
Using Incentives and Social Information to Promote Energy Conservation Behavior

Field Experiment

Mike Brock and Natalia Borzino

Contents

5	Introduction	2
6	Background of the Study.....	4
7	Experimental Design and Procedures.....	7
8	Behavioral Predictions.....	11
9	Role of Information.....	11
10	Role of Persistence.....	11
11	Role of Prizes.....	11
12	Role of Green Identity.....	12
13	Analysis and Results	12
14	The Role of Information	12
15	The Level of Persistence	14
16	The Impact of Offering a Prize	16
17	The Impact of Residing in a Green Flat.....	18
18	Discussion	19
19	Conclusion.....	20
20	References.....	21

Abstract

Improving the efficiency in the domestic energy consumption has become a showpiece of how behavioral economics can be applied to the field of

All the authors conceived and designed the study. M.B. implemented the field study and data collection. N.B. performed the data management and analysis of the data. All the authors contributed toward the interpretation of the results and the writing of the manuscript.

M. Brock (✉)

School of Economics, University of East Anglia, Norwich, UK

e-mail: michael.brock@uea.ac.uk

N. Borzino

Future Resilient Systems (FRS), Singapore ETH Centre, Singapore, Singapore

e-mail: natalia.borzino@frs.ethz.ch

environmental economics. This study builds upon the literature by providing subjects with individual and social energy performance information at group level in a controlled field experiment setting. We aim to test whether extrinsic incentives accentuate or crowd out the intrinsic motivation to save energy and how heterogeneity in environmental attitudes also impacts on electricity conservation. Besides, we test for the persistence of energy-saving habits after the information is removed. Results suggest that the provision of individual feedback and social information increase energy conserving behavior, with this being most effective among those who signaled in a previous stage preferences for pro-environmental and sustainable living. However, treatment variations indicate that subjects overall fail to maintain “good habits” once the intervention stops, with exception of pro-environmental subjects who continue to consume less electricity in the post-intervention phase. Furthermore, our findings indicate that rewarding groups in a competitive environment may create perverse long-run effects. While providing individual and social information could improve both consumer welfare and energy demand forecasting, the timescale, frequency, and mechanism undertaken require careful scrutiny and planning if these potential benefits are to be maximized and undesirable side effects prevented.

Keywords

Behavioral nudging · Social norms · Extrinsic motivation · Field experiment · Group coordination · Sustainability · Environmental economics

JEL Classifications

Q4 · Q56 · H31 · L94

Introduction

Improving the efficiency of domestic energy consumption has become a showpiece of how behavioral economics can be applied to the field of environmental economics. The use of behavioral “nudges,” which are non-price interventions grounded in psychology and behavioral economics, has been proven to be an effective tool that improves consumption awareness and instill positive environmental habits (Allcott 2011; Kunreuther and Weber 2014).

Student residences in a UK university campus could be a good setting for assessing the effectiveness of such nudging. One reason is that students are relatively unfamiliar with understanding their patterns of energy usage as compared with the average population; hence, they are more receptive to behavioral adaptation. Moreover, the rent of student residences is typically predefined and inclusive of utility bills. This means that throughout the study trial, no financial advantages are made (by the participant) if the students become more energy-efficient. It could be assumed that any behavioral change stems from an intrinsically motivated response to the imposed treatment.

63 In our experimental study, we nudge students to be more energy-efficient by
64 providing them with information about their electricity consumption. Specifically,
65 students were informed of their absolute (i.e., individual information) and relative to
66 others' (i.e., social information) energy usage via a weekly email between January
67 and May 2017. The study explores whether (a) individual feedback and social
68 information creates a fall in consumption per se, (b) conservation behavior persists
69 once the information stimulus is removed, and (c) the introduction of an extrinsic
70 motivation in a form of rewards heightens or offsets the desire to make energy
71 savings.

72 Our results imply, and in line with relevant literature, that a small (4–8 percentage
73 points) yet significant reductions can arise when subjects are provided with
74 individual and social comparative energy consumption information. In fact, treated
75 students exhibited a decrease in their energy consumption from an above-average
76 consumption to a below-average one relative to their building-level cohort. When
77 exploring the second and third research questions, the study identifies some novel
78 insights which are potentially useful from both a social and policy-based standpoint.
79 Regarding the persistence of conservation behavior, it seems that most subjects
80 quickly lose any “good habits” (and return to pretreatment levels of energy
81 consumption) once the email intervention ceases and the information stimuli are
82 removed. Interestingly, this pattern is not seen among students who self-signaled as
83 environmentally friendly in a previous stage prior to this study. They not only
84 decrease their consumption during the intervention period but also continue to
85 exhibit lower levels of energy usage in the post-intervention period. Regarding
86 extrinsic motives, the added incentive to win a prize appears to accentuate energy
87 conservation behavior. However, once the prize allocations are determined, these
88 conservation habits come to a halt, and subjects within this sub-treatment group
89 exhibit significantly higher energy usage in the post-intervention phase.

90 These findings therefore issue a mixed message for the energy policy field. On the
91 one hand, the results show that providing individual and social information can
92 constitute an effective environmental nudge and lead to efficiency gains. However,
93 the time frame and type of mechanism employed require careful planning if one is
94 seeking to optimize societal benefits and indeed if unwanted (or inefficient)
95 consumption patterns are to be avoided in the long run.

96 The rest of the paper is structured as follows: Section “[Background of the Study](#)”
97 outlines the literature on environmental nudging in the energy sector;
98 Section “[Experimental Design and Procedures](#)” describes the study experimental
99 design and procedures; Section “[Behavioural Predictions](#)” presents the behavioral
100 predictions; Section “[Analysis and Results](#)” provides the results and associated data
101 analyses; Section “[Discussion](#)” proceeds with some further discussion; and section
102 “[Conclusion](#)” concludes and recommends some future steps for research and policy
103 in the field.

104 Background of the Study

105

106 Research has shown that people on suboptimal energy tariffs are not persuaded to act
107 even when provided with information on the possible financial savings they could
108 make by switching to a more convenient deal offered by the same or another service
109 provider (Giulietti et al. 2005). Domestic energy constitutes around 27% of the UK's
110 demand for fuel (DECC 2015), wherein associated savings derived from the
111 improved awareness on energy consumption could be substantial both for individ-
112 uals and at aggregate levels. Research also indicates that many people overconsume
113 energy and the only dissemination of the advantages of energy efficiency rarely
114 results in any significant behavioral adaptation. False perceptions play a major
115 role here, where users could hold untrue or incorrect weighted ideas on the relative
116 energy requirements of domestic appliances (Attari et al. 2010; Allcott 2011a). The
117 impact of this is that individuals often undertake "energy-saving behavior" that
118 creates financial savings that fall short of their expectations (HM Government
119 2006). Undoubtedly, the introduction of personal energy usage interfaces and the
120 associated move to make these freely available (www.smartenergygb.org) could
121 combat this effect. However, it is important to highlight that uptake is voluntary
122 and thus the likelihood of a self-stimulated action is projected to be less extensive in
123 consumer areas where widespread disengagement exists.

