

DIPARTIMENTO DI PSICOLOGIA
DEI PROCESSI DI SVILUPPO
E SOCIALIZZAZIONE



SAPIENZA
UNIVERSITÀ DI ROMA

Corso di dottorato in Psicologia sociale, dello sviluppo e ricerca educativa
Curriculum in Psicologia Sociale
XXXV ciclo

ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF
DESIRE FOR CULTURAL TIGHTNESS
IN ORGANIZATIONS

Ph.D. Candidate: Silvana Mula

Supervisor: Antonio Pierro

Summary

Introduction and Overview	1
Chapter 1. What is Tightness-Looseness? – Definition, Theory and Research	3
Anthropological Roots	4
Tightness-Looseness in Cross-Cultural Psychology	6
Tightness-Looseness Theory: Antecedents and Consequences	8
Chapter 2. Tightness-Looseness in Organizational Contexts	21
Tightness-Looseness and Leadership	23
Tightness-Looseness, Organizational Creativity and Innovativeness	28
Tightness-Looseness and Organizational Deviance	31
Tightness-Looseness, Trust, and Negotiation Strategies	33
Chapter 3. The Current Research: Antecedents and Consequences of Desire for Tightness in Organizations –	35
Desire for Tightness, Moral Disengagement, and Deviant Behaviors	36
Desire for Tightness and Self-Control	37
Desire for Tightness, Need for Closure, and Initiating Structure Leadership	38
Study 1a	40
Method	40
Results	42
Discussion	42
Study 1b	42
Method	43
Results	43
Discussion	44
Study 2	44
Method	44
Results	45
Mediation analysis	46
Discussion	47
Study 3	47

Method	47
Results	48
Mediation analysis	48
Discussion	49
Study 4	50
Method	50
Results	51
Mediation analysis	51
Discussion	52
Study 5	52
Method	53
Results	55
Moderated mediation analysis	55
Discussion	57
Meta-analysis	57
General Discussion	59
Tables and Figures	66
Appendices A-H	79
References	93
Acknowledgements	109

Introduction and Overview

In every aspect of our life, we live according to social norms – unwritten, implicit norms that we rarely recognize and often take for granted. Within our country, city, organization, groups of friends and even family, we have social norms to follow. Citing Michelle Gelfand (2018, p. 3), “*social norms are the glue that holds groups together*”. The strictness of such norms varies between cultures: There are cultures with strong norms and low tolerance towards those who violate these norms, and cultures with flexible norms and indulgence towards deviation. The former are defined as *tight*, whereas the latter are defined as *loose*. Tightness-Looseness, as will be defined later in the first chapter, is a continuum where the two extremes represent respectively tightness and looseness, whereas different degrees of tightness-looseness can be found in the middle.

However, occasionally we are required to follow norms that we consider excessively rigid (i.e., tight) and want them to be more flexible. Or vice versa: in the face of overly elastic rules (i.e., loose), we might want them to be more stringent. Consequently, in the first case, it is possible to turn a blind eye in front of deviant behavior, while in the second case, it is more likely to wish that those who deviate from the norms will not get away with it.

The primary purpose of the present work is to investigate what drives people to desire tightness – i.e., desire for strict norms and severe punishments for those who deviate – within their work contexts, and what the consequences of this desire may be.

This thesis is divided into three sections, or chapters. In the first chapter, the tightness-looseness construct is defined, and the most important research conducted so far on the subject is described. Chapter 1 will start from the anthropological research of Pelto, who investigated tightness-looseness in traditional societies, up to the present day with the

research of Gelfand and colleagues who investigate tightness-looseness in modern, and even non-industrial, societies.

In the second chapter, we focused on the organizational implications of tightness-looseness. Although the research on tightness-looseness in work contexts is still limited, there is some evidence regarding the influence of tightness-looseness on some specific organizational aspects (e.g., leadership effectiveness, creativity and organizational innovation, organizational deviance).

Finally, the third chapter is dedicated to describing the studies that compose the current research: a series of correlational (studies 1—4) and experimental (study 5) studies investigating the antecedents and consequences of the desire for tightness in organizations, as well as a meta-analysis. More specifically, the roles of employees' need for cognitive closure, and initiating leadership structure will be explored as antecedents, while self-control, work moral disengagement, and reactions to workplace deviance will be examined as possible consequences.

Introduction to the studies and discussions of them are reported. Finally, a general discussion will be outlined, including limitations and possible directions for future research.

Chapter 1

What is Tightness-Looseness? – Definition, Theory, and Research

The notion of cultural tightness–looseness sinks its theoretical roots in multiple disciplines, including anthropology (Pelto, 1968; Lomax & Berkowitz, 1972), sociology (Boldt, 1978; Boldt & Robertz, 1979), and psychology (Berry, 1967). According to Pelto (1968), tight and loose societies constitute a continuum, rather than a dichotomy, with extreme cases at both ends and varying degrees of tightness-looseness in between. These degrees indicate the extent to which tight and loose societies are narrowly structured, have stringent rules, and impose sanctions and constraints upon people who do not comply with them.

Conceptually, tightness-looseness denotes the strength of norms and tolerance for deviating from such norms in a certain culture. The strength of social norms refers to both unwritten and institutionalized rules that exist within societies or communities, as well as the degree of social pressure that individuals feel to respect them, while tolerance for norm deviance denotes the amount of penalties provided when those norms are violated. While tight cultures have high norm strength (i.e., strict norms) and a low tolerance for deviance, loose cultures have low norm strength (i.e., flexible norms) and a high tolerance for deviance. To provide the reader with a basis for understanding the main topic of the present thesis—individuals’ desire for tightness in organizational contexts—this chapter reviews

tightness-looseness theory and past research, from its anthropological beginnings to its growing presence in the field of cross-cultural and organizational psychology.

Anthropological Roots

As previously mentioned, the tightness-looseness construct has its roots in many disciplines, first of all in anthropology, where it was used to differentiate between strong vs. weak social norms of primarily traditional societies (Pelto, 1968). In her seminal work *Patterns of Culture*, Benedict (1934) was one of the first to write in-depth about these differences. She used terminology from Greek mythology and Friedrich Nietzsche's works to distinguish between societies that were restrained and exhibited strong norms – “Apollonian”— and societies that were unrestrained and exhibited weak norms – “Dionysian”. Barnouw (1950), by contrast, employed the term “atomistic” to describe societies characterized by low social integration and few mechanisms to enforce social solidarity and group norms. The tightness-looseness terminology only actually emerges with Embree (1950), who compared the looser social system of Thailand with the tighter one of Japan. Following Ryan and Straus (1954), which later fully conceptualized and defined tightness-looseness, a society must have three basic criteria to be defined as loose. First, in loose societies, there are many alternatives for any given norm—norms are weak. Second, deviant behavior is well tolerated. Third, the values of formality, permanence, and solidarity are weak and undeveloped.

Pelto (1968) was the first who truly began to operationalize and quantify tightness-looseness beyond the methods of ethnographic description. In his work, Pelto examined 30 traditional societies, focusing on twelve structural features that reflected strong norms and rules—including norms for conscription of labor, theocratic political systems, corporate ownership of property, and hereditary recruitment to religious roles.

Each society received a point for each structural feature (from a maximum of 12 to a minimum of 1).

Pelto's work (1968) offers theoretical insights into the causes of societal differences in tightness-looseness. These differences generally arise from ecological realities faced by each society (e.g., methods of food production, and population density). Specifically, his study showed that traditional societies with higher population density and reliance on agricultural subsistence methods are generally tighter, as strict social norms ensure that individuals cooperate, and agriculture typically necessitates collaborative efforts by multiple individuals. By contrast, traditional societies with lower population density and less reliance on agriculture tended to be looser: they had more freedom of behavior, especially since deviance did not damage the social unit, and food production (e.g., hunting or fishing) allowed for independent and non-coordinated behavior.

In anthropology, Barry, Child, and Bacon (1959) found that societies with high-accumulation subsistence methods—those more typical of agricultural societies—exhibit strict child-rearing practices that train children to be obedient, while societies with low-accumulation subsistence methods exhibit more lenient child-rearing practices that train children to be self-reliant. Similarly, results from anthropologists Lomax and Berkowitz (1972) and sociologists Boldt and Roberts (1979) showed that, compared to hunting and fishing societies which are characterized by more ambiguous (i.e., looser) roles and expectations, agricultural ones tended to be tighter and exhibited strictly defined roles and expectations for individuals, given the need for coordination that these societies necessarily require. Finally, in psychology, Berry (1967; see also Witkin & Berry, 1975) found that the Temne of Sierra Leone, who are classified as a high-accumulation agricultural society, raise children who score high on measures of conformity, while the Eskimo of Baffin Island,

who are classified as a low-accumulation hunting society, raise children who score poorly on the same measures. Moreover, Triandis (1977) made a theoretical claim that pre-literate cultures would be more cohesive if they displayed a sophisticated and highly differentiated system of social organization that would require strong social norms.

Tightness-Looseness in Cross-Cultural Psychology

Although the first theorizations date back to the early 1960s, the study of tightness–looseness in modern cultures began only recently (e.g., Gelfand et al., 2011; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014; Triandis, 1989; Uz, 2015). In fact, Triandis (1989) reintroduced the tightness-looseness construct, emphasizing the importance of distinguishing it from various cultural dimensions previously examined. Most importantly, he distinguished tightness-looseness from the usually confounded construct of individualism-collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). Individualism-collectivism can be defined as the degree to which people in a country act and think as individuals rather than as members of groups (Hofstede, 1980). While individualism-collectivism describes the degree to which individuals are considered interdependent with or independent from an ingroup, tightness-looseness refers to how pervasive social norms are and how much tolerance there is for deviance from these norms within societies. Despite collectivistic societies (e.g., Japan) generally have stronger social norms, greater mutual obligations, and are often relatively tighter than individualistic societies (e.g., the United States), strong norms can also exist in individualistic societies (e.g., Germany) or be lacking in collectivistic societies (e.g., Brazil) (Gelfand et al., 2006). Consequently, although the two constructs are related, they are theoretically distinct, as empirically supported by Carpenter (2000) and others (Gelfand, Raver, Nishii, Leslie, Lun, Lim et al., 2011; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014). For their part, Gelfand and colleagues (2011), empirically confirmed that tightness-looseness is distinct from other cultural

dimensions, such as power distance and uncertainty avoidance. For example, power distance is defined as the extent to which power in societies is equally distributed (Hofstede, 1980). Theoretically, strong norms and punishment for deviant can be reinforced and promoted in cultures with both high and low degrees of equality (i.e., high vs. low power distance) (Gelfand et al., 2006; 2011). Accordingly, some countries are tight and have relatively low levels of power distance (e.g., Austria), and other countries are loose and have high levels of power distance (e.g., Hungary). Uncertainty avoidance, instead, is defined as “the extent to which a society feels threatened by uncertain and ambiguous situations and tries to avoid these situations by providing greater career stability, establishing more formal rules, not tolerating deviant ideas and behaviors, and believing in absolute truths and the attainment of expertise” (Hofstede, 1980, p. 45). It is conceivable to affirm that tight societies are higher on uncertainty avoidance. Nevertheless, it is also plausible that the converse is true. By having clearly defined norms, tight societies may eliminate stress deriving from uncertainty. For example, according to the GLOBE study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) and Gelfand’s (2011) data, some countries are tight and low in uncertainty avoidance (e.g., Singapore) and other countries are loose and high in uncertainty avoidance (e.g., New Zealand).

