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- Descriptive, not injunctive, social norms caused increases in mask wearing throughout the
- 2 COVID-19 pandemic
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17 Abstract

Social norms allow humans to coordinate and cooperate in the face of existential threats. In particular, injunctive social norms prescribe what people ought to do, whereas 19 descriptive social norms inform what people actually do. While previous experimental work 20 has revealed people's sensitivity to normative influence, several open questions remain 21 about the natural emergence of injunctive and descriptive social norms within populations 22 and their influences on cooperative behavior over time. To understand how social norms emerge and shape behavior in a non-experimental setting, we studied mask wearing during the COVID-19 pandemic. Leveraging a year and a half of longitudinal data from a representative sample of adults in the United States (15 time points; n = 915), we tracked people's reported mask wearing behavior and their perceived injunctive and descriptive mask wearing norms as the pandemic unfolded. Longitudinal trends of norm perceptions and self-reported mask wearing suggested that norms and behavior are tightly coupled and both change quickly in response to recommendations from public health authorities. In 30 addition, a random-intercept cross-lagged panel model revealed that descriptive norms, but 31 not injunctive norms, caused future increases in mask wearing behavior. These findings 32 underline the relative importance of descriptive social norms in shaping cooperative

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behavior during uncertain times.

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Descriptive, not injunctive, social norms caused increases in mask wearing throughout the
COVID-19 pandemic

Social norms are a key aspect of human sociality. Broadly defined as behavioral 40 guidelines enforced by groups of people without the law (van Kleef et al., 2019), social 41 norms have attracted the attention of psychologists for decades. Since Asch's (1956) early 42 studies of normative conformity, evidence has accrued that humans are particularly attuned to social norms (Tomasello, 2014). From a young age, children begin to adhere to and enforce group-wide social norms (Jensen et al., 2014; Rakoczy & Schmidt, 2013; Schmidt & Tomasello, 2012) and both children and adults rely on normative emotions, such as shame and guilt, to determine when they or others have violated social norms (Schaumberg & Skowronek, 2022; Vaish et al., 2011). This uniquely human sensitivity to social norms allows groups of unrelated people to cooperate and coordinate in the face of existential threats, such as resource scarcity, natural disasters, and infectious diseases (Gelfand et al., 2011; Henrich, 2015). 51

Previous research has distinguished between two primary kinds of social norms:
injunctive norms and descriptive norms (Cialdini et al., 1991; Deutsch & Gerard, 1955).

Injunctive social norms are societal, indicating what others in the group tend to approve or
disapprove of, and often involve social sanctions if violated. By contrast, descriptive norms
are situational, simply describing what most people are doing in a given situation. Though
these two kinds of social norms tend to align, they can also be in conflict with one another.

For example, there may be an injunctive norm that cleaning up litter at a picnic site is the
right thing to do: one *ought* to behave this way. However, if an individual observes that
most people are leaving their litter behind at the site, the descriptive norm is to not clean
up. It is thus possible for injunctive and descriptive norms to have independent effects on
behavior (Schultz et al., 2007).

Despite decades of research on the causes and consequences of injunctive and

descriptive norms (Cialdini et al., 1991; Cialdini, 2007; Cialdini & Jacobson, 2021; Schultz et al., 2007), social norms have remained an elusive concept in the behavioral sciences and several open questions remain (Fehr & Schurtenberger, 2018a; van Kleef et al., 2019). In the current work, we focus on two such questions. First, how do injunctive and descriptive norms emerge naturally over time within a population? Second, how do evolving injunctive and descriptive norms influence behavior?

With regards to norm emergence, research in cultural evolution and behavioral 70 economics have begun to illuminate how social norms emerge over time. In the longer term, cultural evolutionary models show that injunctive social norms can be vertically transmitted down through generations via imitation or teaching, or horizontally diffused from neighboring human populations (Boyd, 1985; Henrich, 2015). For example, cultural phylogenetic studies have revealed patterns of vertical cultural inheritance across societies 75 for a variety of injunctive social norms, such as norms governing land ownership (Kushnick et al., 2014) and post-marital residence (Jordan et al., 2009). However, much less is known 77 about how social norms arise endogenously within populations in the shorter term. Recent experimental work in behavioral economics suggests that social norms of public good 79 provisioning develop in tandem with cooperative behavior through repeated interactions 80 (Titlestad et al., 2019) and require peer enforcement to become stable (Fehr & 81 Schurtenberger, 2018b). But it remains unclear to what extent these findings generalize beyond the laboratory to real human populations. 83

With regards to normative influences on behavior, there is a wealth of cross-sectional evidence demonstrating the behavioral impact of social norms. For example, field experiments have demonstrated the positive effects of descriptive norms on a variety of cooperative behaviors, including recycling (Nigbur et al., 2010), paying taxes (Larkin et al., 2018), and sustainably reusing towels in hotels (Goldstein et al., 2008). Evidence also suggests that any potentially deleterious effects of descriptive social norms (e.g., choosing to litter at a picnic site that already contains visible signs of littering) can be counteracted by

instead focusing individuals' attention on injunctive norms (Schultz et al., 2007). However, previous studies have tended to follow experimental designs in which perceptions of social norms are manipulated by the researchers, and thus do not allow cooperative social norms to emerge and affect behavior naturally over time within a population. An alternative way to identify causality, whilst retaining ecological validity, is to follow perceptions of social norms and cooperative behavior over time amidst a real, unfolding social dilemma. This is particularly important because social norms are not static: they change dynamically over time through processes of deliberation and social interaction (Smith et al., 2015).

To understand how novel injunctive and descriptive social norms emerge over time 99 and shape cooperative behavior in a non-experimental setting, we studied mask wearing 100 behavior during the COVID-19 pandemic. Before the pandemic, mask wearing was not a 101 common behavior in the United States. In April 2020, two months into the pandemic, mask 102 wearing was officially recommended by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 103 (CDC) as a measure that people should take to minimize the spread of COVID-19. But 104 mask wearing posed a social dilemma to individuals, in that it imposed personal costs (e.g., 105 difficulty breathing, disrupted social interaction) for the benefit of the wider community 106 (e.g., "flattening the curve" to protect at-risk individuals). Thus, the evolution of mask 107 wearing in the United States throughout the COVID-19 pandemic allows us to study, on a 108 short timescale within a single population, the emergence of novel injunctive and 100 descriptive social norms and the causal effects of these norms on cooperative behavior. 110

Recent research has found positive relationships between perceptions of social norms and protective COVID-19 behaviors. In the United States, one cross-sectional study found that perceptions of injunctive norms positively predicted intentions to stay at home to minimize exposure (Macy et al., 2021), and another vignette study found that experimentally-manipulated descriptive norms increased personal mask wearing intentions (Bokemper et al., 2021). In Germany, a two-wave study found that perceptions of descriptive norms positively predicted future protective behaviors, such as physical

distancing (Rudert & Janke, 2021). These studies are telling, but since they are
experimental, cross-sectional, or only minimally longitudinal, they are unable to distinguish
between between-person and within-person change over time (Hamaker et al., 2015), nor
do they have the temporal granularity to capture fluctuating changes in norm strength and
norm adherence across the entire pandemic.

