

Preprint (version before peer review).

# **Risk Preferences and Risk Perception Affect the Acceptance of Digital Contact Tracing**

Rebecca Albrecht,<sup>\*,+</sup> Jana B. Jarecki,<sup>+</sup> Dominik Meier, Jörg Rieskamp

Department of Psychology, University of Basel

Missionsstrasse 62a, 4055 Basel, Switzerland

\*rebecca.albrecht@unibas.ch <sup>+</sup>These authors contributed equally to this work

Affiliation

### Abstract

Digital contact-tracing applications (DCTAs) can control the spread of epidemics, like the COVID-19 pandemic. But people in Western societies fail to accept DCTAs.

Understanding the low acceptance is key to policymakers who support DCTAs to avoid harsh nationwide lock-downs. In a preregistered study in a representative Swiss sample (N=757), we compare the role of individual risk perception, risk preferences, social preferences, and social values in the acceptance of and compliance with DCTA. The results show a low acceptance of DCTAs but high compliance with the measures recommended by DCTAs. Risk preferences and perceptions, but not social preferences, influenced accepting DCTAs; a high health risk perception and a low data-security risk perception increased acceptance. Additionally, supporting political measures, technical abilities, and understanding the DCTA functionality had large effects on accepting DCTAs. Therefore, we recommend highlighting personal health risks and clearly explaining DCTAs, focusing on data security, to enhance DCTA acceptance.

## Risk Preferences and Risk Perception Affect the Acceptance of Digital Contact Tracing

A powerful intervention against a pandemic such as the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic is digital contact tracing through mobile applications (hereafter, DCTAs). As long as vaccines and medical treatments for a disease are under development or not widely available, non-pharmaceutical, behavioral interventions are the main means to contain the spread of a pandemic. In the case of COVID-19 such interventions include DCTAs, isolation of symptomatic cases, quarantine of contact persons, the closure of schools and universities, and full lock-downs—but some of these measures may have dramatic negative economic and psychological costs for society and individuals (Alvarez et al., 2020; Brooks et al., 2020). Moderate interventions can therefore be beneficial for maintaining ordinary daily life. Past research has shown that DCTAs have the potential to contain the spread of a pandemic (Ferretti et al., 2020; Salathé et al., 2020) as well as to forecast future pandemic hot spots (Menni et al., 2020). Thus, beyond the 2020 COVID-19 outbreak, a widespread acceptance of DCTAs can help to mitigate the spread of future pandemics at an early stage. DCTAs are therefore a mild yet efficient means to combat a pandemic. But importantly, for DCTAs to work effectively, a large proportion of the population must use them (Xia & Lee, 2020). Still, people in Western countries remain sceptical about using DCTAs for various reasons, including privacy concerns (Akinbi et al., 2020; Blasimme & Vayena, 2020; Jansen-Kosterink et al., 2020; Park et al., 2020). In Switzerland, for example, only around 22% of the population was actively using the Swiss federal DCTA as of November 11, 2020 (“SwissCovid App Monitoring. <https://www.experimental.bfs.admin.ch/expstat/en/home/innovative-methods/swisscovid-app-monitoring.html>,” 2020 (accessed October 27, 2020)) and as of November 05 2020 only 26% of the German population had the respective DCTA installed (Robert Koch Institut, 2020). Therefore research is needed to understand the factors affecting DCTAs’ acceptance and to inform policy makers fostering the use of DCTAs (Blasimme & Vayena, 2020).

In a recent commentary on good governance of digital contact tracing (Blasimme & Vayena, 2020), policymakers have been advised to use a reflexive adaptation strategy; this strategy involves the gathering of data to evaluate when, how, and why people actually use DCTAs. For this strategy, data is needed on how people respond to DCTA alerts and perceive the associated risks. Therefore, in the present research, we provide data on the influence of several psychological factors on people's willingness to accept DCTAs and on their compliance with the recommendations by the DCTA.

### **Individual and social factors affecting the acceptance of behavioral interventions**

From an *individual perspective*, engaging in risky health behavior such as meetings with large groups inside should depend on people's risk perception and risk preferences (Van der Pligt, 1996; Weber & Milliman, 1997) and their general risk knowledge (Weinstein & Lyon, 1999). Regarding the COVID-19 pandemic, risk mitigation behaviors have been linked to knowledge about SARS-CoV-2, the virus causing the disease (Kwok et al., 2020; Zhong et al., 2020), and the perception of associated risks (Abdelrahman, 2020; Betsch et al., 2020; Dryhurst et al., 2020; Glöckner et al., 2020; Plohl & Musil, 2020; Wise et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2020). Individual differences in risk preferences (Frey et al., 2017) may explain why people with similar risk perception and understanding respond differently, with risk-averse people being less likely to take risks than risk-tolerant people. The pandemic also represents an economic risk to the individual, because behavioral interventions in general can have severe negative economic consequences (Alvarez et al., 2020). The use of DCTAs could also be associated with risks for the individual; in various countries the development of DCTAs has been accompanied by a debate about the data-security threat to individuals (Ienca & Vayena, 2020). This debate has led to major changes in the development of DCTAs (Beskorovajnov et al., 2020) in order to reduce the data-security concerns. People perceiving DCTAs as a high threat to their personal data

are unlikely to use them. In sum, from the perspective of the individual, the acceptance of specific behavioral interventions might depend on people's risk preferences and the perceptions of the risks they perceive different behavioral interventions to involve.

From a *societal perspective*, COVID-19 represents a threat to the health system. With exponential growth in the number of cases, the number of people requiring treatment in intensive care units will eventually exceed capacity. Thus, from a societal perspective, the health system, and specifically intensive care unit capacity, represents a common-pool resource (Ostrom, 1990) that has to be managed sustainably. Critically, the societal and individual perspectives on COVID-19 are not aligned. Particularly, younger people may perceive COVID-19 as less risky and consequently might not follow severe behavioral interventions to fight the pandemic. A younger person's decision to reject behavioral interventions, which can be reasonable from an individual risk perspective, could foster the transmission of the virus. Past work has shown that the overharvesting of common pools, such as the health system, is especially prevalent in social groups that contain a substantial number of "free riders," that is, people who take benefits without paying any costs (Camerer, 2003). Whether a common-pool resource can be managed sustainably can depend on people's social preferences (Falk & Fischbacher, 2006; Fehr & Schmidt, 1999). Consistent with past and more recent research (Campos-Mercade et al., 2020), people's prosocial preferences affect the acceptance of and compliance with preventive measures like maintaining physical distance and staying home when sick. (Dryhurst et al., 2020; Zettler et al., 2020). Bavel et al. (Bavel et al., 2020) distinguished different collectives in this pandemic (e.g., families, communities, nations, and international regions), and people might give different priorities to these collectives (Chen & Li, 2009) when following behavioral interventions.

