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Greater Traditionalism Predicts COVID-19 Precautionary Behaviors Across 27 Societies.

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1 Abstract

People vary both in their embrace of their society's traditions, and in their perception of 2 3 hazards as salient and necessitating a response. Over evolutionary time, traditions have offered 4 avenues for addressing hazards, plausibly resulting in linkages between orientations toward tradition and orientations toward danger. Emerging research documents connections between 5 6 traditionalism and threat responsivity, including pathogen-avoidance motivations. Additionally, 7 because hazard-mitigating behaviors can conflict with competing priorities, associations between 8 traditionalism and pathogen avoidance may hinge on contextually contingent tradeoffs. The 9 COVID-19 pandemic provides a real-world test of the posited relationship between 10 traditionalism and hazard avoidance. Across 27 societies (N = 7,844), we find that, in a majority 11 of countries, individuals' endorsement of tradition positively correlates with their adherence to costly COVID-19-avoidance behaviors; accounting for some of the conflicts that arise between 12 public health precautions and other objectives further strengthens this evidence that 13 14 traditionalism is associated with greater attention to hazards.

15

16 **Introduction**

17 Traditionalism—the tendency to embrace what are perceived to be the longstanding 18 norms and values of one's group, while rejecting changes to them—varies across individuals¹. 19 Given the centrality of sociality and culture for humans, individuals' orientations toward 20 traditions have important downstream consequences. These include the tendency to embrace or 21 reject innovations in the face of environmental change², the ability to coordinate actions with 22 fellow group members³, and the shaping of political attitudes and ideologies in democratic 23 contexts⁴. It is therefore vital to understand factors that contribute to variation in traditionalism. 24 Emerging research demonstrates associations between individual differences in traditionalism and variation in the propensity to attend, and respond, to hazards^{3,5}. Initial 25 evidence indicates that individual variation in traditionalism may in part associate with variation 26 27 in pathogen avoidance, the motivation to take actions to alleviate the costs of potential pathogen threats^{3,6–10}. Hence, what is termed the *traditional norms* account⁷ identifies pathogen avoidance 28 29 as an important factor relating to traditionalism. Consistent with the traditional norms account, multiple evolutionary pathways may lead individuals to leverage adherence to tradition as a way 30 of ameliorating danger^{3,7}. 31

32 First, as a result of cultural evolutionary processes favoring beliefs and practices that benefit individual and group fitness¹¹, some traditions may have instrumental value for 33 addressing particular pathogen threats¹². While it is possible that individuals explicitly or 34 35 implicitly understand the connections between some instrumental norms and their outcomes, the functionality of norms is frequently opaque to those who adopt them^{13,14}. If the average 36 37 instrumental benefit of adhering to traditions when confronting danger outweighs the costs of imprecision resulting from causal opacity, then individuals may be motivated to broadly embrace 38 traditions in pursuit of safety. Co-evolution may have resulted in psychological adaptations or 39 40 reaction norms connecting traditions to threat if the above cost-benefit structure was common 41 over evolutionary time.

The benefits of sociality generate a second pathway by which an association between traditionalism and the salience of pathogen threats could arise. Adherence to traditional norms might provide broad payoffs via increased social support, for example by signaling in-group identity in cooperative exchanges and systems of indirect reciprocity, and/or by facilitating in-

group coordination¹⁵⁻¹⁷. Such benefits might plausibly include cost amelioration in the face of
pathogen threats, for example by obtaining care and resources during periods of illness¹⁸.

For all of the above possibilities, natural selection could have produced either a) stable dispositional linkages between pathogen-threat concerns and long-term preferences for tradition, b) facultative plasticity, such that individuals prophylactically upregulate their embrace of tradition in response to cues indicating an increased risk of disease, or c) both. Together, these considerations generate the prediction that, ceteris paribus, relative to individuals less invested in tradition, those who evince greater traditionalism will be more inclined to attempt to diminish the risk of acquiring transmissible disease.

Note that the theorized connection between traditionalism and threat avoidance mirrors a 55 56 similar putative relationship between social conservatism and threat avoidance, where socially conservative beliefs reflect support for tradition ^{see 19,20} in contexts where people hold political 57 ideologies. Indeed, much of the theoretical work connecting traditional attitudes with threat 58 reactivity comes out of political psychology, where extensive prior research has long recognized 59 60 the role that motives to mitigate uncertainty, fear, and threat-particularly disease threats and threats to the stability of the social system—play in shaping socially conservative ideology^{19,21–} 61 23. 62

In the present research, our focus is on traditionalism writ large rather than social conservatism in particular. Political ideologies are culturally relevant in some contexts but not others. In contrast, by virtue of their translatability across cultural and political contexts, attitudinal antecedents such as traditionalism are better suited for large-scale cross-cultural investigation. That said, the underlying evolutionary logic presented here draws on, and is consistent with, seminal theoretical perspectives in political psychology that identify the

existential motivations (compare to the proximate motivation to reduce threat), epistemic
motivations (compare to the potential instrumental value of traditionalism/conservatism in
reducing threat), and relational motivations (compare to the potential sociality benefit of
traditionalism/conservatism in reducing threat) that underly political ideologies ²⁴.

73 Although adherence to tradition can provide benefits, it can also entail costs. In addition 74 to political considerations, there are often tangible costs to sticking to the tried-and-true – most 75 notably because innovations may generate higher payoffs than existing practices. Any given 76 manifestation of a linkage between threat-mitigating behavior and traditionalism may therefore 77 depend in part on how individuals assign weights to the cost-benefit structure characterizing the 78 specific context, and exceptions to that connection should be expected when competing priorities 79 arise. Moreover, behaviors that mitigate the costs of a threat may lead to costs in other areas, 80 either directly, or indirectly due to the zero-sum nature of the time, attention, and resources 81 available. Taken in sum, the relationship between traditionalism and pathogen avoidance may 82 not be straightforward if responses to pathogen threats are perceived to clash with other priorities. 83

84 Much of the previous literature on the relationship between traditionalism and pathogen 85 avoidance does not take account of the costs of the latter. Investigators often rely on subjective responses to hypothetical scenarios^(e.g. 19, 20)—for example, feeling sick after witnessing someone 86 87 vomit—that do not distinguish the real-world contexts, conflicting goals, or costs of the relevant 88 behaviors (such as opportunity costs, allocation tradeoffs between—or vulnerabilities to— 89 different threats, etc.). Using hypothetical scenarios is sensible in research that aims to measure 90 emotional and/or behavioral tendencies-which may correlate with general behavioral 91 tendencies²⁷—while holding contextual factors equal. However, hypotheticals cannot capture the

92 specific tradeoffs that likely determine how such propensities play out in consequential real-93 world decision making.

Past research predominantly employs samples from a narrow range of societies. Given
that cost-benefit structures are likely culturally variant, the observed associations between
traditionalism and pathogen avoidance may be rooted in aspects of particular practices, values, or
beliefs within those societies. Hence, at present, the extent to which traditionalism and threatavoidance behaviors are related across the highly variable traditional practices and beliefs of
diverse societies is not fully known.

Encouragingly, research has begun to take the costs of pathogen avoidance into account^{10,28,29}. Likewise, though relying on hypothetical scenarios, a recent study examined the relationship between disgust sensitivity and traditionalism in a large cross-cultural sample ⁷. However, to date, no large-scale international investigation has addressed the relationship between pathogen avoidance and traditionalism in a real-world context, or assessed the potential for conflicts between pathogen avoidance and competing goals to impact said relationship. The COVID-19 pandemic affords such research.

107 The pandemic involves a pathogen threat that is both salient for much of the world's population³⁰ and has had marked effects on behavior³¹. Further, these real-world 108 109 behaviors are inherently costly³², and may epitomize the kinds of cost-benefit tradeoffs 110 individuals face when various priorities are perceived to clash. Moreover, individuals are 111 influenced by their information environments, which can in turn shape perceptions of costs and 112 benefits regardless of the actual underlying distribution. Concordantly, from an error management perspective ³³, individuals must balance the relative costs and frequencies of type 1 113 114 and type 2 errors when it comes to disease threats (i.e. the cost of taking insufficient precautions

against a hazardous disease versus the social and opportunity costs entailed by being overly
cautious). Indeed, individuals appear to be influenced by decision processes that reduce the
probability of committing the more costly error in the context of disease avoidance ^{34,35}. In
addition to the tradeoffs between disease avoidance and social opportunities, in social ecologies
wherein COVID-19 precautions are positively or negatively moralized, error-management
considerations will likely also include the reputational costs of locally counter-normative
behavior.

The traditional norms account of the relationship between traditionalism and threat avoidance predicts that, all else equal, precautionary COVID-19 health behaviors should correlate with traditionalism, given that such behaviors can accurately index general pathogen avoidance motivations by virtue of occurring in a real-world context. Specifically, if traditionalism and pathogen avoidance motivations are linked, then the extent to which individuals engage in COVID-19 prophylaxis should correspond with the extent to which they embrace traditions.

129 Despite the apparent simplicity of the above prediction, all else may not be equal in the case of reactions to the current pandemic, as group-level and individual-level contextual factors 130 131 may parochially shape the perceived cost-benefit structure of COVID-19 health precautions. For 132 example, at the group level, precautions promulgated by public health authorities may be seen as 133 threatening economic prosperity or personal liberty to a greater extent in some cultural contexts 134 than in others. Individual assessments of those countervailing tradeoffs, shaped by the social and 135 political environment, will likely vary as well. Furthermore, some public health precautions may 136 directly interfere with traditional practices; for example, social distancing restrictions preclude 137 the kinds of ritual gatherings that are often important for religious services and other activities

138 central to in-group identity. Finally, as stated above, individuals' characterizations of the cost-139 benefit structures may or may not be accurate: miscalculations or erroneous beliefs can arise. In 140 particular, for politically, ideologically, and socially salient issues such as the pandemic, 141 individuals' information environments may shape inaccurate beliefs about such tradeoffs. In 142 sum, these clashes potentially reduce, or even reverse, the observed relationship between 143 pathogen avoidance behaviors—in this case, COVID-19 health precautions—and traditionalism. 144 Recent research has found support for both the traditional norms account and the 145 presence of tradeoffs. At the national level, consistent with the logic connecting traditions and 146 threat mitigation, researchers have found that greater cultural tightness (i.e. stronger and more 147 heavily enforced social norms and constraints) correlated negatively with COVID-19 incidence rates³⁶. At the individual level, two recent studies in the U.S¹⁰ found that variables such as 148 149 greater economic conservatism and lower trust in scientists statistically suppressed the 150 traditionalism-COVID-19 precautions relationship. Concordantly, consonant with the close relationship between traditionalism and social conservatism⁴, other research provides evidence 151 152 for an increase in social conservatism in the U.S., Poland, and the U.K. following the start of the pandemic^{8,37–38, but see 39}. However, these results come from only three societies, and may be 153 154 contingent on the parochial conditions obtaining therein, notably including the extensive 155 politicization of the pandemic in the U.S. and Poland^{40,41}. We therefore investigated the 156 relationship between COVID-19 precautions and traditionalism across 27 countries, examining 157 both the zero-order relationships and the direct relationships after statistically accounting for 158 indirect effects (i.e., mediation or suppression) of variables related to the perception that 159 COVID-19 precautions exacerbate other threats or otherwise conflict with competing priorities. 160

161 **Research questions:**

162 1. Do COVID-19 health precautions, as potential manifestations of general pathogen

163 avoidance tendencies, positively correlate with traditionalism across diverse societies?

164 Our primary goal was to assess whether the hypothesis that traditionalism and pathogen 165 avoidance covary at the individual level obtains across a wide array of cultural contexts. 166 Specifically, we were interested in whether individuals' choices to adopt precautionary COVID-167 19 behaviors positively associated with their own endorsement of traditionalism. We used 168 individuals' self-reports of their actual COVID-19 precautionary health behaviors (such as mask 169 wearing, social distancing, and supplement taking) as a complex, real-world manifestation of 170 pathogen avoidance behavior. We selected precautionary behaviors that had been widely adopted 171 across the globe, and that had been plausibly viewed as medically- or public health-derived 172 preventative measures by experts and/or laypeople. The actual efficacy of the precautions in 173 question varied. In contrast to previous methods that left the costs of pathogen avoidance 174 unspecified, individuals' decisions about COVID-19 precautions intrinsically embody the kinds 175 of tradeoff calculations discussed above.

Because specific traditions and cultural practices vary substantially across societies, to measure traditionalism, we examined individuals' general tendency to endorse or reject the traditional norms and values of their society writ large, rather than the specific content of those traditions themselves. This allowed us to measure traditionalism in a relatively consistent manner across study sites, affording comparisons despite wide variation in the contents of traditions.

Testing the individual-level relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19
precautions across many cultural contexts was important for at least two reasons. First, given
claims of an evolved link between traditionalism and general pathogen avoidance, it is critical to

determine whether that relationship is evident across a broad swath of humanity. Second, given
that clashes between pathogen avoidance and other priorities are likely often parochial as a
function of different cultural values and beliefs, examining the individual-level traditionalismpathogen avoidance relationship across many societies affords identification of overarching
patterns despite local variation.

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190 2. Do perceived tradeoffs between health precautions and other priorities influence the191 traditionalism-precautions relationship?