124 The combination of effects mentioned above, which contributes to the deteriora-
125 tion of energy conservation, has created an intense research field seeking to establish
126 whether behavioral economics and psychology can successfully address people's
127 unwillingness to act (Abrahamse et al. 2005; Allcott and Mullainathan 2010; Croson
128 and Treich 2014). The studies also assess the relative success of using alternative
129 tools to engage consumers in a more pro-environmental behavior.

130 In this sense, "nudges" (Thaler and Sunstein 2009) have been shown to be
131 a successful tool to influence decision-making in diverse settings, including the
132 energy sector (see, for example, Abrahamse et al. 2005; Allcott and Mullainathan
133 2010; and Croson and Treich 2014). A leading mechanism used by behavioral
134 economists is to test the role of social comparisons (Bault et al. 2008; Allcott
135 2011b; Czajkowski et al. 2014; Dasgupta et al. 2016). The associated theory is
136 that people tend to react oversensitively to their performance or status relative to
137 their peers. Thus, explicitly showing individuals how they perform in comparison to
138 their peers could increase levels of energy efficiency leading to reductions in
139 consumption and improving of their energy standing. These social comparisons
140 have been implemented in many ways. Popular techniques have fused percentile
141 statistics with a diagrammatic trigger, for example, a happy or sad face (Allcott
142 2011b) or "green stars" (Costa and Kahn 2013). The belief is that the latter element
143 reinforces comparative performance. Other studies provide an explicit ranking
144 breakdown, which illustrate precisely where a subject lies in relation to their peers
145 (Delmas and Lessem 2014; Alberts et al. 2016). The results from these studies are
146 encouraging, implying energy consumption can fall by a magnitude between
147 0 and 10 percentage points (Allcott 2011b; Delmas and Lessem 2014).

148 Gains from nudging have been even greater in other areas of environmental
149 economics, including the promotion of recycling and reduction of food wastage
150 (Convery et al. 2007; Kallbekken and Sælen 2013).

151 Studies have typically believed that the greatest reductions arise from the initially
152 poor performers, although counterarguments have also been reported in recent
153 studies. Indeed, social comparisons may create a “discouragement effect” which
154 disincentivizes weaker participants (Hargreaves et al. 2013; Alberts et al. 2016)
155 under certain conditions. On the other hand, Delmas and Lessem (2014) concluded
156 from their study that alongside incentivizing the worst performers, relative
157 information also heightens the efficiency of already high performers. They attribute
158 this to such respondents wanting to maintain a high status. This in turn defies the
159 “Jevons paradox” (Alcott 2005), which would predict that as one is identified as a
160 relatively strong performer, one should react by *raising* their energy consumption.
161 This heterogeneity implies that “targeted” dissemination (regarding both how the
162 information is presented and to whom) could be crucial when seeking to ensure
163 environmental gains can be made from such an intervention (Allcott and Rogers
164 2014; Alberts et al. 2016).

165 A difficult aspect within this type of research is to unravel the motives that drive
166 an individual’s behavioral change. This is particularly tasking because energy
167 efficiency provides a “win-win” situation for the environment and the agents given
168 that, by decreasing their electricity consumption, it also produces (at times substan-
169 tial) financial private gains (Kallbekken and Sælen 2013). Consequently, energy
170 conservation contains attributes akin to an impure public good (see, for example,
171 Kotchen 2009), and so disentangling the effects produced by the stimuli, and
172 determining the incentives that influence decision-making, is a tall order.

173 Using student accommodation in a controlled field experiment does partially
174 alleviate this problem (Delmas and Lessem 2014; Alberts et al. 2016) as most
175 university residences offer rental contracts that are inclusive of utility bills. More-
176 over, prices are set prior to residency and remain fixed throughout tenancy, which
177 eliminates any financial advantages to students in relations to the amount of energy
178 they consume. Thus, if adjustments in energy usage are witnessed once subjects are
179 provided with performance information, this gives a clearer indication that actions
180 are driven by an intrinsic desire to improve their standing or to act pro-socially. In
181 this respect, the study setting is “cleaner.” Furthermore, there is evidence that in this
182 context, subjects are typically more receptive to behavioral adaptation (Giuliano and
183 Spilimbergo 2009). This is one of the reasons why some experimenters believe
184 student cohorts are less representative of the wider population although some
185 existing studies prove otherwise (Druckman and Kam 2009). Nonetheless, we
186 apply an air of caution regarding the extent to which any findings could be fully
187 applicable to a wider population. This is one motive for offering a subset of students
188 the opportunity to win a prize in this study. By doing so, their consumption levels are
189 compared with others within the trial to further explore the motivational conundrum
190 exhibited by students. We could also potentially provide findings that may be
191 applicable to the domestic residential market where both intrinsic and extrinsic
192 incentives exist.

193 This project also builds upon the existing literature in other domains. The first is
194 that information is provided to *groups* of respondents who share a living space
195 (hereon in referred to as “flats”). Findings from both laboratory and field experi-
196 ments indicate that groups exhibit stronger tendencies for pro-social action than
197 when people act as individuals (Mancur Olson 1965; Fehr and Schmidt 1999; Frank
198 2003). This pattern is observed across public good games, voluntary actions, waste
199 reduction, and environmental affiliation. The notion is also supported by the sub-
200 jective well-being literature, stating that “interconnectivity” and feeling part of
201 something bigger than oneself instill a stronger societal construct and level of
202 psychological happiness (Putnam and Alone 1995; Diener and Biswas-Diener
203 2011). This in turn facilitates instances of altruism (Andreoni 1990), reciprocity
204 (Sugden 1984), or positive social action (Czajkowski et al. 2014). Alternatively, it
205 could be argued that groups could bring about greater energy conservation through
206 the competitive atmosphere it imposes. Indeed, when presented as a “team,” respon-
207 dents frequently react more fiercely in order to improve their standing relative to
208 rival groups (Terry et al. 1999; Baik 2008; Konrad 2009; Nitzan and Ueda 2009).
209 Regardless of the disposition that motivates them, disseminating information to a
210 group seeks to understand if (and to what extent) this adjusts the scale of behavioral
211 change.

212 In this study, we also attempts to understand whether and how those who
213 indicated to be committed to an environment of sustainable living react to compar-
214 ative information. Therefore, we seek to explore to which extent self-reported
215 positive environmental attitudes are also reflected in actual energy-efficient perfor-
216 mance. Past literature shows evidence of a positive relationship between self-
217 reported pro-environmental habits and concrete eco-efficient actions (see foreexam-
218 ple Urdiales et al. 2016).

219 To test this, we analyze the behavior of a subset of our treatment flats, which are
220 part of a long-standing movement at the university, known as “The Green Flats
221 Project.” These students, when completing their accommodation application form,
222 indicated their preference to reside with other people that share the same
223 pro-environmental attitudes and also wish to live in a sustainable way. Including
224 this treatment affords the chance to study whether “Green Flat” residents (i) hold
225 “below-average” baseline usage *prior* to information dissemination, (ii) are more or
226 less responsive to the comparison data, and (iii) display a different consumption
227 trajectory across the study period.