Here, we use a year and a half of longitudinal data from a representative sample of adults in the United States (15 time points; n = 916) to track the development of descriptive and injunctive mask wearing norms and mask wearing behavior over the course of the COVID-19 pandemic. We aimed to answer two main research questions. First, how do descriptive and injunctive mask wearing norms emerge and evolve over time in the United States population? Second, how do descriptive and injunctive mask wearing norms affect mask wearing behavior over time?

130 Methods

131 Ethical approval

This project was granted exemption from the Institutional Review Board of Arizona
State University (STUDY00011678). All participants in this study provided informed
consent.

35 Participants and sampling

Using the platform Prolific (https://www.prolific.co/), we distributed surveys to a representative sample of adults from the United States (n = 915, $M_{\rm age} = 46$ years, 75% White, 52% Women; see Supplementary Figure S1 for geographic distribution). From September 2020 to February 2022, we asked participants to complete regular surveys of COVID-19 related attitudes and behaviors. This resulted in 15 unique time points of data collection throughout the pandemic. The first 12 time points were distributed monthly,

while the last three time points were distributed every two months. 634 of the initial 915
participants returned to complete the survey at Time 2, while 379 participants continued
through to Time 15 (see Supplementary Figure S2 for attrition rates across all time points).

145 Measures

Self-reported mask wearing behavior. At every time point, participants were
asked about the number of in-person interactions they had in the last week. Following this
question, participants self-reported their mask wearing behavior by answering: "During
these in-person interactions, if you were closer than 6 feet (2 meters) from the person(s)
did you wear a face mask?" Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale, from Never
(1) to Always (5).

Perceived descriptive and injunctive social norms. In 8 of the 15 time points (Time 2, 3, 5, 9, 11, 13, 14, and 15), we asked questions about perceived descriptive and injunctive mask wearing norms.

Descriptive social norms were operationalized as the proportion of individuals in 155 participants' local areas wearing masks in routine and recreational settings. We measured 156 perceived descriptive social norms as the mean average of the following two items: "What 157 proportion of people in your area wear a mask while doing routine activities indoors (e.g., 158 running errands, shopping, going to work)?" and "What proportion of people in your area 159 wear a mask while doing recreational/social activities indoors (e.g., going to the gym, 160 eating at a restaurant, attending a party)?" These perceived descriptive social norm items 161 were measured on 7-point Likert scales, from None (1) to All (7). 162

Injunctive social norms were operationalized as respected individuals wearing masks and community encouragement of mask wearing rules. We measured perceived injunctive social norms as the mean average of the following two items: "In general, how often do you see people that you respect and trust wearing a mask (e.g., on tv, news, etc.)?" and "How

much are mask-wearing rules encouraged in your area (e.g., by local or state government officials, businesses, etc.)?" These perceived injunctive social norm items were measured on 7-point Likert scales, from Never/Rarely (1) to Very Often (7) for the first item, and from Strongly Discouraged (1) to Strongly Encouraged (7) for the second item.

To check the construct validity of these measures, at time point 7 we asked
participants about their interpretations of the social norm items. We asked participants
whether each of the four items informed them about what people are doing or what people
should be doing (i.e., giving descriptive or injunctive information). Participants were able
to correctly distinguish between the two sets of items, suggesting that they are valid
measures of perceived descriptive and injunctive social norms (see Supplementary Results
and Supplementary Table S1).

Additional control variables. To account for potential confounding in our 178 longitudinal analysis, we constructed a directed acyclic causal graph outlining the expected 179 causal relationships between our variables (see Supplementary Figure S3). In this causal 180 model, we included two additional variables that could plausibly act as common causes of 181 perceived social norms and mask wearing behavior: county-level COVID-19 prevalence and 182 county-level political leaning. If COVID-19 is prevalent in a participant's county, then 183 there might be more mask wearing overall, from people in participants' local area, 184 respected individuals, and from participants themselves, causing increases in both 185 self-reported mask wearing behavior and perceived social norms. Similarly, left-leaning counties might have increased levels of self-reported mask wearing behavior and perceived 187 social norms, as the political context affects the proportion of individuals following COVID-19 protective measures (Baxter-King et al., 2022). It is therefore important to statistically control for these confounding variables. 190

We retrieved data on county-level COVID-19 prevalence from a CDC public health surveillance dataset (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2022b). In the CDC dataset, COVID-19 prevalence was operationalized as the total new COVID-19 cases per

100,000 population in counties over the past 7 days. Since this dataset was updated 194 regularly starting from February 2022, and so each county had multiple entries, we 195 averaged and logged this variable within each county to get the log average weekly new 196 COVID-19 cases per 100,000 population. We retrieved data on county-level political 197 leaning from the MIT Election Lab (MIT Election Data and Science Lab, 2018). For each 198 county, the dataset stated how many votes the Republican, Democratic, Green Party, and 199 other candidates received in the 2020 Presidential election. We used this information to 200 determine which candidate won the vote in that county. 201

Participants reported their zip code rather than their county, and in a minority of
cases the reported zip codes straddled multiple counties. In these cases, we averaged
COVID-19 prevalence rates over the different counties within the zip codes, and used the
political candidate that won in the majority of overlapping counties.

206 Statistical analysis

To analyze average trends in self-reported mask wearing behavior and perceived 207 social norms, we fitted several multilevel regression models. First, to determine whether 208 mask wearing behavior and social norms were coupled over time, we regressed mask 200 wearing behavior on perceived descriptive and injunctive norms separately, including 210 random intercepts and slopes for participants and time points. Second, to analyze changes 211 over time, we regressed mask wearing behavior and perceived social norms onto a 212 continuous time predictor. These models included random intercepts and slopes for 213 participants, as well as change points aligning with changes in CDC mask wearing recommendations. Third, to compare the perceived strength of descriptive and injunctive norms, we regressed perceived norm strength on the type of norm, including random 216 intercepts and slopes for participants and time points. We estimated these models using 217 the lme4 R package (Bates et al., 2015) and dealt with missing data via listwise deletion.

