



Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen

The effectiveness of a social marketing campaign during a worldwide pandemic

Measuring the effect of the adding of a personal or social norm to a social marketing campaign message on attitude towards coronavirus rules and exploring whether this effect is stronger for individuals that score high on consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy

Master thesis marketing

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14-06-2021

Information overview

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Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has greatly affected and occupied the world. Dutch citizens are struggling to behave according to the set guidelines, due to the large number and complexity of these rules. Therefore, this research wants to contribute to further improve our understanding of how attitudes towards the coronavirus can be changed. This quantitative study focused on including a personal or social norm in the message of a social marketing campaign, to see the effect of these norms on an individual's attitude towards coronavirus rules. Next, this study explored if this effect is stronger for individuals that score high on consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy. A 2x2 between-subjects experiment was designed to get a better understanding of these subjects. The inclusion of a strong personal or social norm positively affects a person's attitude towards the coronavirus rules. Identification with the campaign does only strengthen the relationship of a personal norm on attitude towards coronavirus but does not play a role in the relationship with a social norm. For both ways of communicating a campaign message, via a personal or social norm, legitimacy does not play a role in their relationship with attitude towards coronavirus rules. This research deviates from other studies by implementing principles of the Norm Activation Theory into the Theory of Planned behavior and contributes to the existing knowledge on social marketing and health behavior change theory. This study is relevant for campaign developers addressing the coronavirus rules, as it states concrete implications to improve campaign efficiency.

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1. Introduction

This chapter introduces this master thesis, starting with the research area: the importance of social marketing campaigns during the outbreak of the coronavirus. Subsequently, the research problem is described and the relevance of addressing the issue, both theoretical and practical, is explained. Finally, the structure of the report is stated.

1.1 Social marketing campaigns

The outbreak of the coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) started in December 2019, Wuhan, China. An acute respiratory syndrome (COVID-19) caused a worldwide epidemic (Zhou et al., 2020). Within three months the World Health Organization declared a global pandemic, due to the rapid spread of the virus worldwide. A major consequence of the exponential growth of the virus was an extensive global health crisis and subsequently massive local, national, and global public health campaigns to diminish the spread of the virus. Such campaigns have themes regarding hygiene, wearing face masks in public spaces, and informing people about the importance of social distancing (Van Bavel et al., 2020).

The COVID-19 epidemic forms a case in which individual behavior needs to be addressed. Social marketing planning and thinking provide methods to address a societal situation that requires a change in behavior (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971; Andreasen, 1995). Societal situations that can apply social marketing techniques are health promotion and disease prevention, protection of the environment, and contribution to communities (Kotler & Lee, 2008). *'Social marketing is the design, implementation, and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communications, distribution, and marketing research''* (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971, p. 5). As described, a social marketing campaign is a mean to achieve this behavioral change. Change in attitudes, beliefs, but most of all the behavior of the individual or group the campaign is targeted at (Fishbein & Yzer, 2003). A predictor for behavioral change is attitude. This relationship has often been demonstrated in scientific research. Attitude towards the behavior as a predictor for intention and actual behavior change has been described in the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Further elaboration on the Theory of Planned Behavior and using attitude towards the behavior as the outcome variable to determine the effectiveness of the social marketing campaign, will be provided in the literature review.

To furtherly increase people's willingness to change, individuals must be made aware of the positive consequences of engaging in a specific behavior (Cialdini, 1991). Especially in

prosocial behaviors, which benefit not only the individual itself, but also other persons (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2005). The COVID-19 epidemic is a case whereby cooperating in prosocial behavior, via following the set rules, will help to benefit society as a whole. Norm Activation Theory is a commonly applied theory in prosocial behavior situations (De Groot & Steg, 2009). Individuals construct expectations regarding prosocial behavior, also called norms. These norms play a role in forming an attitude towards these behaviors and the eventual decision-making process to execute behavior.

Two different types of approaches can be distinguished when communicating messages of prosocial behavior in social marketing campaigns, either via personal or social norms. Campaigns that express the campaign message via personal norms, emphasize on the individuals' moral obligation to perform a certain behavior to benefit others (Schwartz, 1968). Personal norms are activated when an individual recognizes possibilities to engage in actions, to benefit others. This person considers the material or psychological gains and costs of helping (Bamberg, Hunecke, & Blöbaum, 2007). If the person is aware of the positive consequences of engaging in a specific type of behavior, their attitude towards it will improve (Zhang, Geng, & Sun, 2017). Expressing a campaign message through social norms focuses on expressing to an individual what important others think about engaging a certain behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). This develops a feeling of social pressure, with fears for social sanctions (Bamberg, Hunecke, & Blöbaum, 2007). Humans want to maintain a positive self-concept, which can be achieved through affiliation with others. Acting in line with social norms contributes to this need for affiliation (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). If significant reference persons perceive something as positive, this will influence an individuals' perception as well.

Consumer responses to an advertisement vary per person, their attitudinal reaction is therefore different per person (Orth, Koenig, & Firbasova, 2007). The level of identification with the campaign consumers face, and the extent to which they find the campaign legitimate are crucial factors that can influence their reaction or attitude towards the campaign (Boyd, 2000; Messagris, 1997). When consumers strongly identify themselves with the message expressed via the campaign, they feel that they act in line with inner goals and motivations (Ciampa, Sirowatka, Schuh, Fraccaroli, & van Dick, 2019). A high degree of legitimacy will lead to greater acceptance, cooperation, and support towards the campaign (Wolfe, Nix, Kaminski, & Rojek, 2016). This will lead to positive feelings and a greater influence of the campaign claim made.

1.2 Research problem

The behavior of Dutch citizens during this corona crisis has changed. There is growing resistance against the policy on corona and Dutch citizens are struggling to behave according to the set guidelines, due to the large number and complexity of these rules. The government is struggling with how to change citizens' behavior. Therefore, there is a major need for a large-scale governmental campaign to influence our behavior in the desired direction (Bouma, 2020). People must keep participating and combatting the virus must become their common goal again (Visser, 2020). As described above, to accomplish a behavioral change, a change in attitude (explained in the Theory of Planned Behavior) is necessary. Attitude towards the behavior is one of three determinants that capture behavior intention, which subsequently can lead to behavioral change. Existing campaigns concerning coronavirus rules are insufficiently successful. Communicating the social marketing campaign message via a strong personal or social norm can positively influence the attitude towards the behavior and therefore will influence behavioral intentions. As identification and finding a campaign claim legitimate will lead to positive feelings, one would expect that a high score on identification and legitimacy would strengthen the relationship between a personal or social norm and the attitude towards coronavirus rules.

Therefore, research will be conducted on the effects of including a personal or social norm in the campaign message and the effect of campaign identification and legitimacy on this relationship.

This leads to the following research question: *“Can the attitude towards coronavirus rules be improved by communicating the campaign message via a personal or social norm, and is this effect stronger for individuals that score high on consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy?”*

1.3 Theoretical and practical relevance

The theory of social marketing has been applied in a variety of behavioral challenges regarding public health interventions (Craig Lefebvre, & Flora, 1988). The coronavirus influences issues regarding health, society, and politics and therefore suits the approach for applying social marketing theories (MacFadyen, Stead, & Hastings, 2003). Social marketing is about social change campaigns and the influence on behavioral change (Andreasen, 2002). Following the Theory of Planned Behavior, the attitude towards the behavior is a predictor for intention and actual behavior change. To furtherly increase people's willingness to change, especially in prosocial behaviors, individuals must be made aware of the positive consequences of engaging

in that specific behavior. Norm Activation Theory is the process of individuals constructing expectations regarding prosocial behavior (Harland, Staats, & Wilke, 2007). These so-called norms can be communicated via two approaches. Personal norms address the individuals feeling of responsibility and moral obligation to perform a certain behavior. Social norms focus on the social pressure experienced by an individual to act in a specific way. This research deviates from other studies by implementing principles of the Norm Activation Theory into the Theory of Planned behavior and contributes to the existing knowledge on social marketing and health behavior change theory. It will study the effect of the inclusion of a personal or social norm in a campaign message on attitude towards the coronavirus rules. Next, this research examines the effect of campaign identification and legitimacy on this relationship. Whereas high levels of identification and legitimacy are expected to contribute to stronger positive feelings towards the campaign and proposed rules.

This study explains that incorporating a strong personal or social norm in a campaign message has a positive influence on a person's attitude towards coronavirus rules and should be taken into account to further improve our understanding of how attitudes towards the coronavirus can be changed. When a campaign includes a personal norm, a greater degree of identification strengthens the relationship between the personal norm and attitude towards the coronavirus rules. In campaigns with a social norm, identification does not play a role in the relationship between social norms and attitude towards coronavirus rules. Finally, for both ways of communicating a campaign message, via a personal or social norm, legitimacy does not play a role in their relationship with attitude towards coronavirus rules. These outcomes contribute to the existing literature on (campaign) identification and legitimacy and their role in influencing attitudes.

This study is relevant for anyone who develops campaigns addressing the coronavirus rules. In this study, the experiment was executed using an example of a governmental campaign, but also other organizations developing campaigns addressing coronavirus rules, can benefit from the findings of this study. Both, a strong personal and social norm can be implemented in campaigns to positively affect the attitude. When using a strong personal norm in the campaign, campaign developers should emphasize on individual responsibility and moral obligation. As following these rules does not only result in positive consequences for themselves, but also for society as a whole. Identification with the campaign strengthens the effect of a personal norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules. Campaign-makers should delve into the addressed target group, so they can learn more about their characteristics and self-image. By incorporating these

into the campaign, individuals will recognize and identify themselves easier with the campaign. When including a strong social norm, developers should focus on expressing a large social pressure in the message. This can elaborate on how the majority of society thinks about the coronavirus rules, or how the majority of society behaves. By expressing these numbers in percentages, the message will be made more concrete. Identification does not play a role in the relationship between a social norm and attitude towards coronavirus rules. Therefore, campaign-makers should not lay their focus on this while developing campaigns. Lastly, for both ways of communicating a campaign message, via a personal or social norm, legitimacy does not play a role in their relationship with attitude towards coronavirus rules. Therefore, legitimacy should not be taken into account when developing campaigns regarding coronavirus rules.