228 We also want to study how extrinsic motivations could affect the behavior of
229 participants. To analyze this, around half of the treatment flats enter into a compe-
230 tition for prizes, with the winners being those flats who consume the least energy per
231 student during the intervention period. The literature here suggests two possible
232 impacts from implementing this treatment. On one hand, contests typically create
233 incentives for an overprovision of effort relative to the socially optimal level. Such
234 “over-dissipation” (Konrad 2009) is accentuated in experimental settings, where the
235 extent to which respondents engage in the contest consistently exceeds the thresh-
236 olds predicted by theory (Davis and Reilly 1998). This is exacerbated in instances
237 where prizes are distributed proportionally (Cason et al. 2010), or when the prize

238 quality is high (Doraszelski and Markovich 2007), there is a heightened “desire to
239 win” (Lugovskyy et al. 2010) and when we see a greater degree of homogeneity
240 among contestants (Clark and Riis 1998; Baik 2008). In contrary, opposing literature
241 shows empirical and experimental examples (Bergstrom et al. 1986; Pellerano et al.
242 2017) where such extrinsic incentives offset (or “crowd out”) the innate or intrinsic
243 motive to act in a pro-social way. Based on this crowding-out literature, it is
244 suggested that paying people for an activity may help in the short run but reduce
245 their intrinsic motivation to perform the task in the long run once the incentives are
246 removed. An overview of the evidence surrounding this area is provided by Cerasoli
247 et al. (2014), and it is certainly an aspect that is both interesting and highly policy-
248 relevant to consider.

249 Finally, there is often disagreement in this research domain as to how persistent
250 habits are once a “nudge” is removed. For associated policy, understanding the long-
251 term benefits of an intervention is crucial for forecasting the impact(s) and estimating
252 the financial outlay required in order to achieve a successful outcome. Existing
253 evidence in this domain varies, with some studies suggesting that behavioral habits
254 can partially persist into medium to long term (Abrahamse et al. 2005; Allcott and
255 Rogers 2014), while others indicate that pro-social actions quickly dissipates once
256 the intervention disappears (Dolan and Metcalfe 2013). Intrinsically motivated
257 individuals tend to persist longer in pro-social actions, principally because by acting
258 in that way, they get reinforced their self-image and status (Cerasoli et al. 2014).

259 To test this, we stop sending emails to a subset of our student groups halfway
260 through the trial period. Half of those subset of students were part of the “Green Flats
261 Project,” while the other half were not. By comparing their consumption against
262 those who obtain the ranking email for the whole intervention time frame, the
263 question on habit persistence can be further explored.

264 By imposing these new elements onto an existing research framework, this study
265 looks not only to confirm and reinforce some of the current beliefs on how non-
266 financial stimuli can incentivize behavioral change but also to examine how such an
267 action might be influenced by facets of persistence, extrinsic motivation, and prior
268 attitudes toward sustainability.

269 Experimental Design and Procedures

270 The experiment ran between January and May 2017 at the University of East Anglia
271 (UEA), Norwich, UK. Fourteen flats were selected for the study that involved
272 140 students. An overview of the flats and their attributes is given in Table 1. Before
273 the trial began, participants were informed that the energy they used in residences
274 would be logged and that this (anonymized) data would be sent to them through a
275 weekly email. This would show their absolute usage and how this is compared to the
276 other residences which partook in the study. It was made explicitly clear that relative
277 efficiency would not lead to a change in accommodation fees.

278 Including the “Green Flats” afforded a unique opportunity to see if those who
279 signaled a preexisting preference for a pro-environmental lifestyle deviated from the

t:1 **Table 1** The monitored flats and their characteristics

	Flat name	Number of students	Email stopped after 6 weeks	Green	Prize
t:2	AA17	12			✓
t:3	BB17	8	✓	✓	
t:4	CC17	10			✓
t:5	DD17	10			✓
t:6	EE17	10	✓		
t:7	FF17	10	✓		
t:8	GG17	10		✓	✓
t:9	HH17	10			✓
t:10	II17	11		✓	✓
t:11	JJ17	11	✓	✓	
t:12	KK17	11			
t:13	LL17	9			✓
t:14	MM17	9			✓
t:15	NN17	9			

280 main cohort. Possible differences could be anticipated in relation to the general
 281 (base) usage or how individuals and comparative information influenced energy
 282 performance. While the “Green Flats Project” has existed at the UEA for a number of
 283 years, no direct obligation or onus is placed upon the students regarding sustainabil-
 284 ity when they live in the flat through the academic year.

285 In order to test the role of persistence, four of the flats in the study would (without
 286 warning) stop receiving the emails, yet their usage continued to be logged and
 287 ranked. The monitoring of energy usage also continued beyond the information
 288 dissemination period for all flats, in what is later described in the results and
 289 discussion sections as the “post-intervention” time frame. Table 2 shows that
 290 following 10 weeks of emails, the Spring Semester was bisected with 4 weeks of
 291 an Easter break. Students returned, and for a period of 6 weeks, the monitoring
 292 continued. However, email communications stopped after 4 of these weeks,
 293 affording a chance to see if (short-run) habits persisted in the absence of a reminder
 294 for the remaining ten flats. For the four flats mentioned above, emails stopped in
 295 week 8 of the timeline given in Table 2.

296 When exploring the role of the extrinsic motivation, the selection of the prize had
 297 to be chosen carefully. Instead of offering direct monetary incentives, the prizes
 298 students were competing for including (i) a three-course meal and drinks at one of the
 299 on-campus restaurants and (ii) lunch vouchers for the same establishment. These
 300 prizes present positive advantages. Firstly, given that readings were taken at group
 301 level, it reinforced an idea of cohesion within flats, which brings about the notion of
 302 working as a team and being rewarded in the same way. Secondly, this prize was
 303 perceived as something that students would value with greater equity than monetary
 304 equivalents given the diversity in the students’ financial backgrounds.

305 Each flat was fitted with a monitor that isolated, logged, and stored energy usage
 306 data. Meter readings were taken at the same time of each week, and students were

t:1 **Table 2** Timeline of the study

t:2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
	Pretrial	Semester Part 1 (email sent)										Easter (emails not sent)				Semester Part 2 (email sent)				Posttreatment (emails not sent)		

Energy Monitoring Research Project

Week **8**
Your Flat Code **DD17**

<u>This Week</u>			<u>Running Total</u>			<u>Weekly Performance</u>	
Rank	Team	Usage	Rank	Team	Usage	Week	Rank
1	BB17	10.56	1	BB17	917.63	1	7 th
2	NN17	11.16	2	HH17	1182.96	2	9 th
3	HH17	15.49	3	MM17	1236.00	3	11 th
4	KK17	15.55	4	NN17	1300.90	4	9 th
5	GG17	16.97	5	GG17	1306.33	5	11 th
6	MM17	18.00	6	KK17	1351.52	6	11 th
7	CC17	18.44	7	EE17	1472.60	7	7 th
8	EE17	18.78	8	CC17	1598.00	8	11 th
9	LL17	19.93	9	DD17	1720.00	9	
10	FF17	21.94	10	LL17	1761.65	10	
11	DD17	22.31	11	FF17	1764.80	11	
12	II17	23.55	12	AA17	2374.04	12	
13	JJ17	25.55	13	II17	2402.80	13	
14	AA17	26.81	14	JJ17	2432.79	14	

To opt out at any time, email michael.brock@uea.ac.uk

Fig. 1 A sample email

307 emailed on the following day of each week. Figure 1 shows that information was
 308 disseminated to students through three tables. One showed weekly usage and the
 309 associated rankings across all competing groups. A second gave the same informa-
 310 tion for overall usage and ranking since the beginning of the intervention period. The
 311 final table provided a “ranking timeline” for the course of the trial period.