To quantify the within-person relationships between perceived descriptive norms, 219 perceived injunctive norms, and mask wearing behavior simultaneously over time, we used 220 a three-variable random-intercept cross-lagged panel model to analyze our longitudinal 221 data (Hamaker et al., 2015). This structural equation model distinguishes between stable 222 between-person trait levels and within-person fluctuations from trait levels. Positive 223 cross-lagged effects from this model indicate that being above average on one variable at 224 time_{t-1} predicts being above average in another variable at time_t. These models are 225 considered the gold standard for identifying Granger causality in longitudinal datasets 226 (Granger, 1969; Hamaker et al., 2015). We estimated this model using the lavaan R 227 package (Rosseel, 2012). We restricted the analysis to the eight time points with available 228 data for all three variables, and used full information maximum likelihood estimation to 229 deal with any other missing data across time points. Based on our causal model (see Supplementary Figure S₃), we also included county-level COVID-19 prevalence and 231 county-level political leaning variables as time-invariant controls. Due to varying time intervals between time points, we did not constrain any parameters to equality over time. 233 All analyses were conducted in R v4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2022). Visualizations were 234 generated using the cowplot (Wilke, 2020) and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) packages. The 235 manuscript was reproducibly generated using the targets (Landau, 2021) and papaja (Aust 236 & Barth, 2022) packages. 237

238 Results

To understand how mask wearing social norms emerged and fluctuated over the
course of the COVID-19 pandemic, we first visualized the average descriptive trends of
self-reported norm perceptions across the entire study duration. Figure 1 plots
self-reported mask wearing behavior and perceptions of descriptive and injunctive mask
wearing norms alongside relevant pandemic-related events in the United States, such as
CDC public health recommendations and COVID-19 case numbers. These events were

obtained from the CDC Museum's COVID-19 Timeline (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2022a) and are included here based on their direct relevance to protective behaviors (e.g., changing CDC guidance on mask wearing, vaccination access, etc.).

Three main observations can be made about the emergence and stability of social 248 norms from these visualizations. First, social norms and behavior were tightly coupled over 249 time. Although social norms are measured on fewer occasions than mask wearing behavior, 250 we can see that as mask wearing behavior decreased in the summer of 2021, so too did 251 perceived descriptive and injunctive mask wearing norms. Subsequently, the steep rise in COVID-19 case numbers in the fall of 2021 saw concomitant increases in both mask 253 wearing behavior and perceived social norms, though to lower levels than before. In line with these patterns, multilevel regression models revealed positive correlations between 255 mask wearing behavior and perceived descriptive mask wearing norms (b = 0.25, 95%256 confidence interval [0.20 0.30]) and between mask wearing behavior and perceived 257 injunctive mask wearing norms (b = 0.25, 95% CI [0.21 0.30]) across individuals and time 258 points (Supplementary Figure S4; Supplementary Table S2). 259

Second, fluctuations in mask wearing behavior and perceived social norms are in line 260 with recommendations broadcasted by the CDC, the main national public health agency of 261 the United States. We do not have data for the very start of the pandemic in early 2020, 262 but the high levels of mask wearing and strong perceived social norms at the start of our 263 observation window likely emerged after the initial mask wearing recommendation from the CDC in April 2020. Perceived social norms and mask wearing behavior subsequently 265 declined after the CDC rescinded their mask wearing recommendation in March 2021, and then increased again after the CDC updated their guidelines for indoor mask use in high 267 risk areas in August 2021. Impressively, shifts in mask wearing behavior and norms 268 happened on the timescale of weeks. These trends were confirmed by a series of multilevel 269 regression models with change points aligning with changes in CDC mask wearing 270 recommendations (Supplementary Figure S5; Supplementary Table S3). 271

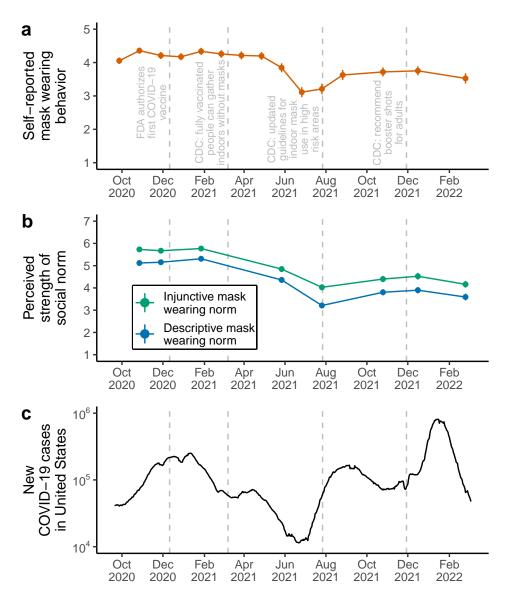


Figure 1. Timeline of self-reported mask wearing behavior and perceived social norms in the United States throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. (a) Points and line ranges indicate mean averages and standard errors for the self-reported mask wearing item. This item was measured across all fifteen time points on a 5-point Likert scale, with higher values indicating increased frequency of personal mask wearing during in-person interactions. (b) Points and line ranges indicate mean averages and standard errors for perceived descriptive mask wearing norms (blue) and perceived injunctive mask wearing norms (green). These items were measured across eight time points on a 7-point Likert scale, with higher values indicating stronger perceived social norms. (c) Smoothed data for new COVID-19 cases in the United States, displayed on the log scale (data retrieved from Our World in Data; https://ourworldindata.org/). Across all panels, gray dashed lines represent significant pandemic-related events in the United States, such as vaccine approval from the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and public health recommendations from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC).

