

Social Influence Fosters the Use of a Reusable Takeaway Box

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### 21 **1. Introduction**

22 In industrialized countries, packaging of takeaway foods and beverages constitutes the  
23 largest proportion of litter in public areas. In Switzerland, more than 50% of litter is made up of  
24 takeaway food and beverage packaging (Heeb, Ableidinger, Berger, & Hoffelner, 2004; Wälti &  
25 Almeida, 2016). In addition to its ecological consequences, public littering costs Swiss  
26 communities and the Swiss public transport systems around \$200 million annually. Dealing with  
27 discarded packaging from takeaway foods and beverages alone costs \$107 million annually. In  
28 comparison, littered cigarettes generate only about half these costs (Berger & Sommerhalder,  
29 2011). To date, various governmental, for-profit, and non-profit organizations have introduced  
30 measures to solve this ecological and economic problem. One example is the introduction of  
31 reusable takeaway box systems<sup>1</sup>. For example, reCIRCLE<sup>2</sup> allows customers of participating  
32 restaurants to take away their food in a reusable box. Strictly speaking, customers rent the  
33 takeaway box for about \$10 and can either return it to any collection bin after use and get back  
34 the ‘rental fee’, or reuse it. So far, various informational materials (e.g., flyers, signs and  
35 wobblers<sup>3</sup>) have been used to encourage the use of the system. Yet it remains challenging to  
36 effectively ‘nudge’ (see Thaler & Sunstein, 1999) customers’ behavior in the direction of more  
37 environmental packaging options.

38 From the perspective of behavioral change (intervention) literature (e.g., Michie, van  
39 Stralen, & West, 2011; Schultz, 2014; Steg & Vlek, 2009), it is unclear whether informational  
40 material alone effectively changes behavior. This body of literature comprises various

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<sup>1</sup> An example from the US is Go Box <https://www.goboxpdx.com/>

<sup>2</sup> [www.reCIRCLE.ch](http://www.reCIRCLE.ch)

<sup>3</sup> A wobbler is a tag—typically with a message—that is attached to a (point-of-sales) surface such as a counter, shelf or buffet, to stand out to grab customers’ attention.

41 intervention types that foster sustainable consumer behavior. (For comprehensive reviews of  
42 these intervention types, see e.g., Abrahamse, Steg, Vlek, & Rothengatter, 2005; Homburg &  
43 Matthies, 1998; Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012; Schultz, 2014.) Informational intervention is by far  
44 the most frequently applied and investigated type of intervention to promote sustainable  
45 consumer behavior (e.g., Schultz, 2002; Abrahamse et al., 2005; Cox et al., 2010; McKenzie-  
46 Mohr, 2011). This intervention type is based on the idea that learning information about the  
47 negative consequences of an undesired behavior and the positive consequences of a desired  
48 behavior will cause problem awareness and thus change behavior. Paradoxically, however,  
49 informational interventions are among the *least* effective intervention types. A meta-analysis  
50 comparing common intervention types reveals a relatively low average effect size for  
51 informational interventions such as instruction ( $g = .31$ ) and justifications ( $g = .41$ ) (Osbaldiston  
52 & Schott, 2012). Nevertheless, informational interventions are likely to be successful when  
53 combined with other interventions types (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; McKenzie-Mohr, 2011;  
54 Steg, Keizer, Buunk, & Rothengatter, 2008).

55         An arguably promising intervention type to combine with informational interventions is  
56 social influence. The effect of social influence interventions is based on the idea that people have  
57 an urge to align their behavior to the words and actions of others (Asch, 1956; Burger, 2009;  
58 Milgram, 1964). A famous demonstration of the power of social influence shows that when a  
59 single pedestrian is gawking upwards, about 4% of passersby align their behavior to his or her  
60 behavior. However, if the crowd of gawkers grows to a dozen, around 40% of passersby join in  
61 (Milgram, Bickman, & Berkowitz, 1969).