192 Parochial factors interacting with individual preferences may conceal direct relationships 193 between pathogen avoidance and traditionalism. For example, a recent study found evidence 194 that, in the U.S., greater economic conservatism, greater social dominance orientation (SDO), 195 and lower trust in science statistically suppressed the direct precautions-traditionalism relationship¹⁰. Consistent with the importance of tradeoffs in shaping the relationship between 196 197 pathogen avoidance and traditionalism, we expect such suppression to occur when competing 198 priorities that also associate with traditionalism, such as personal liberties, are perceived to clash 199 with COVID-19 precautions.

It is an open question whether, in other societies, individuals similarly weight the components of the cost-benefit tradeoffs previously identified in the U.S. On the one hand, many aspects of the U.S.' socio-political environment are unlikely to generalize beyond its borders. On the other hand, pathogen avoidance precautions—particularly in the case of COVID-19—may commonly be perceived to clash with benefits derived from social interaction, including both economic and community activity. Therefore, in the present study, we also sought to investigate

the extent to which the suppressive dynamics identified in previous research in the U.S.¹⁰ emerge
across a much broader range of socio-political contexts.

Drawing on the previous research conducted in the U.S., we tested seven theoretically 208 209 relevant variables that may suppress traditionalism-precautions relationships in some cultural 210 contexts. First, we measured concerns over personal liberties and the economy, as well as 211 perceived tradeoffs between personal liberties, the economy, and the practice of traditions on the 212 one hand, and COVID-19 public health precautions on the other. Here, we explicitly pitted 213 public health precautions against priorities that have been commonly perceived to clash in some 214 societal contexts. Second, we measured trust in scientists regarding COVID-19 information. 215 Because many scientific explanations for natural phenomena are incompatible with many 216 traditional explanations thereof, trust in scientists may negatively correlate with traditionalism in 217 many cultural contexts. If this is the case, and if COVID-19 public health precautions are 218 perceived to derive from the advice of scientists, traditionalists may discount these precautions, 219 resulting in suppression of any direct positive relationships between traditionalism and COVID-220 19 precautions. The precise configuration, however, will depend on culturally parochial 221 relationships between traditional and scientific meaning systems. 222 Finally, related to the logic regarding trust in scientists, we included a measure of SDO. 223 SDO contributes to distrust in both scientists and various scientific findings, likely because

scientists are more likely to be viewed as actors seeking to disrupt the social hierarchies

preferred by individuals with higher SDO⁴². This may be particularly true when hierarchy-

promoting authoritarian leaders denounce the legitimacy of scientists in the context of COVID-

19, or imply that their recommended practices are only for the weak. Likewise, SDO may reflect

228 preferences for fewer constraints on individual liberties regardless of their effects on public

goods⁴³. Because traditionalism also intersects with preferences for authoritarian leaders¹, and 229 associates with SDO in some socio-political contexts^{44,45}, SDO might act as a statistical 230 231 suppressor of any direct relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 precautions when 232 the above conditions are met. 233 We did not make specific predictions about the effects of each of the above variables at 234 each of the study sites, and we did not expect to find suppression across all countries given the 235 likelihood that many of these tradeoff dynamics are parochial. Further, this was not an 236 exhaustive test of every possible dynamic that may be relevant to the zero-order relationship 237 across individual societies. Rather, we sought to explore the generalizability of the extent to 238 which the particular factors operating in the U.S. also exert suppressive effects elsewhere, 239 perhaps reflective of some relatively common ways in which pathogen avoidance behaviors can 240 clash with competing priorities. 241 **Results** 242

Baseline relationships between COVID-19 precautions and traditionalism across study sites:

Treating each study site as a separate sample, we conducted a random effects metaanalysis to test the extent to which overall indices of COVID-19 precautions and traditionalism were related across study sites (see Figures 1 and 2). At the majority of study sites (16 of 27), the relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 precautions was positive and significant, as was the overall meta-analyzed point estimate representing a weighted average of the effects found for each study site (r = .19, 95% confidence interval [.14, .24]; note that the 95% confidence interval for the overall estimate does not overlap with zero). There was also 252 substantial variation across study sites, as indicated by observed levels of heterogeneity ($I^2 =$ 253 78.34%; 95% prediction interval [-.03, .41]); concordantly, the 95% prediction interval 254 overlapped with zero, suggesting that if similar nations were randomly added to the sample, 255 some of their true effect sizes would be null, or even negative 46 . 256 These results were robust to the inclusion of demographic controls—including age and 257 education—as well as COVID-19-related covariates, such as participants' estimates of COVID-258 19 prevalence (see Figure S5; see Methods section for details on COVID-19-related covariates). 259 Additionally, the reliability of the traditionalism composite varied widely across study sites (α s 260 .39 - .88, mean α = .74; see Table S8). To address this, a) we performed item-by-item meta-261 analyses using each item from the traditionalism composite separately (see Supplement page 262 S44)—results were conceptually unchanged compared to the composite, and were similar across 263 items, with some variation in effect size—and b) given the possibility of measurement error 264 contributing to unreliability, we performed random effects meta-analyses using the traditionalism composite that disattenuated for unreliability⁴⁷, see Figure S7. These analyses used averages of 265 266 raw scores to create composite indices for traditionalism and COVID-19 precautions, where item 267 inclusion was based on the results of factor analyses (see Methods section and Supplement pages 268 S30 and S38 for details). While averaged composites are easier to interpret, they may make 269 unrealistic assumptions about the relative weights of each item in the composites. We therefore 270 tested whether using factor scores instead of raw averages for the traditionalism and COVID-19 271 precautions indices conceptually altered the results. Factor scores were highly correlated with the 272 raw average composites (marginal R2s = .96 - .98), and using them in place of the raw average 273 composites did not conceptually change results (see Supplement page S62 for details). Finally, 274 country-specific estimates of COVID-19 prevalence at the time of data collection did not explain

any of the variance in effect sizes between study sites when tested in a meta-regression (see
Supplement page S23), although the reliability of officially reported prevalence numbers may
vary across study sites.

278

Exploring the effects of potential suppressor variables:

279 To test the generalizability of suppression phenomena originally observed in the U.S. 280 socio-political context, we examined the extent to which the potential suppressor variables 281 assessed in those studies affected the zero-order precautions-traditionalism relationship across 282 study sites. Here, suppression refers to variables that result in a negative indirect relationship 283 between traditionalism and health precautions in a mediation analysis, such that accounting for 284 them in a regression increases (rather than decreases, as in a traditional mediation analysis) the effect size of the direct positive traditionalism-precautions relationship⁴⁸. We therefore 285 286 conducted a second random effects meta-analysis on the traditionalism-precautions relationship 287 accounting for the effects of potential suppressor variables. 288 In order to use the same set of candidate suppressors for each study site in the meta-289 analysis, we first identified suppressors in a pooled sample across all study sites. Using 290 bootstrapping procedures to determine confidence intervals, we utilized mixed-effects mediation 291 analyses with study site set as a random effect to test whether any of the seven candidate 292 variables were suppressing the precautions-traditionalism relationship in the pooled sample. Of 293 the seven variables, we identified five suppressors in the pooled sample (see Table S1): SDO; 294 distrust in scientists; and perceived tradeoffs between COVID-19 public health efforts and 295 personal liberties, the economy, and personal traditions, respectively. See Supplement pages

296 S66-S71 for information on mean levels of each suppressor variable across study sites.

Next, we assessed the combined effects of all five suppressors at each study site (see
Table S2). We observed a wide range of indirect effects across study sites, ranging from
suppression in slightly less than half of the study sites, all the way to partial mediation at three of
the sites. This suggests that while the suppression effects originally observed in the U.S. *are*shared with some other societies, the effects of these five variables on the traditionalismprecautions relationship are parochial, and contingent on socio-political dynamics and
perceptions that vary widely across societies.

304 We then ran a new set of random effect meta-analyses examining the relationship 305 between traditionalism and overall COVID-19 health precautions, adjusting for the joint effects of the five aforementioned variables (see Figure 3). While the overall meta-analyzed point 306 307 estimate was conceptually indistinguishable from the effect size of the zero-order meta-analysis, 308 accounting for the five variables resulted in the following observations: a) the amount of heterogeneity in effect sizes across study sites was substantially reduced ($I^2 = 56.39\%$; 95% 309 310 prediction interval [.08, .33]); b) the 95% prediction intervals suggest that if similar nations were 311 randomly added to the sample, their true effect sizes would be positive and significant if adjusted 312 for the five variables; and c) the traditionalism-precautions relationship was now positive and 313 significant in 21 out of 27 study sites. Taken together, these results suggest that the suppressive 314 effects of these five variables emerge in a variety of socio-political contexts across the countries 315 included in this study, and adjusting for their effects reveals a more consistent positive 316 relationship in the direct pathway between pathogen avoidance and traditionalism across 317 societies in our models. Note that these results remain robust after accounting for the same 318 demographic and COVID-19-related covariates used previously (see Figure S6), as well as when 319 disattenuating for scale unreliability (see Figure S8); when using factor scores in place of raw

average composites (see Supplement page S62); and when conducting item-by-item analyses ofthe traditionalism composite items (see Supplement page S44).

322

323 External-facing versus internal-facing precautions:

324 As discussed in the Methods section, exploratory factor analysis revealed that the 325 COVID-19 health precaution items can be decomposed into two factors, interpretable as 326 distinguishing between actions in which other actors are salient, and which are often publicly 327 visible (e.g., mask wearing and social distancing; hereafter *external-facing precautions*), versus 328 actions in which other actors are not salient, and which often occur in private (e.g., hand washing 329 and surface disinfection; hereafter internal-facing precautions). Because we did not predict this 330 factor structure in advance, and therefore did not have a priori predictions about how it would 331 affect the precautions-traditionalism relationship, the following analyses are exploratory. 332 To examine whether the relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 333 precautionary behaviors varies as a function of whether precautions are external- or internal-334 facing, we assessed whether subscale moderated the traditionalism-precautions relationship in a 335 mixed linear regression. We found that the strength of the traditionalism-precautions relationship 336 was greater for internal-facing precautions relative to external-facing precautions (see Figure 4).

337

338 **Discussion**

Consistent with a postulated link between traditionalism and motivations to mitigate dangers, across 27 nations, we found evidence that at the individual level, traditionalism associates positively with health precautions aimed at a global pathogen threat. In addition, in some socio-political contexts, perceived tradeoffs between health precautions and priorities

343 concerning the economy, personal liberties, and the ability to practice traditions statistically 344 suppressed the zero-order relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 precautions, as did 345 low trust in scientists and high social dominance orientation. Importantly, accounting for the 346 effects of the suppressor variables resulted in a more consistent positive correlation between 347 traditionalism and COVID-19 precautions. This suggests that when individuals' weightings of 348 the costs, benefits, and tradeoffs of pathogen-threat mitigation and competing priorities—many 349 of which are themselves tied to traditionalism—are taken into account, statistical associations 350 between traditionalism and pathogen avoidance are more likely to be detected within any given 351 cultural context.

352 These results both support the traditional norms account of the relationship between 353 traditionalism and threat avoidance, and underscore the importance of parochial, countervailing 354 preferences, many of which concern competing threat responses. Understanding the weights 355 accorded to the costs and benefits of particular pathogen-avoidance behaviors in the real world is 356 thus critical when assessing the extent to which traditionalism and pathogen avoidance covary 357 among individuals. As expected, we found considerable heterogeneity in effect sizes across study 358 sites, further highlighting the importance of parochial factors, and the contribution of cultural 359 variation in shaping traditionalism-pathogen avoidance relationships. Indeed, given the nested 360 relationship between cultural evolution and the production of traditional norms, any evolutionary 361 explanation for relationships between pathogen avoidance and traditionalism must take into 362 account the possibility of substantial variation within cultures across contexts, and across 363 cultures. For example, the extent to which traditions protect against pathogen threats may depend 364 in part upon the content of those traditions, either via traditions' instrumental effects, or via the 365 effects of adherence on ingroup cooperation and/or coordination.

366 Consistent with prior research on the tradeoffs attending COVID-19 prophylactic 367 behaviors²⁹, we found that the relationships between traditionalism and COVID-19 precautions 368 were stronger for internal-facing precautions (e.g., hand washing) than for external-facing 369 precautions (e.g., mask wearing). This may owe to differences in the extent to which these two 370 types of precautions are constrained by factors outside of personal control. Because external-371 facing precautions are more likely to be regulated by government rules—such as mask 372 mandates—individuals may have less leeway to align their behavior with their preferences. 373 Alternately, because they are more likely to conflict with the pursuit of a wide variety of benefits 374 obtained through sociality, external-facing precautions may reflect valuation of the latter to a greater extent than internal-facing precautions. Indeed, external-facing precautions are probably 375 376 more likely to clash with traditions, as precautions such as social distancing will often interfere 377 with activities such as traditional religious practices. There are thus multiple plausible potential 378 reasons why traditionalism covaries with external-facing precautions to a lesser extent than with 379 internal-facing ones.

380 This study has multiple limitations. First, samples were recruited on the basis of 381 convenience, and were not representative of their countries more broadly. In particular, given 382 that participants needed access to computing devices and internet connectivity, and because 383 some samples were comprised of students, socio-economic status and levels of formal education 384 are not representative. Of equal importance, in addition to a lack of representativeness within 385 study sites, the countries included were not globally representative. Countries from the Global 386 North were overrepresented, while countries from Africa and South America were especially 387 underrepresented. In both cases, our sampling procedures limit the generalizability of our 388 findings. In particular, the relatively high frequency at which suppression was observed using a

limited variable set derived from prior work conducted in the U.S. may reflect the over-representation of countries having shared cultural and political histories.

