

Trust in science boosts approval, but not following of COVID-19 rules

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Project repo: <https://osf.io/ke5yn/>

Study repo: <https://osf.io/s5mdh/>

1

Abstract

2 How essential is trust in science to prevent the spread of COVID-19? Previous
3 work shows that people who trust in science are more likely to comply with offi-
4 cial guidelines, which suggests that higher levels of compliance could be achieved
5 by improving trust in science. However, analysis of a global dataset (n=4341)
6 suggests otherwise. Trust in science had a small, indirect effect on adherence
7 to the rules. It affected adherence only insofar as it predicted people's approval
8 of prevention measures such as social distancing. Trust in science also medi-
9 ated the relationship between political ideology and approval of the measures
10 (more conservative people trusted science less and in turn approved of the mea-
11 sures less). These effects varied across countries, and were especially different
12 in the USA. Overall, these results mean that any increase in trust in science is
13 unlikely to yield strong immediate improvements in following COVID-19 rules.
14 Nonetheless, given its relationships with both ideology and individuals' atti-
15 tudes to the measures, trust in science may be leveraged to yield longer-term
16 and more sustained social benefits.

17 During the COVID-19 pandemic, scientists have recommended measures
18 such as physical distancing and mask wearing, yet these have been a target of
19 controversy. Trust in science correlates with adherence to such guidelines¹, as
20 does political orientation². Though conservatives typically trust science less^{3,4},
21 they are more likely to follow COVID-19 rules when they trust it more⁵. So
22 is strengthening trust in science, particularly among conservatives, a good way
23 to protect society from the pandemic? We should be cautious, lest claims by
24 scientists that science is important seem self-serving. This article examines two
25 potential blind spots in the view that strengthening trust in science will improve
26 adherence to measures aimed at preventing the spread of the virus.

27 First, if science is to play an ethical and robust role in behavioral change
28 during the pandemic, science should change minds, not just coerce behavior.
29 The literature on trust and persuasion shows that people may follow new norms
30 not because they approve of them, but because of fear or propaganda, and these
31 coercive effects are typically short-lived⁶. Thus, one aim is to test whether trust
32 in science influences both approval of prevention measures and adherence with
33 those measures. Doing so is especially important as approval and adherence are
34 distinct mechanisms in the literature on social norm change⁷, and as people can
35 follow COVID-19 rules without necessarily approving of them⁸.

36 Second, science does not operate in a vacuum. Even if people trust science,
37 they also trust others in their society, and observe their behavior. People often
38 conform to others around them⁹, and take their main cues on how to behave
39 in the COVID-19 pandemic from each other¹⁰. Thus, another aim is to test
40 whether trust in science still matters for adherence, controlling for this social
41 baseline.

42 In line with current studies, this article tests whether trust in science will
43 positively predict adherence to pandemic social distancing guidelines (Research
44 Question 1). However, to better understand the kind of behavioral change
45 necessary to beat this pandemic, it also examines whether trust in science acts
46 more on minds (‘approval’ of prevention measures) or behavior (‘adherence’
47 to the measures), especially once political ideology and social conformity are
48 accounted for (Research Question 2). Finally, given that attitudes to COVID-
49 19 measures and the effects of ideology on those attitudes vary across countries²,
50 we check whether the effects of trust in science are consistent internationally, or
51 whether any countries deviate from global patterns in those effects (Research
52 Question 3).

53 **Overview of the present study**

54 As part of a larger project on the normative and social aspects of COVID-19¹⁰,
55 participants in an online global survey rated their trust in science and political
56 ideology. To capture whether science affects minds and behavior, participants
57 rated how much they approved of and how much they adhered to physical
58 distancing measures as implemented in their country of residence the week prior
59 to their response. Social conformity was accounted for by asking participants
60 how much they thought their close circle followed the same distancing rules.

61 Finally, the global nature of the survey affords exploration of cross-country
62 variation in these relationships.

63 **Results**

64 **Descriptive overview**

65 Of the 6674 participants who finished the survey, 1577 opted out of the question
66 on political ideology and 1199 indicated that they had no close circle (in the
67 specific sense of ‘close circle’ as operationalized here: see Methods). This leaves
68 4341 completed responses, as 442 had missing data on both counts.

69 As an initial check that these gaps not bias our conclusions, there was no
70 significant difference in the main outcome variable, adherence to physical dis-
71 tancing guidelines, between the 4341 participants who answered all questions
72 (mean adherence 63.8%) and the 2333 participants who had some missing data
73 (mean adherence 62.9%, less than a one percentage-point difference, regression
74 $b = 0.89$, $SE = 0.55$, $t = 1.9$, $p = .11$). We explore the effects of missing data
75 in more detail at <https://osf.io/s5mdh/>.