Triandis (1989) also looked at how cultural tightness and looseness affected people’s thinking, personalities, and behaviors. He specifically proposed that people in tighter communities were more inclined to refer to the public and collective parts of their self-identity than people in looser societies, who were more likely to refer to the private aspect. In turn, these variations in sampling affected how they acted and viewed the world. For instance, more emphasis on the private parts of self-identity may lead people to regard social interactions as exchange relationships and depend on their own personal ideals, objectives, and self-defined roles to guide their behavior.

Moreover, Chan, Gelfand, Triandis, and Tzeng (1996) examined how people's perceptions of the meaning of specific concepts changed in tight vs. loose cultures (i.e., Japan vs. the US). They assumed that the strong norms typical of tighter cultures should be reflected in the stringency and clarity of language. In particular, they hypothesized and found that the Japanese have a greater agreement about the meaning of some words and concepts compared to Americans. Specifically, Japanese showed higher agreement on word meaning about concepts related to punishment and sanctioning (e.g., truth, guilt, sin), normative pressure (e.g., duty, marriage, conflict), and emotional expression (e.g., anger, hate, sadness). However, it is noteworthy that Americans were found to have higher levels of agreement about the definitions of the words problem, contemplation, and conflict. The researchers hypothesized that this effect might be caused by the fact that these concepts and ideas are more widely accepted and discussed in societies with looser social norms.

Tightness-Looseness Theory: Societal and Individual Antecedents and Consequences

The current state of tightness-looseness theory began with the work of Gelfand, Nishii, and Raver (2006), which thoroughly explored the relationship between tightness-looseness and its impacts on several variables at different levels of analysis. They predicted that tighter societies would exhibit stronger institutions, stricter social norms, and greater punishment for deviant behaviors. These societal level variables would also have cross-level effects on individual psychological characteristics; thus, people living in tight or loose societies would have traits that are suited to those surroundings. According to the authors, individuals who live in tight societies would exhibit a greater sense of felt accountability, greater conformity, greater prevention focus, higher self-regulatory strength, and a greater adaptor (vs. innovator) style of cognition and problem-solving, compared to individuals

from loose societies. To put it another way, people in tight societies are more likely to follow social norms and expectations, even when they would prefer to act differently, to be disciplined and cautious closely monitoring their own behavior (i.e., they have high self-control), to avoid taking risks that could lead to punishments, to seek stability, and to rely on “tried-and-true” methods when solving or approaching a problem. In contrast, people in loose societies are more likely to base their decisions on their own desires and goals, use more creative and divergent problem-solving techniques and deviate from conventional approaches, have the freedom to monitor their behavior less closely, take more risks and be promotion focused. They are also more impulsive and open to change.

Confirming the prediction of Gelfand, Nishii and Raver (2006), Gelfand and colleagues (2011) contributed to the progress of tightness-looseness research, developing and testing a new theory about the ecological causes of societal tightness-looseness. Additionally, they showed that tightness-looseness is an important characteristic that differentiates modern cultures and societies from traditional ones. To achieve this, they sampled 6,823 people from 33 different countries and tested, for the first time, a tightness-looseness measure (i.e., 6-item scale). They discovered significant agreement between countries’ judgments of the strength of social norms and tolerance for deviance. Given that tightness-looseness is a widely held cultural construct, this shows that it is also a cultural dimension. They also discovered significant national variance on their six-item scale, demonstrating that tightness-looseness certainly distinguishes between and reflects significant variations between modern nations. Among the loose nations there are Venezuela, Australia, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Israel, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Ukraine, and the United States, while tighter nations included Germany, India, Malaysia, Japan, Mexico, Pakistan, Singapore, Norway, China, Portugal, South Korea, and Turkey.

The validity of the 6-item measure was strengthened by the discovery that these 33 nations displayed predicted patterns on several convergent tightness-looseness variables. For instance, tighter nations were found to have higher pressures towards uniformity, less tolerant attitudes toward deviant behavior, a greater preference for political systems with a strong leader or ruled by the army, a stronger endorsement of the idea that the most important duty of the government is to maintain order in society, and higher scores on various measures of ethnocentrism and deviance intolerance, including a stronger agreement that a society's most important role is to protect its citizens. Indeed, tight societies, compared to looser ones, exhibit greater desire not to have immigrants as neighbors, have a lower percentage of migrants, and firmly believe their culture is superior to others.

Furthermore, Gelfand and colleagues (2011) believed that the main reason for tightness-looseness differences between modern societies was the widespread presence of threatening ecological conditions. They posited, more particularly, that ecological threats demand more social coordination, which eventually enables societies to face and manage these threats. Because of this requirement, cultures strengthen social norms and impose harsher penalties on those who violate them to promote greater coordination. On the other hand, societies that are not exposed to significant ecological risks and thus do not need considerable social coordination to address them can allow for wider tolerance of norm deviation and looser standards of behavior. In other words, societies are tailored to their unique histories and circumstances. Importantly, this idea encompasses population density, which can threaten a society due to resource and space constraints, and subsistence living, which is typically dangerous due to low agricultural yields and food scarcity. However, it also emphasizes other significant factors that may affect how tight or loose a society is. In fact, the researchers discovered that tighter social structures were associated with higher

historic and predicted population densities, a lack of food, as well as decreased food production, more food insecurity, and fewer farmlands. Additionally, they demonstrated that tighter societies had a lack of clean water and air, a higher prevalence of historical pathogens, a higher rate of communicable disease-related deaths, a greater susceptibility to natural disasters, and had been the target of numerous territorial threats between 1918 and 2001. Additionally, the 33 countries that were included in this study displayed variable sociopolitical institutions that were conceptually consistent with the tightness-looseness notion. In particular, tightness was linked to more autocratic governments, a closed and unfree press, restricted access to new information and technology, the retention of the death penalty, fewer political rights and civil liberties, a lower percentage of people reporting having taken part in boycotts and strikes, a higher percentage of people saying they would never take such action, and a greater emphasis on religion and God.

The researchers also showed that societal tightness-looseness affects individual perceptions, personality traits, and psychological features, as anticipated by Gelfand, Nishii, and Raver (2006). They discovered that, compared to people living in looser societies, people in tighter societies tended to focus more on prevention, have better impulse control, self-regulation, and a stronger desire for structure. People from tighter societies felt that their worlds were more constricting, compared to people from looser societies. They asked participants to assess the appropriateness of 15 actions (such as cursing/swearing, arguing, singing, and eating) across 12 distinct contexts (e.g., workplace, bus, classroom, library) using a scale developed from Price and Bouffard (1974). In comparison to people from looser nations, they discovered that people from tighter nations tended to see a variety of actions as being more objectionable in all settings. To put it another way, those who live in tighter societies tend to feel more restricted in most situations. It is noteworthy that all the psychological traits listed above were strongly and

favorably correlated with this situational constraint measure. This suggests that exposure to extremely constrictive situations may eventually lead to the development of these psychological traits. Finally, the authors developed a multi-level model of their theory, according to which ecological threats and socio-political institutions are connected and mutually influence the overall tightness or looseness of a society, which results in stronger or weaker recurring contexts that produce higher or lower perceptions of situational constraint. This, in turn, generates specific psychological traits that are pervasive in that society.

The question of whether tightness-looseness disparities, together with their ecological causes and psychological effects, may be observed across nations—particularly at the state level in the United States—was examined by Harrington and Gelfand (2014). To produce an aggregate index of the construct, they used an archival measurement technique, drawing on previously collected information that showed various aspects of tightness-looseness. There were nine items in their final index, which are distributed within four factors—the severity of punishment, permissiveness and latitude, the presence of institutions that reinforce moral order and constrain behavior, and diversity (i.e., the degree to which a state exhibits high diversity, an indicator of looseness). Most importantly, the researchers found extensive variation in tightness-looseness at the state and regional levels.

The results of Gelfand and colleagues (2011) were paralleled by those of Harrington and Gelfand (2014), who discovered that their index was connected to a number of convergent indicators in theoretically congruent ways. Tighter states were found to seek stronger media limitations, demonstrate more rigid and dogmatic moral standards, view morally dubious and norm-defying behavior as more detrimental to society, and desire far greater behavioral restraint (e.g., not distributing condoms in high schools, not having

same-sex marriage), have high levels of self-control, favor the employment of any force required to uphold law and order, favor stricter law enforcement, have lower circulation of pornographic magazines, show less support for civil freedoms, and are more insular (i.e., they show a stronger preference for isolationist economic principles and behaviors, such as limiting imports and only purchasing domestic goods), demonstrate less residential mobility and more conservative political views and voting behavior. Similar results were obtained by Jackson and colleagues (2019). Across seven studies, they found that ecological threats such as pathogens, warfare, and resource scarcity predicted greater cultural tightness. Moreover, people in tighter cultures were more prejudiced against racial, national, sexual, and religious minorities. These relationships replicated across current-day nations using data from the six waves of the World Values Survey (WVS), US federal states, and 47 non-industrial societies, manifested through both explicit and implicit prejudice. These results replicated even when controlling for other structural and attitudinal factors such as economic development, inequality, residential mobility, conservatism, and shared cultural heritage. Furthermore, they showed through correlational and experimental designs that perceived societal and ecological threats predicted people's desire for greater tightness, which in turn, was associated with both implicit and explicit prejudiced attitudes towards perceived outgroups (e.g., opposition to having a person from a different religion, race, or sexual orientation as a neighbor, favorable attitudes towards heterosexuals over homosexuals, acceptability of violence towards people in other societies, feelings of cultural superiority) and xenophobic political preferences (i.e., intentions to vote for nationalist politicians). In the same vein, a cross-sectional longitudinal study by Mula and colleagues (2022) investigated the role of desired tightness, triggered by a perceived threat (i.e., the COVID-19 pandemic), in increasing hostile attitudes towards immigrants. Using participant-level data from 41 countries, they found that people's concern with the COVID-

19 threat was related to greater desire for tightness which, in turn, was linked to more negative attitudes towards immigrants. These results were further supported by a longitudinal model, which demonstrated that people's increased concern about COVID-19 during an early stage of the pandemic was linked to later increases in their desire for tightness and negative sentiments toward immigrants.