Third, across all eight time points with available data, injunctive mask wearing 272 norms were consistently rated as stronger than descriptive mask wearing norms. Multilevel 273 regression modeling revealed that, on average across individuals and time points, injunctive 274 norms were rated as 0.6 points stronger than descriptive norms on a 7-point Likert scale (b 275 = 0.60, 95\% CI [0.51 0.69]; Supplementary Figure S6; Supplementary Table S4). In other 276 words, participants in our study perceived the general encouragement of mask wearing and 277 mask wearing behavior among trusted people to be higher than perceived mask wearing 278 among people in their local area. 279

Sample averages can provide informative trends, but they do not allow us to estimate 280 within-person changes in mask wearing behavior and perceived social norms over time. To determine whether within-person changes in social norms temporally preceded 282 within-person changes in mask wearing behavior, we fitted an eight-wave unconstrained 283 random-intercept cross-lagged panel model to the longitudinal data. This structural 284 equation model separately estimated stable trait-like between-person individual differences 285 and within-person fluctuations from trait levels for our three main variables: self-reported 286 mask wearing behavior, perceived descriptive mask wearing norms, and perceived 287 injunctive mask wearing norms (see Supplementary Table S5 for estimated model 288 parameters). According to established fit statistics, this model fitted the data well (root 289 mean square error of approximation = 0.037, 95% CI $[0.032\ 0.042]$; standardized root mean 290 squared residual = 0.056; comparative fit index = 0.961). 291

Regarding between-person individual differences, the covariances between the random intercepts in the model revealed positive correlations between stable trait levels of mask wearing behavior and perceived social norms. On average across the whole study, participants who more frequently wore masks during in-person interactions also perceived stronger descriptive mask wearing norms (r = 0.45, 95% CI [0.35 0.54], p < .001) and stronger injunctive mask wearing norms (r = 0.29, 95% CI [0.18 0.40], p < .001). Stable trait perceptions of descriptive and injunctive mask wearing norms were also highly

positively correlated ($r = 0.65, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.58 \ 0.71], p < .001$).

Regarding within-person dynamics over time, Figure 2 displays autoregressive and 300 cross-lagged effects for all three variables across the study duration. In random intercept 301 cross-larged panel models, autoregressive effects represent "persistence" or "inertia" in 302 within-person fluctuations from stable trait levels. In other words, a positive autoregressive 303 effect indicates that being higher than average on one measure predicts being higher than 304 average on that same measure in the following time point (this is not to be confused with 305 the "stability" of the measure over time, which is captured by the random intercepts in our model). By contrast, and most relevant for the current study, cross-lagged effects represent 307 the effect of a within-person fluctuation in one measure on future within-person fluctuations in other measures. In other words, a positive cross-lagged effect indicates that 309 being higher than average on one measure predicts being higher than average on another 310 measure in the following time point. Cross-lagged effects are thus used to infer 311 within-person causal influences over time. 312

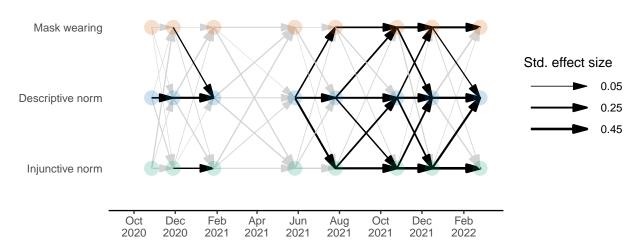


Figure 2. Results of eight-wave unconstrained random-intercept cross-lagged panel model. Arrows represent within-person autoregressive and cross-lagged effects from the model, controlling for time invariant predictors and partitioning out stable between-person individual differences. Arrow thickness is scaled according to standardized effect size. Bolded arrows indicate significantly positive parameters, p < 0.05. Gray arrows indicate non-significant parameters.

Earlier in the pandemic, we see less evidence of autoregressive and cross-lagged 313 effects. Within-person fluctuations in descriptive and injunctive norms persist across only a 314 few time points, and there is only one cross-lagged effect of mask wearing on future 315 descriptive norms. However, once COVID-19 case numbers start rising again in June 2021, 316 we begin to see more evidence of autoregressive and cross-lagged effects. From this point 317 onwards, all three variables show evidence of persistence, with within-person fluctuations 318 from trait levels predicting later within-person fluctuations in the same measures. But 319 more importantly, several positive and significant cross-lagged effects emerge. On three 320 occasions, within-person increases in perceived descriptive norms predicted future 321 within-person increases in mask wearing behavior. According to recent effect size guidelines 322 for cross-lagged panel models (Orth et al., 2022), the standardized beta coefficients for these 323 cross-lagged effects were large (Time 9, $\beta = 0.17$, 95% CI [0.03 0.31], p = .020; Time 11, β = 0.21, 95% CI [0.06 0.36], p = .006; Time 13, $\beta = 0.16, 95\%$ CI [0.01 0.31], p = .037). We 325 also find some evidence for a reciprocal effect, whereby within-person increases in mask 326 wearing behavior predicted future within-person increases in perceived descriptive norms. 327 Moreover, several cross-lagged effects emerged between perceived descriptive and injunctive 328 norms, demonstrating reciprocal within-person causal effects between these variables. 329

However, the model reveals that, after controlling for perceived descriptive norms, 330 within-person changes in perceived injunctive norms were unrelated to within-person 331 changes in mask wearing behavior across the entire pandemic. All cross-lagged effects 332 between the two variables, both from perceived injunctive norms to mask wearing behavior 333 and vice versa, are non-significant. Any causal effect that perceived injunctive norms might 334 have had on future mask wearing behavior appears to be fully mediated by perceived 335 descriptive norms. For example, between August 2021 and December 2021, perceived 336 injunctive norms predicted future perceived descriptive norms, which themselves predicted 337 future mask wearing behavior. But aside from these indirect effects, perceived injunctive 338 norms and mask wearing behavior were not directly causally related over time within

340 individuals.