## Study overview

The present study examined the predictive power of various psychological factors leading people (i) to accept DCTAs as a measure to manage the COVID-19 pandemic and (ii) to comply with a DCTA's suggestions regarding safety measures (e.g., staying home when one has had close contact with an infected person). This study focused on comparing individual factors (risk perception and risk preferences) within the relevant domains of health, economy, and data security with different social factors. The acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs can also be affected by other factors, such as the comprehension of DCTAs and the locality of the perceived threat, among others. The study design and hypotheses have been preregistered at <https://osf.io/b3ud5>.

## Preregistered representative survey

To assess the psychological factors that influence acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs, we conducted a nationally representative survey of the Swiss population in June 2020 (after the first wave of SARS-CoV-2 infections in Switzerland and one week after the Swiss DCTA became available), drawing a sample from adults residing in the German-speaking part of Switzerland. An online questionnaire assessing the acceptance of and compliance with the Swiss federal contact-tracing application ("SwissCovid") was completed by an age- and gender-representative sample ( $N = 757$ ). The participants were aged 18 to 79 years ( $M = 45$  years,  $SD = 16$ ), 49% women, and 65% with at least a high school diploma (see Supplement S1).

## Results

The majority of the sample viewed the COVID-19 pandemic as a problem for the entire world (92%), but less than half (42%) regarded it as a problem for the immediate vicinity or themselves, and many viewed it as no problem in the vicinity (36%; the remaining 22% were undecided).

At the time of the survey (June 2020), 1.7% of respondents reported a positive diagnosis of COVID-19, and 11% reported that they or a close contact had received a positive diagnosis in the past. Among the people that reported neither a current infection nor past contact with an infected person, 26% reported at least one COVID-19-related symptom.<sup>1</sup> The majority of respondents (93%) indicated that they were working from home either fully or part-time, and 15% reported a reduction in their income due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Figure 1 shows age and gender differences regarding the respondents' mental well-being and their support of the ongoing political measures against COVID-19. Women supported the political measures slightly more ( $M = 4.09$ ,  $SD = 0.84$ ) than men ( $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 1.00$ ); also the older cohorts above 69 years supported the policies slightly more ( $M = 4.30$ ,  $SD = 0.87$ ) than the youngest cohort, up to 28 years ( $M = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 0.90$ ).

### **Risk knowledge regarding COVID-19**

Much work has described the subjective risk perceptions related to the pandemic (Karlsson et al., 2020; Plohl & Musil, 2020), in addition to which our data provide an overview of the factual knowledge about the risks associated with COVID-19 in Switzerland as of June 2020, including incidence rates, symptoms, and risk factors (Weinstein & Lyon, 1999). Around half of the respondents ( $M = 49\%$  correct) knew the absolute number of COVID-19-related deaths and one third (38%) knew the absolute number of infections at the time of the survey. They were well-informed about the preexisting conditions associated with a severe illness caused by COVID-19: Nearly everybody (97%) correctly identified chronic respiratory diseases and 68% identified cancer as a risk factor, which was the least-identified risk factor; kidney disease was the most frequently misidentified risk factor (29%); the risk factors were defined according to the Swiss Federal Office of Public Health ("People at especially high risk,

---

<sup>1</sup> Fever, sore throat, dry cough, shortness of breath, muscle pain, or sudden loss of sense of smell or taste.

<https://www.bag.admin.ch/bag/en/home/krankheiten/ausbrueche-epidemien-pandemien/aktuelle-ausbrueche-epidemien/novel-cov/besonders-gefaehrdetemenschen.html>,” 2020 (accessed October 16, 2020)). A third of the participants (31%) correctly stated the past-7-day incidence rate, but many participants (44%) overestimated it (the past-7-day incidence is defined as the cumulative number of new infections relative to 100,000 inhabitants in the 7 days prior to the survey). A quarter (27%) correctly predicted the future-7-day incidence rate, which was overestimated by half the sample (51%). Half of the participants (50%) believed that the incidence rate would remain unchanged from the past to the next 7 days. Only a minority reported the highest possible incidence rate of 45 per 100,000 inhabitants (12% past-7-day, 12% future-7-day incidence).

### **Acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs**

On a scale of 1 to 5, the acceptance of digital contact tracing in the form of the Swiss DCTA averaged 3.75 ( $SD = 1.1$ , computed base on 4 items, see Materials and Methods). The mean compliance score of 4.34 (range 1 to 5,  $SD = 0.82$ ) shows that participants were highly willing to comply with the DCTA recommendation if they were to use the contact tracing application. The acceptance of DCTAs was lowest for 18- to 28-year-olds ( $M = 3.41$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ) and highest for age 68 years and older ( $M = 3.83$ ,  $SD = 0.93$ , Figure 1). Slightly more than half (58%) of the sample agreed that the Swiss DCTA was technically well-designed, but most respondents (89%) did not believe that a sufficient number of people would actually use it. Figure 1 shows age and gender differences regarding respondents’ acceptance, compliance, and comprehension of the functionality of DCTAs.