Additionally, in line with findings at the national level, Harrington and Gelfand (2014) discovered personality distinctions between people who live in tight and loose states. They found that people from tighter states had higher trait conscientiousness, a personality attribute linked to better impulse control, caution, self-control, the capacity to postpone satisfaction, a desire for orderliness, and compliance to norms (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). Contrarily, people from more permissive states (i.e., looser states) displayed higher trait openness, which has been linked to unconventional attitudes and beliefs, a wide range of experiences, interest and curiosity in novel ideas, tolerance of other cultures, and a preference for creativity (Rentfrow, Gosling, & Potter, 2008; John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). Moreover, compared to individuals from looser states, people from tighter states demonstrated a lower propensity for taking risks, a lower propensity to at least try new things once, and a lower propensity to be interested in different cultures. Finally, tightness was associated with a bigger ecological threat at the state level. In particular, tightness was associated with higher death rates due to adverse weather conditions (heat, lightning, storms, floods), increased tornado risk, a higher incidence of food insecurity and food insecure households, higher incidence of poverty and a higher rates of influenza and pneumonia-related deaths, higher disease and pathogen prevalence (e.g., HIV, Chlamydia), greater overall mortality rates, lower life expectancy at birth and higher perceptions of the threat in the environment, as measured by higher rates of military enlistment and a conviction that more money should be spent on defense.

Contrary to what was hypothesized by Pelto (1968) and Triandis (1989) Harrington and Gelfand (2014) did not find a link between tightness and population density at the state level. This may be because US states have relatively low population densities when compared to rates around the world. For instance, the US Census Bureau reports that New Jersey has the highest population density in the country with 1,195.5 persons per square mile in 2010. Comparatively, Singapore, which is one of the loosest nations in the research of Gelfand, and colleagues (2011), is the densest nation with a rate of 18,782.70 people per square mile in 2010. In conclusion, Harrington and Gelfand (2014) convincingly show that the tightness-looseness principles transcend levels of analysis, and that tightness-looseness may be evaluated using a variety of measuring techniques. In various ways, they thus have improved tightness-looseness theory and research. The concept of adaptivity plays a key role in the context of tightness-looseness theory.

According to the tightness-looseness hypothesis, societies and individual psychologies are adapted to their unique contexts (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006). In other words, both tight and loose societies and the people who make them up demonstrate relative benefits and drawbacks that are reasonable considering their requirements. For instance, the psychological traits that are shared by tight and loose surroundings enable people to perform effectively in respective settings. The main objective of individuals in a setting with strict norms and high threats (in terms of ecological occurrences and social punishments for norm disrespecting) is to avoid and prevent a variety of undesirable consequences. Thus, being careful, planning ahead, looking for and creating structure, and being conscientious are adaptive for such individuals. As a consequence, tight environments lack higher innovation, creativity, and exposure to new ideas. In contrast, people in loose settings are more impulsive, less desirous of structure, and more open to new ideas and change. This may result in a relative lack of self-control and discipline, but

this could be offset by the fact that environments with more latitude are more tolerant of these traits. Harrington and Gelfand (2014) tested this assumption by investigating the relationship between state level tightness-looseness and various state level outcomes. They discovered that states with stricter norms had lower levels of social disorder, homelessness, greater levels of law enforcement per capita, lower illegal drug usage, and lower binge drinking. These results make sense given that the principal objective of tight states and societies is to uphold order in an environment where ecological threat is salient. In such environments, all other objectives are secondary. However, as expected, this has glaring disadvantages. In fact, tight states were found to have higher rates of incarceration, lower levels of creativity and innovation (i.e., fewer patents per capita and fewer fine artists per capita), higher rates of employment discrimination per capita, lower levels of political and legal gender equality, fewer minority-owned businesses, and lower levels of happiness. Comparatively speaking, loose states, which are less under pressure to uphold the highest level of order, can afford to address social justice issues and promote innovation at the expense of some social unrest. This is what Gelfand (2018) referred as tightness-looseness *trade-offs*. For instance, Jackson, Gelfand, De, and Fox (2019) found a creativity—order trade-off in American culture over 200 years (1800-2000). Specifically, they found that the United States have higher levels of creativity, in terms of registered patents, trademarks, feature films produced, baby-naming conformity, but also have higher societal order (i.e., fewer adolescent pregnancies, less debt, higher levels of school attendance).

Although extremely tight and extremely loose societies both seem to have comparative pros and cons, more recent research indicates that societies that experience the best outcomes, in an absolute sense, often fall between the two extremes. A recent work by Harrington, Boski, and Gelfand (2015) compared the tightness-looseness scores from Gelfand et al. (2011) with a range of social outcomes in 32 countries. They found a

curvilinear effect such that nations with moderate scores on the tightness-looseness scale seemed to have the best psychosocial health (higher happiness and lower dysthymia and suicide rates), general health (higher life expectancy and lower mortality rates from diseases), and best economic and political outcomes (higher gross domestic product per capita and lower risk for political instability) relative to nations that were excessively tight or loose. The authors suggest that a general lack of perceived control by individuals of these societies may be the cause of the worse outcomes in very tight and very loose states. In fact, while highly loose societies offer few guiding principles and foster high levels of social disorder and unpredictable behavior, very tight societies, on the other hand, severely restrict individual choice and demand constant self-monitoring. Therefore, people in tight societies feel they have low control over their own decisions and actions, while people in loose societies cannot predict or control the results of their decisions and actions due to the unpredictable and random nature of their surroundings. Thus, this may result in poorer national level outcomes in extremely tight and extremely loose nations.

A more detailed dimension of tightness-looseness study has been advanced by other scholars. Notably, Mu, Kitayama, Han, and Gelfand (2015) discovered that differences between tight vs. loose cultures could be detected at the neurological level. They employed electroencephalography (EEG) to examine how individuals from tight (i.e., China) and loose (i.e., the United States) nations differ at the neural level when exposed to a social norm violation. Participants were asked to rate how appropriate a behavior (such as dancing) was in three different situations, with each situation being designed so that the behavior was either strongly inappropriate, weakly inappropriate, or very appropriate. An art gallery was the strongly inappropriate setting for dancing, a subway station was the weakly inappropriate setting, and a tango lesson was the appropriate setting. Thirty-four different behavior-situation configurations were used for this task, and participants' EEG

signals were collected while they completed it. When participants were exposed to the strong and weak improper behavior-situation cues, as expected, the researchers discovered a culture-general reaction in the central and parietal brain areas. Cross-cultural variances were also discovered. Only Chinese participants showed a frontal and temporal reaction to norm violation, an area that has previously been linked to evaluations of the acceptability of a range of human activities (Bach, Gunter, Knoblich, Prinz, & Friederici, 2009; Gunter & Bach, 2004; Reid & Striano, 2008). It is noteworthy that Chinese people also rated more behaviors as inappropriate in the strong and weak inappropriate conditions. It was discovered that frontal reactions positively predicted a number of attitudes and behaviors that were previously linked to greater tightness. This response was specifically linked to higher beliefs in cultural superiority, higher self-control, higher ratings of inappropriateness in the strong situation-behavior ratings, higher perceptions of constraint in daily life, and higher concern with territorial defense. It was also linked to lower performance on a test of creativity.

An innovative study was conducted by Roos, Gelfand, Nau, and Lun (2015), which have substantiated the causality implicit in the model proposed by Gelfand and colleagues (2011) and by Harrington and Gelfand (2014), using agent-based computer simulation and evolutionary game theoretic models. They observed that groups of agents exposed to high levels of environmental threat develop more norm-adherent and engage in more severe punishment when others transgress social norms. Notably, for these individuals and their groups to survive in the simulation model, these improvements are required. Overall, their research indicates that societal tightness and its impacts on individual conduct are brought on by exposure to ecological stress and are an adaptive reaction to it. Moreover, since most research on cultural tightness-looseness were conducted in industrialized and globalized societies (e.g., Gelfand et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2019) a recent study from Jackson,

Gelfand, and Amber (2020) aimed to investigate correlates of tightness in non-industrial societies. They found that tightness covaries across domains of social norms (socialization, law, gender) and correlates with various theorized antecedents (ecological threat, complexity, residential homogeneity) and theorized consequences (intergroup contact, political authoritarianism, moralizing religious beliefs).

Other innovative approaches have been taken by tightness-looseness researchers. For instance, Mandel and Realo (2015) have looked at a crucial but under-researched aspect of tightness-looseness study, namely the longitudinal stability of tightness-looseness and the degree to which it changes over time. Using data from two nationally representative samples of Estonians, they found that the general tightness-looseness level had changed the course of a decade. Interestingly, these results support the idea that tightness-looseness is a crucial aspect of culture and that it is a stable descriptor of societies. In the same vein, a recent study by Jackson, Gelfand, De, and Fox (2019) developed a new linguistic measure to detect historical changes in tightness-looseness in US. Results showed that US became progressively less tight (i.e., looser) from 1800 to 2000. They also investigate how changes in tightness-looseness were related to four indicators of societal order—debt, adolescent pregnancies, crime, and high school attendance—as well as four indicators of creativity: registered patents, trademarks, feature films produced, and baby-naming conformity. They found that cultural tightness correlates negatively with all measures of creativity, and correlates positively with three out of four measures of societal order (fewer adolescent pregnancies, less debt, and higher levels of school attendance). These findings imply that the historical loosening of American culture was associated with a trade-off between higher creativity but lower order.

Other researchers, like Uz (2015), have tried to create additional tightness-looseness measurement techniques. She developed three different indices of tightness-looseness in 68 societies – a domain-specific index, a domain-general index, and a combination index. The combination index demonstrated the greatest validity compared with the domain-specific and domain-general indexes, and another measure based on aggregation of individual-level perceptions.

Chapter 2

Tightness-Looseness in Organizational Contexts

Gelfand, Nishii, and Raver (2006) also extended tightness-looseness theory to organizations. According to Gelfand and colleagues (2006), organizations mirror the degree of tightness-looseness of the country in which they are located, which highlights the effects that culture and the strength of social norms have on the corporate world. In fact, organizations in tight societies generally have very strict and stringent cultures. Through effective recruiting, selection, and training procedures, as well as more advanced performance monitoring systems, the practices in this situation tend to limit the amount of behaviors that are considered proper and encourage order and predictability (Gelfand et al. 2006). Japanese organizations, for example, culturally recognized as tight, place an emphasis on technical expertise, selecting personnel who reflect company standards through a long and formal training process (Aoki, 1988; Redding, Norman & Schlander, 1994). Conversely, organizations in loose societies typically have more flexible cultures, with norms that value creativity and encourage experimentation, openness, and a higher level of risk-taking (Gelfand et al. 2006). Greater order, coherence, stability, and resistance to change are typical characteristics of tighter organizations, which emphasize rules, operational predictability, and have strict policies for recruitment, selection, training, and performance monitoring. On the other hand, looser organizations would be more flexible, innovative, and have more flexible techniques for recruiting, selection, training, and

performance-monitoring. They would also be more creative and tolerant of organizational change. Additionally, Gelfand and colleagues postulated that, in comparison to looser organizations, tighter companies would have stronger organizational cultures and stronger alignment in terms of practices. Additionally, it was hypothesized that the relationship between organizational practices and organizational outcomes was influenced by cultural tightness-looseness. More in particular, in organizations with tight cultures, techniques requiring higher levels of responsibility, surveillance, and control are more successful than those requiring larger levels of creativity and invention.