Discussion

Using longitudinal data from the United States across the entire COVID-19 342 pandemic, we aimed to understand how descriptive and injunctive mask wearing norms 343 emerge and influence behavior in response to a naturally unfolding social dilemma. The 344 trends of norm perceptions and self-reported mask wearing over time suggest that norms 345 and behavior are tightly coupled, and both change quickly in response to recommendations from public health authorities. The results of our structural equation model also indicate that descriptive norms caused future increases in mask wearing behavior from June 2021 onwards. While injunctive norms were perceived as stronger than descriptive norms, we found that injunctive norms were not directly causally related to future mask wearing 350 behavior over the course of the pandemic. 351

Our finding that social norms and mask wearing behavior are tightly coupled over 352 time provides real-world support for experimental evidence that social norms and 353 cooperative behavior develop synergistically within groups via processes of social 354 interaction (Titlestad et al., 2019). Moreover, the role of authorities, like the CDC, in 355 shaping social norms and behavior supports the idea that institutions are part of the 356 process by which culture and one's own behaviors are mutually constructed (Markus & 357 Kitayama, 2010). The CDC explicitly releases guidelines for the benefit of public health, 358 one of many situations in which the function of authorities is to coordinate behavior on 359 large scales. However, even when institutions do not intend to coordinate behavior, they still may introduce influential social norms into the population (e.g., through business practices or products produced). 362

We also found that injunctive norms were, on average, perceived as stronger than descriptive norms. This aligns with previous research that measured perceived injunctive

and descriptive norms in the contexts of drinking (Park et al., 2009) and marijuana use 365 (Montes et al., 2021). What people ought to do is often perceived as stronger than what 366 people actually do. Since we operationalized injunctive norms in part by whether trusted 367 individuals in the media were wearing masks, it is possible that our sample is accurately 368 reporting that people in general were less adherent to mask wearing policies than 360 government officials, newscasters, and other respected individuals. It may also have been 370 easier for our participants to notice instances of non-compliance with mask wearing 371 guidelines among the general population, simply because they have more opportunities to 372 observe people's behavior in public settings. 373

Despite perceiving stronger injunctive norms, it was descriptive norms, not injunctive 374 norms, that independently predicted future increases in mask wearing. In line with this 375 finding, descriptive norms have also been shown to predict future increases in physical 376 distancing and prosocial behaviors (e.g., neighborhood help, charitable donations) 377 throughout the COVID-19 pandemic, though this previous work did not adequately 378 disentangle between-person and within-person effects (Rudert & Janke, 2021). Similarly, 379 experimental work has revealed that people in the United States are more likely to report 380 intentions to wear a mask if they are told that others are wearing masks (Bokemper et al., 381 2021). Why this specific effect of descriptive norms on mask wearing? Descriptive norms 382 are particularly useful for fast changing, threatening situations with a high degree of 383 uncertainty, such as the COVID-19 pandemic (Gelfand & Harrington, 2015). During times 384 of uncertainty, people look to others to quickly coordinate their behavior, and attempt to 385 alleviate uncertainty-related stress by identifying with their group and its social norms 386 (Hogg et al., 2008; Wellen et al., 1998). Supporting this situational-uncertainty 387 explanation, our model revealed that descriptive norms only began to predict future mask 388 wearing after the CDC flipped their mask wearing recommendation in March 2021. With changing recommendations from authorities increasing levels of uncertainty, people instead 390 began to look to their neighbors and adapted their mask wearing behavior accordingly.

Our finding that injunctive norms do not predict future mask wearing behavior is at 392 odds with cross-sectional evidence showing that perceived injunctive norms are positively 393 correlated with intentions to stay indoors during the pandemic among older adults (Macy 394 et al., 2021). One possible explanation for these conflicting findings is that, due to the 395 increased opportunities to observe mask wearing in public, descriptive norms of mask 396 wearing behavior were made more salient than injunctive norms throughout the pandemic, 397 and therefore had a greater influence on behavior (Cialdini et al., 1991). By contrast, for 398 more private behaviors like remaining indoors, it would have been less possible to observe 399 other people's behaviors, increasing the relative salience of injunctive norms. To test this 400 idea, future research should expand our longitudinal cross-lagged approach to protective 401 behaviors beyond mask wearing, including both public behaviors (e.g., physical distancing) 402 and private behaviors (e.g., hand washing and home isolation). 403

We are limited in generalizing these findings due to the constraints of our sample and 404 the variables considered. While our sample began as representative of the United States, 405 there was significant attrition over the course of the study (Supplementary Figure S2). 406 This attrition did not leave us with enough data to test the robustness of our results within 407 different identity groups, such as different genders, different ethnicities, or those with 408 different political ideologies. Since injunctive norm strength varies based on which group is 409 seen as the source of the norm (Neighbors et al., 2008), it would be interesting to learn 410 whether different groups have different patterns of norm emergence over time. In 411 particular, future analyses with larger samples should consider political ideology as a group 412 identity, due to the political polarization of COVID-19 protective behaviors (Baxter-King 413 et al., 2022). Our sample was predominantly White, and so future larger samples should be 414 intentionally more diverse, answering calls to avoid generalizing White samples as 415 representative of human behavior at large (Remedios, 2022). Our results also might not 416 generalize to all social norms, behaviors, and social dilemmas. Norms governing 417 sustainability in response to climate change, for example, might take longer to emerge,

since the threat of climate change is more abstract and remote than the COVID-19 pandemic. For more distant social dilemmas that do not cause immediate day-to-day uncertainty, descriptive social norms may not necessarily drive cooperative behavior.

Regardless, in the case of mask wearing in the United States over the COVID-19 422 pandemic, we have shown that social norms developed rapidly in the population and 423 responded to both recommendations from authorities and current levels of cooperative 424 behavior. Moreover, we found that descriptive norms, rather than injunctive norms, were 425 the main driver for future mask wearing. Importantly, this key finding slices both ways. Not only does it imply that high local levels of mask wearing encouraged future personal 427 mask use, but it also implies that low local levels of mask wearing discouraged future personal mask use. This echoes recent reports of people in the United States not wanting 429 to be "singled out" by being the only one wearing a mask in their community (Natanson, 430 2022). Our work thus underscores the importance of consistent, visible community 431 adherence for encouraging personal protective behaviors in response to global pandemics 432 like COVID-19.

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Author Contributions

SLH, ERH, and PMT conceptualized the study. SLH and SC oversaw the data curation, investigation, and methodology of the study, and wrote the first draft of the paper. SC conducted the formal analysis and created all visualisations. ERH and PMT provided funding and supervision for the study. All authors reviewed and edited the final draft of the paper.

Conflicts of Interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

Research Transparency and Reproducibility

All data and code to reproduce the statistical analyses in this manuscript can be found on GitHub: https://github.com/ScottClaessens/covidMaskWearing

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Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Results

Construct validity for measures of perceived descriptive and injunctive
norms. To evaluate the construct validity of our measures of perceived descriptive and
injunctive norms, at Time 7 we asked participants to rate the extent to which each
perceived norm item provided descriptive and injunctive information. For each item,
participants were asked whether the item provided information about what people are
doing, and whether the item provided information about what people should be doing.
Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale, from (1) Not At All to (7) Very Strongly.
For a full list of questions, see Supplementary Table S1.