### **Psychological factors that impact the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs**

The effects on the acceptance of DCTAs were estimated with Bayesian regression models (preregistered, see Materials and Methods and Table 1). The resulting regression coefficients (shown in Table 1) seem to indicate that risk perception variables and risk



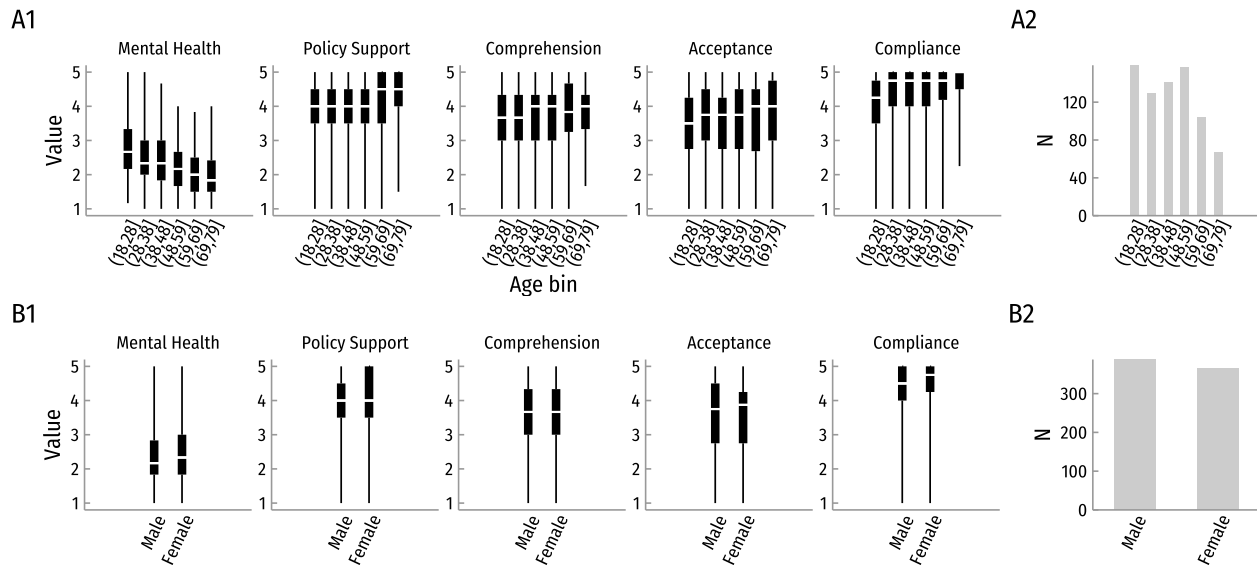


Fig. 1

**Descriptive Information.** Mental health in the last month before the study, support for political measures against COVID-19, comprehension of the functionality of digital contact-tracing applications (DCTAs), acceptance of DCTAs, and compliance with DCTAs. (A1) Age differences. (B1) Gender differences. (A2, B2) Frequency distribution of age groups and gender in the sample ( $n = 3$  gender nonresponses were excluded in B1 and B2).

preference variables had an overall larger effect than the social preference variables (risk perception  $\beta$ s from  $-0.08$  to  $0.06$ ; risk preference  $\beta$ s from  $-0.06$  to  $0.11$  and social variable  $\beta$ s from  $-0.01$  to  $0.04$ ); a model comparison shows that exclusion of the social preference variables greatly improved the model fit [Bayes factor ( $BF$ ) =  $20,271,851$  for a model without the social predictor group compared to the full model; the former also outperformed a model excluding risk perceptions,  $BF = 2,236$ , and one excluding risk preferences,  $BF = 12$ ]. Also, we found no evidence of moderation effects.<sup>2</sup> We can conclude

<sup>2</sup> The effects on DCTA acceptance were not moderated by the perceived effectiveness of contact tracing, defined as the mean belief in the technical functioning and sufficient adoption (model comparison,  $BF = 7.94$  for a model without effectiveness as moderator). Nor were the effects on DCTA acceptance moderated by the perceived threat level of COVID-19 in Switzerland ( $BF = 4.67$  for a model without local threat as

that the social preference variables did not have a substantial effect on the acceptance of DCTAs compared to people's risk perception and risk preferences. Therefore, the following results are based on the Bayesian regression model that excluded the social preference variables.

**Table 1**

*Results of the Bayesian regression: Effects on the acceptance of and compliance with digital contact-tracing applications*

Group	Predictor	Acceptance			Compliance		
		CI			CI		
		<i>Mdn</i>	2.5%	97.5%	<i>Mdn</i>	2.5%	97.5%
Risk perceptions	Health	0.06	0.02	0.10	-0.01	-0.07	0.04
	Data security	-0.05	-0.10	-0.01	-0.01	-0.07	0.04
	Economic	-0.08	-0.13	-0.04	-0.03	-0.08	0.03
Risk preferences	General	0.01	-0.04	0.07	0.00	-0.06	0.06
	Health	-0.06	-0.11	-0.01	-0.08	-0.14	-0.02
	Data security	0.11	0.06	0.15	0.00	-0.05	0.05
	Economic	0.05	0.00	0.10	—	—	—
Social preferences	Honesty-humility	0.04	0.00	0.08	0.06	0.01	0.11
	Social value orientation	-0.01	-0.05	0.03	-0.01	-0.06	0.04
	Identification with world	-0.01	-0.05	0.04	—	—	—
	over community						

*Note.* CIs are Bayesian credibility intervals. Dashes (—) denote variables that the variable selection did not select as predictor (see Materials and Methods)

Figure 2 shows the median standardized Bayesian regression coefficients ( $\beta$ s), that moderator). Therefore, the results do not include moderator variables (Table 1).

is, the effect that a change of a predictor by one standard deviation has on one standard deviation of the acceptance of DCTAs. The acceptance of DCTAs was strongly associated with a better understanding of the mode of operation of a DCTA ( $\beta = 0.52$ ) and with higher support for the general political measures against COVID-19 ( $\beta = 0.20$ ), as shown in Figure 2A [for the predictor comprehension of DCTAs, the median  $\beta = 0.52$ , 95% highest density interval (HDI) 0.46 to 0.60, evidence in favor of a positive effect  $BF_{(+)} > 100$  based on a normal prior with  $M = 0$  and  $SD = 10$ ; policy support  $\beta = 0.20$ , 95% HDI 0.14 to 0.26,  $BF_{(+)} > 100$ ].