The effect sizes that we observed, though analogous in magnitude to those obtained in similar previous research^{7,10}, are relatively small. This likely owes in part to the fact that traditionalism is complex and multidetermined, and variation in it is not solely explained by pathogen-avoidance motivations. The same logic applies with regard to COVID-19 health precautions. Other sources of measurement error are also possible, such as the translatability and coherence of folk concepts and terminologies across societies and languages. In particular, our use of a broad but shallow assessment of traditionalism was likely one source of noise.

398 We measured the general proclivity to endorse one's society's traditions without 399 examining the actual content of those traditions. This facilitated comparison across study sites 400 irrespective of the particulars of any given society's traditions; point estimates indicate the 401 relationships between traditionalism and precautions as construed at each particular study site. 402 Nevertheless, by leaving the content of those traditions unspecified, this approach is unable to 403 explore the rich cultural particulars that may importantly drive variation across study sites. Such particulars likely vary markedly across social contexts and across cultures. Hence, we think it is 404 405 inappropriate to closely compare the magnitudes of precise point estimates between the 27 study 406 sites, or test causal explanations for heterogeneity in those estimates, especially given the issue of non-independence in country-level analyses⁴⁹. Additionally, our samples were collected on a 407 408 convenience basis, and none can be considered nationally representative. Although putative 409 cultural dimensions such as tightness-looseness and collectivism-individualism might plausibly moderate the individual-level relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 410

411 precautions,^{36,50} for all of the aforementioned reasons, these data are not structured in such a

412 way as to test nation-level hypotheses. Relatedly, it is beyond the purview of this project to 413 unpack why effects may have obtained in specific study sites but not others, although we 414 encourage future research that delves into particular social contexts more deeply, as well as 415 possible culture-level moderators.

We examined only a relatively narrow set of possible suppressor variables, selected on 416 417 the basis of their effects in previous research in the U.S. Our intention was to use these variables 418 to probe whether, across diverse cultural contexts, cost-benefit tradeoffs and conflicting attitudes 419 could influence traditionalism-pathogen avoidance relationships, rather than to exhaustively 420 document all such possible tradeoffs. The latter would have been impractical in the present project given the large number of study sites and the diverse parochial factors germane to 421 422 tradeoffs, and subjective weightings of those tradeoffs, entailed by COVID-19 precautions. 423 Future studies, focused more narrowly on one or a small number of societies, should explore 424 such tradeoffs in detail, including the extent to which politicization influences how individuals 425 perceive cost-benefit structures.

426 Future work should elucidate the proximate mechanisms linking traditionalism and threat responsivity. Are traditionalists prone to perceive threats as relatively more attention-grabbing, 427 428 and/or important, and/or susceptible to resolution through threat-mitigating action? Or, given the 429 established links between traditionalism and respect for authority figures¹, might traditionalists 430 simply be more adherent to the directives of relevant leaders in times of crisis? Relatedly, 431 traditionalism may be linked with a propensity for collective coalitional action which facilitates 432 threat-responsive behaviors in concert with others. The extent to which any or all of these 433 complementary potential pathways contribute to the link between traditionalism and pathogen-434 avoidance is currently unknown. More broadly, whereas we have focused here on a real-world

pathogen threat, might comparable dynamics obtain with regard to traditionalism and the
propensity to take action in response to threats in other domains, such as intergroup conflict or
resource scarcity?

438 We have approached the construct of traditionalism in an underspecified manner loosely 439 isomorphic with a folk concept of "tradition" that recurs reliably across societies. Having found a 440 cross-culturally replicable association, we encourage investigators to explore the particular facets 441 of traditionalism driving the relationship with COVID-19 precautions. Are there specific in-442 group practices and/or beliefs of perceived antiquity (i.e., traditions) more closely associated 443 with threat responsivity? If so, are these contingent on the nature of distinct threat domains? (E.g., are the components of traditionalism driving associations with pathogen avoidance distinct 444 445 from components associated with threat responses to intergroup conflict?) Future work should 446 examine which aspects encompassed by the superordinate construct of tradition are most 447 strongly linked with pathogen-threat responsivity, as well responsivity to contrastive threats. 448 Such work may require focusing on fewer societies to allow more detailed consideration of the 449 relative contributions of parochial beliefs and practices.

450 Ours is the first study to systematically investigate the relationship between 451 traditionalism and avoidance of a specific infectious disease across a wide range of societies, 452 attending to the kinds of costly, real-world behaviors that reflect the tradeoffs that shape actual 453 decision making. Examining these phenomena at a global scale, we required methods that were 454 coarse with regard to the particulars of the pandemic and its interactions with traditions in any 455 one cultural setting. Despite this lack of granularity, consistent with the thesis that individual 456 differences in the propensity to adhere to traditions are driven in part by differences in threat 457 responsivity, we found evidence of a positive direct relationship between traditionalism and

avoidance of a specific disease. When the individual and/or social contexts facilitated the
alignment of traditionalism and health precautions, we observed that relationship at the zero
order without needing to take other factors into account. When other preferences were perceived
to clash with public health measures against COVID-19, stronger positive relationships between
traditionalism and health precautions were detected in many cases after the effects of those
clashing objectives were held constant.

464 Our findings have practical relevance for public health authorities and clinicians seeking 465 to promulgate behavior changes that slow the spread of a disease that has claimed over six 466 million victims worldwide. Whereas casual reflection might suggest that those who adhere to values and practices rooted in the past would be more hesitant to change behaviors or utilize new 467 468 medical resources in the service of protecting themselves and others from a novel illness, in 469 actuality, these may be the very people for whom, all else being equal, threats such as those posed by COVID-19 evoke mitigating action. The challenge may be that the same disposition to 470 471 respond to this pathogen threat may also incline traditionalists to respond to other threats having 472 conflicting mitigation requirements. It is thus crucial to recognize and address potential conflicts 473 or tradeoffs that may inhibit tradition-minded individuals from adopting vital prophylactic and 474 treatment practices beneficial to themselves, their societies, and the global community. More 475 broadly, understanding the relationship between traditionalism and the extent to which danger 476 prompts corrective action may prove vital as humanity confronts worldwide threats, from 477 emerging pandemics to climate change, that can only be overcome through innovation and the 478 adoption of new practices.

479

480 Methods

481 **Project overview:**

482 This study was approved by the UCLA Office of the Human Research Protection 483 Program, and all methods were performed in accordance with relevant guidelines and 484 regulations. Informed consent was obtained before participation. Complete questionnaire in 485 English, translations, datasets, analysis code, and preregistrations of predictions and methods are 486 available at https://osf.io/6vu5b/?view_only=873259d429c346d2912303fc44df5079. See 487 Supplement page S1 for a list of questionnaire items and composite scales. 488 Adult participants were recruited online for an observational, cross-sectional survey-489 based study between October 2020 and July 2021 in 27 countries, with a final N of 7,844. 490 Countries were selected on a convenience basis, and both the range of possible study sites and 491 the representativeness of samples recruited at each were constrained by our use of remote 492 internet-mediated interactions for recruitment and participation. Nevertheless, we endeavored to 493 collect data in a wide range of societies, selected from diverse major culture areas; see Figure S1. 494 Where appropriate, survey materials were translated from English by fluent bilingual speakers. 495 While most participants were unpaid volunteers, recruitment and compensation schemes varied 496 across study sites. A mix of non-student and student populations were used, depending on the 497 study site. See Table S3 in the supplementary materials for a summary of study sites, study site-498 specific Ns, exclusions, as well as full information on survey languages, recruitment procedures, 499 and participant demographics for each study site. Data were prescreened for minimum 500 completeness and correct answers to attention checks. 501 Measures:

502 Measures were consistent across study sites, with some small deviations where necessary
503 (e.g., items addressing education levels differed across study sites according to the local

education structure). A full list of these differences can be found on the OSF repository (see linkabove).

506 COVID-19 health precautions:

507 COVID-19 health precautions were measured with a 13-item scale examining 508 participants' self-reported real-world behaviors. Questions addressed behaviors which, at the 509 time, were widely thought by public health authorities to have significant protective value 510 against COVID-19 (e.g., the frequency of mask wearing, hand washing, and social distancing, as 511 well as the importance to the participant of stocking up on supplies such as hand sanitizer). Items 512 were rated on 7-point scales, either from "never" to "as often as possible", or from "not 513 important at all", to "extremely important". Based on the results of an exploratory factor analysis 514 (see Table S4), a composite COVID-19 health precautions variable was created for the purposes 515 of analysis by averaging across the thirteen items. The factor analysis also revealed that this scale 516 can be subdivided into two subscales: *external-facing health precautions* (e.g., observing mask 517 wearing and social distancing), and *internal-facing health precautions* (e.g., washing hands). 518 These factors are consistent with results from prior research on COVID-19 precautions²⁹. Main 519 text analyses report results using the combined composite, unless otherwise noted. See 520 Supplement page S31 for details on scale development and factor analysis. 521 Traditionalism:

522 Because we were unable to identify a culturally neutral traditionalism scale in the prior 523 literature, we drew upon two instruments that had previously been deployed in large-scale cross-524 cultural research. These scales jointly assessed the concept of traditionalism, or the tendency to 525 endorse and place importance on the practice of traditional norms. To increase comparability 526 across study sites, questions were designed to measure participants' general tendency to endorse

527 or reject their own society's traditional social norms and values. The two scales were the 528 conventionalism subscale of the Aggression-Submission-Conventionalism scale⁵¹, which 529 measures the general tendency to endorse one's society's traditional social norms without 530 specifying the content of those traditions (e.g., "Traditions are the foundation of a healthy society 531 and should be respected"), as well as items from the authority subscale from the Moral Foundations Questionnaire Short Version^{52,53}, which similarly assesses whether individuals 532 533 respect traditions and authorities, both generally (e.g., "To what extent are the following 534 considerations relevant to your thinking... Whether or not someone conformed to the traditions 535 of society"), and in relation to specific values regarding gender and age roles (e.g., "Respect for 536 authority is something all children need to learn"). Items were rated on 7-point scales, either from "Not at all relevant" to "Extremely relevant", or from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly 537 538 Agree". After conducting an exploratory factor analysis on items from both scales jointly (see Table S7), a six-item averaged composite traditionalism variable was computed for analyses 539 540 involving traditionalism. See Supplement page S39 for details on scale development and factor 541 analysis.

542 Potential suppressor variables:

We included seven variables related to potential perceived conflicts between COVID-19 health precautions and other priorities: distrust in science regarding the COVID-19 pandemic; SDO (measured using the 4-item short form scale³⁰); concern about the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the economy and personal liberties; and perceptions that COVID-19 health precautions were clashing with personal liberties, one's own traditions, and the health of the economy, respectively. Unless otherwise noted, these variables were measured using single items.

550 *Demographics, COVID-19-related covariates, and attention checks:*

551 Participants indicated their gender identity and age, and their income relative to others in 552 their country. Education was also measured, but because different countries in the study have 553 different educational systems, levels of education examined varied across study sites. For the 554 purposes of analysis, education was therefore coded into a universal four-level structure: primary 555 school, secondary school, undergraduate-level, and postgraduate-level. We also measured a 556 number of covariates relevant to the pandemic itself, including perceived COVID-19 prevalence 557 in participants' local communities; the population density of those communities; whether 558 participants' jobs required that they leave the home; and whether participants had certain pre-559 existing medical conditions that may put them at higher risk for severe disease. Finally, we 560 included several attention checks.

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567 Author Contributions

T.S. designed the study, analyzed the data, contributed to data curation and visualization,
and wrote the original manuscript. D.M.T.F. and C.H. designed the study, and contributed to
writing the original manuscript. A.M.S. designed the study, contributed to writing the original
manuscript, and contributed to data curation and visualization. L.A. collected data, translated
study materials, and contributed to editing the original manuscript. P.B., D.N.P., and J.M.T.

- 573 collected data and contributed to editing the original manuscript. C.G.B., M.T.B., R.B., J.C.,
- 574 B.C., M.D.P.G., P.E., P.F., A.M.F., R.F., L.G., P. Giraldo-Perez, P. Gul, F.H., Y.H., T.J., T.K.,
- 575 B.K., T.R.K., M.K., J.L., F.R.L., M.A.M., M.M., C.M., A. Naito., P.P., Y.S., W.O.P.S., S.S.,
- 576 A.O.S., H.V., A.V., J.W., and X.T.W. collected data and translated study materials. A.N.O.,
- 577 E.J.H., S.K., N.P.L., A. Ng'ang'a, and L.K.L.T. collected data. All authors reviewed the
- 578 manuscript.

579 Data availability

- 580 All relevant data are openly available via the Open Science Framework at the following
- 581 link: https://osf.io/6vu5b/?view_only=873259d429c346d2912303fc44df5079.