76 The final sample included 1293 men, 2985 women, 39 non-binary people,
77 and 24 who chose not to answer the gender question. Mean age was 37.6
78 years ($SD=14.5$). Mean education was 3.28 on a five-point scale (from 0=‘No
79 schooling completed’ to 5=‘Postgraduate degree’). The point nearest the mean
80 (point 3) corresponds to ‘University undergraduate degree/professional equiva-
81 lent’. These demographic variables were included as covariates in all analyses
82 reported below (full details are available at <https://osf.io/s5mdh/>).

83 **Does trust in science predict unique variance in adherence** 84 **behavior?**

85 The pre-registered hypothesis was that trust in science would predict adherence
86 to physical distancing rules. However, given recent findings¹⁰ that two strong
87 predictors of adherence are approval of the rules and social conformity (i.e.,
88 one’s close circle’s adherence to the rules), it is important also to check whether
89 trust in science still predicts unique variance in adherence behavior when these
90 other factors are accounted for.

91 Fig. 1 shows coefficients from four Bayesian linear models where adherence
92 was regressed on trust in science, or trust in science and various combinations of
93 conformity and approval. Standardized regression coefficients are reported with
94 95% Credibility Intervals (CIs), as well as Bayes Factors (BFs) where we want
95 to assess the evidence in favor of there being no relationship. These models in-
96 cluded country as a random effect (see <https://osf.io/s5mdh/> for random effects
97 structures, model priors, calculation of Bayes Factors, and control variables age,
98 gender and education).

99 The effect of trust in science on adherence behavior varied, depending on
100 which covariates were included. When trust in science was the only predic-

101 tor, it predicted adherence ($\beta = 0.08$ [0.06, 0.11]). When social conformity
 102 was included, the effect of science was reduced ($\beta = 0.06$ [0.03, 0.09]). When
 103 approval of COVID-19 measures was included, the effect of science dropped
 104 out completely (with just approval as co-variate, trust in science $\beta = 0.02$
 105 [-0.01, 0.04], $\text{BF}_{01} = 34$; with approval and conformity as co-variates, science
 106 $\beta = 0$ [-0.03, 0.02], $\text{BF}_{01} = 70.6$).

107 At best, trust in science had a small role in predicting adherence. At worst, it
 108 had no effect whatsoever. Considering *direct* predictors of adherence, then, it is
 109 inadvisable to place too much weight on people’s trust in science, independently
 110 of these other critical factors.

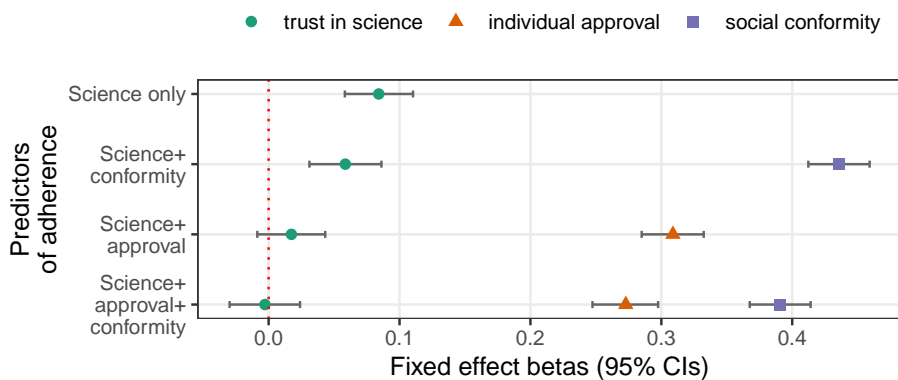


Figure 1: Standardized linear regression betas with 95% Credible Intervals (CIs) for the effects of trust in science, individual approval, and social conformity on adherence behavior, according to which predictors were included in each model.