The authors also hypothesized that member personality and organizational setting will both have a bottom-up impact on organizational tightness-looseness. As an example, organizations in high-risk endeavors are more likely to be tighter than those in low-risk endeavors since they stand to lose more if they make a mistake. Similarly, organizations comprised of individuals who are cautious and high in prevention focus are likely to push their organization in a tighter direction. In the same vein, employees with a high work prevention focus are also more likely to desire strong norms and severe punishment towards who deviate and are more intolerant towards norm-deviating behaviors in the workplace (Mula & Pierro, 2022).

Gelfand, Nishii, and Raver's (2006) work has had an immense influence on tightness-looseness theory and research. Given the broad nature of their theory and its relevance to numerous study streams, it has inspired a wealth of research and theoretical advancements in a variety of various domains, including industrial-organizational psychology. For example, in their meta-analysis, Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) found that societal tightness-looseness moderated the effect that other cultural dimensions had upon organizational outcomes. Based on Gelfand et al.'s (2006) line of reasoning, they

hypothesized and found that individuals in culturally tighter societies have less flexibility in the expression of their cultural values and outcomes. Consequently, the relationship between cultural values and outcomes is much stronger in culturally tighter, rather than looser, societies. This is reasonable given the narrower socialization typical of tighter cultures (Gelfand et al., 2006).

The tightness-looseness of the nation, according to Crossland and Hambrick (2011), affects CEO discretion. CEOs in tighter cultures have relatively less discretion, as would be expected given the greater constraints present in such cultures. Degree of discretion, in turn, is negatively associated with the degree to which CEO actions influence organizational performance. Other researchers, such as Eun, Wang, and Xiao (2015) found behavioral synchronicity is triggered by cultural tightness. More particular, they showed that tighter countries have more stock price co-movement, which is related to lower market-wide and firm-specific variation in these societies.

Other researchers (e.g., Di Santo et al., 2021) have also investigated the relationship between team-level shared perception of tightness-looseness and organizational outcomes. Specifically, they found that perceived tightness at the unit level increased employees' job satisfaction, effort investment, and affective organizational commitment. Conversely, perceived tightness decreased employees' perceived stress, intention to leave, and organizational deviance.

Tightness-Looseness and Leadership

Culture has a significant impact on how individuals classify the characteristics of leaders or how they construct superior categories of effective leadership prototypes (Hunt, Boal, & Sorenson, 1990; Lord & Maher, 1991). Aktas, Gelfand e Hanges (2016) were

among the first to show evidence of the impact of cultural tightness-looseness in the perception of leadership effectiveness. Specifically, they integrated previous research on tightness-looseness (Gelfand et al., 2011) with the GLOBE's – Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (House et al., 2004) leadership framework to examine the connection between tightness-looseness and perceptions of effective leadership. The leadership framework of House et al., was based on six superordinate dimensions of leadership. The first of these leadership dimensions is charismatic/value-based leadership, which includes visionary, inspirational, self-sacrifice, integrity, decisive, and performance-oriented primary leadership dimensions. Charismatic leaders tend to use innovative means to achieve their goals and revolutionary ways to motivate their group members (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). The second dimension is team-oriented leadership, which includes the primary leadership dimensions of collaborative team orientation, team integrator, diplomatic, benevolent, and administratively competent. The leader is loyal, attentive to the well-being of the members and to cohesion (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). The third dimension is self-protected leadership, which is composed of self-centered, status consciousness, conflict inducer, face-saver, and procedural primary leadership dimensions. These leaders have a desire to succeed over their rivals in order to be in control of their leading position. They are formal, cautious, and routine leaders (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). The fourth dimension is participative leadership, which is composed of non-autocratic/non-dictatorial and participative primary leadership dimensions. Leaders give followers the opportunity to meet their needs and participate in the decision-making process (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). The fifth dimension is humane-oriented leadership, which is made up of modesty and humane-orientation primary leadership dimensions. It is a leadership based on empathy and the desire to assist and help others (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). The final dimension is autonomous leadership, which focuses on independent leadership and not

relying on others to make decisions. It is measured by a single primary leadership dimension, consisting of individualistic, independence, autonomous, and unique attributes. Leaders have extreme confidence in their abilities and tend to maintain the status quo. In fact, they work independently of others, with little collaboration and feedback (Hanges & Dickson, 2004).

The results obtained by Aktas et al. (2016) demonstrated that individuals in tight cultures, being unwilling to innovate, prefer autonomous leaders who do not rely on others and make their own decisions quickly. A negative correlation also emerges between tightness and charismatic leadership because, evidently, resistance to change clashes with the innovative, motivational, and transformational aspects of this type of leadership, which is consequently perceived as less effective. Arguably the attributes of team-oriented leadership and charismatic leadership are most effective in loose cultures. This suggests that to be effective, leaders in tight cultures should pay attention to being self-confident by emphasizing stability; otherwise, leaders in loose cultures should emphasize empowerment and the team (Aktas, Gelfand & Hanges, 2016). According to the study, autonomous leadership is preferred in communities that are more tightly knit because it facilitates swift decisions and, quite often, upholds the status quo, which is advantageous for people who have a higher need for closure psychologically (Kruglanski et al., 2006; Pierro et al., 2005). The authors also indicate that charismatic leaders, with their creative and inspiring strategies, are not valued in tighter cultures because they frequently disturb the status quo and run opposite to the predominate prevention-focused mindsets typical of such cultures (e.g., Gelfand et al., 2006; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014). However, this is also the reason why people in loose cultures—which are frequently more inventive and open—perceive charismatic leadership approaches to be more successful.

Tightness-Looseness is very broad concept with strong explanatory potential and could serve as a key factor in the development of a group's culture (Kim & Toh, 2019). The most important theories in organizational literature offer two different explanations for the puzzling phenomenon of how culture is born. The functional perspective (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Schein, 2006), in particular, starts from the idea that culture is a dynamic entity made up of all the fundamental assumptions that a group has invented or discovered while learning to deal with problems related to its external adaptation (such as the introduction of new technologies, new norms, or company rules, etc.) and its internal integration (such as conflict of interest, goal conflicts, etc) (Schein, 2006). On the other hand, the leader-trait approach holds that a team's culture is determined by the personality and values of its leaders (Berson, Oreg, & Dvir, 2008; Gelfand et al., 2012; Giberson, Resick, & Dickson, 2005; O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, & Doerr, 2014). This second theory strongly emphasizes the figure of the leader. Leadership can be defined as the process by which one person or group of individuals influences others (Bass, 1990; House & Aditya, 1997).

Kim and Toh (2019) introduced another neglected, but important, antecedent of cultures—the past cultural experience of leaders. This perspective seeks to demonstrate how leaders' past experiences are much more decisive for cultural development than has been taken into consideration. In this sense, Kim and Toh (2019) propose the idea of cultural transfer which offers a substantially different vision both from the functional approach (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Schein, 2006) and from the leader-trait approach (Berson, Oreg, & Dvir, 2008; Gelfand et al., 2012; Giberson, Resick, & Dickson, 2005; O'Reilly, Caldwell, Chatman, & Doerr, 2014). In this regard, Kim and Toh (2019) start from the assumption that leaders have limited cognitive capacity (March & Simon, 1958) and cannot rely only on their personality to lead a group towards success. Consequently,

the leader will probably draw on his or her prior experiences while solving problems. From a theoretical point of view, this translates into the cultural transfer strategy, which describes how the leader recreates the culture of the prior group in the present one. In this theoretical paradigm the tightness-looseness variable fits precisely as a factor to be transferred from one culture to another, since if a leader has had successful experiences in a tight environment, it will be more likely he or she will try to recreate those same characteristics in the present one (Kim & Toh, 2019). Furthermore, the transfer of culture is even more likely when the leader has spent a lot of time in the previous group and has had a strong identification with it, perceives it as an integral part of the community (Henry, Arrow & Carini, 1999) and has internalized the group objectives, norms, and beliefs (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Furthermore, since tightness is predictive of order and stability (Gelfand et al. 2006; Gelfand et al. 2011, Harrington & Gelfand, 2014), cultural transfer may also be able to reduce deviance. Specifically, in their study Kim and Toh (2019) found that the cultural tightness that leaders transferred from their former groups to their current groups influences both negative (counterproductive work behavior) and positive (promotive and prohibitive voice) forms of group deviance. The relationship between tightness and organizational deviance will be discussed in depth in the present chapter.

More recent research (Arun, Sen & Okun, 2020) has shown that the nation's broader cultural context can greatly affect the perceived effectiveness of one leadership style rather than another. For example, in Turkey, ranked as the seventh tightest country in the ranking by Gelfand and colleagues (2011), it emerged that tightness-looseness does not seem to affect organizational efficiency and success (Arun, Sen & Okun, 2020). Indeed, in this specific sample, paternalistic leadership has been shown to have a significantly more significant impact on performance than cultural tightness.

Tightness-Looseness also plays a fundamental role in the emergence of female leadership. Using data from 32 nations, Toh and Leonardelli (2012) found that socially tighter nations had a lower percentage of women in leadership roles—less than 10% in Pakistan, South Korea, and Turkey—compared to looser nations which more than 35% of female in leadership positions (e.g., officers, legislators, managers, etc). The authors surmised that this is probably due to the fact that tighter societies tend to be more resistant to shifting the idea that leaders are men; so, tend to perpetuate existing norms that facilitate men more than women. Even more interesting was the fact that a large percentage of women held leadership positions in some authoritarian nations. Particularly mentioned are Singapore with 31%, Malaysia with 23%, and Norway with 33% female leaders. The emphasis on gender equality practices seems to be the root of these discrepancies. In tight cultures, clear procedures, defined authority, and attention to norms increase the belief in gender equality and, consequently, the social and professional growth of women, promoting more women in positions of leadership. Instead, precisely because of the disorder and deconstruction of loose societies, although there was greater flexibility towards egalitarian policies, these were not associated with a higher percentage of women in power. In other words, women can emerge as leaders in both types of society, following different paths and ways.

Tightness-Looseness, Organizational Creativity and Innovativeness

Findings from prior research showed that cultural norms in organizations, and societies at large, could affect creative thinking and innovation processes (e.g., Kwan, Leung, & Liou, 2018; Martins & Martins, 2002; Sarooghi, Libaers, & Burkemper, 2015). Cultural tightness, according to Gelfand and colleagues (2006; 2011), can be a constraint on creativity because it fosters predictability and discipline, which, while they increase

efficiency, also inhibit the creativity process. Chua, Roth, and Lemoine (2015) were the first to investigate the relation between cultural tightness-looseness and organizational creativity and innovation. They hypothesized that creativity engagement and success depend on the cultural tightness of both an innovator's country and the audience's country, as well as the cultural distance between these two countries. The authors assume that for a product to be successful, in any country or context, there must be cultural alignment, i.e., the fit between the proposed solution and what the public deems appropriate or acceptable (e.g., De Dreu, 2010). They also state that the cultural tightness of the producer and consumer country, combined with the degree of cultural distance, influence both performance and creative engagement. Specifically, performance represents real efficiency in the task and therefore success, whereas engagement has to do with personal motivation and self-efficacy in attempting a creative task. The results showed that, as cultural distance increases, people with a tight cultural background feel more insecure in solving an unknown problem with which they are unfamiliar. This probably happens because, at the individual level, the attempt to solve the foreign creative task could undermine creative self-efficacy, especially when the individual is not used to reasoning and thinking outside the box. The results of the study also showed that the stronger the cultural tightness of the audience, the less likely it is that new ideas and external solutions will be accepted and shared.