In terms of psychological factors, accepting DCTAs was positively related to perceiving COVID-19 as a severe health risk ( $\beta = 0.05$ ) and negatively related to perceiving DCTAs as a data-security risk ( $\beta = -0.05$ ), which was in line with the preregistered hypothesis (see Materials and Methods); contrary to the hypothesis, DCTA acceptance was negatively correlated with perceiving COVID-19 as an economic risk ( $\beta = -0.08$ ); see Figure 2B (health risk perception,  $\beta = 0.05$ , HDI 0.00 to 0.10,  $BF_{(+)} = 50$ ; data-security risk perception,  $\beta = -0.05$ , 95% HDI  $-0.11$  to  $0.00$ ,  $BF_{(-)} = 37$ ; economic risk perception  $\beta = -0.08$ , 95% HDI  $-0.14$  to  $-0.03$ ,  $BF_{(+)} < 1/100$ ). The negative association of DCTA acceptance with data-security concerns is in line with previous results (Jansen-Kosterink et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020).

Besides the association with risk perceptions, the acceptance of DCTAs was also related to risk preferences: The acceptance of DCTAs increased with more aversion towards health risks ( $\beta = -0.06$ ) and more tolerance regarding data-security risks ( $\beta = 0.10$ ). Neither people's general risk preferences nor their economic risk preferences showed a robust association with their acceptance of DCTAs; see Figure 2C (health risk-taking preferences  $\beta = -0.06$ , HDI  $-0.12$  to  $-0.01$ ,  $BF_{(-)} = 50$ ; data-security risk-taking preferences,  $\beta = -0.10$ , 95% HDI  $-0.05$  to  $0.16$ ,  $BF_{(+)} > 100$ ; economic risk-taking preferences  $\beta = 0.05$ , 95% HDI  $-0.01$  to  $0.11$ ,  $BF_{(-)} = 0.06$ ; general risk-taking preferences  $\beta = 0.01$ , 95% HDI  $-0.06$  to  $0.07$ ,  $BF_{(+)} = 0.66$ ).

## Predictors of the Acceptance of Contact Tracing

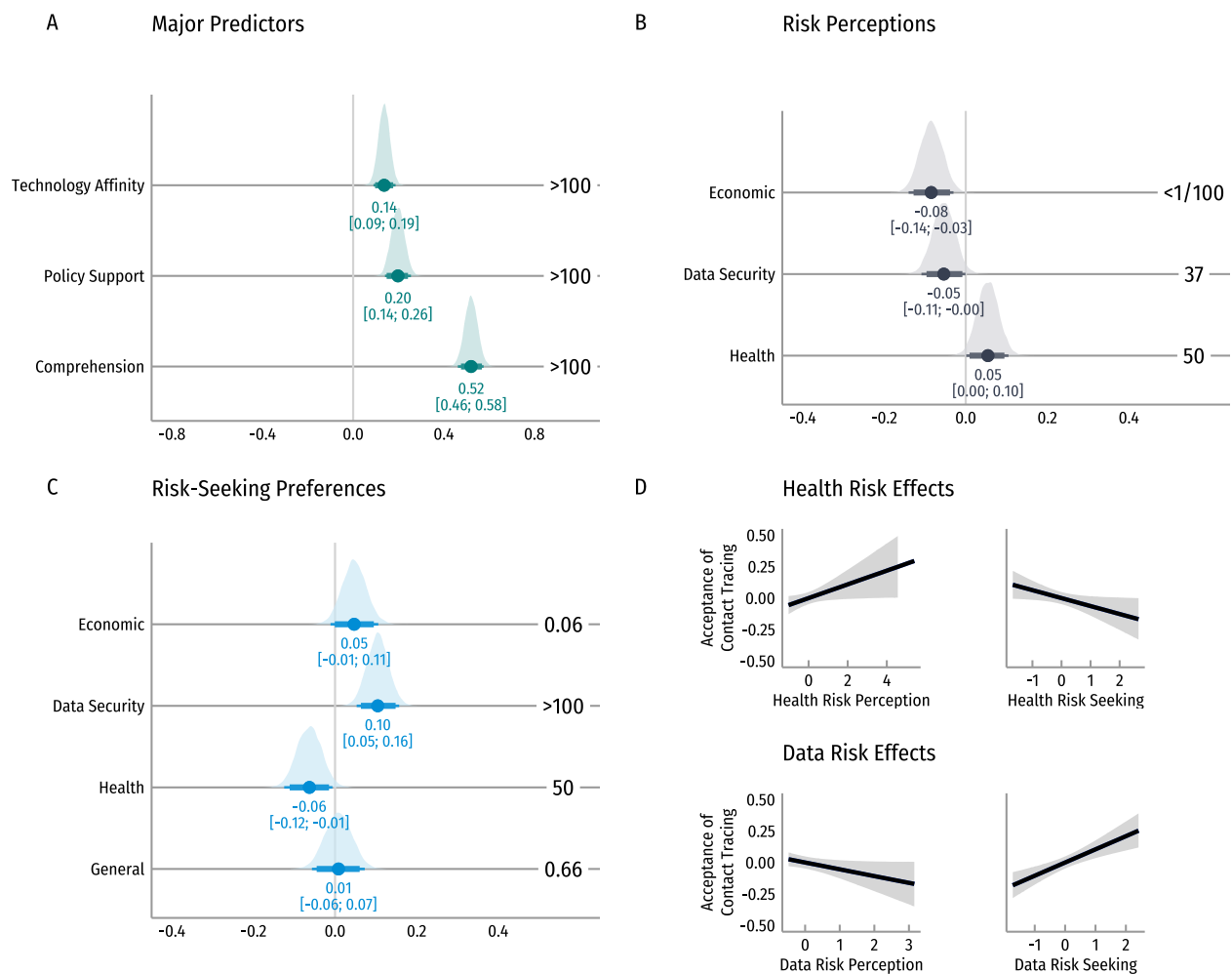


Fig. 2

***Factors that influence the acceptance of digital contact-tracing applications.***

*(A–C) Effects on acceptance of contact tracing (the posterior estimates of regression coefficients). Points = median posterior estimate, interval = 95% highest density intervals, bold numbers in the lines = Bayes factors in favor of the hypotheses. (D) Fitted effects of increasing health risk perception compared to increasing health risk tolerance.*

**Further results**

We further examined the variables related to the support for the political measures in Switzerland and factors influencing the comprehension of DCTAs. People's support for

COVID-19-mitigating political measures in Switzerland increased with lower mental health ( $\beta = -0.16$ ) and lower risk perception regarding data-security risks, economic risks, and general risks ( $\beta = -0.14$ ,  $-0.11$ , and  $-0.12$ , respectively), and higher DCTA comprehension ( $\beta = 0.38$ ), according to an exploratory Bayesian regression (see Supplement Table S2). Better comprehension of DCTAs, which was a main variable linked to their acceptance, was associated with high policy support, high data-security risk tolerance, and high interest in new technologies ( $\beta = 0.40$ ,  $0.11$ ,  $0.10$ , respectively), and the DCTA comprehension decreased for people that were not working from home ( $\beta = -0.18$ ) and with the perception of DCTAs as data-security risk ( $\beta = -0.14$ ; see Supplement Table S3).