Results showed that participants did differentiate the perceived norm items as expected. Participants rated the perceived descriptive norm items as providing more descriptive information than the perceived injunctive norm items, t(442) = -7.28, p < .001 (mean descriptive items = 4.75; mean injunctive items = 4.25). By contrast, participants rated the perceived injunctive norm items as providing more injunctive information than the perceived descriptive norm items, t(444) = 7.15, p < .001 (mean descriptive items = 5.11; mean injunctive items = 5.54).

636 Supplementary Figures

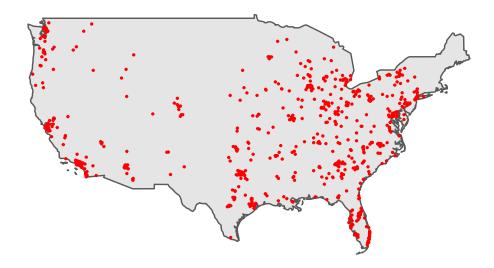
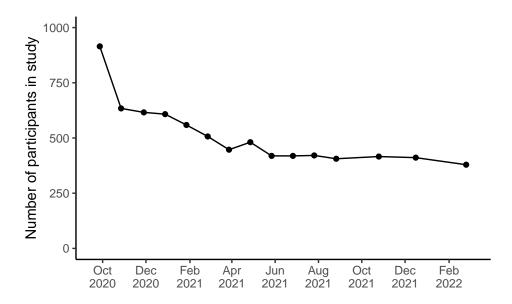


Figure S1. Map of the United States with participant zip code locations.



Figure~S2.~Attrition~across~the~course~of~the~study.

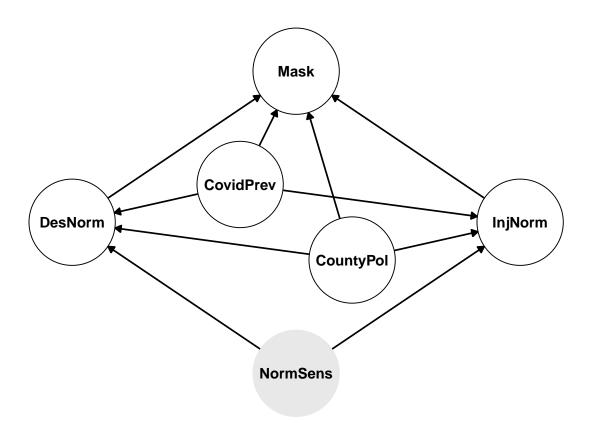


Figure S3. Directed acyclic graph reflecting causal assumptions. In this model, a general unobserved sensitivity to social norms (NormSens) causes perceptions of descriptive social norms (DesNorm) and perceptions of injunctive social norms (InjNorm), and perceptions of descriptive and injunctive norms cause mask wearing behavior (Mask). County-level COVID-19 prevalence (CovidPrev) and political leaning (CountyPol) are also posited to be common causes of perceptions of social norms and mask wearing behavior. Using the backdoor criterion (Pearl, 1995), this causal model implies that it is necessary to control for perceptions of injunctive norms, county-level COVID-19 prevalence, and county-level political leaning to estimate the direct causal effect of perceived descriptive norms on mask wearing. Similarly, it is necessary to control for perceptions of descriptive norms, county-level COVID-19 prevalence, and county-level political leaning to estimate the direct causal effect of perceived injunctive norms on mask wearing.

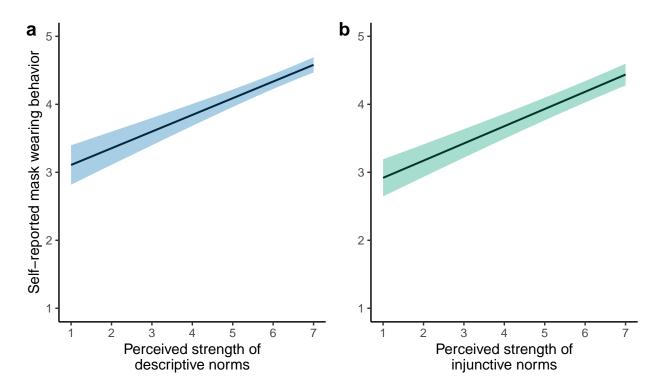


Figure S4. Predictions from multilevel models with self-reported mask wearing behavior as the outcome variable and (a) perceived strength of descriptive norms and (b) perceived strength of injunctive norms as independent predictor variables. Lines are fixed effect regression lines from multilevel models, shaded areas are 95% confidence intervals.

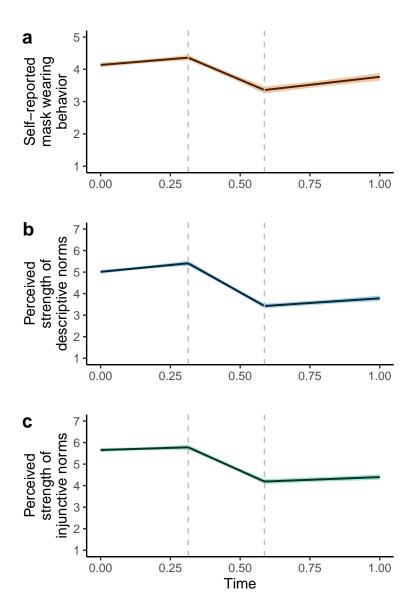


Figure S5. Predictions from multilevel models with change points in line with changes in CDC mask wearing recommendations. These models track temporal changes in (a) self-reported mask wearing behavior, (b) perceived strength of descriptive norms, and (c) perceived strength of injunctive norms. Time is included as a continuous linear predictor, scaled between 0 and 1, with two forced change points (dashed lines). The first dashed line (left) indicates when the CDC relaxed their mask wearing recommendations in March 2021, and the second dashed line (right) indicates when the CDC strengthened their mask wearing recommendations in July 2021. This results in the estimation of four fixed effect parameters: the initial intercept, the slope in the first window, the slope in the second window, and the slope in the third window. Bolded lines and shaded areas represent fixed effect regression lines from multilevel models and 95% confidence intervals, respectively.

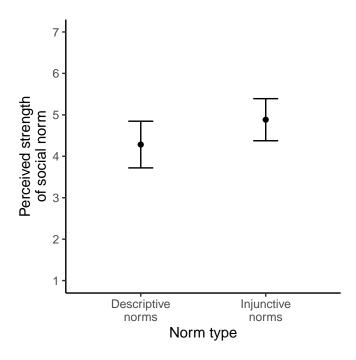


Figure S6. Predictions from multilevel model of the difference between the perceived strength of descriptive and injunctive social norms. Points and error bars represent estimated marginal means and 95% confidence intervals, respectively.