Tight cultures promote convergent thinking by socializing individuals to conform to social norms and rules. Although convergent thinking is often thought as the opposite of creativity, some authors have proposed that it can also augment creativity, by facilitating the selection of creative ideas to suit a given context (e.g., Cropley, 2006). Confirming this assumption, Chua and colleagues also discovered that cultural tightness can actually foster

the success of innovation when people of a tight culture collaborate on creative projects in their own or other nations with similar cultures.

More recently, Gedik and Ozbek (2020) investigated how norm-based (i.e., cultural tightness) and value-based (i.e., team collectivism) cultural dimensions jointly impact upon team creativity through team justice climate. Using data from 532 employees distributed across 147 work teams, the authors hypothesized and found that cultural tightness affects creativity in work teams by producing reduced levels of perception of justice when collectivism is low or intermediate, but not when collectivism is high. In fact, if creativity in organizations is anchored to individual freedom and the need to think outside the box, the limiting effect of cultural tightness is more felt in groups with low levels of collectivism, because the imposition of rigorous standards of behavior joined to the use of punishments and sanctions discourage the expression of ideas and originality. In this case, the limitations imposed by tight cultures are opposed to the need for independence and lead to question the justice of the treatment received. Conversely, the impact of tightness on creativity is less pronounced when levels of collectivism are high because the focus shifts to consensus, collaboration, and the achievement of common team goals (Gedik & Ozbek, 2020).

The study by Ozeren, Ozmen and Appolloni (2013) tried to understand the relationship between the tightness-looseness construct and organizational innovation by comparing two marble industries: one in Turkey, a tight nation, and one in Italy, a loose nation (cfr. Gelfand et al., 2011). They seek to demonstrate that the organizational culture reflects the national one and affects the company's ability to innovate, in terms of product, market, process, behavioral, and strategic innovativeness. They found that tightness-looseness was positively related to process innovativeness whereas it is negatively related to behavioral innovativeness in the Turkish sample, while non-significant relationship was found between tightness-looseness and product-market innovativeness. In the Italian

sample, the tightness–looseness was positively related to all organizational innovativeness sub-dimensions. These results highlighted that cultural tightness–looseness in both samples can be influential on the sub-dimensions of organizational innovativeness. Moreover, the moderating effect of the country variable on the relationship between organizational tightness-looseness and the sub-dimensions of organizational innovativeness was one of the study’s most interesting findings. It was found that Turkey and Italy differ in how tightness-looseness affect organizational innovativeness sub-dimensions. This could be seen as a significant finding that indicates a cultural difference between the two samples. Accordingly, product-market innovativeness is likely to increase in both samples when the tightness level rises (or, to put it another way, the looseness declines), but more so in the Italian sample than the Turkish sample. It was also found that the effect of the cultural tightness–looseness dimension on behavioral innovativeness differs at a country level. Specifically, for the Turkish sample, behavioral innovativeness declines as tightness rises, whereas for the Italian sample, behavioral innovativeness rises as the level of tightness rises. That the influence of cultural tightness-looseness on behavioral inventiveness appears to be opposite for the two samples is a noteworthy finding. In this instance, it can be said that a rise in tightness for the Turkish sample is likely to have a detrimental impact on employees’ behavioral patterns, including their propensity to undertake innovative activities and openness to innovation.

Tightness-Looseness and Organizational Deviance

In tight cultures, individuals have and sustain strongly enforced norms, and it is generally clear which behaviors are acceptable and, otherwise, unacceptable. As a result, those who live in tight societies feel under pressure to follow the rules (Gelfand et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2011; Gelfand, Harrington & Jackson, 2017). Conversely, loose cultures

have fewer norms and more lenient reinforcement. Members of loose cultures interpret group norms in various ways, which allows them to display heterogeneous and contrary to norms opinions and behaviors with little fear of repercussions (Gelfand et al., 2006; Gelfand et al., 2017).

Assuming that group leaders emanate cultures based on their past cultural experiences (i.e., transferring cultural traits from previous groups to current groups), Kim and Toh (2019) revealed that levels of cultural tightness in current working groups are predicted from the past experience of group leaders with cultural tightness in previous groups in which they were followers. In two studies, one in the field and another in the laboratory, they also found that cultural tightness, implemented by group leaders based on their past cultural experience, reduces both positive and negative forms of group deviance. This relationship becomes stronger when the group leaders identified with their previous groups. In particular, in this case reference is made to negative deviance understood as the set of counterproductive behaviors that violate the rules and threaten the common good of the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), and to positive deviance which instead refers to those behaviors that violate the rules with the intention of acting in the interest of the organization (Bashshur & Oc, 2015).

Moreover, also people who desire strong norms and call for stricter penalties for those who violate them, have hostile reactions to deviant behaviors. Following this rationale, Mula and Pierro (2022) found that employees desiring their organization to be tighter showed hostile reactions to both negative (i.e., counterproductive behaviors who endangered the organization) and positive (i.e., misbehaviors in favor of the organization) workplace deviance.

Tightness-Looseness, Trust, and Negotiation Strategies

Tightness-looseness cultural dimension was found to have implications also in trust processes and negotiation strategies (Gunia, Brett, Nandkeolyar & Kamdar, 2011). The degree to which people are willing to trust varies across different national cultures (Ferrin & Gillespie, 2010; Inglehart, Basáez, & Menéndez Moreno, 1998; Johnson & Cullen, 2002). For example, Westerners (i.e., North Americans and Western Europeans) frequently assume that others may be trusted until they prove otherwise, which is known as the “swift trust” assumption (Dirks, Lewicki, & Zaheer, 2009; Meyerson, Weick, & Kramer, 1996; Weber, Malhotra, & Murnighan, 2005). Easterners (i.e., East and South Asians) tend to have lower levels of trust than Westerners (Delhey & Newton, 2005; Yamagishi & Yamagishi, 1994), but they also depend on the circumstances when deciding how much to trust someone (Branzei, Vertinsky, & Camp, 2007). Although there are basic cultural differences in trust, it is unclear whether these differences also exist in specific contexts, such as negotiations. In fact, Easterners’ sensitivity to situational context shows that general patterns may not apply in all circumstances (Branzei et al., 2007). In their study, Gunia, and colleagues (2011) thus proposed that the cultural background of negotiators from India (i.e., a tight culture) and the United States (i.e., a loose culture) would influence trust, strategies, insights, and joint gains (i.e., reaching an agreement that serves the interests of both parties) in the negotiation processes. Results from their study showed that Indian negotiators assumed less trust than American negotiators while negotiate. Moreover, the tactic required by Indian negotiators’ lack of trustworthiness, in turn, produced relatively poor outcomes (i.e., fewer insights, lower joint gains).

The results of Gunia and colleagues (2011) are explained by the fact that, in tight societies, individuals have so much faith in the rules (institutional mechanism) that in the absence of the assurance given by institutions they are unable to understand who to trust.

Therefore, while Americans, having a loose background, are more accustomed to using interpersonal trust and therefore also tend to trust more, Indians, coming from a tighter culture, in the absence of external guarantors in the negotiation process, are more suspicious.

Chapter 3

The Current Research:

Antecedents and Consequences of Desire for Tightness in Organizations

The present research aims to expand the Tightness-Looseness (Gelfand et al., 2006, 2011) body of research, focusing on the individual-level dimension of this concept, which has only recently begun to receive attention in organizational literature (e.g., Mula & Pierro, 2022). The notion of tightness-looseness has been mostly studied from a group-level perspective. Compared to group-level measures of tightness-looseness, which reflect people's shared perception of the existence of clear and well-defined norms in their society, country, and/or workplaces, individual-level measures are rather an individuals' personal view of how strict these norms *should be* in their living (or working) context and how much this context *should be* intransigent towards deviance. Even though the two notions are different, it is argued that shared tightness-looseness at the group-level and supported or desired tightness-looseness at the individual-level may be related to the same correlates (see Jackson et al., 2019). The empirical support for this viewpoint comes from recent research. For instance, perceiving a real or an imaginary threat activates both the shared perceived (group-level) (Jackson et al., 2019) and the supported and desired (individual-level) tightness (Baldner et al., 2022; Jackson et al., 2019; Mula et al., 2021; Mula et al., 2022; Stamkou et al., 2022). Moreover, tightness-looseness was also found to be associated with prejudices and negative attitudes towards marginalized groups at both group-level (Jackson et al., 2019) and individual-level (Jackson et al., 2019; Mula et al., 2022), and

with self-control and impulses controlled at both the group (Gelfand et al., 2011; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014; Mu et al., 2015) and individual-level (Mula et al., 2021).

The following five studies aim to deeply explore the role of desire for tightness within organizations. The mechanisms that can trigger the desire for tightness of both Italian and American workers and the consequences it can have on their organizational behavior were analyzed. More specifically, the roles of employees' need for cognitive closure, initiating leadership structure, self-control, work moral disengagement, and reactions to workplace deviance have been explored.

Desire for Tightness, Moral Disengagement, and Deviant Behaviors

The notion of cultural tightness implies low tolerance towards norm-violating behaviors. Clearly, it is reasonable to suppose that people who desire strong norms and call for stricter penalties for those who violate them would also have hostile reactions to deviant behaviors. Recent studies already tested this hypothesis. Baldner and colleagues (2022) showed that individuals with high desire for tightness strongly reacted to noncompliant health-protective COVID-19 behaviors. In the same vein, Mula and Pierro (2022) found that employees desiring their organization to be tighter showed hostile reactions to both negative (i.e., counterproductive behaviors that endangered the organization) and positive (i.e., misbehaviors in favor of the organization) workplace deviance. Additionally, findings from Mattila and Choi (2012) suggested that consumers faced with strict societal norms have more negative reactions to socially deviant employee behaviors compared to their counterparts in looser societies.

Within this backdrop, also moral disengagement could play a role. Moral disengagement (e.g., Bandura et al., 1996) refers to social-cognitive processes that

psychologically change improper, deviant, and antisocial behavior so that it is separated from the negative aspects (i.e., guilt) that would typically dissuade an actor from engaging in them. A recent study by Song and Wang (2021) explored the connection between perceived tightness-looseness in schools and collective moral disengagement, showing that the more the students perceived a tight culture, the less the moral disengagement occurred in their schools. Thus, we predicted the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Desire for tightness will be associated with emotional reactions towards both negative and positive workplace deviant behaviors (Study 1a, Study 1b).

Hypothesis 2: Work moral disengagement will mediate, at least partially, the relationship between desire for tightness and emotional reactions towards both negative and positive workplace deviant behaviors (Study 2).