## Discussion

The present study examined the psychological factors that impact the acceptance of and compliance with digital contact tracing devices (DCTAs) as a measure against the COVID-19 pandemic. DCTAs constitute a mild yet efficient behavioral means to mitigate the spread of a pandemic (Ferretti et al., 2020; Menni et al., 2020; Salathé et al., 2020), but their success depends on widespread use and acceptance of DCTAs in the population. Using a Swiss representative survey conducted after DCTAs were made available in Switzerland, we compared the role of individual and social preferences in DCTA acceptance and compliance. Unlike previous work (Jansen-Kosterink et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020), our study focused on individual and social factors and used a representative sample. From a technical standpoint, DCTAs offer direct societal benefits but only indirect individual benefits, because self-quarantine alerts from the application protect others rather than the user of the DCTA who has been in contact with an infected person. Indirect benefit may exist nevertheless; for instance, people may avoid putting unnecessary strain on their immune system after contact alerts or be prepared for getting sick. Interestingly, the results revealed that acceptance of DCTAs was not related to social preferences but rather was associated with individual considerations related to risk perception and risk

preferences. More specifically, our results show the need in this global pandemic to trade off different risks against each other, for example, the risks concerning health and data security. Acceptance of DCTAs was high for individuals perceiving COVID-19 as a severe health threat but low for individuals associating DCTA use with high data-security risks (see also Jansen-Kosterink et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020).

We further found that acceptance was low for risk-tolerant individuals in the health domain and high for risk-tolerant individuals in the data-security domain. Much to our surprise and against our preregistered hypotheses, acceptance of DCTAs was low for individuals who perceived COVID-19 as a high economic risk. One reason might be a general societal divide, with people who emphasize the health risks of COVID-19 giving less attention to the economic repercussions and vice versa. Thus, people who are most concerned about the economic risks of COVID-19 might tend to give little support to measures against the COVID-19 pandemic, because they might think they have severe negative economic repercussions. However, this perception appears to be incorrect, as measures to contain the health threat posed by the COVID-19 pandemic ultimately also reduce the long-term economic impact.

In addition to individual and social factors, general policy support for measures to counter the spread of COVID-19, technology affinity, and comprehension of the functionality of the DCTAs were all positively related to their acceptance. First, general policy support seemed to have a general positive effect on the acceptance of any means to slow the pandemic and safety behavior in general, such as wearing masks. It is therefore essential that policy makers ensure that the general policy finds public support, and there are several paths that can be taken to maintain this support. In this respect it is interesting to note that policy support is negatively correlated with the perception of data-security risks of DCTAs. Second, it is less surprising that a general technology affinity is positively correlated with the acceptance of DCTAs. Finally, it is important to ensure that people have good comprehension of the functionality of DCTAs. This might also

include a good understanding of DCTAs' data-security precautions, because DCTA comprehension is negatively related to risk perception in the data-security domain.

Compliance with DCTAs was strong: The results show a high willingness to comply with DCTAs in the sense that upon receiving a warning from the application about a potential risk, people indicated they would follow the suggested measures, such as self-quarantine or testing. Risk-averse individuals and more honest individuals were more likely to comply with DCTAs. However, compliance with the assessment of a DCTA is only fully effective if DCTAs are used, so broadly increasing acceptance of DCTAs must have a high priority.

### **Recommendations for Increasing DCTA acceptance**

Based on our results, the acceptance of DCTAs may be increased by educating people about *specific risks* and emphasizing *personal benefits* from the use of DCTAs. In doing so, the emphasis should be on the magnitude of health risks to the individual and on the clarification of the comparably low data-security risk posed by DCTAs. Individual health risks include an overreaction of the immune system as well as long-term or chronic illness, which have been shown to affect young people. Individual benefits of using DCTAs, such as protecting people with whom one is close, such as family and friends, or avoiding stress to one's own immune system if one receives a contact alert could also be emphasized. Clarification about data-security risks could compare the DCTAs' data collection, data storage, and data use relative to other frequently used smartphone apps and social media platforms. Further, efforts to educate the public about *how and why DCTAs work* and the explanation of the technical details of contact tracing applications in an accessible way should have a substantial positive effect on their acceptance. In sum, efforts may be put into emphasizing individual benefits resulting from DCTAs and on the other hand educating people so they understand the societal policy in general and the specific measure in particular.

Future empirical research into the uptake of digital contact tracing devices is needed to examine the effectiveness of potential types of interventions to facilitate DCTA uptake. Regarding interventions that target risk perception, for instance, it is an open question whether effective interventions in the domain of digital contact tracing consist in choice architectures such as nudges (which are effective for climate action, Nisa et al., 2019), graphical risk and uncertainty communication (Spiegelhalter et al., 2011), social comparisons, or the contextualization of a novel risk in relation to old risks such as the data security of other mobile applications. Which intervention designs works in the context of digital contact tracing needs to be addressed in future research.

## Methods

### Preregistered hypothesis

The main hypotheses about the influence of risk perception, risk preferences, and social values on attitudes about DCTAs were preregistered (<https://osf.io/b3ud5>); the data and code can be found online (<https://osf.io/u6ngf/>). Regarding *perception of risks*, the hypotheses were that health risk perception increases the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs. Data-security risk perception, in contrast, decreases the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs. Economic risk perception increases the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs.

Regarding *individual risk preferences*, the hypotheses were that higher risk tolerance in general decreases the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs. Health risk tolerance decreases the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs. Data-security risk tolerance, however, increases the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs. Economic risk tolerance decreases the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs.

Regarding *social preferences*, the hypotheses were that the higher the general other-regarding social preferences are, the higher the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs. The higher the social preference for local versus the global community is, the



higher the acceptance and compliance with tracing apps. The higher the general honesty-humility personality trait is, the higher the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs.