582 **Competing Interests**

583 The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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Figure 1. Results of a random effects, restricted maximum likelihood meta-analysis in which each study site was treated as a separate sample. Plot shows zero-order product-moment correlations between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions at each study site, ordered by effect size. For the individual country estimates, the location of the square along the x-axis corresponds with the correlation coefficient, the size of the square corresponds with the weight of that study site in the meta-analysis, and bands are 95% confidence intervals. At the bottom of the plot, an overall meta-analyzed point estimate is provided. The midpoint of the diamond corresponds with that point estimate, the width of the diamond corresponds with the 95% prediction interval. On the right side of the plot, weights, correlation coefficients, and 95% CIs respectively are numerically listed for both the site-specific correlations, as well as the overall estimate. Note that for the overall meta-analyzed point estimate, the 95% confidence interval does not overlap with zero, while the 95% prediction interval does.


Figure 2. Graphical visualization of the country-specific correlations listed in Figure 1. Dotted lines are study site-specific product-moment correlations between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions. The solid thick line is the unweighted product-moment correlation in the pooled sample across all study sites. Dots show individual data points, jittered along the x- and y-axes to aid interpretability. Density plots along the x- and y-axes represent the raw distributions of the traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions composites. Thin grey lines show density distributions at individual study sites, whereas the thick black lines show the overall distribution in the pooled sample across all study sites. Study sites are unlabeled to improve readability. For labeled study-site specific correlations and density distributions, see Figures S2-S4 in the Supplement.





Study Site

Figure 3. Results of a random effects, restricted maximum likelihood meta-analysis in which each study site was treated as a separate sample. The plot shows semi-partial correlations^{54,55} between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions at each study site, after adjusting for the effects of the five identified suppressor variables in multiple linear regressions where health precautions were regressed on traditionalism and each of those five variables. Covariates were identical across study sites. Note that the semi-partial correlations indicate the variance in health precautions uniquely explained by the aspects of traditionalism separate from the five suppressor variables, and the effect sizes can be interpreted using the same metrics applied to product-moment correlations. See Figure 1 for a description of how to interpret the forest plot. For the overall meta-analyzed point estimate, neither the 95% confidence interval nor the 95% prediction interval overlap with zero.



Figure 4. Results of a restricted maximum likelihood moderated mixed linear regression in which COVID-19 health precautions were regressed on traditionalism, a health precautions indicator variable (e.g., either internal-facing or external-facing), and the interaction between those two variables in the pooled sample. The model included participants nested within study sites as random effects. To test this interaction, there were two observations for each participant; the first observation contained each participants' internal-facing precautions score, and the second their external-facing precautions score. We simultaneously created an indicator variable specifying which health precautions subscale corresponded with each observation. Simple slopes were then plotted in the figure.

There was an interaction between health precautions subscale and traditionalism (B = .16, SE = .01, t(7,535) = 12.76, p < .001). A simple slopes analysis revealed that the correlation between traditionalism and internal-facing precautions (B = .29, SE = .01, t(7,535) = 23.17, p < .001) was about twice as strong as the correlation between traditionalism and external-facing precautions (B = .14, SE = .01, t(7,535) = 10.84, p < .001).

Note that these results were robust to the inclusion of demographic and COVID-19-related covariates, and they were not conceptually affected when the five suppressor variables were included as covariates (see Supplement page S26). Further, results did not conceptually change when using factor scores instead of averaged composites (see Supplement page S63). Finally, we considered the possibility that the presence—or lack of presence—of planning precautions may be confounding our interpretation of the external- and internal-facing precautions subscales. Specifically, the internal-facing subscale has more items related to planning precautionary behaviors (such as the importance of obtaining prophylactic supplies), whereas the external-facing subscale has more items related to actual precautionary behavior (such as wearing a mask when outside the home). To address this possibility, we created a modified internal-facing precautions composite that excluded all planning-related precautions. Using the planning-less internal-precautions composite did not conceptually affect these results (see Supplement S26), suggesting that planning behaviors versus actual behaviors are not confounding our explanation for the moderating effect of external-versus internal-facing precautions.

Supplementary Information for

Greater Traditionalism Predicts COVID-19 Precautionary Behaviors Across 27 Societies.

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Supplementary Procedure

1. Composite scales and other variables

Full survey items in English can be found in the open archives, as well as all translations.

COVID-19 Public Health Precautions Composite: Composite of both external- and internal-facing precautions.

Note that although the following item—"When you leave your home and may be near other people, how often do you... wear gloves"—was included as a precaution item in the survey, it did not load onto either factor, and therefore was not included in any composite.

Internal-facing precautions:

Compared to before the pandemic, how important has it been for you to have adequate supplies of... [1 - not at all important ... 7 - extremely important]

- 1. Cleaning supplies (such as bleach, disinfectant spray, disinfectant wipes, etc.)
- 2. Hand sanitizer/hand soap
- 3. Masks and gloves

Compared to before the pandemic, how important has been for you to... [1 - not at all important ... 7 - extremely important]

- 1. Clean your hands with soap or sanitizer
- 2. Disinfect surfaces in your house, like doorknobs or counters
- 3. Eat or drink things to boost your immune system

When you leave your home and may be near other people, how often do you each of the following? $[1 - never \dots 7 - as often as possible]$

1. Disinfect surfaces upon returning home

External-facing precautions:

When you leave your home and may be near other people, how often do you each of the following? $[1 - never \dots 7 - as often as possible]$

- 1. Wear a mask and/or face shield/visor
- 2. Stay farther than 2 meters/6 feet away from people [*note: unit of distance varied according to local norms*]

To what degree were you careful in the last week to avoid interaction with people outside your household? [1 - not careful at all ... 7 - as careful as possible]

In your daily life, how important is it that you take actions that protect yourself and others from COVID-19? [1 – not at all important ... 7 – extremely important]

Compared to before the pandemic, I have changed many aspects of my everyday behavior to protect myself and others from COVID-19 [1 – strongly disagree ... 7 – strongly agree]

Religious precautions:

How often do you engage in... [1 – never ... 7 – very frequently]

- 1. Individual religious behavior such as prayer (for example praying alone) to protect yourself and others from COVID-19
- 2. Collective religious behavior such as attending a church/synagogue/mosque/temple/shrine to protect yourself and others from COVID-19

Conventionalism: From the Aggression-Submission-Conventionalism scale¹, a measure of rightwing authoritarianism.

The following questions concern values that people may or may not hold. Please select a number to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement. [1 - strongly disagree ... 7 - strongly agree]

- 3. People emphasize tradition too much. (r)
- 4. It would be better for society if more people followed social norms.
- 5. People should respect social norms.
- 6. Traditions are the foundation of a healthy society and should be respected.
- 7. Traditions interfere with progress. (r)
- 8. People should challenge social traditions in order to advance society. (r)

Moral Foundations authority subscale: Short-form measure².

When you decide whether something is right or wrong, to what extent are the following considerations relevant to your thinking? Please rate each statement using this scale: [1 - not at all relevant ... 7 - extremely relevant]

- 1. Whether or not someone showed a lack of respect for authority
- 2. Whether or not someone conformed to the traditions of society

Please read the following sentences and indicate your agreement or disagreement [1 – strongly disagree ... 7 – strongly agree]

- 1. Men and women each have different roles to play in society.
- 2. Respect for authority is something all children need to learn.

Traditionalism Factor: Items derived from Conventionalism and Moral Foundations authority subscales.

- 1. It would be better for society if more people followed social norms (see anchors above).
- 2. People should respect social norms (see anchors above).
- 3. Traditions are the foundation of a healthy society and should be respected. (see anchors above).
- 4. Whether or not someone showed a lack of respect for authority (see anchors above).

- 5. Whether or not someone conformed to the traditions of society (see anchors above).
- 6. Respect for authority is something all children need to learn (see anchors above).

Social dominance orientation composite: Four-item Short Social Dominance Orientation Scale³

There are many types of groups in the world: men and women, ethnic and religious groups, nationalities, political factions, etc. Please select a number to rate the degree to which you oppose or favor each statement about groups, where higher numbers mean you favor the statement more, and lower numbers mean you oppose the statement more. $[1 - \text{extremely oppose} \dots 7 - \text{extremely favor}]$

- 1. In setting priorities, we must consider all groups. (r)
- 2. We should not push for group equality.
- 7. Group equality should be our ideal. (r)
- 8. Superior groups should dominate inferior groups.

Single item suppressor variables:

1. Distrust in scientists:

How much do you think scientists provide advice based on accurate information about what to do during the COVID-19 outbreak? [1 - not at all accurate ... 7 - extremely accurate]

- 2. Concern over the effects of COVID-19 on the economy:
 - How concerned are you about the economic effects of the COVID-19 pandemic? [1 not at all concerned ... 7 extremely concerned]
- 3. Concern over the effects of COVID-19 on personal liberties:

How concerned are you about losing personal rights because of the COVID-19 pandemic? [1 – not at all concerned ... 7 – extremely concerned]

- Perceived tradeoffs between the COVID-19 pandemic and personal rights The public health benefits of policies addressing the COVID-19 pandemic are not worth the potential costs to personal rights [1 – strongly disagree ... 7 – strongly agree]
- Perceived tradeoffs between the COVID-19 pandemic and the economy The public health benefits of policies addressing the COVID-19 pandemic are not worth the potential costs to the economy [1 – strongly disagree ... 7 – strongly agree]
- Perceived tradeoffs between the COVID-19 pandemic and practicing traditions Following my traditional cultural practices is more important than following public health recommendations about COVID-19 when those guidelines interfere with my traditional cultural practices [1 – strongly disagree ... 7 – strongly agree]

COVID-19-relevant covariates:

1. Perceived COVID-19 prevalence:

In your opinion, how prevalent is COVID-19 in your local community? [1 - not at all prevalent ... 7 - extremely prevalent]

2. Population density:

How would you best describe the area where you live?

- Large city
- Small city
- Town or suburb
- Village or countryside
- 3. Job requirements:

If applicable, does your job currently require that you leave the home?

- Always required to leave the home
- Sometimes required to leave the home
- Rarely required to leave the home
- Never required to leave the home
- I don't have a job
- 4. Health conditions:

Has a doctor or other health professional ever diagnosed you with any of the following health conditions?

- Autoimmune disease
- Weak immune system
- Diabetes
- High blood pressure
- Heart disease
- Asthma
- Kidney disease

Demographic variables and attention checks:

- 1. Gender (some response options differed across study sites, see OSF repository for details):
 - What is your gender identity?
 - Woman
 - Man
 - Other
- 2. Education (Response options differed across study sites based on local education systems. For the purposes of analysis, those response options were binned into the following four categories. see OSF repository for details):

Your highest level of education completed?

- Primary school
- Secondary school
- Undergraduate level
- Advanced/post-graduate level
- 3. Age:

What is your age in years?

4. Relative wealth:

Compared to other people in your country, how would you describe your wealth? $[1 - \text{much less wealthy than most other people in my country ... 7 - much wealthier than most other people in my country]$

5. Attention check 1:

When you look up on a clear day, what color is the sky?

- Train station
- Laptop
- Blue
- Cardboard box
- Chicken
- Green
- Book
- Lamp
- 6. Attention check 2:

Did you carefully consider your responses to this survey (please be honest)?

- Yes
- No

2. Differences between pre-registration and final manuscript

There are several differences between the pre-registered measures and those reported in the main text and supplement. Here, we explain those differences.

• *Survey items reserved for separate projects:* We included a number of measures in the surveys that are not reported in the main text because they are being reserved for separate projects. In addition to listing these reserved variables below, they can also be found in the full surveys in the open archive.

Reserved measures:

- *1.* COVID-19 religious precautions subscale (see items above)
- 2. Pathogen disgust sensitivity scale⁴
- 3. Belief in a dangerous world scale⁵
- 4. Generalized social trust item (not included at every study site)
- 5. Social conservatism item (not included at every study site)
- 6. Economic conservatism item (not included at every study site)
- 7. Belief in a deity/deities (not included at every study site)
- 8. Various measures that were included at individual study sites only (see study-site specific full surveys in open archive for details).
- 9. Parental status

- Unincluded study sites: In addition to the 27 countries included in the manuscript, we pre-registered that we would collect data in the following additional countries: Russia, Brazil, Colombia, Egypt, and Armenia. However, these countries were not included in the final sample for a variety of unanticipated circumstances. In Armenia, Brazil, and Russia, data collection never began due to extenuating circumstances. In Egypt and Colombia, data collection began, but we were unable to recruit more than 60 participants in either country after exclusion criteria were applied. Therefore, they were excluded from the study, and the existing underpowered data was never analyzed in any way. We specified in the pre-registration that study sites may be excluded on the basis of insufficient participant recruitment.
- *COVID-19 infection status:* Participants were asked whether they were currently known to be infected with COVID-19. We intended to use this as a covariate with the other COVID-19-related covariates in relevant meta-analyses. However, at some study sites, no participants reported being infected with COVID-19. Therefore, it was dropped from analysis.

3. Analysis software

We used R⁶, RStudio⁷, and the R-packages devtools⁸, ggplot2⁹, GPArotation , gridExtra¹⁰, interactions¹¹, kableExtra¹², lavaan¹³, lme4¹⁴, lmerTest¹⁵, MASS¹⁶, Matrix¹⁷, mediation¹⁸, metafor¹⁹, mvtnorm^{20,21}, parameters²², psych²³, report²⁴, sandwich^{25,26}, scales²⁷, sjPlot²⁸, and tidyverse²⁹ for our analyses. The code that produced all analyses in the main text and supplement is openly available at: https://osf.io/6vu5b/?view_only=873259d429c346d2912303fc44df5079.