Desire for Tightness and Self-Control

Strong social norms and intolerance for deviant behaviors are needed to maintain social order and coordination. Indeed, it is not surprising that cultural tightness has been found to be associated with higher social organization, including higher self-control and regulation. Specifically, past research by Gelfand and colleagues (Gelfand et al., 2011; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014; Mu, Kitayama, Han, & Gelfand, 2015) discovered that tightness is associated with greater self-control, whereas looseness is associated with decreased self-regulation and self-control, increased impulsivity, and reduced cautiousness. Results from Harrington and Gelfand (2014), for example, demonstrated that tighter states in the United States had higher levels of self-control (i.e., low debt levels, low drug, and alcohol abuse) compared to looser ones. These findings may be explained by the possibility that strictly regulated societal norms promote greater levels of personal restraint (i.e., self-control). As a result, those who live in rigid societies have better impulse control since they

must continually control and keep an eye on their actions to avoid being punished (Gelfand et al., 2011). Recent evidence regarding the relationship between individual-level tightness-looseness and self-control derives from Mula and colleagues (2021), which showed that people who support and desire cultural tightness in their country also have higher self-control and impulses control.

Additionally, it is well known that exercising self-control may help people adhere to social norms. According to previous studies, rule breakers generally lack self-control (Gailliot et al., 2012; Gibbs, Giever, & Martin, 1998; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Pratt & Cullen, 2000). Given their propensity to avoid deviant behaviors, it is reasonable to hypothesize that individuals with high self-control may have hostile reactions towards deviance. Thus, we predicted the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Self-control will mediate, at least partially, the relationship between desire for tightness and emotional reactions towards both negative and positive workplace deviant behaviors (Study 3).

Desire for Tightness, Need for Closure, and Initiating Structure Leadership

Need for closure (Kruglanski, 1989; Kruglanski et al., 2006) and tightness-looseness are two constructs that are potentially intertwined. People with a high need for cognitive closure i.e., people with high desire for epistemic certainty and intolerance to ambiguity (Webster & Kruglanski, 1994) generally prefer stable situations which offer them a solid foundation for secure knowledge (Kruglanski et al., 2002); accordingly, they also tend to oppose change that upsets their stable contexts (Kruglanski et al., 2007; Livi et al., 2015). People in tight cultures act in a similar way – they look for order and structure to preserve the status quo (Gelfand et al., 2006). Especially in situations of uncertainty and

instability, such that caused by the COVID-19 pandemic threat, people desire a tightening of the rules and severe punishments for failing to comply with them (Mula et al., 2021; Mula et al., 2022; Baldner et al., 2022). Therefore, the search for certainty and their intolerance to ambiguity, typical of people with high need for cognitive closure, may lead them to be more desirous of tightness.

Moreover, the relationship between need for closure and norm violations is well established. When people are high in their need for closure, they not only seem to rely most on norms (Kruglanski & Webster, 1996; Kruglanski et al., 2007), but they also have harsher emotional responses to normative violations (Pierro et al., 2004) and sustain severe punishments (i.e., torture) for rule-breakers (Giacomantonio et al., 2017).

Thus said, we hypothesize a plausible link between need for cognitive closure, desired tightness, and reactions towards organizational deviance, predicting that:

Hypothesis 4: Desire for tightness will mediate, at least partially, the relationship between need for cognitive closure and emotional reactions towards both negative and positive workplace deviant behaviors (Study 4).

As mentioned above, tightness is related to the need for clear and unambiguous norms, intolerance toward non-compliance, and need for order and structure. Taken together, these features create fertile ground for the rise of an autocratic leadership (Kruglanski et al., 2006; Pierro et al., 2005). Against this backdrop, results from Aktas and colleagues (2016) are not surprising – they found that people in tight cultures valued autocratic leaders, who are independent and largely autonomous, as more effective compared to people in loose countries. With their threatening rhetoric, in fact, autocratic leaders are likely to foster individuals' desire for tightness and their need for a strong leader (Gelfand & Lorente, 2021). People eager for tightness are constantly looking for a leader

who ensures them order and structure through strict and clear rules, which cannot be disregarded. Following this rationale, we expect that the lack of a leader who encourage adherence to rules and regulations, which makes it clear to his/her followers what needs to be done and how it needs to be done, who basically warrant structure to his/her followers, may influence individuals' desired tightness. We thus predicted the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Initiating structure leadership will moderate the mediating effect of desire for tightness on the relationship between need for cognitive closure and reactions to both negative and positive organizational deviance, such that the indirect effect of need for closure on reactions to both negative and positive organizational deviance via desired tightness will be stronger under low initiating structure leadership (Study 5).

Study 1a

In the current study, we tested the association between desire for tightness and reactions to negative and positive organizational deviance. We hypothesized that desire for tightness is positively related to both negative and positive organizational deviant behaviors, so that individuals with high levels of desired tightness should also experience high hostile reactions to organizational deviance.

Method

Participants. One hundred and forty-nine Italian workers were recruited through Prolific Academic, an online participant recruitment platform, and responded to a cross-sectional online survey. Ages ranged from 18 to 61 ($M = 31.85$, $SD = 8.87$). Most participants were men (56.4%); 1.3% reported having a primary education, 30.2% possessed a high school diploma, 30.2% had a bachelor's degree, 26.2% had a master's degree and 12.1% had a higher education (e.g., PhD). Participants also indicated their seniority ($M = 5.69$, $SD = 6.67$) and type of employment. All of them worked either in public (e.g., schools, police

departments, post-offices, etc.) or private organizations (e.g., no-profit organizations, manufacturing organizations, etc.).

Measures

Desire for Cultural Tightness. We measured desire for cultural tightness through five items adapted from Gelfand et al. (2011). Participants indicated to what extent the organization they currently work in should have loose *versus* tight characteristics (e.g., “Treating people who do not conform to the norms kindly” vs “Treating people who do not conform to the norms harshly”; “Having less rules” vs “Having more rules”). Each item was responded on a 9-point scale, with higher values reflecting high desire for tightness. The scale had acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .76$) (see Appendix A).

Reaction to Negative Organizational Deviant Behaviors. Emotional reactions to negative organizational deviance were assessed with twelve items from the Organizational Deviance subscale of the Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance Scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). Participants were asked to read a list of behaviors that can take place at work (e.g., “Taken an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at your workplace”, “Being often absent from work even when not strictly necessary”). They had to rate what would be their most likely emotional reaction if they found someone engaging in such behaviors in the workplace (from 1 = Approval to 5 = Violent fury). Reliability for this scale was satisfactory ($\alpha = .85$) (see Appendix B).

Reaction to Positive Organizational Deviant Behaviors. Employees indicated their most likely emotional reaction (from 1 = Approval to 5 = Violent fury) to positive organizational deviance (e.g., “Breaking organizational rules or policies to do the job more efficiently”, “Breaking organizational rules to provide better customer service”) through three items adapted from Dahling et al. (2012). The scale had satisfactory internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$) (see Appendix C).

Results

Bivariate correlations and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1. Consistent with our hypothesis, desire for tightness was significantly and positively correlated with reactions to both negative ($r = .29, p < .001$) and positive organizational deviance ($r = .22, p < .001$).

We further tested the hypothesized relationship between the variables under consideration in a regression analysis, controlling for covariates. Results showed that, after controlling for gender ($\beta = .08; p = .323$), age ($\beta = -.08; p = .503$), education ($\beta = -.17; p = .034$), and seniority ($\beta = .19; p = .121$), the effect of desire for tightness on reactions to negative organizational deviance remained significant ($\beta = .27; p = .001$). The effect of desired tightness on reactions to positive organizational deviance remained also significant ($\beta = .21; p = .012$) even controlling for gender ($\beta = .003; p = .972$), age ($\beta = -.05; p = .716$), education ($\beta = -.05; p = .543$), and seniority ($\beta = .16; p = .220$).

Discussion

Italian employees' desire for tightness positively correlated with their emotional reactions towards both negative and positive organizational deviant behaviors, confirming Hypothesis 1. As their desire for tightness grows, employees report feeling angry and hostile emotions towards both negative and positive deviance. These results held even when we controlled for participants' gender, age, education, and seniority.

Study 1b

In the current study, we intended to replicate the results of Study 1a with a different sample consisting of American workers.

Method

Participants. One hundred and thirty-seven American workers were recruited through Prolific Academic and responded to a cross-sectional online survey. Ages ranged from 19 to 67 ($M = 32.33$, $SD = 10.39$). The majority of participants were women (55.5%); 1.5% reported having a primary education, 27% possessed a high school diploma, 49.6% had a bachelor's degree, 19% had a master's degree and 2.9% had a higher education (e.g., PhD). Participants also indicated their seniority ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 4.41$) and type of employment.

Measures. Desire for tightness ($\alpha = .78$) and reactions to negative ($\alpha = .90$) and positive ($\alpha = .91$) organizational deviance were assessed with the same measures used in Study 1a.

Results

Bivariate correlations and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 2. Once again, consistent with our hypothesis 1, desire for tightness was significantly and positively correlated with reactions to both negative ($r = .23$, $p < .001$) and positive organizational deviance ($r = .28$, $p < .001$).

We further tested the hypothesized relationship between the variables under consideration in a regression analysis, controlling for covariates. Results showed that, after controlling for gender ($\beta = .08$; $p = .365$), age ($\beta = .17$; $p = .082$), education ($\beta = .03$; $p = .769$), and seniority ($\beta = -.17$; $p = .082$), the effect of desire for tightness on reactions to negative organizational deviance remained significant ($\beta = .27$; $p = .007$). The effect of desired tightness on reactions to positive organizational deviance remained also significant ($\beta = .27$; $p = .002$) even controlling for gender ($\beta = .06$; $p = .516$), age ($\beta = -.21$; $p = .026$), education ($\beta = -.03$; $p = .698$), and seniority ($\beta = .12$; $p = .206$).

Discussion

In Study 1b we replicated Study 1a's results showing, confirming once again Hypothesis 1, a positive correlation between American employees' desire for tightness and emotional reactions towards both negative and positive organizational deviant behaviors. As their desire for tightness grows, employees feel unfavorable emotions (i.e., anger) towards both negative and positive deviance. Results remained significant even when we controlled for participants' gender, age, education, and seniority.

Study 2

In Study 2, we tested the mediational effect of American employees' work moral disengagement on the relationship between desire for tightness and reactions to both negative and positive workplace deviant behaviors, controlling for employees' age, gender, educational level, and seniority. The proposed model was tested using the Process Macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018), applying Model 4 with 5,000 bootstrap samples. We performed two independent mediation models, one using reactions to negative organizational deviant behavior as outcome variable, the other with reactions to positive workplace deviance as outcome variable.