312 Behavioral Predictions

313 In this section, we present our behavioral predictions that are derived from the
314 relevant literature reviewed in section “[Background of the Study](#)” and motivate
315 our experimental design described in section “[Experimental Design and](#)
316 [Procedures](#)”. In this study, and as discussed previously, we are interested to analyze
317 the effect of individual and social information on electricity consumption and
318 whether there is a persistent effect of that information once the feedbacks are
319 removed. Furthermore, we aim to study whether and in which extent extrinsic
320 incentives have an effect on energy conservation. Lastly, we want to analyze whether
321 subjects who self-signalized to have a pro-conservation or “green” identity respond in
322 a greater magnitude to the information compared to those who did not identify
323 themselves as being environmentally friendly.

324 Role of Information

325 *H1: Students receiving individual and comparative feedback increase energy*
326 *conservation.*

327 This hypothesis is built on the notion that receiving both individual and social
328 information in the form of a league table will stimulate efforts to lower per-student
329 usage over time. This is grounded in the notion that the league table incites
330 competitive tendencies and a desire for flats to improve their relative standing in
331 the league.

332 Role of Persistence

333 *H2: Those who stop receiving feedbacks increase their electricity consumption as*
334 *compared with those who keep receiving information.*

335 This second hypothesis follows the notion that the students in flats where the
336 email stopped halfway through the trial are likely to have a higher energy usage than
337 those who continue to receive emails. At the very least, we would expect the former
338 group to be returning to prior intervention levels as they revert to their original habits
339 in the absence of individual and social energy information. This provides one
340 measure of persistence.

341 Role of Prizes

342 *H3a: The existence of extrinsic incentives will increase conservation efforts.*

343 *H3b: Once the rewards are given, subjects return to the pretrial level of*
344 *consumption.*

345 This is the conjecture that extrinsic rewards stimulate respondents in the “prize”
346 treatment to reduce energy usage to a greater extent. A related hypothesis is that this

347 group will adjust their consumption more rapidly over time in their desire to win the
348 prize than those who are in the “non-prize” group. However, once the prizes are
349 given at the end of the intervention period, subjects do not maintain their low levels
350 of consumptions, but return quickly to their baseline level of energy usage. Indeed,
351 extrinsic incentives may work in the short term but might reduce the intrinsic
352 motivation to perform the pro-environmental action once the incentives are
353 removed.

354 Role of Green Identity

355 H4a: *Self-signaled pro-environmentally friendly individuals react stronger to the*
356 *feedbacks by reducing the electricity consumption more than the nonself-identified*
357 *“green” subjects.*

358 H4b: *Self-signaled pro-environmentally friendly individuals persist in their conser-*
359 *vation habits after the feedbacks are removed.*

360 The first hypothesis revolves around the idea that students who have expressed
361 prior preferences to act sustainably will have a lower energy usage on average as
362 compared to those who have not made this commitment. If this effect is accentuated
363 by reputation, we would also expect the gap between these two groups to widen
364 overtime during the intervention period. Furthermore, we expect these subjects to
365 maintain their good habits even after the information is removed. Indeed, once
366 individuals experience the positive aspects of being more energy-efficient, their
367 positive self-image and status improve reinforcing their intrinsic motivation for
368 behaving pro-environmentally. This will further encourage them to maintain their
369 conservation habits even after the intervention period is over.

370 Analysis and Results

371 In this section, we are presenting the results from our analysis over aggregate and
372 heterogeneous behaviors using uniquely generated experimental data. Our research
373 questions are addressed in the subsections below, and accordingly, we assess
374 whether our results validate or reject our behavioral predictions.

375 The Role of Information

376 One of the major aims of this research was to identify whether the provision of
377 energy information impacted upon subsequent behavior. In order to assess this usage
378 against that of those students not in the study, the University Estates Division was
379 able to provide aggregated monthly energy usage for the associated residential
380 buildings covering the study period. These buildings comprise entirely of student
381 accommodation, meaning the two data-sets are comparable across the experiment’s

t:1 **Table 3** A comparison of flat usage against the building baseline

	Average weekly usage [building (KwH)]	Average weekly usage [study flats (KwH)]	Difference (%)	t-statistic (<i>p</i>)	
t:2	January	19.65	20.47	+ 4.14**	2.43 (0.01)
t:3	February	20.38	20.93	+ 2.69*	1.63 (0.051)
t:4	March	16.07	15.74	− 2.03*	−1.3 (0.09)
t:5	April	12.75	12.55	+1.64	−0.079 (0.21)
t:6	May	13.99	14.36	+2.64*	1.47 (0.07)

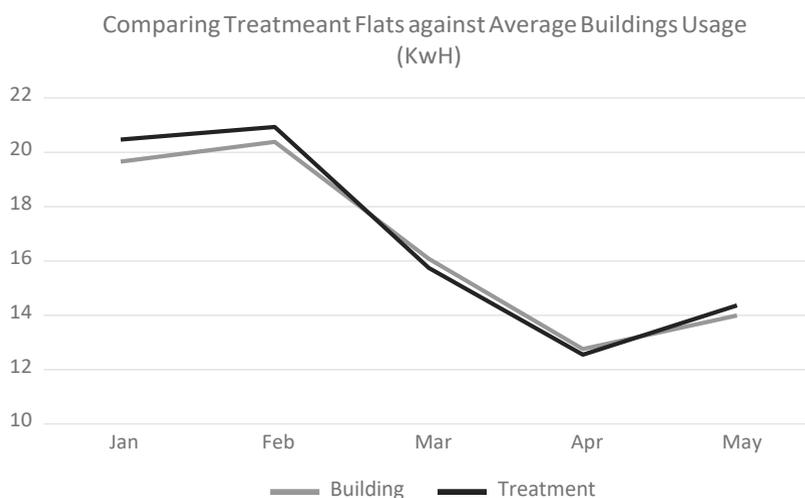
t:7 * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$ 

Fig. 2 Comparing treatment flat and building usages

382 time frame. The results identify a clear pattern of energy conservation behavior for
 383 the treatment groups relative to the “building-level” baseline.