1.4 Thesis outline

In the next section, relevant theories will be discussed that furtherly describe and explain the research problem. Chapter 3 will describe the methodology of this research. Following with the actual data collection and results, that will be described in chapter 4. Finally, the conclusion is stated in chapter 5, consisting of a discussion of the results, implications for theory and practice, limitations of this study, and possible directions for future research.

2. Literature review

This chapter provides a theoretical background of concepts that are relevant in this master thesis. First, this review gives an introduction to social marketing theory, following with health behavior theory. Next, the concept of attitude as a predictor of behavioral change and Norm Activation Theory are discussed. Subsequently, this review elaborates on social and personal norms, consumer-campaign identification, and campaign legitimacy. Finally, the conceptual model is drawn in section 2.6.

2.1 Social Marketing Theory

This paragraph will elaborate on the origin, definition, and goal of social marketing theory.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, thoughts were raised that marketing techniques and tools could be applied to address social issues (Kotler & Levy, 1969). The use of marketing is relevant for all institutions, companies, and organizations that have customer groups. Early definitions of social marketing focus on how to influence the acceptability of social intentions using the 4 P's (product, price, place, and promotion) (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). This definition has often been applied in commercial marketing, but social marketing differs from marketing with a commercial focus (Peattie & Peattie, 2003). There is a danger in applying commercial marketing techniques to social marketing, own theory is required (Hastings, 2003; Bloom & Novelli, 1981). Andreasen (1994) criticized the earlier attempts to approach social marketing. He proposed the following definition: *'Social marketing is the adaptation of commercial marketing technologies to programs designed to influence the voluntary behavior of target audiences to improve their personal welfare and that of society of which they are a part'* (p. 110). In this explanation, the focus lays on influencing behavior, which is seen as the goal of social marketing. The word *voluntary* is crucial in this definition. Eventually, it is the individual itself that decides to accept the behavioral change or not (Andreasen, 1994).

The awareness and application of social marketing are increasing. Social marketing already has been applied in a variety of health education and social settings. It practices as a mean to guide social change campaigns and wants to influence behavioral change (Dann, 2010; Andreasen, 2002). The importance of changing behavior is confirmed by Kotler and Lee (2008). The authors describe four goals that social marketers can achieve when influencing the behavior of the target group, being: (1) *accepting* a new behavior (e.g., social distancing), (2) *reject* potentially undesirable behavior (e.g., protesting against coronavirus rules), (3) *modify* a current behavior (e.g., increase the number of times washing hands), (4) *abandon* old undesirable behavior (e.g., shaking hands or kissing when saluting).

2.2 (Health) Behavior Change Theory

This paragraph gives a definition of (health) behavior change theory and explains the importance of this theory in the context of social marketing theory.

Whereas behavioral change is an outcome to evaluate a social marketing campaign, the link between behavior change theory and social marketing theory becomes urgently important (Thackeray & Neiger, 2000). Social marketers want to understand social and health behavior, and how these evolve over time (Hastings & Soren, 2003). Behavior change methods can guide individuals or organizations that are seeking support to make a behavioral change (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2005). This change can be achieved among different types of behavior or populations, and in varying contexts (Hagger, Moyers, McAnally, & McKinley, 2020). A behavior change intervention is described by Michie and West (2013) as: *‘a co-ordinated set of activities designed to change specified behaviour patterns’* (p. 10). Theory in behavioral change research has insights into relevant causal factors of the behavior and can therefore help to maximize the intervention effectiveness (Bartholomew & Mullen, 2011).

Behavioral change theory in the context of health is necessary to explain and predict behavior but can also help in the process of designing and evaluating a social marketing intervention (Lippke & Ziegelmann, 2008). *‘Health behavior theories are attempts to describe why individuals do or do not engage in particular health behaviors and how individuals go about changing their unhealthy to healthy behaviors’* (Noar, Chabot, & Zimmerman, 2008, p. 276). The existing literature on health behavior consists of various theories, following Noar and Zimmerman (2005) these include: *‘The Health Belief Model [HBM (Becker, 1974)], Theory of Reasoned Action [TRA (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980)] and Theory of Planned Behavior [TPB (Ajzen & Madden, 1986)], Social Cognitive Theory [SCT (Bandura, 1986)], and the Transtheoretical Model [TTM (Prochaska and DiClemente, 1983)]’* (p. 277). Noar, Chabot, & Zimmerman (2008) continue with newer theories that have been receiving more attention, such as the Precaution Adoption Process Model (PAPM; Weinstein & Sandman, 2002), and the Behavioral Skills Model (IMB; Fisher & Fisher, 2002).

Health behavior theory serves two goals. The first is to predict behavior. Factors that serve as determinants of ongoing behavior are studied to understand why certain individuals engage in a behavior change, and why others do not (Weinstein, Rothman, & Sutton, 1998). The second objective focuses on the stages of behavioral change. It is directed at determining the steps of the process during an actual change of behavior for an individual (Fishbein et al., 2001).

The focus of this research lays on achieving behavioral change, as it is the desired outcome of a social marketing campaign. How behavioral change can be effectuated, will be explained in the following paragraph.

2.3 Attitude as a predictor of behavioral change

This paragraph elaborates how attitude can predict behavioral change according to the Theory of Planned Behavior.

As discussed in the last section, to achieve the goal of developing effective interventions and behavioral change, known theory is used. The Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen & Madden, 1986) has been used extensively as a theoretical model to study changes in behavior (De Bruijn & Rhodes, 2011). The Theory of Planned Behavior is an extension of the Theory of Reasonable Action. It describes the intention of an individual to act in a certain way (Ajzen, 1991). The behavioral intention is captured in three determinants. These determinants are attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (see [figure 1](#)). Subsequently, this intention towards a certain behavior is a predictor of an individual executing a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The stronger the intention is to be engaged in a specific behavior, the more likely it is this behavior is executed in real life. Using behavior intention to predict behavior action has been proven to be a reasonable indicator in previous research (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989; Hill, Smith, & Mann, 1987; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988).

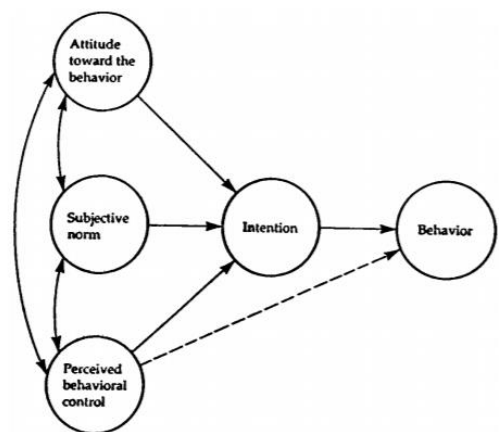


Fig. 1. Conceptual model of the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

Following the Theory of Planned Behavior, the attitude towards a behavior affects the behavioral change. Attitude as a predictor for intention and actual behavior change has been often demonstrated in scientific research. Applying this relationship to advertisement, Lutz, MacKenzie, & Belch (1983) show that the attitude towards the ad will influence purchase intentions. Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2005) demonstrate the significance of this relationship within the food industry. The attitude towards buying organic food influences buying intentions. This relationship has also been tested in a health context. Bagozzi (1981) elaborates on the significant effect of attitude on the behavior intention of people regarding blood donation.

These studies, once more, show that a change in attitude influences a change of behavior. For this reason, this research uses attitude towards coronavirus rules as the outcome variable to determine the effectiveness of the social marketing campaign.

2.4 Norm Activation Theory

This paragraph introduces how Norm Activation Theory can be applied to encourage people to change a certain behavior.

The previous section shows that the attitude towards a behavior influences the actual behavior. To furtherly increase people's willingness to change, individuals must be made aware of the positive consequences of engaging in a specific behavior (Cialdini, 1991). Especially in prosocial behaviors, which are acts that benefit not only the individual themselves, but also other persons (Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2005). Following coronavirus rules is an example of prosocial behavior, whereby helping, sharing, and cooperating will benefit society as a whole (Batson, 1998). Norm Activation Theory is a commonly used theory applied to prosocial behavior situations (De Groot & Steg, 2009). It refers to the process of individuals constructing expectations regarding prosocial behavior (Harland, Staats, & Wilke, 2007). These expectations are referred to as norms, and these norms play a role in forming an attitude towards these behaviors and the actual decision-making process to execute that specific type of prosocial behavior.

2.5 Personal and Social Norms

This paragraph will describe the meaning and expected effect of including a personal or social norm in a campaign message.

Two different types of approaches can be distinguished when communicating messages of prosocial behavior in social marketing campaigns. The first approach is the use of a personal norm in campaign communication, this principle finds origin in the Norm Activation Theory (Schwartz, 1968). The use of a social norm is described in the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991). We propose that communicating the message of a social marketing campaign via personal or social norms influences the attitude towards coronavirus rules.