4. Software version and source information

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withr	2.5.0	2022-03-03 [1] CRAN (R 4.1.3)	
xfun	0.27	2021-10-18 [1] CRAN (R 4.1.1)	
xml2	1.3.2	2020-04-23 [1] CRAN (R 4.1.1)	
xtable	1.8-4	2019-04-21 [1] CRAN (R 4.1.2)	
yaml	2.2.1	2020-02-01 [1] CRAN (R 4.1.1)	
Z00	1.8-9	2021-03-09 [1] CRAN (R 4.1.1)	

Map of Study Sites



Figure S1. Map of countries (purple pins) that were included in the study. See a list of study sites in Table S3. This map was created by the authors using www.mapcustomizer.com.

Analyses Supporting Main Text

1. Traditionalism-precautions correlations and density distributions by study site

In the caption for Figure 2 in the main text, we noted that study-site-specific labeled regression plots and density distribution plots for traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions could be found in the Supplement. Here, we provide those plots (Figures S2-S4).



Figure S2. Regression lines plotting zero-order correlations between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions at each study site individually. Beans show raw data points. Compare to Figure 2 in the main text.



Figure S3. Raw density distributions of traditionalism composite across each study site individually. Compare to Figure 2 in the main text.



Figure S4. Raw density distributions of COVID-19 health precautions composite across each study site individually. Compare to Figure 2 in the main text.

2. Traditionalism-precautions relationship adjusting for covariates

In the main text, we noted that the bivariate correlation between COVID-19 health precautions and traditionalism is robust to the inclusion of the following demographic controls and COVID-19 related covariates: age; gender; education; relative income, perceived COVID

prevalence in participants' local communities; the population density of those communities; whether participants' jobs required that they leave home; and whether participants had certain pre-existing medical conditions that may put them at higher risk for severe disease. To test this, we conducted a random-effects, restricted maximum likelihood meta-analysis in which each study site was treated as a separate sample. We examined the semi-partial correlation between traditionalism and health precautions after adjusting for the effects of those seven variables in multiple linear regressions where health precautions were regressed on traditionalism and the seven covariates. Covariates were identical across study sites. As seen in Figure S5, adjusting for these demographic and COVID-related controls did not conceptually change the results.





Figure S5. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions after adjusting for demographic variables and COVID-relevant covariates. See Figure 1 in the main text for a description of how to interpret the forest plot.

We also noted in the main text that the same set of demographic and COVID-related covariates did not conceptually change the precautions-traditionalism relationship after adjusting for the effects of the identified suppressor variables. To test this, we ran a meta-analysis similar to the one conducted for Figure S5, however this time also including the five suppressor variables as covariates in the regression models. As seen in Figure S6, adjusting for these demographic and COVID-related controls did not conceptually change the results.

Study Site



Figure S6. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions after adjusting for suppressor variables, as well as demographic variables and COVID-relevant covariates. See Figure 1 in the main text for a description of how to interpret the forest plot.

3. Precautions-traditionalism relationship disattenuated for unreliability

Given variation in scale reliability across study sites (see Table S8), we conducted metaanalyses on the traditionalism-precautions relationship that disattenuated for unreliability. In the main text, we noted that disattenuating for unreliability did not conceptually affect the results. First, we conducted a meta-analysis on the zero-order correlation between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions that disattenuated for unreliability; results are shown in Figure S7.



Figure S7. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions after disattenuating for scale unreliability across study sites. See Figure 1 in the main text for a description of how to interpret the forest plot.

Second, we conducted a meta-analysis examining the semi-partial correlation between COVID-19 health precautions and traditionalism after adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables, while also disattenuating for scale unreliability (see Figure S8). In both cases, findings reported in the main text were not conceptually changed by disattenuating for unreliability.



Figure S8. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions after adjusting for the five suppressor variables, and disattenuating for scale unreliability across study sites. See Figure 1 in the main text for a description of how to interpret the forest plot.

4. Effects of COVID-19 prevalence on study estimates of traditionalism-precautions relationship

In the main text, we noted that country-specific rates of COVID-19 prevalence did not explain any meaningful variance in effect sizes between study sites. To test this, we conducted two meta-regressions using two different measures of national COVID-19 prevalence. First, we calculated national average daily confirmed cases per million people over the specific period of data collection at each study site, obtained from Our World in Data³⁰. Second, we calculated national total cumulative cases per million people since the start of the pandemic at the end of the specific period of data collection at each study site, obtained from the same source. For both meta-regressions, we tested whether the two COVID-19 prevalence metrics moderated the zero-order correlation between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions, and thus whether they accounted for any of the variance in heterogeneity in effect sizes across study sites. Neither average daily cases (QM = .51, p = .474, R² = .00) nor cumulative cases (QM = 1.67, p = .198, R² = .04) moderated the precautions-traditionalism relationship.

5. Identifying suppressor variables

The study included seven variables (see Methods section in main text for details) that were tested for possible suppressive effects on the health precautions-traditionalism relationship. As stated in the main text, we conducted mediation analyses to test for suppression across the pooled sample, where suppression was indicated by the presence of negative indirect effects (in contrast to the positive indirect effects that characterize mediation). See the Results section in the main text for further details on the statistical procedure. In the main text, we stated that we identified five suppressor variables in the pooled sample using this procedure, shown here in Table S1.

Suppressor Candidate	Indirect effect	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
SDO	018	022	013
Trust in scientists	015	023	008
Concern over economy	.009	.006	.012
Concern over personal liberties	.000	001	.001
Liberties-public health tradeoffs	014	017	010
Economy-public health tradeoffs	022	027	018
Traditions-public health tradeoffs	037	043	031

Table S1. Results of mediation analyses testing for suppression of the precautionstraditionalism relationship using a pooled sample across all 27 study sites. Each of the seven candidates were tested separately, and five variables were identified as suppressors. Note that coefficients are unstandardized betas (all seven candidate variables were measured on 1-to-7 Likert-type scales).

Next, we assessed the combined suppressive effects of the five variables at each study site individually, in order to understand whether those suppressors were acting in some socio-political contexts but not others. To test for the combined effects of the suppressors, all five variables were simultaneously entered in an individual mediation analysis for each study site using the R package *lavaan*¹³. As seen in Table S2, the effects of the suppressor variables varied substantially across study sites. Indeed, at two of the study sites, the combined effects of those five variables actually resulted in partial mediation—not suppression—of the health precautions-traditionalism relationship.

country	Bootstrapped indirect effect	Lower 95% Cl	Upper 95% Cl
Poland	-0.17	-0.21	-0.13
US	-0.17	-0.26	-0.09
Austria	-0.10	-0.18	-0.01
France	-0.07	-0.15	0.00
Canada	-0.07	-0.15	-0.01
Netherlands	-0.06	-0.11	0.00
UK	-0.05	-0.09	0.00
Slovakia	-0.05	-0.13	0.03
Chile	-0.03	-0.08	0.03
Spain	-0.03	-0.10	0.04
Lithuania	-0.03	-0.08	0.02
Portugal	-0.02	-0.06	0.02
Italy	-0.01	-0.09	0.06
Guatemala	-0.01	-0.04	0.03
Turkey	-0.01	-0.05	0.02
Indonesia	-0.01	-0.05	0.03
Mexico	0.00	-0.06	0.06
South Korea	0.00	-0.13	0.10
Singapore	0.01	-0.07	0.09
Philippines	0.03	-0.01	0.09
Qatar	0.03	-0.06	0.14
Israel	0.04	-0.02	0.11
Kenya	0.05	-0.05	0.15
Denmark	0.07	0.02	0.14
Japan	0.08	-0.02	0.17
China	0.11	0.07	0.16
India	0.11	0.00	0.21

Table S2. Results of mediation analyses testing for the combined effects of the five suppressors on the health precautions-traditionalism relationship at each of the 27 study sites.

6. Precautions subscale interaction adjusting for covariates, suppressor variables, and planning items

In the main text, we report that the interaction between traditionalism and externalversus-internal precautions subscale (see Figure 4) was robust to the inclusion of the seven previously used demographic and COVID-19-related covariates, as well as the five suppressor variables. Here, we report those results.

When controlling for the demographic and COVID-19-related covariates, there was an interaction between health precautions subscale and traditionalism (B = .15, SE = .01, t(7,274) = 12.39, p < .001). A simple slopes analysis revealed that the correlation between traditionalism and internal-facing precautions (B = .27, SE = .01, t(7,274) = 21.66, p < .001) was about twice as strong as the correlation between traditionalism and external-facing precautions (B = .11, SE = .01, t(7,274) = 9.24, p < .001).

When controlling for the five suppressor variables, there was an interaction between health precautions subscale and traditionalism (B = .16, SE = .01, t(7,122) = 12.50, p < .001). A simple slopes analysis revealed that the correlation between traditionalism and internal-facing precautions (B = .33, SE = .01, t(7,122) = 26.95, p < .001) was about twice as strong as the correlation between traditionalism and external-facing precautions (B = .17, SE = .01, t(7,122) = 14.11, p < .001).

Finally, when controlling for both the suppressor and demographic variables, there was an interaction between health precautions subscale and traditionalism (B = .16, SE = .01, t(6,882) = 12.26, p < .001). A simple slopes analysis revealed that the correlation between traditionalism and internal-facing precautions (B = .30, SE = .01, t(6,882) = 24.73, p < .001) was about twice as strong as the correlation between traditionalism and external-facing precautions (B = .14, SE = .01, t(6,882) = 11.82, p < .001).

In addition, in the main text, we report that the interaction between health precautions subscale and traditionalism does not appear to be confounded by the fact that the internal-facing precautions subscale has more items concerning planning precautions compared to the externalfacing precautions (thus providing a plausible alternative framing to the distinction between the two subscales that is driving the reported interaction). To address this possibility, we computed a modified internal-facing precautions composite that excluded all planning-related precautions (we removed the first three items listed under the internal-facing precautions header, see page S2). We then re-conducted the analyses reported in Figure 4 in the main text, however using the modified internal-facing precautions composite in place of the full composite. Using the planning-less composite did not conceptually affect the results, suggesting that the interaction is not being driven by differences between planning versus non-planning precautions. Specifically, there was an interaction between health precautions subscale and traditionalism (B = .18, SE = .01, t(7,535) = 13.96, p < .001). A simple slopes analysis revealed that the correlation between traditionalism and planning-less internal-facing precautions (B = .32, SE = .01, t(7,535) = 24.66, p < .001) was about twice as strong as the correlation between traditionalism and external-facing precautions (B = .14, SE = .01, t(7,535) = 10.69, p < .001).

7. Summary statistics and other information by study site

Table S3, below, presents a list of study sites, study-site specific Ns, as well as information on survey languages, recruitment procedures, and participant demographics for each study site. In the main text we report excluding participants on the basis of minimum completeness and correct answers to attention checks. Across all the study sites, 11,983 participants at least started the survey. We excluded 4,139 participants based on the above criteria, to arrive at a final sample size of 7,844. This relatively high attrition rate is unsurprising given that, at a majority of study sites, participants were uncompensated volunteers.

Study Site	Survey Language	Population	Recruitment Method	Compensation	N	Mean (SD) Age	% Women	Mean (SD) Traditional- ism Factor Composite	Mean (SD) COVID-19 Health Pre- cautions Composite	Average daily con- firmed COVID-19 cases per million people over data collec- tion period
Austria	German	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	244	34.69 (13.28)	84	4.64 (1.00)	4.38 (1.04)	205.84
Canada	English	Students	Subject pools	Course credit	221	19.34 (2.40)	77	4.16 (1.04)	5.25 (.96)	109.18
Chile	Spanish	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	195	31.91 (12.71)	67	4.56 (1.21)	5.61 (.83)	359.77
China	Mandarin Chinese	General population	Online workers (Weidiaocha)	CNY ¥6	317	25.27 (6.21)	55	5.30 (.91)	5.78 (.81)	.02
Denmark	Danish	General population	Online workers (YouGov)	75 YouGov points	307	50.11 (18.23)	50	4.77 (.96)	5.07 (.97)	233.77
France	French	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	176	29.80 (13.29)	66	3.78 (1.18)	3.88 (.99)	52.18
Guatemala	Spanish	General population	Social media	Volunteer	457	39.65 (12.67)	80	4.83 (1.22)	5.36 (1.03)	41.00
India	English	Students	Classrooms	Volunteer	118	28.33 (9.01)	62	5.12 (.99)	5.33 (1.06)	8.60