## Data

The data came from a large representative sample of the Swiss German-speaking population who responded to an online survey. In total, 848 participants recruited through a panel provider completed the questionnaire; 91 had to be excluded (as preregistered) because of low data quality,<sup>3</sup> leaving a final sample of  $N = 757$  (388 men, 366 women, 3 did not report gender; 51.3%, 48.3%, and 0.4%, respectively); the mean age was 45 years ( $Mdn = 44$  years,  $SD = 16$ , range 18–79 years). Data were collected in June 2020. The study was approved by the ethics committee of the Faculty of Psychology at the University of Basel. The data and analysis scripts will be made available on the open science framework upon publication.

## Statistical Analyses

Following our preregistered analysis strategy, we tested the hypotheses using Bayesian linear regressions by modeling the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs as a function of the theoretically relevant predictors (risk perception variables, risk preference variables, social preference variables) and selected covariates, which were selected to yield the most parsimonious predictive model (see covariate selection).

### *Covariate selection*

The covariates in the regression model were selected using a Bayesian projective predictive model selection method (Vehtari & Ojanen, 2012). This model selection method has been shown to outperform other methods in selecting the variables that balance model

---

<sup>3</sup> Incorrect answers to several explicit attention-check items or self-reported lack of data quality.

sparsity and predictive accuracy (Pavone et al., 2020; Piironen et al., 2020). This variable selection method constructs a reference model (we used the full model including all possible covariates) and searches for a reduced model with minimal loss of performance compared to the reference model. The simpler model is constructed by projecting the model parameters from the full model, because exhausting all possible combinations of predictor variables is infeasible. The predictive projection was used to select the covariates to be included in the regression; the variables related to risk perception, risk preferences, and social preferences were defined as the last to be excluded in the variable selection (using a penalty).

### ***Moderator analysis***

We ran two moderator analyses. For one, we analyzed if the perceived overall effectiveness of the SwissCovid application moderated the main effects on the acceptance of and compliance with DCTAs (as preregistered). Secondly, we analyzed if perceiving COVID-19 as a more direct local threat to Switzerland moderated the effects of risk perception on DCTA acceptance and compliance (as preregistered). To this end we used the regression model specification that resulted from the covariate selection, added the respective moderator by including all interaction terms with the moderator variable and the presumably influenced covariates, resulting in two moderator models. For each dependent variable (acceptance and compliance), we compared the fit of the two moderator models to the model without the moderator by the Bayes Factor (Bürkner, 2018).

### ***Elimination of predictor groups***

We separately compared the full model against the three models that each excluded one of the predictor groups (social preference, risk perception, and risk preference). We first fit the full model and performed the covariate selection for the full model and each of the three models excluding one predictor group. Second, we refit each model using the selected covariates and compared the Bayes factors of model pairs (Bürkner, 2018).

## Online Questionnaire

We collected the data using the online survey software Qualtrics (Qualtrics, Provo, UT). Participants were recruited by the LINK Institute (Lucerne, Switzerland) for a representative Swiss sample with a target size of 750 completed surveys with acceptable data quality (correct response to three attention-check questions). Participants were paid a fee of 3 Swiss francs for completing the survey. Additionally, the social value orientation part of the survey, in which participants had to divide 1–1.7 Swiss francs between themselves and an unknown person, was incentivized: Ten percent of the participants were randomly selected together with a counterpart and received the payoff distribution determined by one of their decisions (randomly selected) or the amount assigned to the counterpart.

The acceptance of and compliance with the Swiss DCTA ("SwissCovid App") were measured on a 4-item scale each using a 5-point Likert-type answer format (1 = disagree completely, 3 = neutral, 5 = agree completely); the respective responses were averaged into an acceptance score and a compliance score. The acceptance scale included the following questions (translated to English, original wording was German): (1) *Do you think that the data the SwissCovid App collects are safe?* (2) *Will you try to convince other people to use the SwissCovid App?* (3) *Will you use the SwissCovid App? (If you use it already, please chose "agree completely")* (4) *Do you think the SwissCovid App will help to slow the spread of the coronavirus?* The compliance scale included the following questions (translated to English, original wording was German): (1) *Would you self-isolate if the SwissCovid App alerted you about having been in contact with an infected person?* (2) *Would you enter your own infection into the SwissCovid App if you were infected with the coronavirus?* (3) *Would you call the hotline that is recommended if the SwissCovid App alerted you about having been in contact with an infected person?* (4) *Would you try to get tested for an infection with the coronavirus yourself if the SwissCovid App alerted you about having been in contact with an infected person?*

Social value orientation was measured with the scale developed by Murphy et al. (2011), where participants play a series of six mini dictator games. Trait honesty-humility was measured with the four item Honesty-Humility subscale of the Brief HEXACO Inventory (de Vries, 2013). To measure how much participants identified with the whole world and their community, we used the Identification With All Humanity Scale (IWAH) developed by (McFarland et al., 2012).

Overall- and domain specific risk preferences were measured with one item each on a ten point scale (0 = "not willing to take risks at all", 10 = "very willing to take risks", adopted from the german socio-economic panel). For the data domain, we formulated a new item, since this domain is not part of the german socio-economic panel survey. Respondents' perception of COVID-19 health related risks were measured with 3 items: The number of people out of 100'000 people in Switzerland that have been infected during the last 7 days, that will get infected during the next 7 days, and the number of people out of 100 infected people in Switzerland that will develop a severe case (cf., Weinstein & Lyon, 1999).

The questionnaire allowed non-responses to questions about income and wealth (see Table S1). For the analysis, we imputed the missing values of participants that refused to state their income and/or wealth by the median income and/or wealth (respectively) of the sample. This imputation was not preregistered.