Following Schwartz and Davis (1981), personal norms are referred to as feeling: “*a moral obligation to perform or refrain from specific actions*” (P. 191). It is the feeling of responsibility of an individual to benefit others, without considering the benefits for the individual itself (Schwartz, 1968; De Groot & Steg, 2009). Applying the notion of Norm Activation Theory to campaigns regarding coronavirus rules, people who are conscious of the positive outcomes that can be accomplished and feel a personal responsibility for this, will feel a moral obligation to

use these practices to protect others. Individuals that are aware of the positive consequences when they perform according to a specific behavior, will be more likely to have a positive attitude towards performing this behavior (Zhang, Geng, & Sun, 2017). In other words, when confronted with a campaign message containing a strong personal norm, the individual will feel strongly responsible and morally obliged to follow these rules. As this will have positive consequences for others, they are more likely to have a positive attitude towards these rules and desired behaviors. When confronted with a campaign message that expresses a weak personal norm, their feelings of responsibility and moral obligation will be less present. Individuals are less conscious about their decisions having consequences for others, and therefore these norms are less likely to influence their attitude towards these rules and desired behaviors. Thus, the following hypothesis is stated:

H1: The use of a strong personal norm in a campaign message will have a stronger effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules, than the use of a weak personal norm in the campaign.

Social norm refers to ‘‘the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior’’ (Ajzen 1991, p. 188). It represents perceptions of an individual of what important others think about engaging a certain behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Affiliating with others is an important part of maintaining a positive self-concept. Acting in line with social norms is a way to seek this goal of affiliation (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Within the Netherlands, there is broad support for many of the coronavirus rules (RIVM, 2021). So, most of the Dutch population perceives the coronavirus rules as necessary and helpful. Obeying these rules will lead to getting back their ‘‘normal life’’. Following the principle of social norms, if the campaign expresses how important others in the environment of an individual feel, this will influence the perception of the individual itself as well. Social marketing campaigns regarding coronavirus rules can communicate this willingness of the majority of the Dutch population to follow coronavirus rules. By doing this, individuals will be exposed to how other people have a positive attitude towards the coronavirus rules and take these perceptions into account when forming their own attitudes. When a campaign message expresses a strong social norm, individuals will feel a large social pressure to participate and follow these rules and desired behaviors. Perceptions are, that a large group of people has a positive attitude towards these rules, and therefore the individual itself will also experience a more positive attitude. In contrast, when the message contains a weak social norm, the pressure experienced to follow these rules will be lower. As a smaller group has a positive attitude towards these rules and

behaviors, this will lead to a less positive attitude of the individual itself towards these rules as well.

Therefore, we come to the following hypothesis:

H2: The use of a strong social norm in a campaign message will have a stronger effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules, than the use of a weak social norm in the campaign.

2.6 Moderating effects of consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy

This paragraph discusses the meaning and expected effect of consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy.

Consumer responses to advertising messages vary and attitudinal reactions differ per person (Orth, Koenig, & Firbasova, 2007). When reflecting on a campaign, consumer identification is thought to predict the level of involvement with those messages (Messaris, 1997). To get the public to support and involve in the message proposed in the campaign, legitimacy is crucial (Boyd, 2000). We propose that the effects of a personal or social norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules depend on the degree of consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy.

Identification is *“the perception of oneness with or belongingness to”* (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 21). According to social identity theory, the self-concept of an individual consists of a personal and social identity. This social identification can depend on demographic characteristics, as well as identification with educational, religious, or cultural institutions (Tajfel and Turner, 1985). *“When individuals identify with a relevant group, they perceive themselves as components of a higher order social unit”* (Reese, Proch, & Finn, 2015, p. 426). The concept of consumer-campaign identification is adapted from the concept of customer-company identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Consumer-campaign identification elaborates on consumers developing connectedness towards campaigns through identification with it (Tsang, Ho, & Liang, 2004). Identification helps consumers to achieve the need for self-definition, and this can enhance their self-esteem (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Shahr et al., 2003). Individuals prefer to act in line with their self-concepts and self-views (Campbell et al., 1996). If consumers identify themselves with the message claimed in the campaign, they feel confident that they act in line with their inner goals and motivations (Ciampa, Sirowatka, Schuh, Fraccaroli, & van Dick, 2019). This will lead to a greater influence of the campaign claim made. Just as individuals can identify with a campaign, they can distance themselves from it (Einwiller & Johar, 2013). This means, that if consumers do not identify with the message claimed, a

mismatch with their self-definition arises (Ciampa et al., 2019). As individuals want to act in line with inner motivation and goals, the impact of the claim presented will decrease, due to the gap between their self-concepts and the claim made. Thus, we formally hypothesize:

H3: Consumer-campaign identification moderates the relationship between personal norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience high consumer-campaign identification than for individuals who experience low consumer-campaign identification.

H4: Consumer-campaign identification moderates the relationship between social norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience high consumer-campaign identification than for individuals who experience low consumer-campaign identification.

Legitimacy is considered by Suchman (1995, p. 574) as: *“a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions”*. To obtain consumer endorsement, legitimacy is necessary (Kumar & Das, 2007; Zimmerman & Zeitz, 2002). If organizations have high levels of legitimacy, consumers perceive their actions as appropriate (Yu, Tao, Chen, Zhang, & Xu, 2019). This will lead to acceptance of decisions, public cooperation, and greater support (Wolfe et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2019). Translating this to the perceived degree of legitimacy towards a campaign message leads to the following: if the claim made is seen as legitimate, individuals will cooperate and show greater support for the message spread. In contrast, when the campaign message is considered as not legitimate, cooperation and support are replaced with resistance (Lammers, Galinsky, Gordijn, & Otten, 2008). If individuals deem the campaign claim made as not legitimate, they are reluctant to show support and cooperation. For this reason, we propose the following:

H5: Campaign legitimacy moderates the relationship between personal norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience a high degree of campaign legitimacy than for individuals who experience a low degree of campaign legitimacy.

H6: Campaign legitimacy moderates the relationship between social norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience a high degree of campaign legitimacy than for individuals who experience a low degree of campaign legitimacy.

2.7 Conceptual Model

Taken these hypotheses into account, we depict our proposed conceptual model in figure 2.

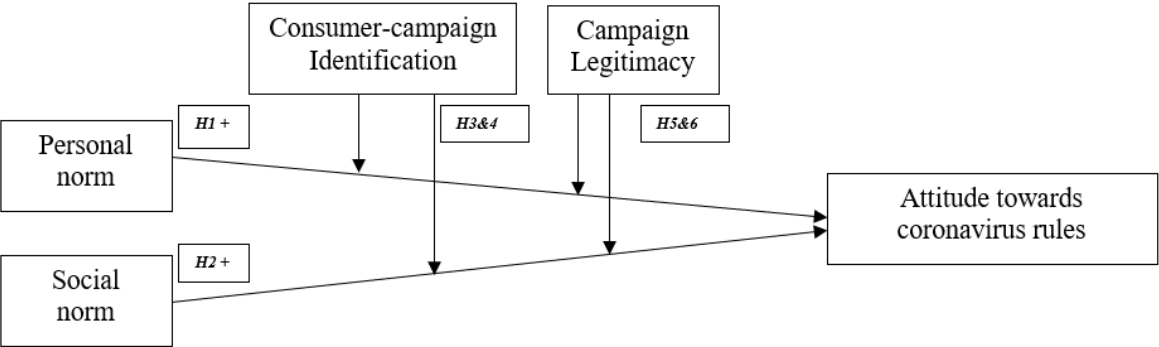


Fig. 2. Conceptual model.

3 Methodology

This chapter provides insights into the method used for this research to collect data, how the research is designed, the way constructs are measured, outcomes of the pre-test for testing the manipulation, the data analysis process, the sample of this research, and finally elaborates on research ethics.

3.1 Data collection

This paragraph will explain how data for this study has been collected.

To test the hypotheses, an experiment has been conducted. This has been done to get a better understanding of the influence of a personal or social norm (weak/strong) in a message on attitude towards coronavirus rules. An experiment was suitable for this research question because it examines the influence of a specific treatment or condition on the cause-effect relationship (Field, 2018). The experiment was conducted online, through Qualtrics Software. It has been distributed through multiple social media channels (LinkedIn and Facebook). The authors were aware of the risks of approaching respondents via different types of social media channels. Individuals active on these sites have different motives and purposes to use these platforms, and this can result in different types of respondents. Especially in current times regarding the coronavirus, collecting respondents for this experiment was challenging. Being aware of the risks, using multiple platforms to gather data was necessary to reach the required minimum number of respondents. The personal network of the researchers was used to collect data. These respondents, concerning fellow students, colleagues, friends, and family were considered rather representative of the entire Dutch population. Although this sample was not collected at random, the sample was convenient and was still useful to gather enough respondents for this master theses to draw reliable conclusions. In this master theses, the decision was made to not focus on a specific target group, but to rather keep it broad and to question members of the Dutch population as a whole.

3.2 Design and Stimuli

This paragraph elaborates on how the scenarios for the experiment are arranged.

As discussed in section 2.3 of the literature review, in order to motivate and incite people to change, norms can be used in campaign claims. Communicating the message via a personal or social norm provides this exchange. In this research, a 2(weak/strong personal norm) x 2(weak/strong social norms) between-subjects design was used. Four campaigns were created to cover all scenarios.

A real-life campaign of the Dutch government was used to manipulate the two factors: the personal and social norm. The first two scenarios represented the personal norm. Key fundamentals in the personal norm approach were feeling a moral obligation and a feeling of responsibility of an individual to benefit others. This needed to become clear in the manipulation of the original campaign. To make a distinction between the weak and strong personal norm scenarios, the pressure between the two varied. In scenario 1, representing the weak personal norm, individuals reading the campaign were told that they *should* take responsibility. In scenario 2, representing the strong personal norm, readers of the campaign were told that it is their *moral obligation* to take responsibility.