384 Table 3 and Fig. 2 confirm that students living in the treatment flats consumed
 385 more than the average level from within their respective buildings during the initial
 386 phase of the study. However, the identified gap significantly erodes overtime.
 387 Indeed, after approximately 2 months of disseminating information through emails, the
 388 average electricity consumption of treated flats is lower compared with others within
 389 their respective buildings, validating *H1*. This means that, and as hypothesized,
 390 dissemination of individual and social information in a form of league table incites
 391 the competitive spirit in our subjects increasing their conservation efforts. The
 392 magnitude of this effect is consistent with previously cited field research and
 393 indicates the potential gains that could be derived by raising the visibility of energy
 394 usage via social comparisons. This reinforces the positive contribution that behav-
 395 iorual interventions could play in facilitating tangible adaptations in how people
 396 behave. While this trend is aligned to previous works conducted at the same

t:1 **Table 4** Linear regression model for the log weekly usage per student clustering by independent observations (teams)

t:2		(1)
t:3	Variables	Log weekly usage per student
t:4	<i>No email stop</i>	<i>Ref</i>
t:5	Yes email stop	−0.00130
t:6		(0.154)
t:7	Weeks	−0.0264***
t:8		(0.00654)
t:9	Constant	2.970***
t:10		(0.0859)
t:11	Observations	294
t:12	Number of number of teams	14

t:13 Robust standard errors in parentheses

t:14 *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

397 university (Brock 2016), this is still something that could be highly prioritized in
398 future work to affirm the robustness of this result.

399 Although only a crude measure of persistence, the fall in efficiency between April
400 and May serves as an initial warning about how subjects respond to information over
401 time and how this relates to their behavior. Emails stopped in early May, and by the
402 end of the month, the average usage of energy among the treatment flats return to
403 above the building level (although not fully returning to the pre-intervention dispar-
404 ity). Two possible conjectures arise from this. The first is that good habits may erode
405 quickly once a nudge is no longer explicitly imposed upon individuals – this is
406 something that shall be considered further in the next subsection. The other is that by
407 the time students were exposed to many weeks of emails, the novelty or interest in
408 the project disappears. Both of these conjectures hold a strong policy relevance and
409 indicate that extreme care needs to be paid to the frequency, format, and timeline of
410 delivering such information in order to maximize and retain user engagement.

411 The Level of Persistence

412 Figure 2 implies that there may be some questions regarding how long-lasting an
413 information stimulant may be. As shown in Table 1, we test this aspect by including
414 a subset of flats who stopped receiving emails after a period of just 6 weeks.
415 Nonetheless, these flats' readings were still taken for the full 22 weeks of the
416 study allowing their usage patterns to still be seen for a full 3 months after the
417 email termination date.

418 Table 4 confirms that no significant differences occurred between the two treat-
419 ment groups, which in principle gives us little support for $H2$. However, upon closer
420 inspection, it appears that this result may have been driven by the wide heterogeneity

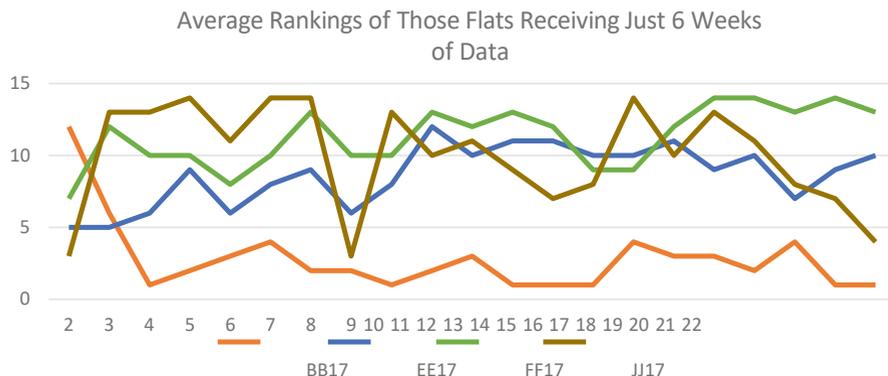


Fig. 3 The ranking trends of the four flats where emails stopped after 6 weeks

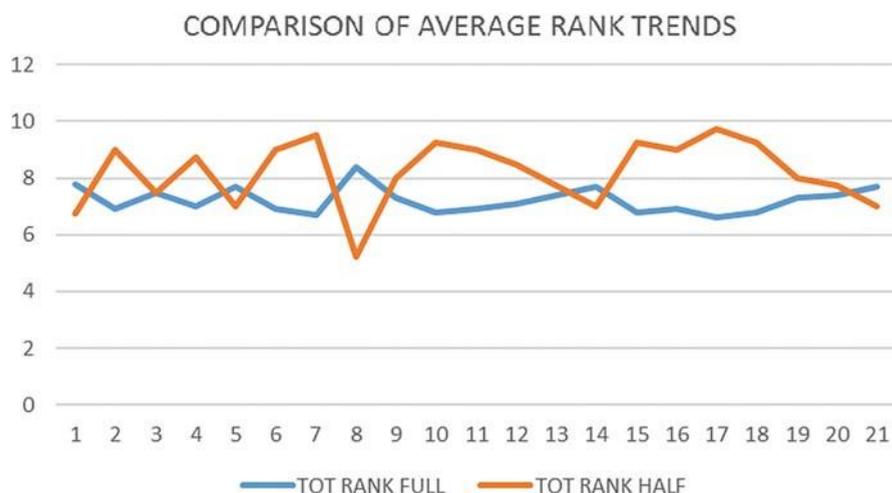


Fig. 4 Comparing ranking trends between those receiving emails for only 6 weeks against those receiving emails for the full study period

421 in the performances of the four “6-week” sub-treatment flats. Exemplified through
 422 Fig. 3, we see that Flat “BB17” was an extremely strong performer (hence low
 423 ranking) throughout the study period, perhaps because this group already acquired
 424 preexisting energy efficiency habits and constantly practices them. For both Figs. 4.2
 425 and 4.3, the crucial stage is Week 8, which was the time emails stopped for the “6-
 426 week” groups. With the exception of Flat “JJ17,” Fig. 3 shows an apparent upward
 427 trend (and thus worsening rank) following this period. When aggregated in Fig. 4,
 428 this seems most pronounced in the initial weeks after the email stopped.

429 Furthermore, when inspecting Fig. 4, it is noteworthy to look at the slight increase
 430 in the rankings of those within the “full information” treatment after week 19. This is
 431 the time when the information disseminating emails stopped. The trends seen in
 432 weeks 9–11 for our “6-week subsample” and in weeks 19–21 for the remaining

t:1 **Table 5** Linear regression model for the log weekly usage per student clustering by independent observations (teams)

t:2		(1)
t:3	Variables	Log weekly usage per student
t:4	<i>Non-prize</i>	<i>Ref</i>
t:5	Prize	0.0888
t:6		(0.111)
t:7	Weeks	−0.0264***
t:8		(0.00654)
t:9	Constant	2.918***
t:10		(0.103)
t:11	Observations	294
t:12	Number of number of teams	14

t:13 Robust standard errors in parentheses

t:14 *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$

433 groups imply that it is the immediate time period after stopping an information
434 interjection that creates the most severe reactions in behavior.

