The contrast of interest compared the
282 pre-intervention stage with the intervention stage (pre-intervention coded -0.5, intervention
283 coded +0.5, post-intervention coded 0). The contrast testing the residual variance compared
284 the post-intervention stage (coded 2/3) to the two other stages (pre-intervention
285 and intervention both coded -1/3). The type of message was also contrast coded (-0.5 for the
286 control message, +0.5 for the vegetable-related norm message). A pattern consistent with
287 our hypothesis would result in a significant interaction between the type of message and the
288 first contrast coding the stages – the vegetable purchase should increase from the pre- to the
289 intervention stage, especially in the vegetable-related norm condition. Simultaneously, the
290 type of message should not significantly interact with the second contrast coding the stages.
291 Indeed, in both conditions we expect the post-intervention stage to not significantly differ from
292 the two previous stages: In the vegetable-related norm condition because we expect the
293 purchase of vegetables to decrease after the intervention without falling back to pre-

294 intervention level then placing the post-intervention between the two other stages; in the
 295 control condition no differences are expected between stages.

296 **7. Results**

297 **Table 1**

298 *Observed number (and percentage) of meals as a function of the number of portions of*
 299 *vegetables purchased, the type of message displayed, during each stage of intervention.*

Study stages	Vegetable-related norm					Control				
	Without vegetables	1 portion	2 portions	3 portions	4 portions	Without vegetables	1 portion	2 portions	3 portions	4 portions
Pre-intervention	1257 (51.60%)	958 (39.33%)	185 (7.59%)	30 (1.23%)	6 (0.25%)	995 (47.70%)	878 (42.09%)	130 (6.23%)	80 (3.84%)	3 (0.14%)
Intervention	999 (49.97%)	739 (36.97%)	191 (9.55%)	58 (2.90%)	12 (0.60%)	1236 (52.28%)	954 (40.36%)	131 (5.54%)	42 (1.78%)	1 (0.04%)
Post-intervention	927 (47.25%)	865 (44.09%)	109 (5.56%)	60 (3.06%)	1 (0.05%)	971 (45.23%)	979 (45.60%)	142 (6.61%)	51 (2.38%)	4 (0.19%)

300

301 Data are available at

302 https://osf.io/5qgk3/?view_only=dbe1fa96d0894314aa7dcb68078b0825. Details about the

303 observed meals across the three stages and the two conditions are presented in Table 1.

304 The logistic part of the model testing the presence vs. absence of vegetable on the plates

305 showed, as expected, a significant interaction between the message type and the contrast of

306 interest comparing the pre-intervention and the intervention stage, $OR = 1.23, p = .016, 95\%$

307 $CI = [1.04, 1.46]$ (see Figure 1). Simple slopes analyses showed that students in the control

308 condition were 17% less likely to purchase vegetables during the intervention stage than

309 before, $OR = .83, p = .003, 95\% CI [0.74, 0.94]$. Students exposed to the vegetable-related

310 norm message did not show this decrease, as their chances to purchase vegetables did not

311 significantly change from the baseline to the intervention stage, $OR = 1.03, p = .671, 95\% CI$

312 $[0.91, 1.16]$. As expected also, the interaction between the message type and the residual

313 variance contrast comparing the post-intervention stage with the two previous stages was not

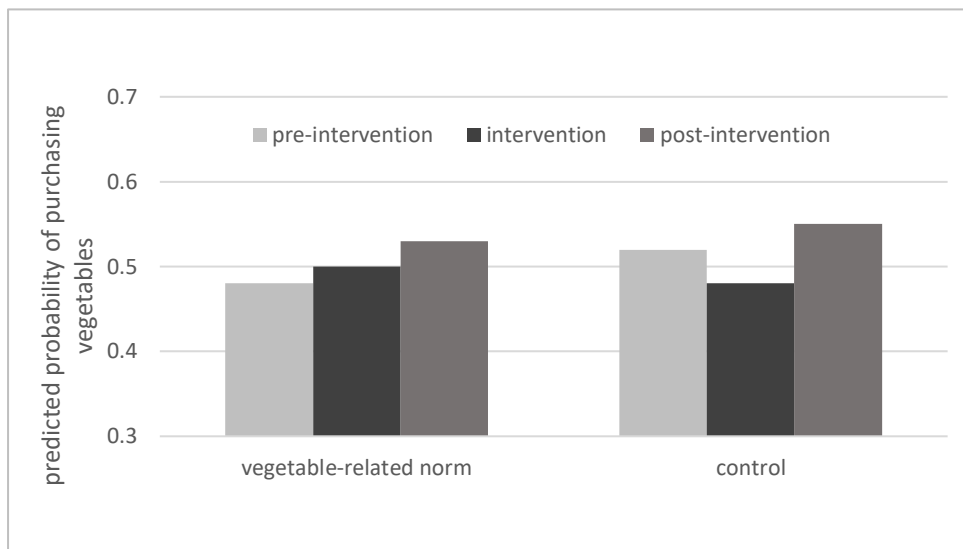
314 significant, $OR = 0.93, p = .346, 95\% CI [0.80, 1.08]$. However, contrary to expectations,