The third and fourth scenarios covered the weak and strong social norm. Hereby, it was of importance to express to an individual what others think about engaging in a certain behavior. An example of applying a social norm message in a campaign to combat alcohol abuse is: “50 percent of the students have five or fewer drinks when they party” (Wechsler et al., 2003). This way of formulating can also be applied to the percentage of Dutch citizens obeying the coronavirus rules. Again, a distinction was made between the two scenarios regarding social norms. In scenario three, representing a weak social norm, a *low percentage (20%)* of people obeys the coronavirus rules. In scenario four, representing a strong social norm, a *high percentage (80%)* of the population obeys the coronavirus rules. By choosing a high and low percentage, the social pressure experienced by the reader varied.

Participants were asked to read the scenario and answered questions based on what they have just read. To decrease the chances of language problems and misinterpretation this experiment was held in Dutch. The four scenarios that were used in this experiment, can be found in appendix A.

3.3 Construct measurements

This paragraph describes the variables of this experiment and how they are being measured.

This research featured two independent variables (personal and social norm) manipulated as described above. Furtherly, the study contained one dependent variable; attitude towards coronavirus rules and two moderators; consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy. Existing scales were adapted as necessary to fit our context to measure these constructs. All items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale and can be found in appendix B.

For the measurement of attitude towards coronavirus rules, five items were used. Two items were generated based on the procedure suggested by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980). Three items were adapted from Henthorne, LaTour, & Nataraajan (1993).

To measure consumer-campaign identification, one item was used from Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun (2006), and two items were adapted from Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) to reflect the degree of perceived similarity.

Campaign legitimacy was measured through four items. The first two were adapted from Bitektine, Hill, Song, & Vandenberghe (2020) and the third and fourth items were conducted from Randrianasolo and Arnold (2020).

3.4 Procedure

This paragraph describes the content of the experiment and how it has been conducted.

As described before, the experiment was distributed online through Qualtrics software. At the start of the experiment, a cover letter was presented to the respondents. This letter stated that the study is interested in people's opinions about campaigns regarding coronavirus rules. People gave their informed consent before they continued. Additionally, participants were told there were no right or wrong answers, this has been done to reduce the possibility that respondents edited their answers to be more socially desirable (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Lastly, the researchers' e-mail address was provided, in case the respondent had any questions or remarks.

Then, respondents were randomly assigned to one of the four conditions. They were asked to closely examine the image and read the campaign text. All four campaigns consisted of the same image, and the displayed text was as similar as possible across all four scenarios. This minimized the possibility that group differences are attributable to other effects than the manipulation. Only the text in the four scenarios was different, to make distinguishments between a (weak/strong) personal and (weak/strong) social norm. The differences in text between the four scenarios can be seen below:

Table 1. Text per campaign

Scenario	Text	Word count
Weak personal norm	<i>Je kunt je verantwoordelijkheid nemen en je houden aan de coronaregels. Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.</i>	19
Strong personal norm	<i>Je bent verplicht om je verantwoordelijkheid te nemen en je te houden aan de coronaregels. Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.</i>	23
Weak social norm	<i>20% van alle Nederlanders houdt zich aan de coronaregels. Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.</i>	17
Strong social norm	<i>80% van alle Nederlanders houdt zit aan de coronaregels. Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.</i>	17

First, respondents were asked to answer the two manipulation check items. Following Morton and Williams (2010) manipulation checks are used to: ‘*check whether the manipulation conducted in an experiment is perceived by the subjects as the experimenter wishes it to be perceived*’ (p. 108). To check the credibility of the campaign materials used, a reality check was implemented by asking respondents to score the credibility of the campaign. Next, respondents filled in attitude scores (5 items) and scores for consumer-campaign identification (3 items) and campaign legitimacy (4 items). In the final section, respondents provided demographic information (gender, age, and educational level). The elaborated version of the questionnaire can be found in [appendix C](#).

3.5 Pre-test

This paragraph describes and states results from the pre-test, to check whether the manipulation was understood by the respondents.

Before conducting the actual experiment via Qualtrics, a pre-test was used to test whether the manipulations had worked. The manipulation in this study was the addition of a personal norm (weak/strong) or a social norm (weak/strong) to the campaign message. After the first pre-test, adjustments to the formulation of the manipulation questions were made, because these were experienced unclear by respondents. The second pre-test was perceived as better understandable. 17 participants have scored all four scenarios in this second pre-test. An independent samples T-test has been conducted to test the manipulation. The manipulation for the two scenarios with the personal norm (weak/strong) was tested via the following question: ‘*This campaign tells me that it is my responsibility to follow the rules*’. The pre-test has shown that the mean score of the campaign including a strong personal norm scored higher ($\mu_{\text{strong personal}} = 5.47$, $SD = 1.586$) than the campaign with a weak personal norm ($\mu_{\text{weak personal}} = 4.29$, $SD = 1.532$). This difference was found to be significant ($t = -2.200$, $p = 0.035$), which indicates

that respondents who saw the campaign with a strong personal norm felt more personally responsible to follow the rules than when the campaign included a weak personal norm. For the two scenarios including a social norm (weak/strong), the following question was asked: “ *This campaign tells me to follow the rules because others think I should*”. This pre-test has shown that the mean score of the campaign including a strong social norm scored higher ($\mu_{\text{strong social}} = 5.59$, $SD = 1.228$) than the campaign with a weak social norm ($\mu_{\text{weak social}} = 3.65$, $SD = 1.367$). This difference was also found to be significant ($t = -4.357$, $p = < .000$), which indicated that respondents who saw the campaign with a strong social norm felt more social pressure of others than when the campaign included a weak social norm.

The four campaign scenarios assessed in this pre-test were used in the main experiment.

3.6 Data analysis

This paragraph describes how the data will be processed.

To address the validity and reliability of the measurement scales, factor analysis has been conducted. This has been done to analyze how measured variables come together to represent the constructs. Cronbach’s alpha has been used to ensure the internal consistency of the constructs.

Then, ANOVA was used to analyze the generated data. By doing this, the results for the two manipulations and their direct effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules have been analyzed. Subsequently, an ANCOVA analysis provided insight into the interaction effects of consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy, to see what kind of effect these moderators had on the relationship between a personal or social norm and attitude towards coronavirus rules.

3.7 Data sample

This paragraph describes the minimum recommended sample size.

The recommended minimum cell size for (M)AN(C)OVA is 20 observations per group to maintain statistical power (Hair et al., 2019, p. 398). For this research, this meant that the minimum number of respondents should be 80 because four groups were distinguished. To lower the risk of having too few observations, due to incomplete or incorrectly entered surveys, the researchers strived to reach 100-120 filled out surveys.

3.8 A reflection on reliability and validity of the methodology

This paragraph elaborates on how the researchers strive to make the research as reliable and valid as possible.

Reliability is the ability of the measure to produce the same results under the same conditions (Field, 2018). To ensure reliability, this research has been executed carefully and consistently. Articles used in the literature review can be found on Google Scholar and are therefore retraceable. All articles have been published by a scientific or professional journal to ensure a certain level of scientific value. To diminish the chance of respondents making random errors while participating in the experiment, instructions on how to act during the experiment were provided. A minimum number of respondents was reached to have a large enough sample size. Preferably, all respondents executed the experiment under the same conditions. As this experiment was conducted online, this condition was hard to control. To measure and assess the internal consistency of constructs, Cronbach's alfa was used. Constructs were accepted to be reliable if $\alpha > .7$ (Hair et al., 2019).

Validity is whether an instrument measures what it sets out to measure (Field, 2018). Due to the scenario-based approach, external validity is limited. Scenarios are simplified versions of reality, but the researchers tried to make these scenarios as realistic and credible as possible. To ensure construct validity, items in this study are retrieved from existing measurement scales. Through factor analysis discriminant and convergent validity of the construct will be assessed. Discriminant validity assumes that items related to the same construct correlate higher among them than with items belonging to other constructs (Zaiț & Berteau, 2011). Convergent validity assesses the extent to which different measurement items of one construct correlate with each other (Cunningham, Preacher, & Banaji, 2001).

3.9 Research ethics

The general principles of professional academic conduct will be complied during this study and will be discussed below.

The general principles of ethical research and the Dutch Code of Conduct on Scientific Practice have been taken into account while executing this research (American Psychological Association, 2017; Vereniging van Universiteiten, 2014). The researchers strived to benefit the respondents in this study and not to do any harm. Participation was completely voluntary, and it only took place after respondents agreed to participate. The researchers' phone number and e-mail address were mentioned in the introduction of the experiment. By doing this, participants were offered the opportunity to be notified about the results. Respondents were free to withdraw

from the experiment at any point in time. Securing the privacy of the respondents during the study had a high priority, participating was anonymous and their responses were handled responsibly and confidentially. The researchers have been aware of the professional and scientific responsibilities. Participants were informed that they were participating in an experiment set up by a student studying at the Radboud University. Responses and data provided by the participants have only been used for this master thesis, not for any other purposes. By handling every response equally and respecting respondents' demographics, fairness and justice were taken into account while writing this master thesis.

4 Results

This chapter presents the results of the experiment. First outcomes of the manipulation and reality check are given. Then, the sample is described. Subsequently, through factor analysis, the reliability and validity of the measurement constructs are being assessed. Finally, the results per hypothesis are shown.

4.1 Manipulation check and credibility

This section states the outcomes of the manipulation check and subsequently the reality check. These checks have been executed to make sure that the manipulations have worked, and all scenarios were perceived as credible.

4.1.1 Manipulation check

A total of 245 people participated in this experiment. After the exclusion of participants who incompletely filled in questionnaires, 178 participants remained.