111 Does trust in science predict approval of the rules?

112 A second aim was to see whether trust in science predicts approval of the rules,
 113 adherence to the rules, or both. This aim can be addressed with a path analysis,
 114 comprising simultaneous Bayesian linear regressions. In addition to pathways
 115 from trust in science to approval and adherence, the model included pathways to
 116 adherence from the aforementioned predictors (approval and social conformity).
 117 Furthermore, as previous research has shown that political ideology predicts
 118 trust in science^{3,4} and adherence to COVID-19 rules², and that trust in science
 119 may mediate the latter relationship⁵, additional pathways for these relationships
 120 were included. All pathways include random intercepts for country (though see
 121 Fig. 3 below for additional random slopes). See <https://osf.io/s5mdh/> for fur-
 122 ther details, including demographic control variables age, gender and education.
 123 The model pathways are illustrated in Fig. 2a. Fig. 2b plots standardized regression
 124 coefficients and CIs for the fixed effects. The model R^2 for adherence was
 125 0.31 [0.29, 0.33].

126 As expected, a more conservative ideology predicted lower trust in science
 127 ($\beta = -0.23 [-0.29, -0.17]$). There was no direct effect of trust in science on ad-
 128 herence ($\beta = 0 [-0.06, 0.07]$, $BF_{01} = 33.45$). However, trust in science predicted
 129 approval ($\beta = 0.25 [0.19, 0.33]$), and had an indirect effect on adherence, medi-
 130 ated by approval ($\beta = 0.08 [0.06, 0.11]$). Thus, trust in science had a moderate
 131 effect on whether people think they should adhere, but only a small, indirect
 132 effect on adherence behavior.

133 Ideology had no direct effect on approval ($\beta = 0.01 [-0.04, 0.06]$, $BF_{01} =$
 134 38), though it indirectly affected approval, mediated by trust in science ($\beta =$
 135 $-0.06 [-0.08, -0.04]$). Ideology had no direct effect on adherence ($\beta = -0.04$
 136 $[-0.09, 0.01]$, $BF_{01} = 13.35$), but had an indirect effect via the science—approval
 137 pathway ($\beta = -0.02 [-0.03, -0.01]$).

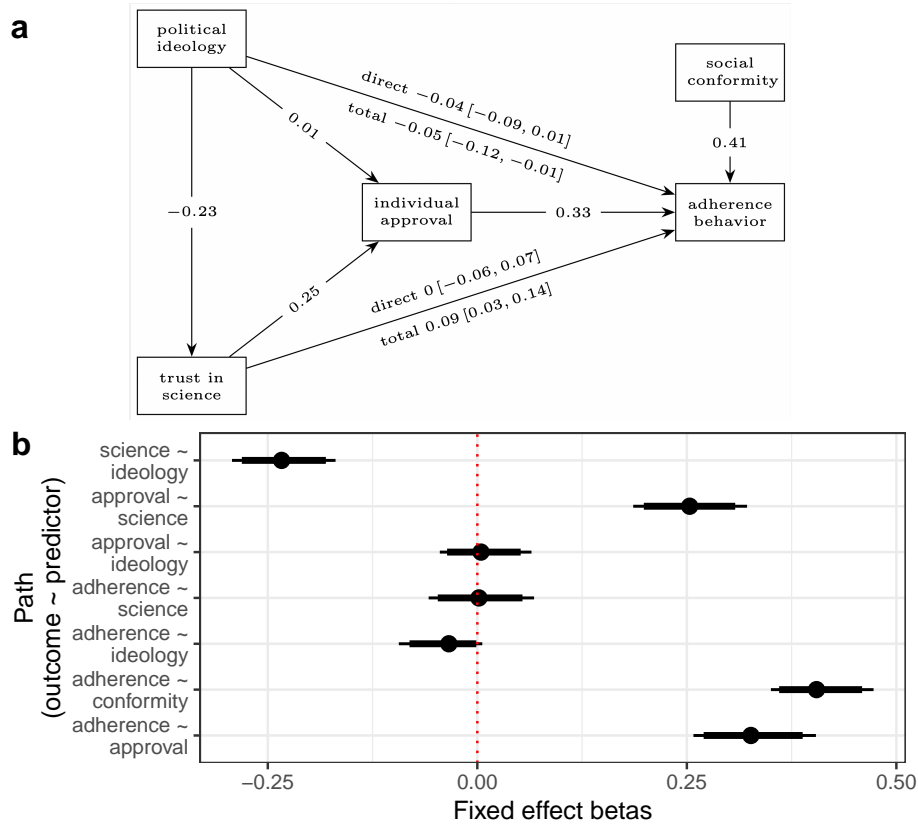


Figure 2: Pathways and posterior samples for path analysis. (a) Model pathway standardized betas, including 95% CIs for the direct and total effects of science and ideology. (b) Posterior samples for model fixed effects, with whiskers showing 89% (thick) and 95% (thin) CIs.