62         For interventions which are intended to foster sustainable behavior, social influence is  
63 often exerted by means of social norms or social modeling. (For a review see, e.g., Abrahamse &

64 Steg, 2013; McDonald & Crandall, 2015.) Social norm interventions apply rules and standards  
65 that guide people in their behavior by signaling what the majority does (*descriptive norm*) or  
66 what the majority (dis)approves of (*injunctive norm*). Apparently interventions are most effective  
67 when they combine both the descriptive and the injunctive norm (Griskevicius, Cialdini, &  
68 Goldstein, 2008; Schultz, Khazian, & Zaleski, 2008; Schultz, Nolan, Cialdini, Goldstein, &  
69 Griskevicius, 2007).

70 Social modeling interventions use a confederate to act as a model; the confederate  
71 performs a desirable behavior anticipating that others will engage in this behavior when they  
72 observe it. Interventions are particularly effective when the demonstrated behavior is relevant,  
73 meaningful and easy, as well as when more than one model displays the target behavior  
74 (Abrahamse & Steg, 2013; Sussman & Gifford, 2013).

75 A meta-analysis comparing common intervention types seems to confirm the  
76 effectiveness of social influence, as it found that social influence interventions – mainly social  
77 modeling – are most effective in fostering sustainable behavior ( $g = .63$ ; Osbaldiston & Schott,  
78 2012). Note that a meta-analysis specifically comparing social influence interventions shows that  
79 social modeling is more effective in fostering sustainable behavior than social norms  
80 (Abrahamse & Steg, 2013). Nevertheless, social norm interventions have been tested relatively  
81 often and found to be successful. Most likely this is because they are particularly easy to  
82 implement at large scale (e.g., Goldstein, Cialdini, & Griskevicius, 2008; Griskevicius et al.,  
83 2008; Mortensen et al., 2017; Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2008; Schultz  
84 et al., 2008; Schultz et al., 2007; Sparkman & Walton, 2017).

85 Given the power of social norms and social modeling, we argue that social influence  
86 interventions are particularly useful in a social context such as a public takeaway outlet.

87 Deciding on takeaway packaging is public as customers have to (1) announce their takeaway  
88 packaging choice publicly to a vendor and (2) expose their takeaway packaging choice to the  
89 public until mealtime is over. In fact, the mere presence of others can induce a desire to manage  
90 one's impression (Argo, White, & Dahl, 2006; Latané, 1981; White & Dahl, 2006). Interestingly,  
91 it has been found that people feel particularly compelled to conform to prevalent social influence  
92 in the social context of a restaurant (Ariely & Levav, 2000; Hamerman, Rudell, & Martins,  
93 2018). Although extensive empirical evidence stresses the impact of social modeling on general  
94 food consumption in restaurants (e.g., food intake; see e.g., Ariely & Levav, 2000; Cruwys,  
95 Bevelander, & Hermans, 2015), there is no evidence of the effect of social modeling on  
96 sustainable behavior in restaurants. In contrast, the impact of social norm interventions on  
97 sustainable behavior in restaurants is well documented. In fact, field studies show that normative  
98 messages on buffets or tables<sup>4</sup> successfully compel people to reduce their food waste  
99 (Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013; Stöckli, Dorn, & Liechti, 2018).

100 Note, however, that social modeling is well documented for promoting sustainable  
101 behaviors in other contexts. Seeing others putting their soda cans in the trash, for instance, makes  
102 it less likely that one will leave one's own can in the street (Geller, 1990). Likewise, being  
103 exposed to confederates' composting behavior makes it more likely that one will compost as well  
104 (Sussman & Gifford, 2013). Also, observing others turning off the water while soaping up in a  
105 shower room can induce the same behavior (Aronson & O'Leary, 1982-83).

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<sup>4</sup> Normative messages such as the following two: 'Welcome back! Again! And again! Visit our buffet many times. That's better than taking a lot once.' (Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013) or 'Our guests expect a reduction of food waste. A third of all foods are thrown away. 45% of the waste occurs in households and restaurants. The majority of our guests expect that the wasting of food is reduced. Therefore, many people ask us to wrap their pizza leftovers. Please ask us to box your leftover pizza slices for takeaway to avert food waste.' (Stöckli, Dorn, & Liechti, 2018)

106           This research aims to test whether social norms and social modeling can be effectively  
107 used to promote the use of reusable (vs. disposable) takeaway boxes. Thus, our hypotheses are as  
108 follows:

109           *H1*: People are more likely to choose a reusable (vs. disposable) takeaway box when they  
110 are exposed to informational material advertising the reusable boxes *with* a normative message  
111 compared to *without* a normative message.