435 University accommodation contracts ceased from “week 22,” which explains
436 why further monitoring did not occur. However, assessing these patterns in future
437 work could be easily achieved by simply bringing forward the treatment start date or
438 by using a set of subjects (e.g., postgraduate students or domestic residents) who live
439 in their accommodation for a full calendar cycle.

440 The Impact of Offering a Prize

441 Another key aim is to see what impact (if any) extrinsic incentives have on the
442 subjects’ decrease of their energy consumption. As previously stated, two strands of
443 competing literature exist here. The first argues that the added competition should
444 heighten the desire to improve one’s standing, leading to an even greater reduction in
445 energy consumed. However, an opposing (theoretical and experimental) literature
446 shows evidence that extrinsic motivations can offset (or “crowd out”) intrinsic
447 desires or motivation of pro-environmental behavior.

448 The results of this study are mixed. Table 5 observed no significant differences in
449 energy consumption. This result arises when formal econometric testing is used to
450 compare those in the “prize” versus “non-prize” treatment groups. This suggests that
451 the opportunity to reap additional extrinsic benefits through a strong relative perfor-
452 mance does not translate into greater instances of energy-saving behavior.

453 However, by delving a little deeper, a couple of interesting and policy-relevant
454 patterns emerge from those flats who were given the chance to win a prize.

455 The first of these results arises if we segment the results into three stages: before,
456 during, and after the intervention period. Table 6 provides the average consumption

t:1 **Table 6** A comparison of energy usage differences between prize and non-prize groups

	Pre-intervention usage (KwH/week)	Intervention period usage (KwH/week)	Post-intervention usage (KwH/week)
t:2 Prize cohort	14.99 (5.59)	16.85 (6.96)	14.22 (4.21)
t:3 Non-prize cohort	12.1 (3.76)	16.92 (6.89)	14.03 (5.68)

457 for the two groups across these periods. It shows us that within the “pre-interven-
458 tion” phase, those in the “prize” treatment group consumed on average 23.9% more
459 energy each week than those in the “non-prize” treatment. This means the “prize”
460 subsample were relatively poor performers at the time the emailing began.

461 However, the gap not only shrunk but reversed through the intervention
462 period wherein the “prize” treatment groups consumed a marginally lower level of
463 energy on average per week than the remaining set of participants. The difference
464 (0.07KwH) is marginal and statistically insignificant, but given the pre-intervention
465 consumption levels, this implies that the potential for additional reward could
466 represent some form of stimulus to respondents. This result validates our *H3a*.
467 Indeed, as it was anticipated, the existence of an extrinsic motivation makes
468 “prize” groups to make an extra effort in their electricity conservation. Regarding
469 the post-intervention figures, we see the levels of energy usage from the “prize”
470 groups almost return to their pre-intervention threshold. Yet the magnitude of this
471 return is by no means as substantial as for the “non-prize” cohort, suggesting that
472 perhaps there are some lasting effects from the extrinsic prize.

473 While this first effect seems promising, a second finding reveals that in the post-
474 intervention period, the average usage of the “Prize” subsample rose by 22%
475 compared with the final week when emails were sent. Combined with statistics in
476 Table 6, this implies that the “prize” flats exhibited a more pronounced downward
477 trajectory in usage during the intervention period itself than “non-prize” counter-
478 parts. However, a rapid rise in the energy consumption was observed once prizes had
479 been allocated, which validates our *H3b*. For individuals that are extremely com-
480 petitive, this makes intuitive sense. Through the intervention period, they are likely
481 to be very conscious of the amount of energy they were using, particularly in the
482 weeks prior to the selection of the winning teams because of their strong desire to
483 claim a prize. However, once the prizes were allocated, the strong impulse to be
484 energy-efficient disappears, leading them to quickly reverting back to a pattern of
485 higher usage. It is noteworthy to highlight that this post-intervention pattern was not
486 witnessed for flats within the “non-prize” treatment. This result is consistent with the
487 “crowding-out” literature, which suggests that extrinsic incentives may work in the
488 short term but might reduce the intrinsic motivation to perform the
489 pro-environmental action once the incentives are removed.

490 Informal evidence of this is given in Fig. 5. This illustrates the ranking of the
491 leading “prize” flats over the duration of the study. Note that winners were deter-
492 mined by week 17. The graph shows that the four leading flats in the prize treatment

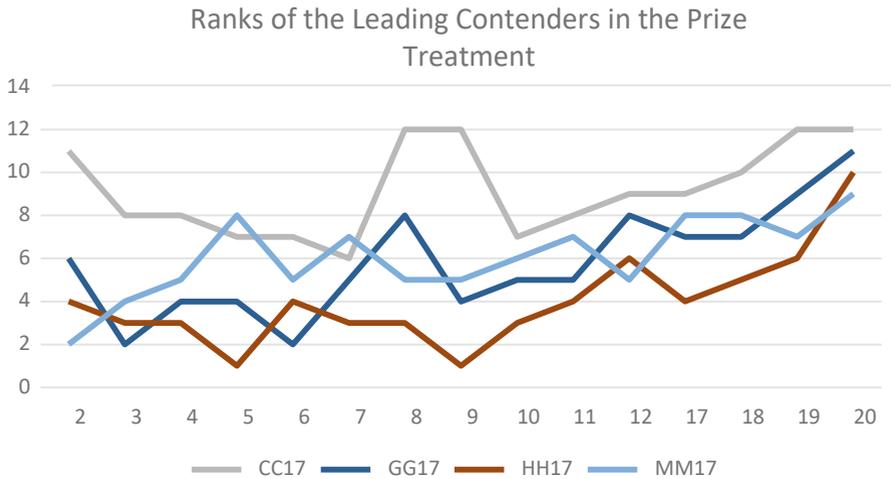


Fig. 5 Ranks of the leading contenders in the prize treatment

t:1 Table 7 A comparison of energy usage differences between Green and Non-Green Flats

	Pre-intervention usage (KwH/week)	Intervention period usage (KwH/week)	Post-intervention usage (KwH/week)
t:2 Green Flats	16.33 (7.71)	18.34 (8.41)	11.91 (5.73)
t:3 Non-Green Flats	12.73 (3.38)	16.42 (6.36)	15.65 (4.55)

493 had maintained a steady rank throughout the intervention period but these quickly
 494 rose (meaning they were now performing relatively badly) once the announcement is
 495 made. When considering the design and nature of implementing some form of
 496 extrinsic motivation, this type of result is undoubtedly poignant for policy-makers
 497 and energy providers alike, particularly if their objective is to improve the long-term
 498 consumption and stability of energy demand.

499 The Impact of Residing in a Green Flat

500 One of the novel elements of this study is its ability to have a subset of the subject
 501 pool from a “Green Flat.” Recall that these participants expressed a desire, far before
 502 the study begins, to live in an environmentally sustainable setting. It offers an
 503 opportunity to examine whether they have a lower level of energy usage and, of
 504 equal interest, whether they respond differently when are presented with individual
 505 and social information.

506 A really surprising result here is that “Green Flats” residents actually consume
 507 more energy than those in standard residencies during the “pre-intervention” phase.