138 We have structured the above path model based on findings in the literature

139 (e.g., that ideology predicts trust in science³) and domain knowledge (e.g., as
140 trust in science is a relatively stable trait¹¹ that predates the pandemic, it
141 is more plausible that the arrows point from trust in science to approval of
142 pandemic measures than the other way around). We stress that we do not
143 claim this as evidence that these are causal effects. We do, however, show that
144 the same conclusions about the role of trust in science do not depend on this
145 specific model structure (<https://osf.io/s5mdh/>).

146 **How do the key relationships vary across countries?**

147 Given cross-country variation in the role of political polarization in COVID-19
148 pandemic² and trust in science¹², it is important to check whether there is
149 consistency in the core relationships involving political ideology and trust in
150 science identified above.

151 For this reason, the model represented in Fig. 2a included by-country random
152 slopes for the pathway from ideology to trust in science, and for the pathway
153 from trust in science to approval of COVID-19 measures. The variation in these
154 relationships can be explored using the posterior samples for the random slopes
155 (here, for the top-10 participating countries by sample size). Fig. 3 plots these
156 posterior samples.

157 Despite some between-country variation, the effects of ideology on trust in
158 science (Fig. 3a) and of science on approval (Fig. 3b) were consistently in the
159 same direction (relative to 0, shown with a dotted red line).

160 However, compared to population-level effects, in the USA, conservative ide-
161 ology was more negatively linked to trust in science (consistent with previous
162 findings²), and trust in science was more positively linked to people’s approval
163 of COVID-19 measures. Italy showed a similar, though weaker, pattern as the
164 USA, whereas other countries were less consistent. For instance, Turkey had a
165 fairly typical relationship between ideology and science, whereas the relationship
166 between trust in science and approval was weak.

167 **Supplementary analyses**

168 In the supporting material at <https://osf.io/s5mdh/>, we check that our find-
169 ings do not depend on narrow assumptions. In particular, we discuss: imputed
170 missing data, simulation of potential unmeasured confounds, generalized lin-
171 ear regressions (e.g., a zero one inflated beta regression), and alternative path
172 models (e.g., where conformity is not just a covariate, separate from the other
173 predictors).

174 Our claims about the role of trust in science are robust against all of these
175 alternative analysis strategies. The only conclusion which changes slightly is
176 that there is sometimes evidence for a direct effect of ideology on adherence,
177 depending on such modeling decisions. However, as our focus here is on trust
178 in science rather than ideology, we simply conclude that there might be a di-
179 rect effect of the latter on adherence, and that future work should explore this
180 possibility.

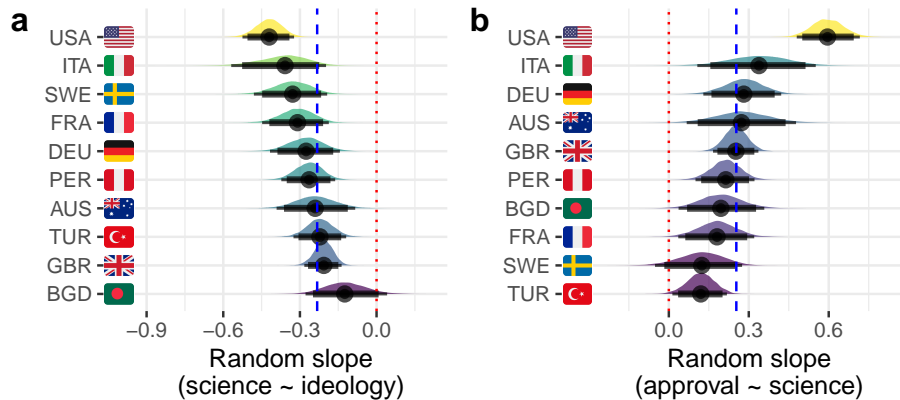


Figure 3: Posterior samples for random slopes for the top 10 countries by sample size. Samples for (a) random slopes for the effect of ideology on trust in science, and (b) for trust in science on individual approval. Fixed effects shown with dashed blue lines and 0 shown with dotted red lines. (AUS: Australia; BGD: Bangladesh; DEU: Germany; FRA: France; GBR: United Kingdom; ITA: Italy; PER: Peru; SWE: Sweden; TUR: Turkey; USA: United States of America).

181 Discussion

182 Trust in science is a topical research area and a praiseworthy end. But what
 183 difference does trust in science *really* make, when it comes to the adoption of
 184 new norms, such as those required in a pandemic? Two potential blindspots are
 185 whether trust in science makes a difference both to what people do and what
 186 they think, and whether it makes a difference over-and-above known effects of
 187 social influence.