315 results indicated that on average across message type, the likelihood of purchasing

316 vegetables was higher in the post-intervention stage than in the combined two previous
 317 stages, $OR = 1.16$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.08, 1.26].

318 **Figure 1.**

319 *Predicted probability of purchasing vegetables (vs. no vegetable) as a function of the type of*
 320 *message and the stages, within canteens and periods of observation.*

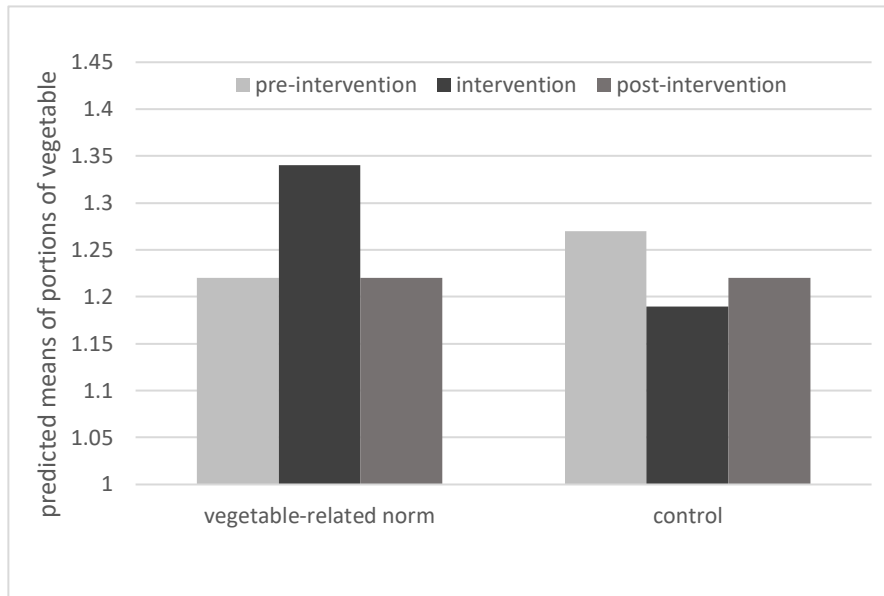


321

322 The positive count model testing the amount of vegetables among those who
 323 purchased some revealed a significant interaction between the message type and the
 324 contrast of interest comparing the pre- and intervention stage, $IRR = 2.12$; $p < .001$, 95% CI
 325 = [1.69, 2.67] (see Figure 2). Among students who purchased vegetables in the control
 326 condition, the amount of vegetable purchased during the intervention stage is 0.26 times the
 327 amount before the intervention, $IRR = 0.74$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.63, 0.87]. Among students
 328 who purchased vegetables in the vegetable descriptive-norm condition, the amount of
 329 vegetable purchased increased by 1.57 times from the pre- to the intervention stage, $IRR =$
 330 1.57 , $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.38, 1.84]. The interaction between the type of message and the
 331 residual variance contrast was not significant, $IRR = 0.94$, $p = .59$, 95% CI [0.77, 1.16].
 332 Consistent with the hypothesis, on average across message type, the level of purchase in
 333 the post-intervention stage did not significantly differ from the level of purchase in both the
 334 pre- and intervention stage, $IRR = 0.90$, $p = .055$, 95% CI [0.81, 1.002].