508 Table 7 confirms this point, showing that Green Flat occupants on average consume
509 29% more energy each week than their peers. This finding echoes previous exper-
510 imental work (Brock 2016) and seems to indicate that in the context of energy
511 consumption, there is a clear discourse between the intentions of a person and their
512 behavior in the absence of a mechanism for them to monitor or uphold their stated
513 ambitions.

514 Nevertheless, this trend of overconsumption disappears over the intervention
515 period and significantly reverses by the time the post-intervention period is reached.
516 These two results validate our *H4a* and *H4b*. As we expected, these subjects react
517 positively to the information disseminated and maintain their good habits even after
518 the information is removed. Unfortunately, we have no way of disentangling
519 whether this occurs because of the information channels in themselves or instead
520 through a desire to defend a previously stated reputation. In any case, this finding is
521 intriguing, especially for one who is looking to design techniques that will get
522 consumers committing to longer-term pro-social activity.

523 The trends in Table 7 offer a second insight that is observed from the green flat
524 treatment groups. In just the same way as with the post-intervention consumption
525 patterns of “prize” respondents, the average consumption of those living in
526 Non-Green Flats increases by 19.1% relative to the final weeks where the interven-
527 tion took place. However, for the Green Flats over this same period, there is a
528 continued fall in usage by an average magnitude of 23%. Linking this finding to the
529 notions of behavioral habits and persistence, this offers the conjecture that long-term
530 energy conservation habits may only materialize if an individual expressed a pre-
531 disposition to embrace environmental attitudes.

532 Discussion

533 While these results are encouraging and complement findings of previous studies,
534 we acknowledge that they could be significantly strengthened through repeated tests
535 to check for their reliability and robustness. Furthermore, to do so with a larger
536 cohort would be also very valuable. Nonetheless, this work contributes to the
537 literature by assessing experimentally the roles of persistence, extrinsic motivation,
538 and attitudes to sustainability on energy consumption.

539 It appears that the degree to which “good behavior” persists is highly dependent
540 upon a range of factors, including prior attitudes of those receiving the information
541 or the way in which an intervention interacts with other motives, be these extrinsic or
542 intrinsic. With these intricacies put aside for one moment, it is clear that there are
543 clearly potential advantages for gathering and disseminating information on energy
544 usage. Our results imply that savings from imposing a competitive framework could
545 offer a 5–10 percentage point reduction in energy consumption over a fairly short
546 period of time. On aggregation, this could be translated into significant financial
547 savings by making domestic energy users more sustainable. Moreover, this could
548 also benefit energy suppliers through the establishment of more consistent and
549 predictable trends in energy demand.

550 Nevertheless, a significant heterogeneous response arises through this study,
551 which suggests that policy-makers need to identify and seize opportunities to target
552 information to the various population groups that share similar characteristics. This
553 is something that the energy industry is already aware of through aforementioned
554 studies in relation to performance (Abrahamse et al. 2005), political ideology (Costa
555 and Kahn 2013), and demographic status (Giulietti et al. 2005). However, this study
556 explicitly demonstrates this, considering how both prizes and “green” individuals
557 reveal disparate patterns of behavior.

558 Conclusion

559 This study builds upon a burgeoning literature that seeks to identify whether
560 relatively cost-free behavioral nudging can influence people’s energy consumption.
561 To test this, students living in student residences at a UK university were provided
562 with (absolute and relative) energy usage data through a weekly email. The study
563 introduced new insights, firstly by issuing energy information at a flat (apartment)
564 level and secondly by splitting this cohort to explore aspects relating to extrinsic
565 motivation, persistent behavior, and preexisting environmental attitudes. This sought
566 to assess (a) whether responses differ when data is provided through a group
567 dynamic and (b) whether these imposed subtreatments create a range of consumption
568 trends as a consequence.

569 The results imply that issuing ranking information can incite behavioral change.
570 The treated flats involved in the study reduced their usage by a magnitude which
571 make them jump from an above-average consumption to a below-average one
572 relative to their building-level cohort. Interestingly, students in the “Green Flats”
573 proved to be good performers through the intervention period. This result suggests
574 that those students have a greater positive response to individual and comparative
575 performance information with respect to non-“Green Flats” students. Importantly,
576 this effect persists over time in the post-intervention even when the information is
577 removed.

578 While no evidence hints toward the crowding out effect of extrinsic motivations
579 on intrinsic ones, there are serious questions regarding the long-term impact of
580 offering such additional reward, particularly from the point after a promised incen-
581 tive is issued. Finally, “good consumption habits” seem to erode quickly for those
582 who receive the prize, and at multiple junctures in the study, an almost immediate
583 upward trajectory in consumption is observed once emails ceased and information is
584 removed.

585 These findings appear highly relevant for the field of energy and environmental
586 economics. We advocate extending and expanding upon these experimental begin-
587 nings in order to strengthen the evidence for these early conjectures. The main
588 implication is that policymakers, industries, and consumers alike must consider the
589 role of nonfinancial stimuli in inciting small and yet significant changes to behavior.
590 A motivation to change may exist, yet how long does this desire remains is highly
591 debatable. Moreover, this project implies that the success of an intervention may

592 crucially hinge on the way that it is imposed. This relates both to its frequency and its
 593 target group's characteristics (i.e., demographic, socioeconomic, and psychological).
 594 It suggests that an ability to nurture (or indeed even establish) a desire for behavioral
 595 change in an environmental field such as energy usage will require a well-crafted and
 596 thoroughly planned scheme if the anticipated benefits are to fully materialize.