In this experiment, a manipulation is used to make distinguishments between the campaigns containing the personal norm (weak/strong) and the campaigns that used the social norm (weak/strong). This manipulation has been tested by using an independent samples t-test, to test whether the means of the weak and strong scenarios were significantly different. First, t-tests were conducted including all the completely filled in responses in the analysis ($N = 178$). The question “ *This campaign tells me that it is my responsibility to follow the rules* ” tested the manipulation for the two scenarios with the personal norm (weak/strong). The difference between the means of the weak and strong scenario was found to be non-significant ($t = - 1.287$, $p = .202$). For testing the manipulation of the two scenarios with the social norm (weak/strong), the question “ *This campaign tells me to follow the rules because others think I should* ” was used. The difference between these two means was found to be non-significant as well ($t = -.531$, $p = .597$). This implies that the group means within the two different experiment groups do not significantly differ. The main experiment did not work, while the results of the pre-test (section 3.5) did show significant results.

As significant results for the manipulation questions were crucial for the validity of this research and interpretation of the remaining results, the decision has been made to only select cases of respondents for whom the manipulation has worked. So, for the scenarios with a weak personal or social norm, only respondents that scored low (1 - 4) on the manipulation questions were included. And for the scenarios including a strong personal or social norm, respondents with high scores (5-7) were selected. A consequence of this decision was that the sample size per category was smaller but still larger than the recommended minimum cell size for ANCOVA

of 20 observations per group (Hair et al., 2019, p. 398). After selection on the criteria described above, 117 participants remained in the experiment.

Now, the results of the manipulation check in the experiment showed that the personal and social norm has been successfully manipulated. The independent sample t-test for the weak and strong scenarios for the personal norm was found to be significant ($t = -15.296$, $p < .000$). The mean of the group that has seen the campaign with the weak personal norm ($\mu_{\text{weak personal}} = 2.91$, $SD = .893$), was lower than the mean of the test group that has seen the campaign with a strong personal norm ($\mu_{\text{strong personal}} = 5.91$, $SD = .678$). This means that the manipulation has worked and that adding a strong personal norm to a campaign message leads to respondents feeling more moral obligation and responsibility to follow the set rules. The manipulation for the weak and strong scenarios regarding the social norm was also found to be significant (-13.016 , $p < .000$). The mean score of the group that has seen the campaign with the weak social norm ($\mu_{\text{weak social}} = 2.44$, $SD = 1.013$), was lower than the mean of the test group that has seen the campaign with a strong personal norm ($\mu_{\text{strong social}} = 5.68$, $SD = .748$). The t-test implied that the manipulation has been successful and that adding a strong social norm to a campaign message leads to respondents feeling more social pressure of significant others to follow the set rules.

4.1.2 Reality check

No significant difference was found in the credibility score ($F = 1.921$, $p = .130$). This means that there are no differences between the mean scores of the credibility of the four scenarios and that scenarios are comparable regarding the credibility. All scenarios were found to be credible; weak personal norm ($\mu = 4.03$), strong personal norm ($\mu = 4.39$), weak social norm ($\mu = 3.26$) and strong social norm ($\mu = 4.16$).

4.2 Sample description

This paragraph elaborates on the characteristics of the sample.

As stated earlier, to get significant results, every group in an experiment should consist of at least 20 observations (Hair et al., 2019). Hence, for this study, the minimum number of respondents per scenario was 20, and the total sample should be larger than 80. With a minimum of 25 observations per cell, and a total sample of 117 respondents, this experiment had a good sample size (see [table 2](#)). The sample ($N=117$) consisted of 66% women and 34% men. The age distribution was as follows: under 25 years 28%, 25 – 35 years 25%, 36 – 45 years 10%, 46 – 55 years 14%, 56 – 65 years 19%, and 66 – 75 years 4%. None of the respondents was above the age of 75 years. Regarding education, 7% finished secondary education, 21% middle-

level vocational education, 40% higher-level vocational education, 12% university bachelor's degree, and 20% university master's degree.

Table 2. Distribution of respondents per condition

	Personal norm	Social norm	N	Percentage
Condition 1	Weak	X	32	27.4%
Condition 2	Strong	X	33	28.2%
Condition 3	X	Weak	27	23.1%
Condition 4	X	Strong	25	21.4%
			117	100%

4.3 Reliability and validity

This paragraph explains the factor analysis, reliability, and validity of this study.

4.3.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis has been used to determine the number of items used in the remaining part of the analysis. To test the sample's appropriateness, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's test of sphericity are used. [Table 3](#) shows a value of .830 for KMO, which indicates that patterns of correlation are relatively compact and factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2018). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p < .05$), which means correlations between variables were significantly different from zero (Field, 2018). Both requirements were met, which made the data adequate for factor analysis.

Table 3. Sampling adequacy

KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.830
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	737.434
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

First, a principal axis factoring was conducted to see the results for all items. After extraction, the communalities of all items were above the recommended loading of .4. Three factors with an Eigenvalue of 1 or more were extracted (see appendix D). Combined, these factors explained 68,8% of the common variance. After rotation, item Attitude_2 was a cross-loader that loaded on factors 2 and 3. For this reason, Attitude_2 was deleted. After removal, a factor analysis could still be performed (KMO = .829 and Bartlett's test $p < .00$). Now, the communalities of all items were above the loading of .4. Three factors with an Eigenvalue of 1 or more were extracted and explained 72,9% of the common variance. All eleven items only loaded on one of the three factors (see appendix D).

4.3.2 Reliability

After completion of the factor analysis, the Cronbach's Alfa of all factors was conducted (see [table 4](#)), to ensure internal consistency. All factors had an alpha of $> .7$, which is the accepted value for data being reliable (Field, 2018). Exploration of possibilities to increase Cronbach's Alfa of each factor did not lead to the deletion of any items.

4.3.3 Validity

To establish the right causal conclusions, internal validity is crucial (Hair et al., 2019). The lack of randomization in experiments is a threat to internal validity. Therefore, in this experiment, respondents were assigned randomly to one of the four conditions. To check whether the experiment measured what it was designed to measure, two manipulation check items were implemented. Respondents were also asked about the credibility of the scenarios. Section 4.1 shows that the manipulations were found to be significant, which meant that the manipulation has worked. All four scenarios were scored as credible. The extent to which results can be generalized to the population as a whole is discussed through external validity (Hair et al., 2019). An existing campaign formed the base for the four scenarios, which increases external validity. Nonetheless, the sample consisted of 117 respondents which is not representative for the whole population. Especially with smaller samples, the results can lack generalizability due to sample size and method (Hair et al., 2019). To establish construct validity, indicators measuring each construct must show high internal consistency (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In this study composite reliabilities were all above the threshold of .8, this confirms construct validity (see [table 4](#)). The set of measured items in this study represents the latent constructs as they are designed to measure. The average variance extracted (AVE) for all the constructs is higher than .5 (see [table 4](#)). This indicates that the variance captured by each variable is

significantly larger than variance due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The set of measured items of a specific construct shared a high proportion of variance in common. Thus, demonstrating high convergent validity.

Table 4. Factors, items, and scores on Cronbach's Alfa, Average Variance Extracted, and Composite Reliability

Factor	Item	CA	AVE	CR
Attitude towards coronavirus rules	- Following rules concerning the coronavirus is important to me	.775	.585	.847
	- The rules presented in the campaign are relevant to me			
	- The rules presented in the campaign appeal to me			
	- The rules presented in the campaign are important for me			
Consumer-Campaign Identification	- The way I am fits in with what I perceive of this campaign	.880	.696	.873
	- I am similar to what I think this campaign represents			
	- The image I have of this campaign overlaps with my self-image			
Campaign Legitimacy	- I agree with what the message of this campaign is telling me	.901	.682	.895
	- To me, this campaign benefits society			
	- I find this campaign decent			
	- I find this campaign wise			

4.4 Testing of the hypothesis

This section will present the results of the conducted ANOVA and ANCOVA analysis

4.4.1 ANOVA assumptions

After the execution of the factor analysis, an analysis of the variance has been conducted. This method was chosen, to analyze the results of the main effect of a personal or social norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules. Before the execution of the ANOVA analysis, the assumptions were tested. The assumption of having independent variables of a categorical level (personal and social norm), and the dependent variable being metric (attitude towards coronavirus rules) has been met.

Following, the assumption of independent observations was met as well. Respondents were randomly assigned to only one of the four conditions and respondents could only participate once in the experiment.

Next, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. To test this assumption, Levene's test has been conducted. As the tests for personal norm ($p = .217$) and social norm ($p = .075$) were insignificant, this indicates that the variance was not significantly different and therefore makes the data homoscedastic.

Lastly, the assumption of normality has been tested via the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test. These tests compared the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation (Hair et al., 2019). For all variables these tests were insignificant ($p > .05$). This means the data is distributed normally and the assumption is met.

A further elaboration on the ANOVA assumptions can be found in appendix E.

4.4.2 The main effect of personal and social norms

The ANOVA analysis showed a significant main effect of a personal norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules ($F(1, 63) = 31.645, p < .000, \eta^2 .33$). When a campaign contains a message with a strong personal norm, the score on attitude towards coronavirus rules is higher than when the campaign has a message with a weak personal norm ($\mu_{\text{weak personal}} = 3.531; \mu_{\text{strong personal}} = 5.076, P < .000$). Meaning, that expressing a strong individual moral obligation and responsibility in the campaign message has a positive effect on a person's attitude towards the coronavirus rules. Based on this, we can accept hypothesis 1:

H1: The use of a strong personal norm in a campaign message will have a stronger effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules, than the use of a weak personal norm in the campaign.