335 **Figure 2.**

336 *Predicted means of portions of vegetable in plates containing vegetable as a function of the*
337 *type of message and the stages, within canteens and periods of observation.*



338

339 **7. Discussion**

340 This field study drew on previous studies testing the effect of a vegetable-related
341 descriptive norm messages on vegetable purchase. This literature suggested that simply
342 describing that most people eat vegetables can increase healthy food selection. However,
343 this literature suffered from some methodological shortcomings – absence of a control group,
344 confounds between restaurants and conditions, small sample sizes – that limited the
345 conclusions. To address these limitations, we implemented a design with a vegetable-related
346 norm message versus a control message randomly displayed in two canteens. The display
347 was crossed over canteens in two different periods to avoid confound and the canteens and
348 periods variations were accounted for in the analytical strategy. Vegetable purchase was
349 recorded from over 12,900 meals to test whether the increase in the number of plates
350 containing vegetables induced by the display of a norm-based message could be replicated.
351 The results showed that the vegetable-related norm message led to a sustained number of
352 plates containing vegetables, contrary to the decrease observed in the control condition.

353 Though we expected an increase in purchase rather than a non-decrease, the results do
354 show a more positive trend in the vegetable-related norm condition than in the neutral norm
355 condition and is therefore consistent with the hypothesis. The vegetable-related norm
356 message seems to have shielded students from a decline. This unexpected decline in the
357 control condition could be due to the specificities of the menus offered at the times of
358 observation, which could as well be an explanation for the unexpected overall increase in
359 vegetable selection in the post-intervention stage. Importantly however, the daily menus
360 were identical in both canteens so the more positive trend observed in the vegetable-related
361 norm condition compared to the control condition can not be explained by differences in
362 menus. This study therefore brings evidence consistent with the previous field studies
363 showing that a message describing vegetable purchase as produced by a majority of their
364 social group can positively influence students' choice to order vegetables (Collins et al.,
365 2019).

366 A second goal of this research was to test the extended influence of a norm-based
367 message beyond the mere selection of vegetables, by recording the quantity of vegetables
368 (i.e., number of portions) purchased by those who selected vegetables. The results showed
369 that students who ordered vegetables ordered a higher quantity when surrounded by a
370 vegetable-related norm message than before, whereas the quantity decreased from the pre-
371 to the intervention stage in the control condition. The increase observed when the vegetable-
372 related message was displayed was however not sustained after its removal, which is
373 consistent with other field studies (Collins et al., 2019). This finding brings new insight about
374 the impact of descriptive norms. Although the message did not directly mention quantity ("most
375 students here choose to eat vegetables"), it influenced the number of portions purchased. This
376 is especially important for health-related behavior as in many cases a healthy behavior implies
377 not only to produce a behavior but also to produce it with a certain intensity. More research
378 should investigate which type of message – either describing the prevalence of the behavior
379 or describing the quantity – most effectively influences both the frequency and intensity of

380 subsequent healthy behavior. It would be interesting to compare the impact of a “frequency
381 and quantity related message” (“*Most students here, choose to eat 2 portions of vegetable with*
382 *their lunch*”) that proved its effectiveness (Agerström et al. , 2016), a “frequency related
383 message” (“*Most students here, choose to eat vegetables with their lunch*”) a “quantity related
384 message” (“*Students purchased 2 portions of vegetables when they choose to eat some*”) and
385 a control message. The fact that a message about the prevalence of the behavior in the social
386 group makes the behavior more likely to be produced both in terms of frequency (selection of
387 vegetable) and intensity (amount of vegetables) is consistent with the theoretical claim of the
388 social norm approach that descriptive norms inform about the efficiency of a behavior, as an
389 efficient behavior should be both produced more often and/or more intensively (Cialdini et al,
390 1991). To design more effective policy campaign message, it could be important to ensure that
391 the quantity selected be displayed explicitly.