112           *H2*: People are more likely to choose a reusable (vs. disposable) takeaway box when they  
113 experience other customers choosing or using a reusable (vs. disposable) takeaway box  
114 compared to when they experience customers choosing or using only disposable takeaway boxes.

115           To test our hypotheses, we operationalized social influence in two ways. First, we  
116 manipulated *social norms*. That is, we tested whether a social norm message is more effective  
117 than an informational message in advocating the use of a reusable takeaway box. Second, we  
118 observed *social modeling* to account for ‘real-life’ demonstrations of the use of reusable  
119 takeaway boxes by other customers.

## 120 **2. Method**

### 121 **2.1. Design, Procedure and Sample**

122           The field study was run in an Asian takeaway restaurant in a Swiss city over a period of  
123 four weeks. The takeaway outlet was chosen because it was among the best frequented  
124 restaurants participating in the local reusable takeaway box system reCIRCLE. The study was  
125 run only on weekdays for 120 minutes each day over lunch time (always from 11:30 am to 1:30  
126 pm).

127           The experimental design of the study consisted of the between-subjects factor  
128 *manipulated social norm* (message: informational vs. social norm). On each day a sign with

129 either the informational message or the social norm message was placed on the counter of the  
130 takeaway outlet. Message types were permuted to avoid “weekday effects”.

131 In addition, the design included the factor *observed social modeling* (demonstration of  
132 target behavior: not present vs. present). That is, we coded whether or not customers experienced  
133 other customers choosing reusable takeaway boxes.

134 During data collection, an experimenter sat at a table next to the takeaway outlet and  
135 unobtrusively recorded (1) the type of takeaway packaging chosen for every order, (2) whether  
136 customers experienced social modeling or not and (3) the gender of the customers. The sample  
137 consisted of 2,643 takeaway meals ordered by 2,560 customers, of which 796 were female and  
138 1,764 were male. Due to the aim of observing the orders unobtrusively, further demographic  
139 information could not be recorded.

## 140 **2.2. Material**

### 141 **2.2.1. Manipulated Social Norm**

142 To evaluate the impact of the manipulated social norm, we varied the messages on a set  
143 of informational materials advertising the reCIRCLE box within the takeaway outlet. While in  
144 the *informational message condition* (= control group), we used the existing informational  
145 material, which read “Order the reBOX with your meal — now!”; in the *social norm message*  
146 *condition* (= experimental group), we added a social norm message reading “Our customers  
147 demand a reduction of packaging waste. Many of them already use the reBOX,” with the  
148 sentence “Order the reBOX with your meal — now!” as a subheader (see the original German-  
149 language messages in Figure 1).





150

151 *Figure 1.* The wobbler as used in the *informational message condition* (on the left) and the *social*  
152 *norm message condition* (on the right; both in German).

153 The set of informational materials consisted of a A5 sign, a ‘wobbler’ mounted to a  
154 sample reusable takeaway box, and a stack of A6 flyers. As they were the informational  
155 material provided by reCIRCLE, the sign and the flyer also contained general explanations of  
156 how to rent a reusable takeaway box. The entire set was designed in accordance with the  
157 reCIRCLE corporate design and placed on top of the counter in the takeaway outlet. (See Figure  
158 2 for a view of the takeaway outlet.)



159

160 *Figure 2.* The display of the manipulated social norm at the takeaway outlet.

### 161 **2.2.2. Observed Social Modeling**

162 To measure whether ‘real-life’ social modeling in favor of choosing a reusable takeaway  
163 box was present, we coded for the following two behaviors of other customers in the takeaway  
164 outlet: (1) choosing a reusable takeaway box, or (2) bringing along their own reusable takeaway  
165 box. Whenever any of these two behaviors occurred, we coded the takeaway packaging choices  
166 of all the customers in the outlet as being exposed to social modeling towards choosing a  
167 reusable takeaway box.