The main effect of a social norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules is significant as well ($F(1, 50) = 35.964, p < .000, \eta^2 .42$). A campaign with a strong social norm claim led to a higher score on attitude towards coronavirus rules than when the campaign included a weak social norm ($\mu_{\text{weak social}} = 3.713; \mu_{\text{strong social}} = 5.120, P < .000$). In other words, adding a message that strongly expresses the social pressure of others in the campaign message has a positive effect on a person's attitude towards the coronavirus rules. Therefore, we can accept hypothesis 2:

H2: The use of a strong social norm in a campaign message will have a stronger effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules, than the use of a weak social norm in the campaign.

Detailed tables can be found in appendix E.

4.4.3 ANCOVA assumptions

To test if the moderators consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy affected the relationship of a personal or social norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules, an ANCOVA has been conducted. First, the assumptions were checked. As the two covariates are metric, the two independent variables categorical and the dependent variable is metric, this assumption has been met. Like the ANOVA analysis, the data was distributed normally.

To test the assumption of covariates correlating with the dependent variable, Pearson correlation test has been conducted. Both values for the covariates consumer-campaign legitimacy and campaign legitimacy were significant ($p < .01$), which means that there is a correlation between the covariates and the dependent variable attitude towards coronavirus rules, this assumption has been met.

Next, the assumption of independence of the covariate and treatment effect was analyzed via an ANOVA analysis. This analysis checked the relationship between the four scenarios and the two covariates consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy. Both outcomes (identification $p = .236$, legitimacy $p = .815$) were insignificant. This means there were no differences between the scenario levels on the covariate and were therefore independent, this assumption has been met.

Lastly, the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes has been tested. Regression analysis confirmed that there was homogeneity. The interaction effect of the independent variable personal norm and the covariate consumer-campaign identification was found insignificant ($p = .066$) as well as the interaction effect of the personal norm and campaign legitimacy ($p = .071$). The same applies for the interaction effect of the independent variable social norm and the covariate consumer-campaign identification ($p = .695$), and the effect of social norm and campaign legitimacy ($p = .341$). These insignificant results confirmed parallel regression lines, and therefore homogeneity.

A further elaboration on the ANCOVA assumptions can be found in Appendix F.

4.4.4 Moderating effects of customer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy

The ANCOVA analysis has shown that the main effect of a personal norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules is still significant ($F(1, 61) = 44.843, p < .000$). Also, the main effect of a social norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules ($F(1, 48) = 34.053, p < .000$) has shown significance. Therefore, the results of the covariates could be interpreted.

Support for an interaction effect of consumer-campaign identification and personal norms on attitude towards coronavirus rules was found ($F(1, 61) = 5.547, p < .05$). As the covariate has a positive direction ($B = .27$), this means that consumer-campaign identification has a positive effect on the relationship between the personal norm and attitude towards coronavirus rules. Therefore, the more an individual identifies themselves with the campaign, the larger the effect of a personal norm on attitude towards coronavirus rules becomes. This confirms hypothesis 3:

H3: Consumer-campaign identification moderates the relationship between personal norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience high consumer-campaign identification than for individuals who experience low consumer-campaign identification.

The interaction effect of consumer-campaign identification and social norms was found insignificant ($F(1, 48) = .128, p = .722$). This means that consumer-campaign identification does not moderate the relationship between a social norm and attitude towards coronavirus rules. Therefore, hypothesis 4 is rejected:

H4: Consumer-campaign identification moderates the relationship between social norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience high consumer-campaign identification than for individuals who experience low consumer-campaign identification.

The covariate campaign legitimacy was found to be insignificant for a personal norm ($F(1, 61) = 2.813, P = .99$) and a social norm ($F(1, 48) = 1.094, p = .301$). Campaign legitimacy does not moderate the relationship between personal or social norms and attitude towards coronavirus rules. For this reason, we reject hypothesis 5 and 6:

H5: Campaign legitimacy moderates the relationship between personal norm and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience a high degree of campaign legitimacy than for individuals who experience a low degree of campaign legitimacy.

H6: Campaign legitimacy moderates the relationship between social norm and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience a high degree of campaign legitimacy than for individuals who experience a low degree of campaign legitimacy.

Detailed tables can be found in Appendix F.

5 Conclusion

This chapter will answer the research question of this study. A reflection on the results will be given in the discussion. Furtherly this chapter will elaborate on managerial implications, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

This study has aimed to contribute to an improved understanding of how the effectiveness of a social marketing campaign can be improved through using a personal or social norm in the campaign message. We examined the effect of including a personal or social norm in a campaign concerning coronavirus rules on a person's attitude towards these rules. Subsequently, the moderating role of consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy have been assessed. The results of the six established hypotheses are used to answer the following research question: *“Can the attitude towards coronavirus rules be improved by communicating the campaign message via a personal or social norm, and is this effect stronger for individuals that score high on consumer-campaign identification and campaign legitimacy?”*. These results will be explained below.

Following the Norm Activation Theory (Schwartz, 1968), the inclusion of a norm in the campaign message can make individuals aware of the positive consequences when engaging in a specific behavior. Being aware of these positive consequences can influence the person's attitude towards this specific behavior. This norm can be communicated via two approaches, a personal norm or a social norm.

A strong personal norm will give individuals a feeling of responsibility and moral obligation to follow these rules. As this behavior has positive consequences for others, they are more likely to have a positive attitude towards these rules. Conform to our expectations, this study has found that expressing a campaign message via a strong personal norm has a stronger effect on a person's attitude towards the coronavirus rules, than when a campaign expresses the message via a weak personal norm. This confirms hypothesis 1: *The use of a strong personal norm in a campaign message will have a stronger effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules, than the use of a weak personal norm in the campaign.*

Social norms focus on the social pressure of others, felt by the individual exposed to the campaign. The more others see the campaign as important and have a positive attitude towards it, the larger the pressure is on an individual to take these perceptions into account when formulating their own attitude. In line with our expectations, a campaign that expresses a message via a strong social norm has a larger effect on the attitude of the individual, than when the campaign communicates via a weak social norm. Therefore, hypothesis 2: *The use of a*

strong social norm in a campaign message will have a stronger effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules, than the use of a weak social norm in the campaign, is accepted.

According to Messaris (1997), consumer identification is a predictor of the level of involvement when reflecting on a campaign. Therefore, consumer-campaign identification is taken into account as a moderator in this study. When consumers identify themselves with the message of the campaign, they feel that they act in line with their inner goals and motivations. This will lead to positive feelings and a greater influence of the campaign claim made. Contrarily, when consumers do not identify themselves with the message claimed, a mismatch with their self-definition arises, and the impact of the message presented will decrease. These expectations are only partly confirmed in this study. When a campaign uses a personal norm to communicate the message, greater identification with the campaign strengthens the relationship between personal norms and attitude. Therefore, hypothesis 3: *Consumer-campaign identification moderates the relationship between personal norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience high consumer-campaign identification than for individuals who experience low consumer-campaign identification, is accepted.*

However, when a campaign uses a social norm to express the message, the level of identification does not play a role on the relationship between social norms and attitude towards coronavirus rules. For this reason, hypothesis 4: *Consumer-campaign identification moderates the relationship between social norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience high consumer-campaign identification than for individuals who experience low consumer-campaign identification, is rejected.*

Boyd (2000) addresses the importance of legitimacy when getting public support and involvement in the message proposed in the campaign. A high degree of legitimacy will lead to greater acceptance, cooperation, and support. And therefore, will strengthen the relationship between a personal and social norm and attitude towards coronavirus rules. Contrarily, when individuals find a campaign claim made not legitimate, this cooperation and support are replaced with reluctance to support. This will weaken the relationship between a personal or social norm and attitude towards coronavirus rules. For both ways of communicating a campaign message, via a personal or social norm, legitimacy does not play a role on their relationship with attitude towards coronavirus rules. So, hypothesis 5: *Campaign legitimacy moderates the relationship between personal norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience a high degree of campaign*

legitimacy than for individuals who experience a low degree of campaign legitimacy, and hypothesis 6: Campaign legitimacy moderates the relationship between social norms and attitude towards the coronavirus rules, such that this relationship is stronger for individuals who experience a high degree of campaign legitimacy than for individuals who experience a low degree of campaign legitimacy, are rejected.

Based on the provided answers to the hypothesis, we can answer the research question stated above. Respondents that saw the scenarios including a message with a strong personal or social norm, scored significantly higher on attitude towards coronavirus rules than respondents confronted with a campaign that included a weak personal or social norm. Therefore, a campaign message expressed via a strong personal or social norm does have a stronger effect on attitude towards coronavirus rules, than campaign messages that include a weak personal or social norm. Subsequently, a personal norm has a stronger effect on the attitude towards coronavirus rules, when individuals identify themselves with the campaign. This effect does not apply for campaigns expressing a social norm, hereby identification with the campaign shows no significant effect. Finally, strong levels of campaign legitimacy do not strengthen the effect of personal or social norms on attitude towards coronavirus rules.

5.1 Discussion

This paragraph will discuss the theoretical implications of this study.

Kotler & Levey (1969) argued that existing marketing techniques and tools could also be applied to address social issues. Social marketing is about social change campaigns and wants to influence behavioral change (Andreasen, 2002). It can be applied in a variety of health education and social settings. As behavioral change is the desired outcome of a social marketing campaign. Behavioral change theory in the context of health can help to design and evaluate a social marketing intervention (Lippke & Ziegelmann, 2008). Following the Theory of Planned Behavior, the attitude towards the behavior is a predictor for intention and actual behavior change. This relationship has been proven in previous research (Lutz, MacKenzie, & Belch, 1983; Bagozzi, 1981). To further increase people's willingness to change, especially in prosocial behaviors, individuals must be made aware of the positive consequences when engaging in a specific behavior. Norm Activation Theory is the process of individuals constructing expectations regarding prosocial behavior (Harland, Staats, & Wilke, 2007). These expectations referred to as norms, play a role in forming an attitude towards the behavior and the decision-making process to execute the behavior. These norms can be communicated via two approaches.