Method

Participants. Three hundred forty-four employees in American organizations were recruited through Prolific Academic and received monetary compensation for participating in a cross-sectional online survey. Sixty left the survey entirely blank and were excluded from the analysis, as well as students ($N = 13$), unemployed ($N = 6$), and freelancers ($N = 6$). The final sample consisted in 319 American employees. Ages ranged from 19 to 72 ($M = 32.90$, $SD = 9.36$). Most participants were men (51.4%); 2.5% reported having a primary

education, 26% possessed a high school diploma, 50.5% had a bachelor's degree, 18.8% had a master's degree and 2.2% had a higher education (e.g., PhD degree). Participants also indicated their seniority ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 4.86$) and type of employment. After giving their informed consent, participants filled the following measures. All study materials were presented in Italian.

Measures. Desire for tightness ($\alpha = .72$) and reactions to negative ($\alpha = .87$) and positive ($\alpha = .89$) organizational deviance were assessed with the same measures used in Study 1a and 1b.

Work Moral Disengagement. We used a 9-item version of the Work Moral Disengagement Scale developed by Fida et al. (2015) to assess employees' work moral disengagement. Examples of item are "An employee should not be blamed for the wrongdoing done on behalf of the organization", "It is acceptable for an employee to leave work without permission for personal interests if other employees do the same", "If the majority of colleagues do not work hard enough, there is no reason why an employee should act differently". Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale, from '1' (Completely disagree) to '5' (Completely agree). The reliability of the scale was satisfactory (Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$) (see Appendix D).

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables are presented in Table 3. As can be seen, desire for tightness was negatively and significantly related to work moral disengagement ($r = -.17$, $p = .003$) and positively and significantly to both reactions to organizational deviant behaviors ($r = .21$, $p < .001$) and the reactions to pro-social work deviance ($r = .22$, $p < .001$). Moreover, work moral disengagement was negatively and

significantly associated to reactions to organizational deviant behaviors ($r = -.31, p < .001$) and the reactions to pro-social work deviance ($r = -.21, p < .001$).

Mediation Analysis

The results of the mediation models are presented in Figure 1. The first mediation revealed a significant and negative effect of desire for tightness on work moral disengagement ($b = -.07, t = -2.45, p = .015, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.13, -.01]$) which, for its part, had a significant and negative effect on reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors ($b = -.21, t = -5.37, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.29, -.13]$). The total effect of desired tightness on reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors was significant ($b = .08, t = 3.67, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.04, .12]$), as well as the direct effect ($b = .06, t = 3.07, p = .002, 95\% \text{ CI } [.02, .11]$). More importantly, the analysis revealed a significant indirect effect of desired tightness on reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors via work moral disengagement ($b = .02, 95\% \text{ CI } [.003, .03]$), confirming our Hypothesis 2 of an at least partial mediating role of work moral disengagement on the relationship between desire for tightness and hostile reactions to organizational deviance.

The second mediation showed a significant and negative effect of work moral disengagement on reactions to positive organizational deviance ($b = -.21, t = -3.13, p = .002, 95\% \text{ CI } [-.35, -.08]$). The total effect was significant ($b = .14, t = 3.77, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.06, .21]$), as well as the direct effect ($b = .12, t = 3.35, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.05, .19]$). Notably, once again and confirming our hypothesis, we found a significant indirect effect of desire for tightness on reactions to pro-social work deviance through work moral disengagement ($b = .02, 95\% \text{ CI } [.002, .03]$).

Discussion

In Study 2 we tested our mediation hypothesis that desire for tightness may lead to hostile emotional reactions to both negative and positive organizational deviance through less work moral disengagement. Control variables (age, gender, education, seniority) were also included in the models. Results confirmed Hypothesis 2, showing that desire for tightness was associated with hostile emotional reactions to negative and positive deviance via lower work moral disengagement. With these results, we confirmed that a higher desired tightness can result in unfavorable emotions to organizational deviance, while demonstrating that also a low work moral disengagement can be a consequence of a high desire for tightness.

Study 3

In this study, we tested the mediational effect of Italian employees' self-control on the relationship between desire for tightness and reactions to workplace deviant behaviors, controlling for employees' age, gender, educational level, and seniority. The proposed model was tested using the Process Macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018), applying Model 4 with 5,000 bootstrap samples. Once again, we performed two independent mediation models, one using reactions to negative organizational deviant behavior as outcome variable, the other with reactions to positive workplace deviance as outcome variable.

Method

Participants. Three hundred thirty-six employees in Italian organizations were recruited through Prolific Academic and received monetary compensation for participating in a cross-sectional online survey. Students ($N = 9$), unemployed ($N = 4$), and freelancers ($N = 11$) were excluded from the analysis. The final sample consisted in 312 Italian employees.

Ages ranged from 18 to 66 ($M = 35.14$, $SD = 11.48$). Most participants were women (67.6%); 1.3% reported having a primary education, 30.4% possessed a high school diploma, 20.5% had a bachelor's degree, 34.3% had a master's degree and 13.5% had a higher education (e.g., PhD degree). Participants also indicated their seniority ($M = 8.55$, $SD = 9.87$) and type of employment. After giving their informed consent, participants filled the following measures. All study materials were presented in Italian.

Measures. Desire for tightness ($\alpha = .75$) and reactions to negative ($\alpha = .88$) and positive ($\alpha = .86$) organizational deviance were assessed with the same measures used in Study 2.

Self-control. We used the 13-item Brief Self-Control Scale (Tangney et al., 2004) to assess employees' self-control. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale, anchored from '1' (Not at all) to '5' (Strongly). The reliability of the Brief Self-Control Scale in this sample was satisfactory (Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$) (see Appendix E).

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables are presented in Table 4. As can be seen, desire for tightness was positively and significantly related to self-control ($r = .27$, $p < .001$) as well as to reactions to both negative ($r = .33$, $p < .001$) and positive organizational deviant behaviors ($r = .24$, $p < .001$). Moreover, self-control was positively and significantly associated to reactions to organizational deviant behaviors ($r = .28$, $p < .001$) and the reactions to positive organizational deviance ($r = .25$, $p < .001$).

Mediation Analysis

The results of the mediation models are presented in Figure 2. The first mediation revealed a significant and positive effect of desire for tightness on self-control ($b = .12$, $t = 3.93$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.06, .18]), which, in turn, had a significant and positive effect on reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors ($b = .13$, $t = 3.18$, $p = .002$, 95% CI

[.05, .21]). The total effect of desired tightness on reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors was significant ($b = .11, t = 5.09, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.07, .15]$), as well as the direct effect ($b = .09, t = 4.28, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.05, .14]$). More importantly, the analysis revealed a significant indirect effect of desired tightness on reactions to organizational deviant behaviors via self-control ($b = .02, 95\% \text{ CI } [.004, .03]$), confirming Hypothesis 3 of an at least partial mediating role of self-control on the relationship between desire for tightness and hostile reactions to organizational deviance.

The second mediation showed significant and positive effect of self-control on reactions to positive organizational deviance ($b = .27, t = 3.44, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.12, .42]$). The total effect was significant ($b = .15, t = 3.64, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.07, .23]$), as well as the direct effect ($b = .12, t = 2.86, p = .004, 95\% \text{ CI } [.04, .20]$). Notably, once again and confirming our Hypothesis 3, we found a significant indirect effect of desire for tightness on reactions to pro-social work deviance through self-control ($b = .03, 95\% \text{ CI } [.01, .06]$).

Discussion

In Study 3 we tested our mediation hypothesis that personal self-control may lead to hostile emotional reactions to both negative and positive organizational deviance in the face of a higher desired tightness. Control variables (age, gender, education, seniority) were also included in the models. Results confirmed Hypothesis 3, showing that desire for tightness was associated with hostile emotional reactions to negative and positive deviance via higher self-control. With these results, we demonstrated that both high self-control and hostile emotions towards deviance are consequences of a high desire for tightness.

Study 4

In the current study, we tested the mediational effect of Italian employees' desire for tightness on the relationship between need for cognitive closure and reactions to workplace deviant behaviors, controlling for employees' age, gender, educational level, and seniority. The proposed model was tested using the Process Macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018), applying Model 4 with 5,000 bootstrap samples. As well as for the previous studies, we performed two independent mediation models, one using reactions to negative organizational deviance as outcome variable, the other with reactions to positive one as outcome variable.

Method

Participants. Three hundred eighty-one employees in Italian organizations were recruited through Prolific Academic and received monetary compensation for participating in a cross-sectional online survey. Ages ranged from 18 to 69 ($M = 36.65$, $SD = 11.96$). Most participants were women (61.2%); 2.1% reported having a primary education, 37.3% possessed a high school diploma, 14.4% had a bachelor's degree, 29.4% had a master's degree and 16.8% had a higher education (e.g., PhD degree). Participants also indicated their seniority ($M = 9.50$, $SD = 10.46$) and type of employment. After giving their informed consent, participants filled the following measures. All study materials were presented in Italian.

Measures. Desire for tightness ($\alpha = .70$) and reactions to negative ($\alpha = .91$) and positive ($\alpha = .83$) organizational deviance were assessed with the same measures used in Study 3.

Need for Closure. Participants completed the 14-item Revised Need for Closure Scale (Rev NfCS; Pierro & Kruglanski 2005). The scale assesses stable individual differences in the need for cognitive closure (e.g., "In case of uncertainty, I prefer to make an immediate

decision, whatever it may be”). Employees responded to these items on 6-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). In the present sample, reliability of the scale was satisfactory ($\alpha = .80$) (see Appendix F).

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables are presented in Table 5. As can be noted, need for cognitive closure was positively and significantly related to desire for tightness ($r = .26, p < .001$) as well as to both reactions to negative ($r = .31, p < .001$) and positive organizational deviance ($r = .27, p < .001$). Moreover, desire for tightness was positively and significantly associated to reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors ($r = .37, p < .001$) and the reactions to positive organizational deviance ($r = .32, p < .001$).

Mediation Analysis

The results of the mediation models are presented in Figure 3. The first mediation revealed a significant and positive effect of need for cognitive closure on desire for tightness ($b = .35, t = 4.09, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.18, .52]$) which, for its part, had a significant and positive effect on reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors ($b = .12, t = 5.16, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.08, .17]$). The total effect of desired tightness on reactions to negative organizational deviant behaviors was significant ($b = .21, t = 5.07, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.13, .29]$), as well as the direct effect ($b = .17, t = 4.06, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.09, .25]$). More importantly, the analysis revealed a significant indirect effect of desired tightness on reactions to organizational deviant behaviors via work moral disengagement ($b = .04, 95\% \text{ CI } [.02, .08]$), confirming Hypothesis 4 of an at least partial mediating role of desired tightness on the relationship between need for closure and hostile reactions to negative organizational deviance.

The second mediation showed significant and negative effect of desired tightness on reactions to positive organizational deviance ($b = .19, t = 3.62, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.11, .27]$). The total effect was significant ($b = .31, t = 4.56, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.18, .45]$), as well as the direct effect ($b = .25, t = 3.62, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [.11, .38]$). Notably, once again and confirming the Hypothesis 4, we found a significant indirect effect of need for closure on hostile reactions to positive organizational deviance through desired tightness ($b = .07, 95\% \text{ CI } [.03, .12]$).