## References

- Abdelrahman, M. (2020). Personality traits, risk perception, and protective behaviors of arab residents of qatar during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Int. J. Mental Health Addiction*.
- Akinbi, A., Forshaw, M., & Blinkhorn, V. (2020). <https://doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/6xbcs>.
- Alvarez, F. E., Argente, D., & Lippi, F. (2020). <https://www.nber.org/papers/w26981>. (26981). <https://doi.org/10.3386/w26981>
- Bavel, J. J. V., Baicker, K., Boggio, P. S., Capraro, V., Cichocka, A., Cikara, M., Crockett, M. J., Crum, A. J., Douglas, K. M., Druckman, J. N., Drury, J., Dube, O., Ellemers, N., Finkel, E. J., Fowler, J. H., Gelfand, M., Han, S., Haslam, S. A., Jetten, J., ... Willer, R. (2020). Using social and behavioural science to support COVID-19 pandemic response. *Nature Hum. Behav.*, 4(5), 460–471. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-020-0884-z>
- Beskorovajnov, W., Dörre, F., Hartung, G., Koch, A., Müller-Quade, J., & Strufe, T. (2020). <https://eprint.iacr.org/2020/505.pdf>. Cryptology ePrint Archive, Report 2020/505.
- Betsch, C., Wieler, L. H., & Habersaat, K. (2020). Monitoring behavioural insights related to COVID-19. *Lancet*, 395(10232), 1255–1256.
- Blasimme, A., & Vayena, E. (2020). What’s next for covid-19 apps? governance and oversight. *Science*, 370(6518), 760–762.
- Brooks, S. K., Webster, R. K., Smith, L. E., Woodland, L., Wessely, S., Greenberg, N., & Rubin, G. J. (2020). The psychological impact of quarantine and how to reduce it: Rapid review of the evidence. *The Lancet*, 395(10227), 912–920.
- Bürkner, P.-C. (2018). Advanced Bayesian multilevel modeling with the R package brms. *R Journal*, 10(1), 395–411. <https://doi.org/10.32614/RJ-2018-017>
- Camerer, C. F. (2003). Behavioural studies of strategic thinking in games. *Trends Cogn. Sci.*, 7(5), 225–231.

Campos-Mercade, P., Meier, A., Schneider, F., & Wengström, E. (2020).

<https://ssrn.com/abstract=3604094>. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3604094>

Chen, Y., & Li, S. X. (2009). Group identity and social preferences. *Am. Econ. Rev.*, *99*(1), 431–457. <https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.99.1.431>

de Vries, R. E. (2013). The 24-item brief hexaco inventory (bhi). *Journal of Research in Personality*, *47*(6), 871–880.

<https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2013.09.003>

Dryhurst, S., Schneider, C. R., Kerr, J., Freeman, A. L., Recchia, G., Van Der Bles, A. M., Spiegelhalter, D., & van der Linden, S. (2020). Risk perceptions of COVID-19 around the world. *J. Risk Res.*

Falk, A., & Fischbacher, U. (2006). A theory of reciprocity. *Games Econ. Behav.*, *54*(2), 293–315.

Fehr, E., & Schmidt, K. M. (1999). A theory of fairness, competition, and cooperation. *Q J Econ*, *114*(3), 817–868.

Ferretti, L., Wymant, C., Kendall, M., Zhao, L., Nurtay, A., Bonsall, D. G., & Fraser, C. (2020). Quantifying dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 transmission suggests that epidemic control and avoidance is feasible through instantaneous digital contact tracing. *Science*, *368*, eabb6936.

Frey, R., Pedroni, A., Mata, R., Rieskamp, J., & Hertwig, R. (2017). Risk preference shares the psychometric structure of major psychological traits. *Sci. Adv.*, *3*(10), e1701381.

Glöckner, A., Dorrough, A. R., Wingen, T., & Dohle, S. (2020).

<https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/wdbgc><https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/wdbgc>.

Ienca, M., & Vayena, E. (2020). On the responsible use of digital data to tackle the COVID-19 pandemic. *Nature Med.*, *26*(4), 463–464.

<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-0832-5>

Jansen-Kosterink, S. M., Hurmuz, M., den Ouden, M., & van Velsen, L. (2020).

<https://www.medrxiv.org/content/10.1101/2020.06.02.20113423v1>.

- Karlsson, L. C., Soveri, A., Lewandowsky, S., Karlsson, L., Karlsson, H., Nolvi, S., Karukivi, M., Lindfelt, M., & Antfolk, J. (2020). <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/7n3gt>.
- Kwok, K. O., Li, K. K., Chan, H. H. H., Yi, Y. Y., Tang, A., Wei, W. I., & Wong, S. Y. S. (2020). Community responses during early phase of COVID-19 epidemic, hong kong. *Emerging Infectious Diseases*, 26(7), 1575. <https://doi.org/10.3201/eid2607.200500>
- McFarland, S., Webb, M., & Brown, D. (2012). All humanity is my ingroup: A measure and studies of identification with all humanity. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 103(5), 830.
- Menni, C., Valdes, A. M., Freidin, M. B., Sudre, C. H., Nguyen, L. H., Drew, D. A., Ganesh, S., Varsavsky, T., Cardoso, M. J., El-Sayed Moustafa, J. S., Visconti, A., Hysi, P., Bowyer, R. C. E., Mangino, M., Falchi, M., Wolf, J., Ourselin, S., Chan, A. T., Steves, C. J., & Spector, T. D. (2020). Real-time tracking of self-reported symptoms to predict potential covid-19. *Nat. Med.*, 26, 1037–1040.
- Murphy, R. O., Ackermann, K. A., & Handgraaf, M. (2011). Measuring social value orientation. *Judgment and Decision making*, 6(8), 771–781.
- Nisa, C. F., Bélanger, J. J., Schumpe, B. M., & Faller, D. G. (2019). Meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials testing behavioural interventions to promote household action on climate change. *Nature Communications*, 10(1), 4545. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-12457-2>
- Ostrom, E. (1990). *Governing the commons: The evolution of institutions for collective action*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Park, S., Choi, G. J., & Ko, H. (2020). Information technology-based tracing strategy in response to COVID-19 in south korea—privacy controversies. *JAMA*, 323, 2129–2130.
- Pavone, F., Piironen, J., Bürkner, P.-C., & Vehtari, A. (2020). <https://arxiv.org/abs/2004.13118>. (2001). <http://arxiv.org/abs/2004.13118>

People at especially high risk,

<https://www.bag.admin.ch/bag/en/home/krankheiten/ausbrueche-epidemien-pandemien/aktuelle-ausbrueche-epidemien/novel-cov/besonders-gefaehrdete-menschen.html>. (2020 (accessed October 16, 2020)).