Supplementary Tables

Table S1

List of norm interpretation questions asked at Time 7. These questions were preceded by the following text: "There may or may not be a difference between what people around you are doing and what they should be doing. You can learn about what people are doing and what they should be doing in different ways. For each of the following information sources, we want to know if you can learn from it what people are doing, what people should be doing, or both." Participants answered all questions on a 7-point Likert scale, from (1) Not At All to (7) Very Strongly.

| Interpretation | Perceived norm item | Question | | |
|----------------|---------------------|--|--|--|
| | | Does noticing the proportion of people in your area | | |
| Provides | | that wear a mask while doing recreational/social | | |
| descriptive | Descriptive | activities indoors (e.g., going to the gym, eating | | |
| information | | at a restaurant, attending a party) tell you what | | |
| | everyone is doing? | | | |
| | | Does noticing the proportion of people in your area | | |
| | | that wear a mask while doing routine activities | | |
| | | indoors (e.g., running errands, shopping, going to | | |
| | | work) tell you what everyone is doing? | | |
| | | Do mask-wearing rules encouraged in your area | | |
| | Injunctive | (e.g., by local or state government officials, busi- | | |
| | | nesses, etc.) tell you what everyone is doing? | | |
| | | Does how often you see people that you respect | | |
| | | and trust wearing a mask (e.g., on tv, news, etc.) | | |
| | | tell you what everyone is doing? | | |

Table S1 continued

| Interpretation | Perceived norm item | Question | |
|----------------|---------------------|--|--|
| | | Does noticing the proportion of people in your area | |
| Provides | | that wear a mask while doing recreational/social | |
| injunctive | Descriptive | activities indoors (e.g., going to the gym, eating | |
| information | | at a restaurant, attending a party) tell you what | |
| | | everyone should be doing? | |
| | | Does noticing the proportion of people in your area | |
| | | that wear a mask while doing routine activities | |
| | | indoors (e.g., running errands, shopping, going to | |
| | Injunctive | work) tell you what everyone should be doing? | |
| | | Do mask-wearing rules encouraged in your area | |
| | | (e.g., by local or state government officials, busi- | |
| | | nesses, etc.) tell you what everyone should be do- | |
| | | ing? | |
| | | Does how often you see people that you respect | |
| | | and trust wearing a mask (e.g., on tv, news, etc.) | |
| | | tell you what everyone should be doing? | |

Table S2
Unstandardized fixed effect parameters from
multilevel models: perceptions of social norm
strength predicting self-reported mask wearing.
Standard errors are included in brackets.

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|-------------------|----------|----------|
| Intercept | 2.86 | 2.67 |
| | (0.17) | (0.16) |
| Descriptive norms | 0.25 | |
| | (0.03) | |
| Injunctive norms | | 0.25 |
| | | (0.02) |
| N | 3781 | 3790 |
| N (id) | 778 | 778 |
| N (time) | 8 | 8 |
| AIC | 11995.16 | 12031.84 |
| BIC | 12051.30 | 12088.00 |
| R2 (fixed) | 0.07 | 0.08 |
| R2 (total) | 0.42 | 0.42 |

Table S3 $\it Unstandardized$ fixed effect parameters from multilevel models: trends over time with change points at $\it CDC$ events.

| | Mask wearing | Descriptive norms | Injunctive norms |
|---|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| Intercept 4.13, 95% CI [4.06 4.21] 5.01, 95% CI [4.06 4.21] | | 5.01, 95% CI [4.93 5.10] | 5.65, 95% CI [5.56 5.75] |
| Slope1 | $0.71,95\% \mathrm{CI} [0.40 1.04]$ | $1.26,95\%~\mathrm{CI}~[0.76~1.74]$ | 0.41, 95% CI [-0.06 0.90] |
| Slope2 | -3.67, 95% CI [-4.13 -3.24] | -7.26, 95% CI [-7.78 -6.75] | -5.82, 95% CI [-6.37 -5.31] |
| Slope3 | 0.99,95% CI $[0.691.31]$ | $0.86, 95\%$ CI $[0.56 \ 1.16]$ | $0.51, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.21 \ 0.81]$ |
| N | 7493 | 3837 | 3843 |
| R2 (fixed) | 0.05 | 0.26 | 0.21 |
| R2 (total) | 0.44 | 0.72 | 0.71 |

Table S4
Unstandardized fixed effect parameters from
multilevel model: difference between perceived
strength of descriptive and injunctive social norms.
Standard errors are included in brackets.

| | Model 1 |
|-------------------------------|----------|
| Intercept | 4.28 |
| | (0.29) |
| Difference between norm types | 0.60 |
| | (0.04) |
| N | 7680 |
| N (id) | 779 |
| N (time) | 8 |
| AIC | 22409.98 |
| BIC | 22472.50 |
| R2 (fixed) | 0.04 |
| R2 (total) | 0.65 |

Table S5
Standardised autoregressive and cross-lagged parameters from random-intercept cross-lagged panel model. Variable name prefixes: Mask = mask wearing, Des = perceived descriptive norms, Inj = perceived injunctive norms. Variable name suffixes indicate time points. Arrows indicate the direction of prediction.