392

393 Despite these contributions, the present field study has several limitations. The first
394 limit, outlined by the unexpected results (decreasing selection of vegetables in the control
395 condition, overall higher selection in the post-intervention stage), lies in the short duration of
396 observation. Data collection was conducted for only 3 days at each stage (pre-, intervention,
397 post-intervention), which led to a measure of behavior that is sensitive to temporary and
398 random external influences such as variations in menus, or in specificities of individuals
399 attending the canteens from one day to another. The presence of a control group subjected
400 to the same random influences limits the risk of erroneous conclusions about the
401 effectiveness of the intervention but future studies would benefit from longer observation
402 duration to better estimate the behavioral tendencies. Longer observation duration would
403 also offer the possibility to further investigate the immediate effect of the message by
404 increasing exposure and its mid-term influence after removal.

405 Second, as often in observational studies with large samples (e.g., Collins et al.,
406 2019; Thomas et al., 2017) it was not possible to follow individual students across the stages
407 of the experiment due to technical limitations. Consequently, we could neither assess the

408 behavioral change within students nor account for between individual variations. This leaves
409 open the question of whether the vegetable-related norm message made people who
410 previously did not order vegetables to start doing so and/or reinforced the behavior among
411 people who already produced it. Future research would benefit from a longitudinal design to
412 establish how descriptive norms can lead to within-individuals changes and whether some
413 individuals are more sensitive to the message than others.

414 Third, both messages displayed in this study presented a descriptive norm, one about
415 vegetable purchase, the other about sorting one's tray. This procedure was chosen to rule out
416 the idea that merely activating a descriptive norm is enough to increase vegetable purchase.
417 However, this leaves the possibility that it is the mere mention of vegetables that increased
418 purchase. Other field studies used a comparison message mentioning vegetables but not
419 based on a descriptive norm (e.g., health benefits of vegetables, Collins et al., 2019; injunctive
420 or unhealthy norms, Mollen et al., 2013). Future studies could use two comparison messages,
421 one mentioning vegetables, the other displaying a descriptive norm on a different topic to
422 further test the effectiveness of the present vegetable-related descriptive norm message.

423 Fourth, vegetable purchase was collected, as in previous studies (Collins et al., 2019
424 ; Mollen et al., 2013 ; Thomas et al., 2017), but actual consumption was not measured.
425 Hence, the results indicated that vegetable descriptive norm message led students to
426 sustainably order vegetables and in greater quantity, but no conclusion can be drawn about
427 actual consumption. Future research is needed to assess the amount of vegetables left on
428 the plate.

429 Finally, two factors could have minimized the impact of our intervention on vegetable
430 purchase. First, as in previous studies, the posters were placed on the service counters,
431 being then accessible to the attention at the very moment students choose their meal.
432 Nevertheless, we did not assess whether participants actually saw the posters. Given that
433 the influence of the message displayed in the posters was observed to be effective only
434 among students who saw them (Mollen et al., 2013), our results might underestimate the
435 effect of the message on vegetable purchase by including data from students who did not

436 see the posters. Second, the two canteens were located on the same campus and students
437 could have attended both canteens, either in the same period, or in the two periods
438 separated by a two-month delay. In both cases, if some students did attend both canteens, it
439 could weaken the difference between the control and experimental conditions. The potential
440 contamination between conditions could have led to an underestimation of the impact of the
441 vegetable norm intervention relatively to the control intervention but it can hardly account for
442 the observed interactions.

443 In conclusion, the original cluster randomized cross-over design, in which both
444 messages (Control, Experimental) are administered to each cluster (Canteen A, Canteen B),
445 combined with the statistical control for canteen and period variations, provides strong
446 evidence that displaying a vegetable-related descriptive norm message in canteens is
447 effective in increasing vegetable purchase. This research strengthens the scientific literature
448 fueling theory- and evidence-based behavior change interventions. Although more research
449 is needed to assess actual consumption, social norms messages seem to be a promising
450 lever for public authorities to set up cost-efficient campaigns.

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456 **Authors contributions:**

457 Emilie Guichard, Jean-Claude Croizet and Stephane Jouffre designed the study. Emilie
458 Guichard supervised and carried out the data collection. Emilie Guichard and Frédérique Autin
459 performed the analyses. Emilie Guichard, Frédérique Autin, and Stephane Jouffre drafted the
460 manuscript. Emilie Guichard, Frédérique Autin, Jean-Claude Croizet, and Stephane Jouffre
461 provided substantial comments and all approved the final version of the manuscript.

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