Personal norms address feeling a responsibility or even a moral obligation to perform certain behavior (Schwartz & Davis, 1981; De Groot & Steg, 2009). The more people feel conscious about this responsibility and are aware of the positive outcomes they can achieve by acting in a certain way, their attitude towards performing regarding this behavior will be more positive. Mass communication (e.g., via advertisement or media attention) is one way to aim attention towards this moral obligation (Thøgersen & Ölander, 2006). Whereas personal norms address individual responsibility, social norms focus on social pressure to perform a certain behavior. Having relationships with and feeling connected towards others is an important part of maintaining a positive self-concept. Acting in line with social norms is a way to achieve this (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). Expressing this pressure (via social norms) in campaigns will expose individuals to the positive attitude of others towards coronavirus rules. Individuals will take these perceptions into considerations when formulating their own attitudes. If a large group of people is in favor of these rules, it is more likely that an individual will favor these rules as well, due to the desire of affiliating with others.

This study deviates from other studies by implementing principles of the Norm Activation Theory into the existing knowledge on social marketing and health behavior change theory. It confirms that the inclusion of a strong personal or social norm in a campaign message has a positive effect on the attitude towards coronavirus rules. Following, this study expands the existing knowledge on social marketing theory and health behavioral change theory by applying the knowledge to, the relatively new, COVID-19 epidemic.

According to Ciampa, Sirowatka, Schuh, Fraccaroli, & van Dick (2019), identifying with a campaign message leads to feelings of confidence, because they act in line with their inner goal and motivation. The more an individual identifies with the campaign, the more they feel connected with the campaign and therefore, the more positive their evaluation of the campaign would be. Contrary to our expectations, this has only been partly confirmed in this study. Only when a campaign makes use of a personal norm, high identification with the campaign strengthens the relationship between personal norms and attitude.

In campaigns with a social norm, identification does not play a role in the relationship between social norms and attitude towards coronavirus rules. This is contradictive with what we expected. This can be explained by the fact that the attitude of a person does not only rely on the person itself, but also on the environment an individual is in. In strong situations that *“induce uniform expectancies regarding the most appropriate response pattern”* (Mischel, 1977, p. 347), people will base their attitude more on the opinion of significant others, than on

their own thoughts and feelings (Wallace, Paulson, Lord, & Bond Jr, 2005). Government institutions and a large part of the Dutch population are convinced of the positive effects of following the coronavirus rules and therefore support these (RIVM, 2021). The COVID-19 epidemic can be labeled as a strong situation, in which the level of personal conviction or identification does not influence an individual's attitude, because of the nationwide broad support and positive attitude towards these coronavirus rules.

Boyd (2000) addresses the importance of legitimacy to get public support and involvement. A high degree of legitimacy will lead to greater acceptance, cooperation, and support. And will strengthen the relationship between a personal and social norm and attitude towards coronavirus rules. Contrary to our expectations, for both ways of communicating a campaign message, via a personal or social norm, legitimacy does not play a role on their relationship with attitude towards coronavirus rules. The Dutch government is highly involved in setting rules regarding the coronavirus rules, and they set pressure on society to follow these rules. The rules are seen as the public norm and behaving according to these rules is being institutionalized. When rules or behavior are being institutionalized, they are taken for granted assumptions and executing this behavior becomes routinized (Powell, 1991). Behavior is executed without active intervention, such as considering feelings of (il)legitimacy (Rahaman, Lawrence, & Roper, 2004). If individuals find the campaign (il)legitimate is not of importance because following the coronavirus rules has become the public norm and has become a routine.

5.2 Managerial implications

This paragraph elaborates on practical implications for people in the working field who want to develop campaigns addressing coronavirus rules.

We demonstrate that expressing the campaign claim via a strong personal or social norm leads to a better attitude towards the behavior explained in this message. Anyone who develops campaigns addressing coronavirus rules can benefit from the findings of this study. In this study the experiment was executed with an example of a governmental campaign, but also for other organizations developing campaigns addressing coronavirus rules, this study has some important findings.

Both, a personal and social norm, can be implemented in campaigns to positively affect attitude. If a strong personal norm is used, emphasis should be on addressing the individual responsibility and moral obligation to follow these rules. Campaigns should express that they must follow the coronavirus rules. as it does not only have positive consequences for themselves, but also the society as a whole. Identification with the campaign strengthens the

effect of personal norms on attitude towards coronavirus rules. Campaign-makers must take into account if individuals can easily recognize themselves in the campaign, for example by using persons or characters in the campaign that are familiar or relatable. By delving into the addressed target group, campaign-creators can learn more about the self-image of this group. They can adjust the campaign to this self-image to match the campaign better with the target group. By doing this, the target group can identify themselves easier with the campaign. The emphasis of a campaign that makes use of social norms must focus on what significant others think about engaging in certain behavior. Namely, a strong social norm in a campaign will lead to a greater score on attitude towards coronavirus rules. The campaign must express a large social pressure of what the majority of society thinks about the coronavirus rules, or how the majority of society behaves. This can be done by expressing these numbers in percentages, to make the message concrete. In campaigns with a social norm, identification does not play a role in the relationship between social norms and attitude towards coronavirus rules. Both ways of communicating a campaign message, via a personal or social norm, apply that legitimacy does not play a role on their relationship with attitude towards coronavirus rules.

5.3 Limitations and suggestions for further research

This study did not have a very specified target group, namely, the entire Dutch population. The sample size of this study ($N = 117$) is not representative of the whole population, which exist of 17.5 million people. Besides the size of the sample, distribution among gender, age, and educational level are not a perfect representation for the Dutch population. For example, 66 percent of the respondents were women, and no respondents were above the age of 75 years old. For future research, it is recommended to strive for a larger and more representative sample regarding age, gender, and educational level, so that results can be generalized.

As this research has taken place in the Netherlands, results are only applicable to the Dutch population. The coronavirus is a global pandemic. As global communication asks for adaption and differentiation into local communication strategies (Van Raaij, 1997), it would be interesting to execute this study in other countries to see if this way of advertising can be applied internationally.

Attitude is the dependent variable in this research to predict intention and actual behavioral change. However, as has been explained in the Theory of planned behavior, attitude is only one of three determinants (besides subjective norm and perceived behavioral control). These three factors collectively form the determinants for the intention of behavior. As this study has only focused on the influence of personal and social norms on the determinant attitude, further research is required to determine how these findings can be interpreted taking the other determinations of the Theory of Planned behavior into account.

The researchers used a scenario-based approach, which limits the external validity of the findings. These campaigns are simplified, limited versions of reality. Including social or personal norms in a social marketing campaign is just one of many factors influencing a person's attitude towards a campaign. The rational or emotional appeal of an advertisement can affect consumers' attitudes towards that specific campaign (Berkman and Gilson, 1987). Also, the use of color, typeface, or image can influence how consumers evaluate a campaign (Panigyrakis & Kyrousi, 2015; Choi & Kang, 2013). Further research should examine a persons' attitude towards coronavirus rules in a real-life situation, instead of a controlled experimental environment. In addition, the variety of advertisement elements and their influence on the attitude towards the campaign should be taken into account.

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Appendices

Appendix A – The four scenarios of the experiment



Jij kunt je verantwoordelijkheid nemen en je houden aan de coronaregels.

Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.

alleen samen krijgen we
corona onder controle

Scenario 1. Representing a weak personal norm



Jij bent verplicht om je verantwoordelijkheid te nemen en je te houden aan de coronaregels.

Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.

alleen samen krijgen we
corona onder controle

Scenario 2. Representing a strong personal norm



20% van alle Nederlanders houdt zich aan de coronaregels.

Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.

alleen samen krijgen we
corona onder controle

Scenario 3. Representing a weak social norm



80% van alle Nederlanders houdt zich aan de coronaregels.

Vermijd drukke plekken en houd 1,5 meter afstand.

alleen samen krijgen we
corona onder controle

Scenario 4. Representing a strong social norm

Appendix B – Construct measurement items

<u>Construct items</u>
Attitude
Following rules concerning the coronavirus is important to me
The rules presented in the campaign encourage me to behavior
The rules presented in the campaign are relevant to me
The rules presented in the campaign appeal to me
The rules presented in the campaign are important to me
Consumer-campaign identification
The way I am fits in with wat I perceive of this campaign
I am similar to what I think this campaign represents
The image I have of this campaign overlaps with my self-image
Campaign legitimacy
I agree with what this message of this campaign is telling me
Following me, this campaign benefits society
This campaign is decent to me
This campaign is wise to me

Appendix C – Design of the survey

Beste deelnemer,

Allereerst hartelijk dank voor uw deelname aan dit onderzoek. Mijn naam is Maartje Tax en ik ben een masterstudent aan de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen in de richting Marketing. Ik doe onderzoek naar campagnes over de coronaregels.

De vragenlijst zal ongeveer 7 minuten in beslag nemen. De resultaten zullen volledig anoniem worden verwerkt. De vragenlijst dient naar waarheid ingevuld te worden door bij elke stelling aan te vinken wat voor u het meest van toepassing is. Hierbij bestaan er geen goede of foute antwoorden.

Mocht u nog vragen of opmerkingen hebben over het onderzoek of het resultaat willen vernemen, neem dan gerust contact met mij op (06-11832363, maartje.tax@student.ru.nl).

Bij voorbaat dank,

Maartje Tax

Bekijk en lees deze poster aandachtig, voordat u doorgaat naar het beantwoorden van de vragen.