188 The results of this study deliver a somewhat mixed verdict. On an opti-
 189 mistic note, trust in science changes minds, so its role in the pandemic is unlike
 190 those of propaganda or threat, which focus on forcing behavior⁶. On a more
 191 pessimistic note, trust in science only has a small and indirect effect on whether
 192 people followed distancing guidelines. Thus, improving trust in science is un-
 193 likely to yield major increases in adherence. To illustrate, suppose that a *wildly*
 194 successful messaging campaign leads to a 20% increase in trust in science. Multi-
 195 plying this by the total effect in Fig. 2a, that would only yield a 2% increase
 196 in adherence.

197 Attitudes toward science are part of a complex belief system. In this context,
 198 our results show that trust in science appears to be a linchpin linking politi-
 199 cal ideology to approval of distancing guidelines. Previous research on climate
 200 change denial has shown that pro-science recommendations are more effective
 201 when they appeal to people’s values and when they are consistent with their
 202 ideology^{13,14}. The findings here raise the possibility that the same could be
 203 done for behavioral changes required by the health crisis.

204 Trust in science generates other epistemic benefits: It makes people less sus-
205 ceptible to misinformation¹⁵ and influences the formation of opinion-networks¹⁶.
206 It is a relatively stable trait¹¹, and is resistant to erosion from ideological oppo-
207 nents¹⁷. In that sense, these findings may be helpful for policy-based interven-
208 tions as they suggest that trust in science could serve as a ‘boost’ for behavioral
209 change. Unlike ‘nudges’ that focus on behavior and are usually easily reversible,
210 ‘boosts’ focus on people’s decision-making processes and can therefore achieve
211 sustained behavioral change¹⁸.

212 One limitation is that our social-media recruitment process did not produce
213 a representative sample. Specifically, there was a high proportion of educated
214 women (see ‘Descriptive overview’ in Results). However, the size and global
215 nature of the sample — which were only achieved thanks to these recruitment
216 methods — afford epistemic benefits that counterbalance the limitations of non-
217 representativeness. Further, all analyses included demographic variables (such
218 as age, gender and education) as covariates, and included country as a random
219 effect.

220 Apart from these statistical considerations, one indication that our recruit-
221 ment procedure has not seriously biased results is that the levels of the main
222 phenomenon of interest — trust in science — are strikingly similar to levels in
223 previous studies. The average level of trust in science reported here — measured
224 on a percentage scale with three items — was 75.6% (SD=20). This compares
225 with levels previously reported during the pandemic, such as 82% (4.12 on a
226 5-point scale, using 14 items, with a sample recruited via social media⁵), 77%
227 (5.39 on a 7-point scale, using just two items drawn from the same instrument
228 used here, with a representative sample of New Zealanders¹⁹), or 76% (3.81 on
229 a 5-point scale, using a 21 items, with a sample of US residents recruited via
230 Amazon’s Mechanical Turk¹¹). As these studies varied in the number of items
231 (ranging from 2 to 21) and in their recruitment strategy and representativeness,
232 this suggests that measurement of trust in science is somewhat robust to such
233 differences.

234 Another limitation is that we considered only one behavior — social dis-
235 tancing — as it was the dominant concern at the time of data collection. It is
236 an important avenue for future research to see how these findings generalize to
237 mask wearing and vaccination uptake.

238 In sum, trust in science has the potential to promote sustainable social good.
239 In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, we show what the mechanisms and
240 limits of trust in science can be for achieving behavioral change. Its role is
241 limited to an extent, in that it does not have a direct effect on adherence to
242 social distancing guidelines and in that its indirect effect on these (via approval
243 of policy) is too small to make much difference. On the other hand, its role is
244 central to the ecology of values and beliefs that govern human behavior in a
245 pandemic, as it is the pivotal link between political ideology and attitudes to
246 pandemic-prevention measures.

247 Even if trust in science has little effect on short-term behavior, as the focus
248 of guidelines shifts from distancing and masks to vaccines, trust in science may
249 be a vital part of decision making in the face of such volatility. Our study shows

250 that science performs best, not at changing behavior, but at convincing minds.

251 **Methods**

252 **Participants**

253 Participants were recruited via social media, university mailing lists, press re-
254 leases and blog posts. Participation was not compensated. Overall, 6674 partic-
255 ipants completed the survey. However, participants were able to opt out
256 of certain personal questions (e.g., on political ideology). Further, the opera-
257 tionalization of “close social circle” (see below) meant that some participants
258 responded that they had no close circle, in which case there is no data for
259 whether they thought their close circle was adhering to COVID-19 measures
260 (our social conformity measure). These two sources of missing data mean that
261 there are 4341 complete responses for the variables reported here.