<https://www.bag.admin.ch/bag/en/home/krankheiten/ausbrueche-epidemien-pandemien/aktuelle-ausbrueche-epidemien/novel-cov/besonders-gefaehrdete-menschen.html>

Piironen, J., Paasiniemi, M., & Vehtari, A. (2020). Projective inference in high-dimensional problems: Prediction and feature selection. *Electron. J. Stat.*, 14(1), 2155–2197.

<https://doi.org/10.1214/20-ejs1711>

Plohl, N., & Musil, B. (2020). Modeling compliance with COVID-19 prevention guidelines: The critical role of trust in science. *Psychol, Health Med.*

Robert Koch Institut. (2020). *Kennzahlen zur corona warn app*.

[https://www.rki.de/DE/Content/InfAZ/N/Neuartiges\\_Coronavirus/WarnApp/Archiv\\_Kennzahlen/Kennzahlen\\_06112020.pdf?\\_\\_blob=publicationFile](https://www.rki.de/DE/Content/InfAZ/N/Neuartiges_Coronavirus/WarnApp/Archiv_Kennzahlen/Kennzahlen_06112020.pdf?__blob=publicationFile)

Salathé, M., Althaus, C. L., Neher, R., Stringhini, S., Hodcroft, E., Fellay, J., Zwahlen, M., Senti, G., Battegay, M., Wilder-Smith, A., Eckerle, I., Egger, M., & Low, N. (2020). COVID-19 epidemic in switzerland: On the importance of testing, contact tracing and isolation. *Swiss Med. Wkly.*, 150(11-12), w20225.

Spiegelhalter, D., Pearson, M., & Short, I. (2011). Visualizing uncertainty about the future. *Science*, 333(6048), 1393–1400. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1191181>

Swisscovid app monitoring.

<https://www.experimental.bfs.admin.ch/expstat/en/home/innovative-methods/swisscovid-app-monitoring.html>. (2020 (accessed October 27, 2020)).

<https://www.experimental.bfs.admin.ch/expstat/en/home/innovative-methods/swisscovid-app-monitoring.html>



- Van der Pligt, J. (1996). Risk perception and self-protective behavior. *Eur. Psychol.*, 1(1), 34–43.
- Vehtari, A., & Ojanen, J. (2012). A survey of Bayesian predictive methods for model assessment, selection and comparison. *Stat. Survy.*, 6, 142–228.  
<https://doi.org/10.1214/12-SS102>
- Weber, E. U., & Milliman, R. A. (1997). Perceived risk attitudes: relating risk perception to risky choice. *Manage. Sci.*, 43(2), 123–144.
- Weinstein, N. D., & Lyon, J. E. (1999). Mindset, optimistic bias about personal risk and health-protective behaviour. *Br. J. Health Psychol.*, 4(4), 289–300.
- Wise, T., Zbozinek, T. D., Michelini, G., Hagan, C. C., & Mobbs, D. (2020). Changes in risk perception and protective behavior during the first week of the COVID-19 pandemic in the united states. *R. Soc. OpenSci.*, 7, 20074.
- Xia, Y., & Lee, G. (2020). <https://arxiv.org/abs/2004.12576>.
- Xie, K., Liang, B., Dulebenets, M. A., & Mei, Y. (2020). The impact of risk perception on social distancing during the COVID-19 pandemic in china. *Int. J. Environ Res. Public Health*, 17(17), 6256.
- Zettler, I., Schild, C., Lilleholt, L., & Böhm, R. (2020).  
<https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/pkm2a>.
- Zhang, B., Kreps, S., & McMurry, N. (2020). <https://doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/9wz3y>.
- Zhong, B.-L., Luo, W., Li, H.-M., Zhang, Q.-Q., Liu, X.-G., Li, W.-T., & Li, Y. (2020). Knowledge, attitudes, and practices towards COVID-19 among chinese residents during the rapid rise period of the COVID-19 outbreak: A quick online cross-sectional survey. *Int. J. Biol. Sci.*, 16(10), 1745–1752.

### Acknowledgements

**Author Contributions** RA, JBJ, DM, and JR designed the research and wrote the paper. RA and DM designed the questionnaire, RA and JBJ conducted the analyses. RA and JBJ contributed equally to the research.

**Competing Interests** The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

**Data and materials availability** Additional data and materials are available online (<https://osf.io/u6ngf/>).

**Appendix**  
**Supplementary Materials**

**Table S1***Demographics of the sample*

	<i>Mdn</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	Nonresponse
Female	–	49%	–	3
Age (years)	44	44.93	16	0
At least high school diploma	–	65%	–	0
Household size	2	2.19	1	0
Number of children	0	0.50	–	0
Monthly net income (Swiss Franks)	5,300	8,716	18,543	140
Total <i>N</i>	757			

Table S2

*Results of the Bayesian regression: Effects on the acceptance of COVID-19-related political measures in Switzerland*

Term	Estimate	SE	CI	
			5%	95%
Intercept	-0.09	0.16	-0.41	0.22
Comprehension of DCTAs	0.38	0.03	0.31	0.44
Risk perception: data security	-0.14	0.03	-0.21	-0.08
Risk perception: economic	-0.11	0.03	-0.17	-0.04
Risk preference: general	-0.12	0.04	-0.19	-0.05
Mental health in last 30 days	-0.16	0.03	-0.22	-0.10
Risk preference: health	-0.06	0.04	-0.13	0.01
Gender: female	0.20	0.16	-0.12	0.52
Gender: male	-0.01	0.16	-0.33	0.31

Note. CIs are Bayesian credibility intervals. DCTA = digital contact-tracing application.

Table S3

*Results of the Bayesian regression: Effects on the comprehension of the functionality of digital contact-tracing applications in Switzerland*

Term	Estimate	SE	CI	
			5%	95%
Intercept	0.12	0.05	0.03	0.21
Support for political measures	0.40	0.03	0.33	0.46
Risk perception: data security	-0.14	0.03	-0.21	-0.08
Risk preference: data security	0.11	0.03	0.05	0.17
Interest in new technologies	0.10	0.03	0.03	0.16
Not working from home	-0.18	0.05	-0.28	-0.08
Partially working from home	0.00	0.06	-0.12	0.13

Note. CIs are Bayesian credibility intervals.