Manipulatie-check (score van 1 – 7; helemaal mee oneens – helemaal mee eens)

Bekijk en lees de campagneposter aandachtig en beantwoordt de volgende vragen.

1. Deze campagne vertelt mij dat het mijn verantwoordelijkheid is om mij aan de regels te houden
2. Deze campagne vertelt mij om me aan de regels te houden, omdat anderen vinden dat ik dat moet doen

Reality-check (score van 1 -7; heel ongeloofwaardig – heel geloofwaardig)

3. Deze campagne is geloofwaardig

In hoeverre bent u het eens of oneens met onderstaande stellingen (Score van 1 – 7; sterk mee oneens – sterk mee eens)

Attitude:

1. Het volgen van de regels rondom het coronavirus is voor mij belangrijk
2. De regels gepresenteerd in de campagne zetten mij aan tot gedrag
3. De regels gepresenteerd in de campagne zijn voor mij relevant
4. De regels gepresenteerd in de campagne spreken mij aan
5. De regels gepresenteerd in de campagne zijn voor mij belangrijk

Identificatie met de campagne:

5. Hoe ik ben als persoon, past bij wat ik waarneem in deze campagne
6. Hoe ik ben als persoon, past bij waar ik denk dat deze campagne voor staat
7. Het beeld wat ik heb over deze campagne, past bij mijn zelfbeeld

Legitimatie:

8. Ik ben het eens met wat de boodschap in deze campagne mij vertelt
9. Volgens mij, komt deze campagne de samenleving ten goede
10. Ik vind deze campagne fatsoenlijk
11. Ik vind deze campagne verstandig

Demografische informatie

Tot slot, zou u deze vragen over uzelf willen beantwoorden:

1. Wat is uw geslacht?
 - Vrouw
 - Man
 - Anders
 - Wil ik niet zeggen
2. Wat is uw leeftijd
 - Jonger dan 25 jaar
 - 25 – 35 jaar
 - 36 – 45 jaar
 - 46 – 55 jaar
 - 56 – 65 jaar
 - 66 – 75 jaar
 - Ouder dan 75 jaar
3. Wat is uw hoogst behaalde opleidingsniveau?
 - Geen of basisschool
 - Middelbare school
 - MBO
 - HBO
 - Universiteit bachelors diploma
 - Universiteit masters diploma
 - Universitair gespecialiseerd diploma (Doctoraal, Juridisch)

Appendix D – Eigenvalue and Factor loadings

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4,870	44,277	44,277	4,870	44,277	44,277	3,156	28,687	28,687
2	2,037	18,519	62,796	2,037	18,519	62,796	2,438	22,167	50,854
3	1,107	10,064	72,860	1,107	10,064	72,860	2,421	22,006	72,860
4	,732	6,654	79,514						
5	,538	4,891	84,405						
6	,384	3,489	87,894						
7	,364	3,311	91,205						
8	,299	2,719	93,924						
9	,268	2,441	96,364						
10	,236	2,144	98,508						
11	,164	1,492	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
Attitude_1	-,005	,870	,072
Attitude_3	-,011	,798	,144
Attitude_4	,229	,581	,152
Attitude_5	,259	,779	-,094
Identification_1	,206	,056	,888
Identification_2	,361	,106	,819
Identification_3	,367	,129	,793
Legitimacy_1	,764	,175	,257
Legitimacy_2	,819	,096	,310
Legitimacy_3	,867	,073	,248
Legitimacy_4	,850	,155	,226

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser

Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appendix E – ANOVA analysis

Assumption: homogeneity

Test of Homogeneity of Variance

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Attitude_total	Based on Mean	1,798	3	174	,149
	Based on Median	,894	3	174	,446
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	,894	3	167,798	,446
	Based on trimmed mean	1,667	3	174	,176

Assumption: normal distribution

Tests of Normality

Scenario	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.	
Attitude_total	1	,144	32	,090	,951	32	,155
	2	,191	33	,004	,936	33	,051
	3	,169	27	,046	,943	27	,146
	4	,131	25	,200*	,968	25	,602

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Main effect personal norm

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	38,755 ^a	1	38,755	31,645	,000	,334	31,645	1,000
Intercept	1203,524	1	1203,524	982,732	,000	,940	982,732	1,000
Personalsnorms	38,755	1	38,755	31,645	,000	,334	31,645	1,000
Error	77,154	63	1,225					
Total	1326,375	65						
Corrected Total	115,910	64						

a. R Squared = ,334 (Adjusted R Squared = ,324)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Main effect social norm

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	25,699 ^a	1	25,699	35,964	,000	,418	35,964	1,000
Intercept	1012,776	1	1012,776	1417,343	,000	,966	1417,343	1,000
Socialnorms	25,699	1	25,699	35,964	,000	,418	35,964	1,000
Error	35,728	50	,715					
Total	1063,313	52						
Corrected Total	61,427	51						

a. R Squared = ,418 (Adjusted R Squared = ,407)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Appendix F – ANCOVA analysis

Assumption: covariates correlating with the dependent variable

Correlations

		Attitude_total	Identification_total	Legitimacy_total
Attitude_total	Pearson Correlation	1	,238**	,301**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,010	,001
	N	117	117	117
Identification_total	Pearson Correlation	,238**	1	,606**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,010		,000
	N	117	117	117
Legitimacy_total	Pearson Correlation	,301**	,606**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	,000	
	N	117	117	117

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Assumption: independence of covariate

Customer-campaign identification

ANOVA

Scenario	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	25,171	17	1,481	1,258	,236
Within Groups	116,522	99	1,177		
Total	141,692	116			

Campaign legitimacy

ANOVA

Scenario	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19,183	21	,913	,708	,815
Within Groups	122,510	95	1,290		
Total	141,692	116			

Assumption: homogeneity of regression slopes

Personal norm

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	65,852 ^a	4	16,463	19,733	,000	,568
Intercept	16,744	1	16,744	20,070	,000	,251
Personalnorms * Identification_total	4,757	2	2,378	2,851	,066	,087
Personalnorms * Legitimacy_total	4,532	2	2,079	2,341	,071	,063
Error	50,058	60	,834			
Total	1326,375	65				
Corrected Total	115,910	64				

a. R Squared = ,568 (Adjusted R Squared = ,539)

Social norm

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	24,742 ^a	4	6,185	7,925	,000	,403
Intercept	60,630	1	60,630	77,678	,000	,623
Socialnorms * Identification_total	,573	2	,286	,367	,695	,015
Socialnorms * Legitimacy_total	1,719	2	,859	1,101	,341	,045
Error	36,685	47	,781			
Total	1063,313	52				
Corrected Total	61,427	51				

a. R Squared = ,403 (Adjusted R Squared = ,352)

ANCOVA personal norm

Between-Subjects Factors

	Value Label	N	
Personalnorms	,00	Weak personal norm	32
	1,00	Strong personal norm	33

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Personalnorms	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Weak personal norm	3,5312	1,07529	32
Strong personal norm	5,0758	1,13620	33
Total	4,3154	1,34577	65

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

F	df1	df2	Sig.
,118	1	63	,732

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Identification_total + Legitimacy_total + Personalnorms

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	59,958 ^a	3	19,986	21,789	,000	,517	65,367	1,000
Intercept	20,827	1	20,827	22,706	,000	,271	22,706	,997
Identification_total	5,088	1	5,088	5,547	,022	,083	5,547	,640
Legitimacy_total	2,580	1	2,580	2,813	,099	,044	2,813	,379
Personalnorms	41,132	1	41,132	44,843	,000	,424	44,843	1,000
Error	55,952	61	,917					
Total	1326,375	65						
Corrected Total	115,910	64						

a. R Squared = ,517 (Adjusted R Squared = ,494)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Intercept	2,978	,468	6,364	,000	2,042	3,913	,399	6,364	1,000
Identification_total	,270	,115	2,355	,022	,041	,499	,083	2,355	,640
Legitimacy_total	,181	,108	1,677	,099	-,035	,397	,044	1,677	,379
[Personalnorms=,00]	-1,593	,238	-6,697	,000	-2,069	-1,117	,424	6,697	1,000
[Personalnorms=1,00]	0 ^a

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

ANCOVA social norm

Between-Subjects Factors

	Value Label	N
Socialnorms	,00	Weak social norm 27
	1,00	Strong social norm 25

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Socialnorms	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Weak social norm	3,7130	,93978	27
Strong social norm	5,1200	,72930	25
Total	4,3894	1,09747	52

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

F	df1	df2	Sig.
4,385	1	50	,041

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Identification_total + Legitimacy_total + Socialnorms

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Corrected Model	27,455 ^a	3	9,152	12,930	,000	,447	38,791	1,000
Intercept	62,835	1	62,835	88,781	,000	,649	88,781	1,000
Identification_total	,090	1	,090	,128	,722	,003	,128	,064
Legitimacy_total	,774	1	,774	1,094	,301	,022	1,094	,176
Socialnorms	24,101	1	24,101	34,053	,000	,415	34,053	1,000
Error	33,972	48	,708					
Total	1063,313	52						
Corrected Total	61,427	51						

a. R Squared = ,447 (Adjusted R Squared = ,412)

b. Computed using alpha = ,05

Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: Attitude_total

Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Intercept	4,504	,427	10,550	,000	3,645	5,362	,699	10,550	1,000
Identification_total	,034	,095	,357	,722	-,157	,225	,003	,357	,064
Legitimacy_total	,099	,095	1,046	,301	-,092	,291	,022	1,046	,176
[Socialnorms=,00]	-1,385	,237	-5,835	,000	-1,862	-,908	,415	5,835	1,000
[Socialnorms=1,00]	0 ^a

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

b. Computed using alpha = ,05