597 Acknowledgments This study was supported by the University of East Anglia, School of
 598 Economics and CBESS.

599 References

- 600 Abrahamse W, Steg L, Vlek C, Rothengatter T (2005) A review of intervention studies aimed at
 601 household energy conservation. *J Environ Psychol* 25(3):273-291
- 602 Alberts G, Gurguc Z, Koutroumpis P, Martin R, Muûls M, Napp T (2016) Competition and norms:
 603 a self-defeating combination? *Energy Policy* 96:504-523
- 604 Alcott B (2005) Jevons' paradox. *Ecol Econ* 54(1):9-21
- 605 Allcott H (2011a) Consumers' perceptions and misperceptions of energy costs. *Am Econ Rev*
 606 101(3):98-104
- 607 Allcott H (2011b) Social norms and energy conservation. *J Public Econ* 95(9-10):1082-1095
- 608 Allcott H, Mullainathan S (2010) Behavior and energy policy. *Science* 327(5970):1204-1205
- 609 Allcott H, Rogers T (2014) The short-run and long-run effects of behavioral interventions:
 610 experimental evidence from energy conservation. *Am Econ Rev* 104(10):3003-3037
- 611 Andreoni J (1990) Impure altruism and donations to public goods: a theory of warm-glow giving.
 612 *Econ J* 100(401):464-477
- 613 Attari SZ, DeKay ML, Davidson CI, De Bruin WB (2010) Public perceptions of energy
 614 consumption and savings. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 107(37):16054-16059
- 615 Baik KH (2008) Contests with group-specific public-good prizes. *Soc Choice Welf* 30(1):103-117
- 616 Bault N, Coricelli G, Rustichini A (2008) Interdependent utilities: how social ranking affects choice
 617 behavior. *PLoS One* 3(10):e3477
- 618 Bergstrom T, Blume L, Varian H (1986) On the private provision of public goods. *J Public Econ*
 619 29(1):25-49
- 620 Brock M (2016) Is the Monster Green-Eyed, or just Green? Assessing the impact of group cohesion
 621 and environmental attitudes on energy conservation habits (working paper)
- 622 Cason TN, Masters WA, Sheremeta RM (2010) Entry into winner-take-all and proportional-prize
 623 contests: an experimental study. *J Public Econ* 94(9-10):604-611
- 624 Cerasoli CP, Nicklin JM, Ford MT (2014) Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic incentives jointly
 625 predict performance: a 40-year meta-analysis. *Psychol Bull* 140(4):980
- 626 Clark DJ, Riis C (1998) Competition over more than one prize. *Am Econ Rev* 88(1):276-289
- 627 Convery F, McDonnell S, Ferreira S (2007) The most popular tax in Europe? Lessons from the Irish
 628 plastic bags levy. *Environ Resour Econ* 38(1):1-11
- 629 Costa DL, Kahn ME (2013) Energy conservation "nudges" and environmentalist ideology:
 630 evidence from a randomized residential electricity field experiment. *J Eur Econ Assoc*
 631 11(3):680-702
- 632 Croson R, Treich N (2014) Behavioral environmental economics: promises and challenges. *Environ*
 633 *Resour Econ* 58(3):335-351
- 634 Czajkowski M, Hanley N, Nyborg K (2014) Social norms, morals and self-interest as determinants
 635 of pro-environment behaviours. Working paper 2014-03, Department of Geography and
 636 Sustainable Development, University of St Andrews. Available through [http://www.stir.ac.uk/
 637 management/research/economics/working-papers/](http://www.stir.ac.uk/management/research/economics/working-papers/). Working paper 2014-06

- 638 Dasgupta P, Southerton D, Ulph A, Ulph D (2016) Consumer behaviour with environmental and
639 social externalities: implications for analysis and policy. *Environ Resour Econ* 65(1):191–226
- 640 Davis DD, Reilly RJ (1998) Do too many cooks always spoil the stew? An experimental analysis of
641 rent-seeking and the role of a strategic buyer. *Public Choice* 95(1–2):89–115
- 642 Delmas MA, Lessem N (2014) Saving power to conserve your reputation? The effectiveness of
643 private versus public information. *J Environ Econ Manag* 67(3):353–370
- 644 Department for Energy and Climate (DECC), Cabinet Office (2015) Energy Consumption in the
645 UK. <https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system>. Accessed 15 July 2016
- 646 Diener E, Biswas-Diener R (2011) Happiness: unlocking the mysteries of psychological wealth.
647 Wiley, New York
- 648 Dolan P, Metcalfe R (2013) Neighbors, knowledge, and nuggets: two natural field experiments on
649 the role of incentives on energy conservation. CEP discussion papers, CEPDP1222. Centre for
650 Economic Performance, London School of Economics and Political Science, London
- 651 Doraszelski U, Markovich S (2007) Advertising dynamics and competitive advantage. *RAND*
652 *J Econ* 38(3):557–592
- 653 Druckman JN, Kam C D (2009) Students as experimental participants: a defense of the ‘narrow data
654 base’. SSRN eLibrary
- 655 Fehr E, Schmidt KM (1999) A theory of fairness, competition, and cooperation. *Q J Econ*
656 114(3):817–868
- 657 Frank SA (2003) Repression of competition and the evolution of cooperation. *Evolution*
658 57(4):693–705
- 659 Giuliano P, Spilimbergo A (2009) Growing up in a recession: beliefs and the macroeconomy
660 (no. w15321). National Bureau of Economic Research, Cambridge, MA
- 661 Giulietti M, Price CW, Waterson M (2005) Consumer choice and competition policy: a study of UK
662 energy markets. *Econ J* 115(506):949–968
- 663 Hargreaves T, Nye M, Burgess J (2013) Keeping energy visible? Exploring how
664 householders interact with feedback from smart energy monitors in the longer term. *Energy*
665 *Policy* 52:126–134
- 666 HM Government (2006) UK Climate Change Programme 2006. The Stationery Office, London
- 667 Information on the SMART Meter rollout in the UK in 2020. <https://www.smartenergygb.org/en/smart-future/about-the-rollout>. Accessed 05 Jan 2018
- 668
- 669 Kahneman D, Knetsch JL (1992) Valuing public goods: the purchase of moral satisfaction.
670 *J Environ Econ Manag* 22(1):57–70
- 671 Kallbekken S, Sælen H (2013) ‘Nudging’ hotel guests to reduce food waste as a win–win
672 environmental measure. *Econ Lett* 119(3):325–327
- 673 Konrad KA (2009) Strategy and dynamics in contests. OUP Catalogue, Oxford
- 674 Kotchen MJ (2009) Voluntary provision of public goods for bads: a theory of environmental offsets.
675 *Econ J* 119(537):883–899
- 676 Lugovskyy V, Puzello D, Tucker S (2010) An experimental investigation of overdissipation in the
677 all pay auction. *Eur Econ Rev* 54(8):974–997
- 678 Nitzan S, Ueda K (2009) Collective contests for commons and club goods. *J Public Econ*
679 93(1–2):48–55
- 680 Olson MJ (1965) The logic of collective action: public goods and the theory of groups. Harvard
681 University Press, Cambridge
- 682 Pellerano JA, Price MK, Puller SL, Sánchez GE (2017) Do extrinsic incentives undermine social
683 norms? Evidence from a field experiment in energy conservation. *Environ Resour Econ*
684 67(3):413–428
- 685 Putnam R, Alone B (1995) America’s declining social capital. *J Democr* 6:65
- 686 Steg L, Lindenberg S, Keizer K (2016) Intrinsic motivation, norms and environmental behaviour:
687 the dynamics of overarching goals. *Int Rev Environ Resour Econ* 9(1–2):179–207
- 688 Sugden R (1984) Reciprocity: the supply of public goods through voluntary contributions. *Econ J*
689 94(376):772–787

-
- 690 Terry DJ, Hogg MA, White KM (1999) The theory of planned behaviour: self-identity, social
691 identity and group norms. *Br J Soc Psychol* 38(3):225–244
- 692 Thaler RH, Sunstein CR (2009) *Nudge: improving decisions about health, wealth, and happiness.*
693 Penguin
- 694 Urdiales MP, Lansink AO, Wall A (2016) Eco-efficiency among dairy farmers: the importance of
695 socio-economic characteristics and farmer attitudes. *Environ Resour Econ* 64(4):559–574
- 696 Weimann J (1994) Individual behaviour in a free riding experiment. *J Public Econ* 54(2):185–200

Index Terms:

Behavioural nudging 2

Behavioural predictions 11-12

Environmental economics 5

Environmental nudging 4-7

Extrinsic motivations 6, 8, 17-18

Field experiment 5-6

Green flats project 6-8

Persistence 11

Social information 3, 11, 13

Sustainability 7-8,