### 168 **2.2.3. Takeaway Packaging Choice**

169 To measure what kind of takeaway packaging customers chose for their food, we  
170 recorded each of the three possible outcomes: (1) customers chose to take their food in a  
171 disposable takeaway box, (2) customers chose to take their food in a reusable takeaway box  
172 (reBOX), or (3) customers brought along a reusable takeaway box. The staff of the takeaway

173 outlet was instructed to not proactively suggest any of the packaging options, to allow an  
 174 unconfounded test of the hypothesized factors.

### 175 3. Results

176 To test the effect of social influence on the takeaway packaging choice, we handled our  
 177 data in two ways. First, we recoded customers' takeaway packaging choices into a dichotomous  
 178 response variable (disposable vs. reusable). Any customer order that included two or more meals  
 179 was treated as a single choice<sup>5</sup>. Second, orders by customers who brought their own reusable  
 180 takeaway box were excluded ( $n = 110$ ). Our final sample therefore included 2,450 takeaway  
 181 packaging choices, of which 2,410 customers chose a disposable takeaway box and 40 customers  
 182 chose a reusable takeaway box (see Table 1a and 1b).

183 *Table 1a. Takeaway Packaging Choices for Manipulated Social Norm*

		Choice of Takeaway Box	
		Disposable	Reusable
<b>Manipulated Social Norm</b>	Informational Message	1189 (99%)	15 (1%)
	Social Norm Message	1221 (98%)	25 (2%)

184 *Note.* Overview of the takeaway packaging choices (disposable vs. reusable) for the  
 185 *informational message condition* (control group) and the *social norm message condition*  
 186 (experimental group). Percentages in brackets show the percentages of customers who made  
 187 each takeaway packaging choice (disposable vs. reusable) for the two factor levels.

188 *Table 1b. Takeaway Packaging Choices for Observed Social Modeling*

		Choice of Takeaway Box	
		Disposable	Reusable
<b>Observed Social Modeling</b>	Not Present	2072 (99%)	20 (1%)
	Present	338 (94%)	20 (6%)

190 *Note.* Overview of the takeaway packaging choices (disposable vs. reusable) for customers  
 191 exposed versus not exposed to social modeling. Percentages in brackets show the percentages of  
 192 customers who made each takeaway packaging choice (disposable vs. reusable) for the two  
 193 factor levels.

<sup>5</sup> Number of recoded orders:  $n_{\text{two meals}} = 60$ ,  $n_{\text{three meals}} = 4$ ,  $n_{\text{four meals}} = 5$

194 A logistic regression was used to analyze the effects of both the manipulated social norm  
 195 and observed social modeling, while controlling for the influence of gender. An overview of the  
 196 results can be found in Table 2. Contrary to our hypothesis, the results reveal that when  
 197 controlling for gender and observed social modeling, the manipulated social norm did not affect  
 198 the takeaway packaging choice. That is, people were equally likely to choose a reusable (vs.  
 199 disposable) takeaway box when they were exposed to informational material with or without a  
 200 normative message advertising reusable takeaway boxes,  $b = 0.36$ ,  $p = .283$ . When controlling  
 201 for gender and the manipulated social norm, the observed social modeling did affect the  
 202 takeaway packaging choice: Observing another customer using a reusable takeaway box  
 203 increased the likelihood of choosing a reusable takeaway box,  $b = 1.79$ ,  $p < .001$ . Independent of  
 204 the manipulated social norm and the observed social modeling, women were more likely than  
 205 men to choose a reusable takeaway box,  $b = 0.80$ ,  $p = .014$ . According to the adjusted odds ratio,  
 206 the odds of choosing a reusable takeaway box were approximately six times higher when  
 207 observing other customers using or choosing a reusable takeaway box, as when observing other  
 208 customers using or choosing disposable takeaway boxes,  $OR = 5.99$ , 95% CI [3.16, 11.34]. In  
 209 addition, the odds of choosing a reusable takeaway box were approximately twice as high for  
 210 women as for men,  $OR = 2.23$ , 95% CI [1.17, 4.22]<sup>6</sup>.