Indonesia	Indonesian	Students; gen- eral population	Classrooms; social media	Volunteer	257	31.10 (9.97)	76	5.00 (.80)	5.57 (.82)	32.02
Israel	Hebrew	Students	Subject pools	Course credit	267	22.49 (2.44)	51	4.63 (.91)	4.37 (1.01)	609.52
Italy	Italian	General population	Social media	Volunteer	135	35.31 (15.50)	61	4.83 (1.05)	4.99 (1.02)	235.94
Japan	Japanese	Students	Subject pools; classrooms	Course credit or volunteer	231	22.36 (4.36)	46	4.10 (.92)	4.81 (.98)	19.40
Kenya	English	Students; gen- eral population	Classrooms; snowball re- cruitment	Course credit or volunteer	133	23.60 (4.91)	50	5.04 (.96)	5.22 (1.12)	8.60
South Korea	Korean	Students	Subject pools; classrooms	Course credit or volunteer	167	23.25 (3.92)	63	4.47 (.73)	4.86 (.87)	11.05
Lithuania	Lithuanian	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	211	28.03 (10.33)	80	3.81 (1.08)	4.05 (.92)	213.78
Mexico	Spanish	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	153	28.75 (10.97)	65	4.44 (1.13)	5.51 (1.00)	29.02
Netherlands	Dutch	General population	Online workers (Prolific Aca- demic)	€ 1.10	300	29.58 (10.22)	41	4.56 (.92)	4.63 (.92)	340.18
Philippines	English	Students; gen- eral population	Social media	Volunteer	229	21.17 (3.64)	75	5.44 (1.05)	5.76 (.92)	67.20
Poland	Polish	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	1,665	22.98 (7.54)	74	4.08 (1.17)	4.35 (1.15)	240.09

Portugal	Portuguese	General population	Subject pools	Raffle (5 prizes worth € 10.00)	264	27.58 (8.82)	76	4.03 (1.08)	5.18 (.85)	53.41
Qatar	Arabic	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	146	24.23 (6.84)	82	4.44 (.81)	5.08 (1.08)	279.66
Singapore	English	Students	Subject pools	Course credit	155	21.58 (2.03)	78	4.46 (.88)	4.31 (.87)	2.77
Slovakia	Slovak	Students	classrooms	Volunteer	222	21.90 (3.89)	77	4.56 (.92)	4.63 (.96)	389.92
Spain	Spanish	General population	Social media	Volunteer	365	40.15 (13.74)	79	4.56 (1.24)	4.94 (1.32)	562.56
Turkey	Turkish	Students; gen- eral population	Social media; classrooms	Volunteer	352	31.71 (16.28)	77	4.15 (1.28)	5.72 (.84)	287.61
U.K.	English	General population	Online workers (Prolific Aca- demic)	£0.82	316	36.81 (13.87)	70	4.16 (1.21)	5.15 (.99)	340.47
U.S.	English	General population	Social media	Volunteer	241	33.08 (18.91)	83	3.74 (1.06)	4.98 (.98)	305.59
Pooled Sample	-	-	-	-	7,844	28.91 (12.95)	70	4.44 (1.16)	4.90 (1.14)	186.64

Table S3. Summary statistics and other information by study site

8. COVID-19 health precautions scale development

In the main text, we report a 12-item composite scale used to measure COVID-19 health precautions, as well as two-subscales—external-facing health precautions, and internal-facing health precautions. Here, we provide details on the scale development procedures and factor analyses used to produce these composites.

Based on a measure of COVID-19 precautions that we used in previous research³¹, participants were asked 15 questions concerning precautionary behaviors in response to COVID-19. Most items inquired about health behaviors, including the frequency of mask wearing, hand washing, social distancing, and disinfecting, and the importance to the participant of stocking up on supplies such as hand sanitizer and household disinfectants. Participants were also asked the extent to which they were following local lockdown restrictions, and whether they had been careful to physically distance from people outside their household. In addition to health behaviors, participants were also asked about religious precautions undertaken to prevent COVID-19 infection. Items were rated on 7-point scales, either from "never" to "as often as possible", or from "not important at all", to "extremely important". See pages S1-S2 for full measures.

We ran an exploratory factor analysis on the pooled sample across all study sites to determine the structure of COVID-19 precautions. First, we used the Kaieser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test to determine whether these items were suitable for structure detection. The KMO test suggested that the strength of the relationships among the variables was high (KMO = .89), and Bartlett's test was significant ($\chi 2$ (105) = 48,012.74, p < .001), suggesting that the use of factor analysis was appropriate.

The R package *parameters*²² was then used to determine how many factors to extract. There was the most agreement between methods for a three-factor solution (see Figure S9).





A factor analysis was then conducted with minimum residual extraction, promax rotation, and a Pearson's correlation matrix. Three factors were extracted. The three factor values had sums of squared loadings of 3.94, 2.86, and 1.76, and explained 26%, 19%, and 12% of the variance, respectively. When extracted, these three factors were conceptually coherent (see Table S4). For each factor, items with factor loadings greater than .40 were averaged together, producing the composite measures used in analyses. We labeled these factor composites as follows: *internal-facing or non-interpersonal health precautions* (e.g., washing hands), *external-facing or interpersonal health precautions* (e.g., observing mask wearing and social distancing), and *religious precautions* (e.g., engaging in prayer). The internal-facing and external-facing composites were largely reliable across study sites, although there was cross-society variation with low alphas in some countries; see Table S5 for study site-specific reliability tests for each composite. Note that we reserve the analyses of the religious precautions composite for a separate project, hence they are not included here.
Factor Analysis

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Importance of cleaning hands	0.61	0.14	-0.06
Importance of disinfecting home surfaces	0.73	0.02	0.12
Importance of consuming things to boost immune system	0.40	0.01	0.25
Importance of acquiring household disinfectants	0.87	-0.05	0.03
Importance of soap or hand sanitizer	0.84	0.00	-0.07
Importance of acquiring personal protective equipment	0.65	0.04	-0.11
General importance of taking COVID-19 precautions	0.16	0.69	-0.00
Frequency of mask wearing	-0.01	0.57	-0.07
Frequency of glove wearing			0.26
Frequency of physical distancing	-0.10	0.74	-0.02
Frequency of surface disinfection	0.42	0.25	0.19
Pursuit of social distancing	-0.04	0.73	0.03
Practicing individual religious behaviors in response to COVID	0.02	0.05	0.77
Practicing collective religious behaviors in response to covid	-0.04	-0.07	0.71
Change in precautionary behaviors since start of COVID pandemic	0.15	0.55	0.06

Table S4. Factor loadings from an exploratory factor analysis on COVID-19 precautions items.

Country	Combined COVID-19 Health Precautions Composite	Internal-Facing COVID-19 Health Precautions Composite	External-Facing COVID-19 Health Precautions Composite
Austria	0.86	0.81	0.82
Canada	0.86	0.80	0.86
Chile	0.80	0.80	0.56
China	0.86	0.84	0.66
Denmark	0.86	0.83	0.81
France	0.84	0.79	0.81
Guatemala	0.88	0.83	0.84
India	0.89	0.85	0.78
Indonesia	0.83	0.86	0.66
Israel	0.82	0.80	0.80
Italy	0.85	0.85	0.76
Japan	0.86	0.84	0.68
Kenya	0.87	0.85	0.74
South Korea	0.85	0.84	0.61
Lithuania	0.79	0.76	08.0
Mexico	0.87	0.84	0.79
Netherlands	0.86	0.84	0.79
Philippines	0.86	0.87	0.73
Poland	0.89	0.84	0.83
Portugal	0.81	0.81	0.68
Qatar	0.85	0.81	0.76
Singapore	08.0	0.82	0.61
Slovakia	0.82	0.79	0.80
Spain	0.90	0.87	0.87
Turkey	0.85	0.85	0.71
UK	88.0	0.84	08.0
US	0.86	0.81	0.86

Table S5. Cronbach's alphas for the combined health precautions composite, and the two internal-facing and external-facing subscale composites by study site.

.1

We then fit a random-intercepts linear mixed model (estimated using REML) to examine the relationship between the internal-facing and external-facing precaution composites. The model included country as random effect. The two composites were highly correlated ($\beta = .50$, 95% CI [.48, .52), t(7,837) = 56.95, p < .001). Given this strong correlation, and for ease of interpretability in the analyses presented in the main text, we created an overall COVID-19 health precautions composite comprised of the raw average of all the items in both the internalfacing and external-facing composites. This combined composite was reliable across study sites (see Table S5), suggesting that these items cohere together. Where main text analyses were presented with the single composite factor (see Figures 1, 2, and 3), results did not conceptually change when using either of the two precautions subscales instead (see Figure S10-S13), although effect sizes were lower for the external-facing subscale, consistent with the interaction reported in Figure 4 in the main text.



Figure S10. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between traditionalism and the *internal-facing precautions composite*. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S11. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between traditionalism and the *external-facing precautions composite*. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S12. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between traditionalism and the *internal-facing precautions composite* after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables.* Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.



Figure S13. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between traditionalism and the *external-facing precautions composite* after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables.* Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.

9. Traditionalism scale development

We included two pre-validated scales in order to measure traditionalism. First, we included the 6-item conventionalism subscale of the Aggression-Submission-Conventionalism scale¹, which measures the general tendency to endorse one's society's traditional social norms, setting aside the actual content of those traditions (e.g., "Traditions are the foundation of a

healthy society and should be respected"). Items were rated on 7-point scales, from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree", and half of the items were reverse coded (e.g., "People emphasize tradition too much."). Second, we used the 4-item authority subscale from the Moral Foundations Questionnaire Short Version^{2,32}, which similarly assesses whether individuals respect traditions and authorities, both generally (e.g., "To what extent are the following considerations relevant to your thinking... Whether or not someone conformed to the traditions of society."), and in relation to specific values regarding gender and age roles (e.g., "Respect for authority is something all children need to learn."). Items were rated on 7-point scales, either from "Not at all relevant", to "Extremely relevant", or from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree". In particular, we chose to include the Moral Foundations and Conventionalism items because they have been widely tested in many languages in cross-cultural psychology research^{33–35}.

Because we wanted to measure the tendency to endorse traditional social norms as a general dimension of individual difference as broadly as possible, we were interested in whether all ten traditionalism items together (six from the Conventionalism scale, and four from the Moral Foundations authority scale) would reliably load onto a single traditionalism factor. First, we examined the correlation structure between the ten items by study site. We observed that, at some study sites, the three reverse-coded items from the conventionalism scale did not strongly and reliably negatively correlate with the positively coded items as would be expected (see Table S6 for the correlation between negatively-coded and positively-coded Conventionalism items by study site). Following a literature review, we found that reverse-coded items may frequently be problematic in cross-cultural psychological research^{36–38}. We therefore dropped the three reverse-coded conventionalism items before conducting the factor analysis.

country	r	p-value
china	-0.13	0.018
japan	-0.14	0.039
philippines	0.12	0.065
italy	-0.49	0.000
chile	-0.34	0.000
mexico	-0.06	0.443
portugal	-0.45	0.000
qatar	-0.26	0.001
spain	-0.28	0.000
france	-0.40	0.000
uk	-0.56	0.000
israel	-0.24	0.000
lithuania	-0.39	0.000
guatemala	-0.32	0.000
singapore	-0.25	0.002
turkey	-0.43	0.000
netherlands	-0.48	0.000
korea	-0.24	0.007
indonesia	-0.16	0.009
slovakia	-0.43	0.000
poland	-0.50	0.000
austria	-0.32	0.000
canada	-0.30	0.000
us	-0.29	0.000
kenya	-0.22	0.012
denmark	-0.14	0.012
india	0.27	0.003

Table S6. Product-moment correlations between reverse and non-reverse coded conventionalism items by study site.

We then ran an exploratory factor analysis on the pooled sample across all study sites to determine whether it was appropriate to group the conventionalism and moral foundations authority items (minus the reverse-coded items, see above) into a single factor. First, we used the Kaieser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test to determine whether these items were suitable for structure detection. The KMO test suggested that the strength of the relationships among the variables was moderately high (KMO = .75), and Bartlett's test was significant ($\chi 2$ (21) = 15,315.74, p < .001), suggesting that the use of factor analysis was appropriate.

The R package *parameters* ²² was then used to determine how many factors to extract. There was the most agreement between methods for a one-factor solution (see Figure S14).



Figure S14. Graphical representation showing agreement between different methods for determining the number of factors to retain.

A factor analysis was then conducted with minimum residual extraction, and a Pearson's correlation matrix. A single factor was extracted. The single factor had a sum of squared loadings of 2.43, and explained 35% of the variance. To create a composite traditionalism factor, we then averaged together those items with factor loadings greater than .5, comprising six out of the seven items (see Table S7). Scale reliability for this composite varied quite widely across study sites (see Table S8).

Factor Analysis

	Factor 1
Traditions should be respected – conventionalism scale	.67
People should follow social norms – conventionalism scale	.63
People should respect social norms - conventionalism scale	.69
Importance of whether people show a lack of respect for authority – moral foundations authority scale	.51
Importance of whether people conform to traditions – moral foundations au- thority scale	.54
Men and women should have different roles in society – moral foundations au- thority scale	.44
Children should learn respect for authority – moral foundations authority scale	.60

Table S7. Factor loadings from an exploratory factor analysis on traditionalism items.