| Parameter | Estimate | SE | 2.5% | 97.5% |
|---|----------|------|-------|-------|
| $Des_02 \to Mask_03$ | -0.01 | 0.06 | -0.14 | 0.11 |
| $Des_02 \to Inj_03$ | 0.08 | 0.07 | -0.05 | 0.21 |
| $Des_02 \to Des_03$ | 0.20 | 0.07 | 0.07 | 0.33 |
| $Des_03 \to Mask_05$ | 0.11 | 0.06 | -0.01 | 0.24 |
| $Des_03 \to Inj_05$ | 0.10 | 0.07 | -0.03 | 0.23 |
| $Des_03 \to Des_05$ | 0.32 | 0.06 | 0.19 | 0.44 |
| $Des_05 \to Mask_09$ | 0.11 | 0.07 | -0.03 | 0.24 |
| $Des_05 \to Inj_09$ | 0.11 | 0.07 | -0.02 | 0.25 |
| $Des_05 \to Des_09$ | 0.06 | 0.07 | -0.08 | 0.20 |
| $Des_09 \to Mask_11$ | 0.17 | 0.07 | 0.03 | 0.31 |
| $\mathrm{Des}_09 \to \mathrm{Inj}_11$ | 0.28 | 0.07 | 0.15 | 0.41 |
| $Des_09 \to Des_11$ | 0.27 | 0.07 | 0.14 | 0.40 |
| $Des_11 \to Mask_13$ | 0.21 | 0.08 | 0.06 | 0.36 |
| $Des_11 \to Inj_13$ | 0.15 | 0.07 | 0.01 | 0.30 |
| $Des_11 \to Des_13$ | 0.27 | 0.07 | 0.13 | 0.41 |
| $Des_13 \to Mask_14$ | 0.16 | 0.08 | 0.01 | 0.31 |
| $Des_13 \to Inj_14$ | 0.21 | 0.06 | 0.09 | 0.33 |
| $Des_13 \to Des_14$ | 0.32 | 0.06 | 0.20 | 0.45 |
| $Des_14 \to Mask_15$ | 0.15 | 0.08 | -0.02 | 0.31 |
| $Des_14 \to Inj_15$ | 0.11 | 0.07 | -0.03 | 0.26 |
| $Des_14 \to Des_15$ | 0.35 | 0.07 | 0.22 | 0.48 |

Table S5 continued

| Parameter | Estimate | SE | 2.5% | 97.5% |
|---|----------|------|-------|-------|
| $Inj_02 \rightarrow Mask_03$ | 0.10 | 0.06 | -0.02 | 0.23 |
| $Inj_02 \to Inj_03$ | 0.07 | 0.07 | -0.06 | 0.21 |
| $Inj_02 \to Des_03$ | 0.03 | 0.06 | -0.09 | 0.15 |
| $Inj_03 \to Mask_05$ | 0.03 | 0.06 | -0.09 | 0.16 |
| $\mathrm{Inj}_03 \to \mathrm{Inj}_05$ | 0.14 | 0.07 | 0.01 | 0.28 |
| $Inj_03 \to Des_05$ | 0.01 | 0.06 | -0.11 | 0.14 |
| $Inj_05 \to Mask_09$ | -0.11 | 0.07 | -0.24 | 0.02 |
| $\mathrm{Inj}_05 \to \mathrm{Inj}_09$ | -0.07 | 0.07 | -0.21 | 0.07 |
| $Inj_05 \to Des_09$ | -0.05 | 0.07 | -0.19 | 0.08 |
| $Inj_09 \to Mask_11$ | 0.04 | 0.08 | -0.11 | 0.19 |
| $Inj_09 \to Inj_11$ | 0.13 | 0.07 | 0.00 | 0.27 |
| $Inj_09 \to Des_11$ | 0.07 | 0.07 | -0.06 | 0.21 |
| $Inj_11 \to Mask_13$ | 0.05 | 0.07 | -0.09 | 0.19 |
| $Inj_11 \to Inj_13$ | 0.32 | 0.07 | 0.19 | 0.45 |
| $Inj_11 \to Des_13$ | 0.22 | 0.07 | 0.08 | 0.35 |
| $Inj_13 \to Mask_14$ | -0.02 | 0.07 | -0.17 | 0.12 |
| $Inj_13 \to Inj_14$ | 0.42 | 0.06 | 0.31 | 0.54 |
| $Inj_13 \to Des_14$ | 0.23 | 0.06 | 0.10 | 0.35 |
| $Inj_14 \to Mask_15$ | 0.03 | 0.08 | -0.13 | 0.18 |
| $Inj_14 \to Inj_15$ | 0.47 | 0.07 | 0.34 | 0.60 |
| $Inj_14 \to Des_15$ | 0.31 | 0.06 | 0.19 | 0.44 |
| $Mask_02 \to Mask_03$ | -0.02 | 0.06 | -0.14 | 0.10 |
| ${\rm Mask_02 \to Inj_03}$ | 0.00 | 0.06 | -0.13 | 0.12 |
| $Mask_02 \to Des_03$ | 0.01 | 0.06 | -0.11 | 0.12 |

Table S5 continued

| Parameter | Estimate | SE | 2.5% | 97.5% |
|--------------------------------------|----------|------|-------|-------|
| $Mask_03 \rightarrow Mask_05$ | 0.02 | 0.06 | -0.10 | 0.13 |
| $Mask_03 \to Inj_05$ | 0.04 | 0.06 | -0.08 | 0.16 |
| ${\rm Mask_03 \to Des_05}$ | 0.12 | 0.06 | 0.00 | 0.23 |
| $Mask_05 \rightarrow Mask_09$ | 0.08 | 0.07 | -0.04 | 0.21 |
| $Mask_05 \rightarrow Inj_09$ | 0.10 | 0.07 | -0.03 | 0.23 |
| ${\rm Mask_05 \to Des_09}$ | -0.01 | 0.07 | -0.15 | 0.12 |
| $Mask_09 \rightarrow Mask_11$ | -0.03 | 0.07 | -0.16 | 0.10 |
| $Mask_09 \to Inj_11$ | 0.01 | 0.06 | -0.11 | 0.14 |
| ${\rm Mask_09 \to Des_11}$ | 0.10 | 0.06 | -0.02 | 0.22 |
| $Mask_11 \to Mask_13$ | 0.20 | 0.06 | 0.07 | 0.32 |
| $Mask_11 \to Inj_13$ | 0.05 | 0.06 | -0.07 | 0.16 |
| ${\rm Mask_11 \to Des_13}$ | 0.10 | 0.06 | -0.02 | 0.21 |
| $Mask_13 \rightarrow Mask_14$ | 0.30 | 0.06 | 0.18 | 0.42 |
| $Mask_13 \to Inj_14$ | 0.10 | 0.05 | -0.01 | 0.20 |
| ${\rm Mask_13 \to Des_14}$ | 0.20 | 0.05 | 0.09 | 0.30 |
| $Mask_14 \rightarrow Mask_15$ | 0.29 | 0.06 | 0.17 | 0.41 |
| $Mask_14 \rightarrow Inj_15$ | 0.04 | 0.06 | -0.07 | 0.16 |
| ${\rm Mask_14 \rightarrow Des_15}$ | 0.11 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.21 |

641 Supplementary References

Pearl, J. (1995). Causal diagrams for empirical research. Biometrika, 82(4), 669-688, https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/82.4.669