211 *Table 2.* Logistic Regression Predicting Takeaway Packaging Choice

<b>Variable</b>	<b><i>B</i></b>	<b><i>SE</i></b>	<b><i>p</i></b>	<b><i>z</i></b>	<b><i>OR</i></b>	<b><i>95% CI</i></b>
Gender <sup>a</sup>	0.80	0.32	.014	2.47	2.23	[1.17, 4.22]

<sup>6</sup> Note that there was a marginal and very small correlation between the manipulated social norm and the observed social modeling,  $r(2448) = .03$ ,  $p = .086$ .

Manipulated Social Norm <sup>b</sup>	0.36	0.33	.283	1.07	1.43	[0.75, 2.81]
Observed Social Modeling <sup>c</sup>	1.79	0.32	<.001	5.54	5.99	[3.16, 11.34]

212 *Note.* *B* = regression coefficient, *SE* = standard error, *p* = probability value, *OR* = adjusted odds  
 213 ratio, *CI* = confidence interval for adjusted odds ratio (*OR*).

214 <sup>a</sup>Reference category: men

215 <sup>b</sup>Reference category: informational message

216 <sup>c</sup>Reference category: social modeling not present

217

#### 218 4. Discussion

219 This research tested whether social influence can promote the use of reusable (vs.  
 220 disposable) takeaway boxes. A field study in a takeaway outlet where reusable takeaway boxes  
 221 were offered through the local startup reCIRCLE examined (1) whether the existing  
 222 informational materials were more effective when complemented by a social norm message, and  
 223 (2) whether ‘real-life’ social modeling encouraged customers to choose reusable takeaway boxes.

224 In contrast to our hypothesis, the likelihood of choosing a reusable (vs. disposable)  
 225 takeaway box was unaffected by adding a social norm message to the informational materials.  
 226 As hypothesized, however, customers were more likely to choose a reusable (vs. disposable)  
 227 takeaway box when they observed others using or choosing a reusable takeaway box. In other  
 228 words, while we found evidence for social modeling, we did not find evidence for the impact of  
 229 our manipulated social norm. Interestingly, we found that women were more likely, compared to  
 230 men, to choose reusable (vs. disposable) takeaway boxes.

231 Failing to replicate the effect of social norms on pro-environmental behavior has  
 232 theoretical as well methodological implications. From a theoretical perspective, it is relevant that  
 233 the ineffectiveness of this manipulated social norm contradicts diverse behavioral change

234 theories (e.g., the Focus Theory of Normative Conduct (Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990);  
235 Schwartz's (1975) Norm Activation Theory; and Ajzen's (1985) Theory of Planned Behavior),  
236 as well as empirical evidence showing that social norms foster pro-environmental behavior (e.g.,  
237 Goldstein et al., 2008; Griskevicius et al., 2008; Mortensen et al., 2017; Nolan et al., 2008;  
238 Schultz et al., 2008; Schultz et al., 2007; Sparkman & Walton, 2017). Indeed, when we designed  
239 our social norm intervention we considered the findings of successful interventions which used  
240 normative connoted messages in restaurants to reduce food waste (see, Kallbekken & Sælen,  
241 2013; Stöckli et al., 2018) and combined a descriptive norm with an injunctive norm, since that  
242 combination is more effective than the individual components (see Griskevicius et al., 2008;  
243 Schultz et al., 2008, 2007). Yet, a meta-analysis comparing the relative effectiveness of different  
244 social influence interventions suggests that social norms have a comparably weak effect size  
245 (Abrahamse & Steg, 2013). This substantiates our finding that, while the social influence  
246 intervention in form of social norms was ineffective, the social modeling was effective.

247         From a methodological perspective, it is worth noting that the implementation of the  
248 manipulated social norm in our field study might have been suboptimal. While customers may  
249 have been exposed to potential real-life social modeling the whole time they spent lining up in  
250 the restaurant, it is likely that some customers did not notice the social norm intervention, as it  
251 was only visible once they reached the counter (see Figure 2). Also, it is possible that the  
252 messages were too long to be processed and not eye-catching enough to attract attention. Clearly,  
253 this methodological limitation is significant from a theoretical perspective as norm salience is  
254 key to the success of social norm interventions (e.g., according to the Theory of Normative  
255 Conduct, see Cialdini et al., 1990).