Country	Conventionalism scale	Moral Foundations Authority scale	Traditionalism Factor Composite
Austria	0.7105586	0.5655188	0.7309919
Canada	0.7516936	0.6350294	0.7951703
Chile	0.7061326	0.7561902	0.8470702
China	0.5875297	0.6148619	0.7127438
Denmark	0.6435492	0.5634853	0.7534785
France	0.7853885	0.6128833	0.8051261
Guatemala	0.7242010	0.6470017	0.8159033
India	0.2059427	0.6094132	0.6983367
Indonesia	0.5736353	0.2327229	0.6521108
Israel	0.6589104	0.5099610	0.6908832
Italy	0.8017381	0.5443016	0.7965177
Japan	0.6315254	0.5900602	0.7394633
Kenya	0.6007971	0.4363724	0.5270011
South Korea	0.6057268	0.5602076	0.7005701
Lithuania	0.7723525	0.6328137	0.7896508
Mexico	0.5945571	0.5231161	0.7019779
Netherlands	0.7891934	0.6213683	0.7667636
Philippines	0.5385436	0.5892432	0.8055702
Poland	0.8142883	0.6945428	0.8157230
Portugal	0.7958263	0.6911884	0.8254066
Qatar	0.6789908	0.2812414	0.3878252
Singapore	0.6793446	0.6854164	0.7707547
Slovakia	0.7626441	0.4884737	0.6777858
Spain	0.7102364	0.6048047	0.7868105
Turkey	0.7759173	0.7738583	0.8112405
UK	0.8488891	0.7563903	0.8755346
US	0.6949864	0.7360622	0.7846093

Table S8. Cronbach's alphas by study site for the Traditionalism composite used to measure traditionalism in the main text analyses, as well as for the Moral Foundations Authority and Conventionalism subscales included in the survey.

In order to determine whether the lack of scale reliability at some of the study sites was affecting results, we first conducted meta-analyses that replicated the main text analyses (see Figures 1 and 3), disattenuating for unreliability; this did not conceptually change the results (see Figures S7 and S8). Next, we re-ran the main text meta-analyses using each of the six items individually from our traditionalism factor, in place of the composite traditionalism score (see Figures S15-S26). Although effect sizes varied some, results did not conceptually differ across items, suggesting that the pattern of association between traditionalism-related items and precautions is consistent, and low scale reliability at some study sites did not conceptually impact the results.



Figure S15. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the traditionalism item *traditions should be respected* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S16. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the traditionalism item *people should follow social norms* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S17. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the traditionalism item *people should respect social norms* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S18. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the traditionalism item *importance of whether people show a lack of respect for authority* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S19. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the traditionalism item *importance of whether people conform to traditions* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S20. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the traditionalism item *children should learn respect for authority* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S21. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the traditionalism item *traditions should be respected* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables*. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.



Figure S22. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the traditionalism item *people should follow social norms* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables*. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.



Figure S23. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the traditionalism item *people should respect social norms* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables*. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.



Figure S24. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the traditionalism item *importance of whether people show a lack of respect for authority* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables.* Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.



Figure S25. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the traditionalism item *importance of whether people conform to traditions* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables*. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.

Study Site			Correlation [95% CI]
Japan		■	3.40% 0.02 [-0.11, 0.14]
Indonesia	⊢	■	3.53% 0.02 [-0.10, 0.15]
Canada	⊢	■	3.48% 0.03 [-0.10, 0.15]
Israel			3.82% 0.05 [-0.06, 0.17]
South Korea		-•	1.54% 0.05 [-0.16, 0.27]
United States		B	4.35% 0.07 [-0.03, 0.17]
Austria		_	3.62% 0.09 [-0.03, 0.21]
Qatar			2.60% 0.10 [-0.05, 0.26]
Singapore	÷		2.71% 0.11 [-0.04, 0.26]
Poland		┝╼╋╾┥	6.95% 0.12 [0.07, 0.16]
Lithuania	le l		3.46% 0.12 [-0.01, 0.24]
Slovakia			3.57% 0.13 [0.01, 0.25]
Kenya	Ļ	=	2.46% 0.14 [-0.02, 0.30]
China		├──■ ──┤	4.51% 0.15 [0.06, 0.25]
France		⊢−−− −	3.01% 0.18 [0.04, 0.31]
Mexico		—	2.75% 0.18 [0.03, 0.32]
Guatemala		┝──■──┤	5.23% 0.18 [0.10, 0.26]
Chile		⊢−−−	3.27% 0.19 [0.06, 0.32]
Denmark		┝──■──┤	4.40% 0.19 [0.09, 0.29]
Italy		⊢ −−−−−	2.87% 0.19 [0.05, 0.34]
Turkey		╞───■───┤	4.56% 0.20 [0.11, 0.30]
India		⊢ − − − − − − − − − − − − − − − − − − −	2.42% 0.21 [0.05, 0.37]
U.K.		┝──■──┤	4.37% 0.21 [0.11, 0.31]
Portugal		┝───■───┤	4.00% 0.23 [0.12, 0.34]
Philippines		┝───₽───┤	3.66% 0.26 [0.14, 0.38]
Netherlands		┝──■──┤	4.41% 0.26 [0.17, 0.36]
Spain		├──■──┤	5.07% 0.28 [0.20, 0.37]
RE Model			100.00% 0.15 [0.12, 0.18]
	-0.4 -0.2 0	0.2 0.4	0.6
	Semi-Partia	Correlation Coefficient	

Figure S26. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the traditionalism item *children should learn respect for authority* and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after *adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables*. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.

We also tested whether results reported with the traditionalism composite were sensitive to the fact that the reverse-coded conventionalism items had been removed. main text results did not substantially conceptually change when we used a more expansive traditionalism composite that included all items (including the reverse coded ones) from the conventionalism and moral foundations authority subscales (see Figures S27-S28). However, effect sizes were smaller, which we attribute to the noise introduced by the reverse-coded items. Likewise, meta-analysis results did not conceptually change when substituting composites based on either the original Conventionalism or Moral Foundations authority subscales for the main text traditionalism

composite (see Figures S29-S32), although effect sizes tended to be lower due to increased noise. See Table S8 for scale reliabilities for the Conventionalism and Authority composites. Taken in sum, traditionalism could be measured in several different ways based on the data that were collected. Although there were researcher degrees of freedom in making decisions about how to construct a reliable traditionalism composite, using alternative decision-points results in conceptually similar findings, suggesting that results are robust to these kinds of research decisions.



Figure S27. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between a traditionalism composite comprising all items from the Conventionalism and Moral Foundations Authority subscales (including reverse-coded ones) and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S28. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between a traditionalism composite comprising all items from the Conventionalism and Moral Foundations Authority subscales (including reverse-coded ones) and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.



Figure S29. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the Conventionalism subscale and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S30. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the Conventionalism subscale and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.



Figure S31. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the Moral Foundations Authority subscale and the COVID-19 health precautions composite. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S32. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the Moral Foundations Authority subscale and the COVID-19 health precautions composite after adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.

10. Traditionalism-precautions relationship using factor scores

In the main text analyses, we used composite variables for traditionalism and COVID-19 precautions that were comprised of raw averages of all the items that loaded onto each respective factor (e.g. traditionalism, internal-facing precautions, etc.). See pages S30 and S38 for details on factor analyses. However, in the main text, we report that using factor scores instead of raw averages in the main text analyses did not conceptually affect the results. Here, we present those results. First, we extracted factor scores for the traditionalism factor, the internal-facing precautions factor, the external-facing precautions factor, and the combined overall public health precautions factor (where all public health precautions items-both external- and internalfacing—load onto a single factor). Then, we examined the correlations between the factor scores, and the composite variables based on raw averages. We fit a series of random-intercepts linear mixed models (estimated using REML) to examine the relationships between the factor scores and composited averages, including country as a random effect. For all four variables, the factor scores were highly correlated with the composited averages, as follows: traditionalism (marginal $R2 = .97, \beta = .98, 95\%$ CI [.97, .98), t(7,304) = 491.55, p < .001); internal-facing precautions (marginal R2 = .96, β = .98, 95% CI [.98, .99), t(7,462) = 396.65, p < .001); external-facing precautions (marginal R2 = .97, β = .98, 95% CI [.98, .98), t(7,462) = 500.29, p < .001); overall public health precautions (marginal R2 = .98, β = .99, 95% CI [.98, .99), t(7,523) = 607.76, p < .001).

We then re-analyzed the main text results using the factor scores instead of the composited averages. The relationship between traditionalism and COVID-19 health precautions did not conceptually change as a product of using the factor scores, see Figures S33 and S34. Likewise, the interaction between subscale and traditionalism was conceptually unaltered when using factor scores instead of composited averages (compare to Figure 4 in the main text). Using the factor scores, there was an interaction between health precautions subscale and traditionalism (B = .09, SE = .01, t(6,993) = 10.37, p < .001). A simple slopes analysis revealed that the correlation between traditionalism and internal-facing precautions (B = .22, SE = .01, t(6,993) = 20.79, p < .001) was about twice as strong as the correlation between traditionalism and external-facing precautions (B = .13, SE = .01, t(6,993) = 12/02, p < .001). Note that the factor scores were rescaled to the original 1-7 scale used by participants.



Figure S33. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *zero-order correlation* between the traditionalism factor scores and the COVID-19 health precautions factor scores. Compare to Figure 1 in the main text.



Figure S34. Results of random-effects meta-analysis examining the *semi-partial correlation* between the traditionalism factor scores and the COVID-19 health precautions factor scores after adjusting for the effects of the five suppressor variables. Compare to Figure 3 in the main text.

11. Suppressor variable descriptives by country

In order to understand the distribution of attitudes measured by the suppressor variables (trust in scientists, social dominance orientation, and the perception of tradeoffs between COVID-19 precautions on the one hand, and personal liberties, the economy, and one's traditions respectively on the other), we assessed mean response levels of those variables across the countries in the sample using random-effects meta-analyses of those means. Results indicate variability across nations in mean responses along the five suppressor variables (see figures S37-S41).

Trust in scientists:

Turkey		┞╋┤	3.74% 4.43 [4.28, 4.57]
Spain		┝╼┤	3.67% 4.47 [4.28, 4.66]
Kenya		┝━━─┤	3.55% 4.64 [4.38, 4.89]
Qatar		┝━━─┤	3.59% 4.72 [4.48, 4.96]
India		├-- -	3.53% 4.74 [4.47, 5.00]
Israel		⊦ ∎-1	3.72% 4.96 [4.80, 5.11]
Austria		┝╼┥	3.65% 4.98 [4.78, 5.19]
Poland		■ ł	3.80% 4.99 [4.92, 5.07]
Guatemala		⊨∎⊣	3.75% 5.00 [4.87, 5.14]
Japan		⊦ æ -¦	3.74% 5.08 [4.94, 5.22]
Denmark		┝╼┥	3.73% 5.17 [5.03, 5.32]
Philippines		┝═┥	3.70% 5.26 [5.09, 5.43]
France		⊢∎⊣	3.71% 5.34 [5.17, 5.50]
South Korea		⊢■⊣	3.72% 5.37 [5.21, 5.52]
Canada		⊦∎-┤	3.72% 5.44 [5.29, 5.60]
Indonesia		⊦ ∎-1	3.76% 5.47 [5.34, 5.59]
Netherlands		⊦ ≡ -1	3.75% 5.48 [5.35, 5.62]
Singapore		⊢ ∎⊣	3.73% 5.49 [5.34, 5.64]
Lithuania		┝╼┥	3.67% 5.54 [5.35, 5.73]
Italy		├─■─┤	3.63% 5.65 [5.44, 5.86]
U.K.		⊦ ∎-1	3.75% 5.69 [5.56, 5.82]
Slovakia		┝━┤	3.72% 5.76 [5.60, 5.91]
Chile		┝┳┥	3.73% 5.76 [5.61, 5.91]
Mexico		┝╼╌┥	3.64% 5.80 [5.59, 6.00]
United States		⊢∎⊣	3.72% 5.85 [5.70, 6.01]
China		¦ ⊞ -¦	3.79% 6.06 [5.97, 6.16]
Portugal		■ 	3.77% 6.25 [6.14, 6.36]
RE Model		······	100.00% 5.31 [5.13, 5.49]
Γ			
1	2 3	4 5 6 7	
		Mean	

Figure S35. Random-effects meta-analysis of mean level of trust in scientists at each study site. Trust in scientists was measured along a 1-7 scale. Refer to Figure 1 for details on interpreting forest plots.

Note that samples were not nationally representative, and that sampling procedures differed across study sites, and thus that it would not be appropriate to draw strong inferences about differences between societies on the dimension measured here.

Social dominance orientation:

United States	ŀ∎ł	3.72% 1.84 [1.73, 1.96]
Canada	⊦ ∎-1	3.71% 1.88 [1.74, 2.01]
Italy	┝┻┤	3.66% 1.91 [1.75, 2.07]
Slovakia	⊢ ∎-	3.69% 1.96 [1.82, 2.10]
U.K.	≅ -	3.73% 1.96 [1.85, 2.07]
Kenya	⊢ ∎–]	3.60% 1.98 [1.78, 2.18]
Spain	⊨ =1	3.73% 2.00 [1.89, 2.11]
Portugal	 ■-	3.73% 2.01 [1.89, 2.12]
China	i ≡ i	3.74% 2.04 [1.93, 2.14]
Mexico	₽	3.70% 2.05 [1.92, 2.19]
Chile	┼┻┤	3.69% 2.11 [1.96, 2.26]
Singapore	, ⊢∎-	3.69% 2.12 [1.97, 2.26]
Lithuania	⊦∎⊣	3.69% 2.14 [1.99, 2.28]
France	┝┻┤	3.68% 2.14 [1.99, 2.29]
Qatar	■ -	3.67% 2.16 [2.00, 2.32]
Indonesia	¦æ¦	3.72% 2.18 [2.06, 2.29]
Guatemala	H al	3.74% 2.19 [2.08, 2.29]
Poland		3.77% 2.23 [2.17, 2.29]
Austria	¦∎	3.72% 2.26 [2.14, 2.38]
Philippines	⊢ ≡ ⊣	3.69% 2.27 [2.12, 2.41]
Israel	⊦ æ-1	3.71% 2.41 [2.28, 2.53]
Netherlands	≡	3.73% 2.53 [2.42, 2.64]
South Korea	┝═┤	3.68% 2.69 [2.54, 2.84]
Denmark	 ₩-	3.71% 2.75 [2.62, 2.89]
India	⊢ ∎-	3.61% 2.80 [2.60, 3.00]
Turkey		3.75% 3.16 [3.07, 3.25]
Japan	H≣- }	3.74% 3.89 [3.79, 3.98]
RE Model		100.00% 2.28 [2.11, 2.45]
	1 2 3 4 5	6 7
	Mean	

Figure S36. Random-effects meta-analysis of mean level of social dominance orientation at each study site. SDO was measured along a 1-7 scale. Refer to Figure 1 for details on interpreting forest plots.