262 Participants’ countries of residence with samples larger than 100 were: UK
263 (1612); Turkey (630); USA (459); Peru (216); Germany (189); France (188);
264 and Australia (109). For further details about recruitment and demographics,
265 see ref¹⁰.

266 The study received ethical approval through the University of Nottingham,
267 and all participants provided informed consent. Data was not retained from any
268 surveys that were abandoned before the final debrief.

269 **Procedure**

270 The survey was delivered via a custom web app (desktop and mobile) written
271 in jsPsych²⁰. A link to a full demonstration of this app can be found in the
272 wiki at <https://osf.io/ke5yn/>.

273 Participants first selected which language they would like to do the survey
274 in (options: Arabic, Bangla, Chinese, English, Farsi, French, German, Hindi,
275 Italian, Spanish, Swedish, Turkish).

276 After providing informed consent, participants indicated their close social
277 circle using an established method²¹. First, participants listed the first names
278 of all those people with whom they had had a conversation with in the previous
279 7 days (these names are not retained in the data). Second, those names were
280 presented on the screen, and participants selected which names (if any) they
281 would turn to for comfort or advice, using checkboxes. Their close social circle
282 is operationalized as the subset of names that they selected at this second stage.

283 Participants were reminded of the general guidelines at the time (April–May,
284 2020): to keep physical distance from others. They used sliders to respond
285 whether they were adhering to this advice (labels 0=‘Not been following the
286 advice at all’; 50=‘Been following the advice exactly’; 100=‘Been doing more
287 than what is advised’), and show their approval of the guideline (0=‘Not follow-
288 ing the advice is completely ok’; 100=‘Not following the advice is completely
289 wrong’). They were reminded of the names of those in their close social circle,

290 and responded whether they thought their close social circle was adhering with
291 the same guidelines (using the same slider response format).

292 Three items were selected from the six-item Credibility of Science scale²²
293 for reasons of brevity, given the length and voluntary nature of the study. This
294 compares with a previous study with a smaller sample size¹⁹ that used two
295 items from this scale. The items used here were:

- 296 1. People trust scientists a lot more than they should
- 297 2. A lot of scientific theories are dead wrong
- 298 3. Our society places too much emphasis on science

299 Participants rated their agreement with these statements using a slider
300 (0=‘completely disagree’; 100=‘completely agree’). The ‘trust in science’ score
301 is the average of these three responses (reliability²³ $\omega_t = 0.75$).

302 Participants described their political ideology, again using a slider (0=‘very
303 liberal’; 100=‘very conservative’). They could opt out in two ways, with one
304 checkbox indicating that this continuum did not describe their beliefs, and an-
305 other checkbox indicating that they did not wish to respond.

306 Finally, participants provided demographic information, including age, gen-
307 der and education level (which are included as control variables in all models
308 reported here). For other questions asked in the survey as part of the larger
309 project on the normative and social aspects of COVID-19, see ref¹⁰.

310 **Open materials, data and analyses**

311 The Open Science Framework (OSF) repository for the broader project (<https://osf.io/ke5yn/>) includes an interactive demonstration of the full study. The OSF repos-
312 itory for this specific study (<https://osf.io/s5mdh/>) contains the data and anal-
313 yses.
314

315 The survey design was preregistered at the above project repository. The
316 same registration included the hypothesis that adherence to official guidelines
317 would be predicted by trust in science. For other hypotheses in the broader
318 project, see ref¹⁰.

319 The Bayesian models reported below were not pre-registered, but the full
320 R analysis script is available at the above study repository. This includes full
321 details of model priors, random effects structures, and control variables such as
322 gender, age and education.

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328 Contributions

329 JS: conceptualization, methodology, investigation, data curation, analysis, vi-
330 sualization, software, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; OD:
331 conceptualization, methodology, investigation, writing - review & editing; fund-
332 ing acquisition; GD: conceptualization, investigation, writing - review & edit-
333 ing; MN: investigation, writing - review & editing; YZ: data curation, analysis,
334 writing - review & editing; MEZ: conceptualization, methodology, investiga-
335 tion, writing - original draft, writing - review & editing; BT: conceptualization,
336 methodology, investigation, data curation, analysis, writing - review & editing,
337 project administration.

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