256           The successful demonstration of inducing behavioral change through real-life social  
257 modeling offers valuable insights on how to foster the use of eco-friendly packaging. Our finding  
258 not only substantiates evidence within behavioral change research for the potential of role  
259 models to foster sustainable behavior (e.g., Abrahamse & Steg, 2013) but also conforms with  
260 research that shows how normative public food choices are (e.g., Ariely & Levav, 2000;  
261 Hamerman et al., 2018). Our finding – namely, that social modeling has more impact than  
262 normative messages – has also been found in food composting behavior. Here, normative  
263 prompts were ineffective when they were applied alone as well as when they were combined  
264 with the confederate models (Sussman & Gifford, 2013). However, in water conservation  
265 behavior, the impact of normative messages was substantially increased by combining them with  
266 confederate models (Aronson & O’Leary, 1982-83). However, a comparison between these  
267 studies is difficult as they use different methods of operationalization of social norm. While our  
268 work used a normative message that included a combination of inductive norm and descriptive  
269 norm, the works of Aronson and O’Leary (1982-83) and Sussman and Gifford (2013) used an  
270 inductive norm alone. Within their work the descriptive norm was made salient through  
271 confederates engaging in the target behavior.

272           It is well-established that the more people that engage in a target behavior, the more  
273 likely its diffusion becomes (Aronson & O’Leary, 1982-83; Milgram et al., 1969; Sussman,  
274 Greeno, Gifford, & Scannell, 2013). Three aspects of our findings are particularly interesting  
275 with respect to the diffusion of behaviors through social influence. First, our findings propose  
276 that small consumer groups can be effective at establishing sustainable behavior as more  
277 normative. Second, our findings suggest that even behaviors that contradict the present norm can  
278 be induced by social influence. Third, the growing trend towards green consumption may have

279 been a key factor. Indeed, recent research shows that dynamic norms are more effective in  
280 changing behavior than static norms. In contrast to static norms (i.e., behaviors that are seen as  
281 unchanging), dynamic norms are behaviors that are shown by a minority of people, are  
282 *counternormative* , but are also become more commonly done (i.e., behaviors that are seen as  
283 changing; see Mortensen et al., 2017; Sparkman & Walton, 2017). Replications of our research  
284 could contribute to this new stream of research and address underlying mechanisms; for  
285 example, by investigating whether the future perceived norm explains the effect of social  
286 modeling on behavior change (see Sparkman & Walton, 2017). Future research could also  
287 experimentally manipulate the dynamic social norm by varying whether a social role model is  
288 present or not. Such research would address a further limitation of the present study: the fact that  
289 this study examined neither boundary conditions for the observed behavioral change, nor the  
290 underlying psychological processes that are responsible for the observed effect.

291       Even though this field study demonstrated social modeling induced by a small group of  
292 consumers, the rate of the desired behavior requires further discussion. While customers used  
293 their own reBOX 110 times and contributed to 40 new choices of a reusable takeaway box, 2,410  
294 meals were still ordered in disposable takeaway boxes. These numbers raise the question of  
295 whether the reCIRCLE offering itself and its existing informational materials induce detrimental  
296 psychological processes that impact the rate of the desired behavior. One critical element of the  
297 reCIRCLE system is that its customers rent the reBOX for about \$10. In addition to potentially  
298 feeling like one is being charged for acting sustainably, having to spend \$10 can be a barrier.  
299 While the sustainable option should be easy (Schultz, 2014), in this case it is the less convenient  
300 option.



301 In conclusion, the serious ecological and economic consequences of the production and  
302 discarding of disposable takeaway containers calls for the implementation of effective  
303 interventions to foster the use of reusable takeaway boxes. The present field study demonstrates  
304 the importance of getting at least a small group of consumers to perform a desired behavior in  
305 order to serve as social role models for others.

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