Note that samples were not nationally representative, and that sampling procedures differed across study sites, and thus that it would not be appropriate to draw strong inferences about differences between societies on the dimension measured here.
United States		3 72% 2 05 [1 84 2 26]
Singenere		2.60% 2.64[2.20]
Singapore		3.09% 2.34 [2.30, 2.79]
Lithuasia		3.74% Z.37 [Z.37, Z.77]
		3.70% 2.80 [2.30, 3.03]
Canada		3.71% 2.88 [2.05, 3.10]
Ponugai		3.74% 2.91 [2.71, 3.10]
Netherlands		3.74% 2.91 [2.72, 3.10]
U.K.	├ ─ ┤	3.74% 3.03 [2.85, 3.22]
Austria	├ ╋┤ 	3.69% 3.08 [2.84, 3.32]
Denmark	┝┻┤	3.73% 3.27 [3.07, 3.48]
Indonesia	-∎-	3.72% 3.32 [3.11, 3.53]
Italy	╞╼┤	3.63% 3.37 [3.08, 3.66]
Slovakia	} ₽ ┤	3.71% 3.39 [3.16, 3.62]
Israel	┝┻┤	3.73% 3.55 [3.35, 3.75]
Kenya	⊢ ∎⊣	3.54% 3.62 [3.26, 3.98]
France	┝┻┤	3.69% 3.62 [3.38, 3.86]
India	╞╼┤	3.62% 3.78 [3.48, 4.08]
Philippines	⊨	3.69% 3.79 [3.55, 4.03]
China	┝╋┤	3.71% 3.90 [3.68, 4.12]
Spain	┝┻┤	3.71% 3.90 [3.68, 4.13]
Mexico	┝┻┤	3.66% 3.93 [3.66, 4.19]
Poland		3.81% 4.01 [3.92, 4.10]
Chile	┝┻┤	3.65% 4.16 [3.89, 4.44]
Japan	⊦∎⊣	3.74% 4.18 [3.99, 4.37]
Qatar	⊦≖⊣	3.68% 4.28 [4.02, 4.53]
Guatemala	₽	3.76% 4.34 [4.17, 4.51]
Turkey	H#H	3.76% 4.74 [4.56, 4.91]
RE Model	······	100.00% 3.48 [3.24, 3.72]
	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
	Mean	

Perceived tradeoff between COVID-19 precautions and personal liberties:

Figure S37. Random-effects meta-analysis of mean level of perceived tradeoffs between COVID-19 precautions and personal liberties at each study site. Tradeoffs were measured along a 1-7 scale. Refer to Figure 1 for details on interpreting forest plots.

Note that samples were not nationally representative, and that sampling procedures differed across study sites, and thus that it would not be appropriate to draw strong inferences about differences between societies on the dimension measured here.

Singapore I=H 3.73% 2.36 [2.16, 2.56] South Korea I=H 3.72% 2.79 [2.58, 3.00] Lithuania I=H 3.71% 2.93 [2.71, 3.15] VK. I=H 3.74% 3.01 [2.83, 3.21] Portugal I=H 3.73% 3.02 [2.83, 3.21] Netherlands I=H 3.73% 3.02 [2.83, 3.21] Canada I=H 3.71% 3.12 [2.90, 3.34] France I=H 3.70% 3.26 [3.03, 3.49] Austria I=H 3.70% 3.26 [3.03, 3.49] Jonardk I=H 3.70% 3.26 [3.03, 3.49] Jonardkia I=H 3.70% 3.61 [3.7, 3.85] India I=H 3.71% 3.97 [3.74, 4.19] Slovakia I=H 3.71% 3.97 [3.74, 4.19] Poland I= 3.62%	United States	+=-1	3.71%	2.28 [2.06, 2.50]	
South Korea Import 1 372% 279 [2.58, 3.00] Lithuania Import 1 371% 293 [2.71, 3.15] U.K. Import 1 374% 301 [2.83, 3.19] Portugal Import 1 373% 302 [2.83, 3.21] Netherlands Import 1 374% 305 [2.87, 3.23] Canada Import 1 377% 302 [2.83, 3.49] France Import 1 377% 326 [3.03, 3.49] Austria Import 1 377% 326 [3.35, 375] Philippines Import 1 377% 326 [3.37, 356] Italy Import 1 377% 370 [3.50, 3.91] Spain Import 1 377% 377 [3.75, 4.20] Poland Import 1 377% 406 [3.97, 4.15] Kenya Import 1 363% 4.12 [3.82, 4.42] Chile Import 1 363% 4.12 [3.82, 4.42] Chile Import 1 367% 4.18 [3.92, 4.45] Israel Import 1 366% 4.34 [4	Singapore	∎-	3.73%	2.36 [2.16, 2.56]	
Lithuania 174 293 [2.71, 3.15] U.K. Hel 3.74% 3.01 [2.83, 3.19] Portugal Hel 3.73% 3.02 [2.83, 3.21] Netherlands 1FH 3.73% 3.02 [2.83, 3.23] Canada Hel 3.73% 3.02 [2.83, 3.23] Canada Hel 3.71% 3.12 [2.90, 3.34] France Hel 3.70% 3.26 [3.03, 3.49] Denmark Hel 3.70% 3.26 [3.03, 3.49] Denmark Hel 3.70% 3.61 [3.37, 3.85] Italy Hel 3.70% 3.61 [3.37, 3.85] Italy Hel 3.70% 3.70 [3.50, 3.91] Spain Hel 3.71% 3.97 [3.74, 4.19] Slovakia Hel 3.71% 4.06 [3.72, 4.43] India Hel 3.73% 4.06 [3.72, 4.43] India Hel 3.73% 4.16 [3.92, 4.45] Kenya Hel 3.73% 4.24 [3.93, 4.55] Israel Hel 3.73% 4.24 [3.93, 4.55] Israel Hel 3.73% 4.24 [3.93, 4.55] China Hel 3.73% 4.24 [4.04, 4.57] Qatar Hel 3.75% 4.06 [4.49, 4.82] Turkey Hel 3.75% 5.04 [4.86, 5.22] RE Model Hel 3.75% 4.05 [4.49, 4.82] Turkey Hel 3.75% 5.04 [4.86, 5.22] RE Model Hel 3.75% 5.04 [4.86, 5.22]	South Korea		3.72%	2.79 [2.58, 3.00]	
U.K. Image: Hermitian single state sta	Lithuania	-₽-	3.71%	2.93 [2.71, 3.15]	
Portugal Important importent importent importent important important important important i	U.K.	₩	3.74%	3.01 [2.83, 3.19]	
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Poland Image: Strategy and Strategy a	Slovakia	⊦∎⊣	3.71%	3.97 [3.75, 4.20]	
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India Image: Field State S	Kenya	⊢1	3.57%	4.08 [3.72, 4.43]	
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Mexico Image: Constraint of the second s	Chile	⊢∎⊣	3.67%	4.18 [3.92, 4.45]	
Israel Implies the implication of the impli	Mexico	⊢∎-	3.62%	4.24 [3.93, 4.55]	
China Implies 3.70% 4.33 [4.10, 4.57] Qatar Implies 3.66% 4.34 [4.07, 4.61] Japan Implies 3.73% 4.41 [4.21, 4.60] Guatemala Implies 3.75% 4.65 [4.49, 4.82] Turkey Implies 3.75% 5.04 [4.86, 5.22] RE Model Implies 100.00% 3.68 [3.42, 3.95]	Israel	├┻┤	3.73%	4.29 [4.09, 4.48]	
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Guatemala Image: Here in the state in	Japan	₩	3.73%	4.41 [4.21, 4.60]	
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RE Model 100.00% 3.68 [3.42, 3.95]	Turkey	F≣-I	3.75%	5.04 [4.86, 5.22]	
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Mean		1 2 3 4 5 6 7			
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Perceived tradeoff between COVID-19 precautions and the economy:

Figure S38. Random-effects meta-analysis of mean level of perceived tradeoffs between COVID-19 precautions and the economy at each study site. Tradeoffs were measured along a 1-7 scale. Refer to Figure 1 for details on interpreting forest plots.

Note that samples were not nationally representative, and that sampling procedures differed across study sites, and thus that it would not be appropriate to draw strong inferences about differences between societies on the dimension measured here.

Portugal	H a l	3.80% 1.44 [1.32, 1.57]
Lithuania	⊦₩-1	3.77% 1.63 [1.48, 1.79]
Italy	┝╋┥	3.68% 1.64 [1.42, 1.85]
Netherlands	H∎H	3.78% 1.66 [1.52, 1.80]
Mexico	┝╼┤	3.67% 1.67 [1.44, 1.90]
United States	H∎-1	3.73% 1.74 [1.56, 1.92]
Turkey	⊬∎⊣	3.76% 1.75 [1.59, 1.91]
Indonesia	H ≣ -1	3.77% 1.77 [1.62, 1.92]
Slovakia	⊦ ₽ -1	3.75% 1.77 [1.60, 1.94]
South Korea	⊬∎⊣	3.74% 1.78 [1.60, 1.96]
Singapore	⊦∎-(3.71% 1.79 [1.59, 1.99]
Chile	∎-	3.71% 1.82 [1.62, 2.01]
Spain	∎-	3.75% 1.84 [1.67, 2.01]
Denmark	∎-	3.74% 1.94 [1.76, 2.13]
U.K.	⊦∎⊣	3.76% 1.96 [1.80, 2.11]
Guatemala	⊦∎-(3.78% 2.00 [1.86, 2.15]
Canada	⊢∎⊣	3.71% 2.14 [1.94, 2.34]
Austria	⊢ ≡ ⊣	3.70% 2.16 [1.95, 2.36]
Israel	⊨∎⊣	3.70% 2.21 [2.01, 2.42]
Kenya	⊢≖⊣	3.56% 2.22 [1.92, 2.51]
France	⊢∎⊣	3.67% 2.28 [2.05, 2.50]
Poland		3.83% 2.65 [2.56, 2.74]
Philippines	⊢∎⊣	3.63% 2.80 [2.55, 3.05]
China	⊢∎⊣	3.64% 2.88 [2.63, 3.13]
Japan	⊨∎⊣	3.67% 3.06 [2.84, 3.29]
Qatar	┝╼╾┥	3.56% 3.16 [2.87, 3.45]
India	<u>⊢</u> •	3.42% 3.50 [3.14, 3.86]
RE Model		100.00% 2.11 [1.91, 2.31]
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Perceived tradeoff between COVID-19 precautions and one's traditions:

Figure S39. Random-effects meta-analysis of mean level of perceived tradeoffs between COVID-19 precautions and one's traditions at each study site. Tradeoffs were measured along a 1-7 scale. Refer to Figure 1 for details on interpreting forest plots.

Note that samples were not nationally representative, and that sampling procedures differed across study sites, and thus that it would not be appropriate to draw strong inferences about differences between societies on the dimension measured here.

Additional Analyses

1. COVID-19 precautions and gender

Given the literature on sex differences and disgust ^{see 39} for an overview, we assessed whether self-reported COVID-19 precautions differed as a function of gender (participants were asked about their gender, not their sex assigned at birth, however the two are likely to strongly correlated in our sample). First, we visualized differences in mean COVID-19 precautions between women and men across all 27 countries in the sample (Figure S35). Then, we metaanalyzed the mean precautions difference between women and men (see Figure S36). Overall, pooling across all countries, women report taking more precautions than men on average (see overall meta-analyzed estimate in Figure S36). However, the magnitude of the difference varies across countries (range = -.02-.88; $I^2 = .39$; 95% prediction intervals = .10-.55), and the difference is statistically significant in 14 of 27 countries. This suggests that while women may have tended to take more COVID-19 precautions than men overall, the precise pattern varies across nations.



Figure S40. Plot of gender differences in COVID-19 precautions by country. Countries are along the y-axis, the mean precautions rating on a scale from 1-7 on the x-axis. The vertical lines represent the unweighted average precautions rating pooling across all countries. The dots represent the average precautions rating for women and men respectively for each study site, while the grey bars illustrate the distance between those two means. Along the right-hand column, the difference along the 1-7 scale between the women and men means are displayed numerically.



Figure S41. Meta-analysis of the standardized mean difference (accounting for heteroscedastic population variances⁴⁰) in COVID-19 precautions between women and men by country. Refer to Figure 1 for details on interpreting forest plots.

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