Discussion

In Study 4 we tested the mediation hypothesis that a high need for closure may lead to hostile emotional reactions to both negative and positive organizational deviance through desire for tightness. Results of the models held even controlling for employees' age, gender, education, and seniority. We confirmed Hypothesis 4, showing that need for closure was related to desire for tightness which, in turn, was associated with hostile emotional reactions to negative and positive deviance. Once again, we confirmed that hostile emotions to organizational deviance can be a consequence of desired tightness and we demonstrated that need for closure can instead be an antecedent.

Study 5

In the current study, we tested moderated mediation models in which initiating structure leadership moderates the mediational effect of desired tightness on the relationship between need for closure and reactions to negative and positive organizational deviance, controlling for employees' age, gender, and educational level. The proposed model was tested using the Process Macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2018), applying Model 7. We performed two independent moderated mediation models, one using reactions to negative

organizational deviance as outcome variable, the other with reactions to positive one as outcome variable.

Method

Participants. Three hundred and nine Italian students were recruited through Prolific and received monetary compensation for participating in the survey. Three of them failed the manipulation check and were excluded from the analyses. The total sample consists of 306 participants. Ages ranged from 18 to 32 ($M = 23.32$, $SD = 2.84$). The majority of participants were women (56.9%); 1.6% reported having a primary education, 50.7% possessed a high school diploma, 36.6% had a bachelor's degree, 9.5% had a master's degree and 1.6% had a higher education (e.g., PhD degree). After giving their informed consent, participants filled the following measures. All study materials were presented in Italian.

Measures. Need for Closure ($\alpha = .72$), desire for tightness ($\alpha = .70$) and reactions to negative ($\alpha = .77$) and positive ($\alpha = .81$) organizational deviance were assessed with the same measures used in Study 4.

Manipulation of Initiating Structure Leadership. Initiating structure leadership was manipulated based on the Initiating Structure Leadership (ISL) items from the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire LBDQ – XII (Stogdill, 1963) (e.g., “My supervisor lets group members know what is expected of them”, “He/She asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations”), which is one of the most valid and commonly used instruments to measure ISL (Judge et al., 2004). Participants were randomly assigned to the low or high initiating structure leadership condition, and they read a scenario. Both scenarios start with the same incipit “For almost 5 years, you have been employed by an important Italian company under the supervision of Andrea, your boss”. In the low

initiating structure condition (see Appendix G for the Italian version), participants read the following scenario:

During your work morning, you and your colleagues get an email from your boss. You have just delivered an important work and in the email but he does not communicate any feedback. You are not surprised by this. Your boss, in fact, does not usually express his thoughts and attitudes explicitly: he never gives you feedback on your work, nor does he give you precise indications on the task to be performed and does not inform you sufficiently on what should be done and how it should be done. Besides, you didn't have any deadlines to meet. You know well, in fact, that he has never expected that the rules and regulations in force in your organization are always respected by all of you.

In the high initiating structure condition (see Appendix H for the Italian version), participants read the following scenario:

During your work morning, you and your colleagues get an email from your boss. You have just delivered an important job and in the email and he gives you feedback. You are not surprised by this. Your boss, in fact, usually expresses his thoughts and attitudes explicitly: he always gives you feedback on how you have done your work, always gives you precise indications on the task to be performed and informs you sufficiently on what should be done and how it should be done. Furthermore, you have respected the deadline that he had imposed on you. You know well, in fact, that he expects that the rules and regulations in force in your organization are always respected by all of you.

Manipulation checks were employed to determine whether participants perceived the initiating structure leadership as intended. The manipulation was “checked” using a 3-item scale developed for this study (“Based on what you just read, your boss Andrea: “...explicitly express his thoughts and attitude to you and your colleagues”; “...decides what should be done and how it should be done”; “...asks that you and your colleagues comply with standard rules and regulations””).

Participants indicated their perceptions on 3-point Likert scales (from 1 “do not agree at all” to 3 “totally agree”). The three items demonstrated an adequate level of internal reliability in the current study ($\alpha = .93$).

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables are presented in Table 6. As expected, need for cognitive closure was positively and significantly related to desire for tightness ($r = .17, p = .003$) and positively but, surprisingly, not significantly related to reactions to negative organizational deviance ($r = .10, p = .068$) nor to reactions to positive organizational deviance ($r = .10, p = .073$). Furthermore, desire for tightness was positively and significantly associated to reactions to both negative ($r = .20, p < .001$) and positive organizational deviance ($r = .24, p < .001$).

Manipulation Check. We tested the manipulation check through a one-way ANOVA. Results from the manipulation check showed that there was a significant difference between the two experimental conditions ($F = 1989.04, p < .001$). In particular, the boss was perceived having an initiating structure leadership more in the high condition ($M = 2.81; SD = .21$) than in the low one ($M = 1.20; SD = .39$).

Moderated Mediation Analysis

As explained above, for testing our moderated mediation model, we ran two separate models. In the first model, need for closure, desired tightness, and emotional reactions to negative organizational deviance were entered as the IV, mediator, and DV, respectively, while initiating structure was entered as the moderator between need for closure and desired tightness. Gender, age, and education level were also entered as covariates. The results are displayed on Table 7 and Figure 4. Results attested a significant and positive relationship between need for closure and desired tightness ($b = .42, t = 3.41$,

$p < .001$ [95% CI .18, .66]), which was significantly moderated by initiating structure ($b = -.25, t = 2.03, p = .043$ [95% CI -.49, -.01]). Specifically, this relationship was stronger, as expected, at low (-1 SD) initiating structure ($b = .67, t = 3.49, p < .001$ [95% CI .29, 1.05]) and not significant at high (+1 SD) initiating structure ($b = .17, t = 1.14, p = .253$ [95% CI -.13, .47]). Moreover, a positive and significant relationship between desire for tightness and reactions to negative organizational deviance also existed ($b = .06, t = 3.24, p = .001$ [95% CI .02, .09]). Thus, to further investigate the hypothesis that the indirect effect of need for closure on reactions to negative organizational deviance through desire for tightness changes at different levels of initiating structure, we also checked this indirect effect for high (+1 SD) and low (-1 SD) initiating structure. As shown in Figure 5, the indirect effect of need for closure on reactions to negative organizational deviance, through desired tightness, is strong and significant when initiating structure is low ($b = .04, \text{BootSE} = .02, [95\% \text{ BootCI } .01, .08]$), and it is weaker and non-significant when initiating structure is high ($b = .01, \text{BootSE} = .01, [95\% \text{ BootCI } -.01, .03]$).

In the second model, reaction to positive organizational deviance was entered as DV. Gender, age, and education level were entered as covariates. Results revealed a positive and significant relationship between desire for tightness and reactions to positive organizational deviance ($b = .16, t = 3.91, p < .001$ [95% CI .08, .24]). Once again, results also showed that the indirect effect of need for closure on reactions to positive organizational deviance, through desired tightness, is strong and significant when initiating structure is low ($b = .11, \text{BootSE} = .04, [95\% \text{ BootCI } .04, .18]$), and it is weaker and non-significant when initiating structure is high ($b = .03, \text{BootSE} = .02, [95\% \text{ BootCI } -.02, .08]$). Even in this case, results confirmed Hypothesis 5.

Discussion

In Study 5 we confirmed the mediational role of desired tightness in the relationship between need for closure and hostile emotional reactions to positive and negative deviance. More importantly, we showed how this relationship is even stronger in conditions of low initiating structure leadership. Covariates (age, gender, education) were also included in the models. We did not find either a direct effect of need for closure on emotional reactions to deviance nor its indirect effect via desired tightness at high levels of initiating structure. These results mean that individuals with high need for closure have unfavorable feelings to both negative and positive organizational deviance only through the influence of desired tightness and only when initiating structure leadership is low.

Again, the need for closure is confirmed as an antecedent of the desire for tightness, as well as a low structural leadership, which has been shown to be able to trigger the desire for tightness.

Meta-analysis

To further examine the effect of the desired tightness on reactions towards both negative and positive organizational deviance, we conducted a meta-analysis (Table 8) across all six of our studies using the META program developed by Kenny (2003) and designed to (a) compute an effect size for each study, and (b) test them for homogeneity. As a basic measure of effect size in the meta-analysis, we used the correlation coefficients. Results of the meta-analysis show for reactions to negative organizational deviance an effect size ranging between .20 (Study 5) and .37 (Study 4), with an average effect size of .29, $p < .001$; $\chi^2(5, N = 1604) = 9.47, p = .09$. For reactions to positive organizational deviance, the effect sizes ranged between .22 (Study 3) and .32 (Study 4), with an average effect size of .26, $p < .001$; $\chi^2(5, N = 1604) = 2.69, p = .75$. These results suggest that the

effect of desire for tightness on reactions towards both negative and positive organizational deviance was homogeneous and robust across all of our six studies.

General Discussion

With these investigations, we picked up previous studies' calls for new theoretical and empirical insights about the influence of tightness-looseness in the organizational contexts. To gain a richer understanding of this aspect, we were mostly interested in discovering antecedents and consequences of the desire of tightness in organizational contexts. Specifically, we examined the impact of individual desired tightness on self-control, moral disengagement, and emotional reaction to organizational deviance, as well as the influence of need for closure and initiating structure leadership on desire for tightness. The first three studies focused the most on the consequences of such desire: reactions towards negative and positive organizational deviance (Studies 1—3), self-control (Study 2), and work moral-disengagement (Study 3). The fifth and sixth studies were mainly aimed to explore its antecedents: need for cognitive closure (Studies 4—5) and initiating structure leadership (Study 5). These studies also confirmed the role of reactions to organizational deviance as a consequence of desired tightness. A summary of the main findings follows.

In the first studies (1a, 1b) we found, among two samples from different countries (Italy *vs.* the United States) a positive correlation between employees' desire for tightness and emotional reactions towards both negative and positive organizational deviant behaviors. When their desire for tightness increases, employees have unfavorable feelings (i.e., anger) towards both negative and positive deviance.

The second and third studies showed that hungry-tightness employees reinforce their personal self-control (Study 2) and have less work moral disengagement (Study 3), and thus were more likely to feel hostile emotional reactions to negative and positive deviance.

Finally, in the fourth and fifth studies we found that individuals high in need for closure also have high desire for tightness; this, in turn, lead them to experience adverse emotion to organizational deviance (Study 4, 5) and this happens even more predominantly in the absence of initiating structure leadership (Study 5).

Overall, we deepened the tightness-looseness theory, confirming the hypothesized relationship between cultural tightness and deviance. Specifically, consistent with our hypotheses and previous studies (Baldner et al., 2022; Mula & Pierro, 2022) showing that individuals with higher desire for tightness have greater hostility to non-compliant behaviors, we found across all our five studies a strong relationship between desire for tightness and emotional reactions toward deviant behaviors. Noteworthy, we investigated negative and positive organizational deviance, which both refer to deviant behaviors acted with two different purposes – the former aims to harm the organization, whereas the latter aims to benefit the organization. This means that employees eager for tightness react, for example, with anger and contempt regardless of the motivation behind the deviant behavior.

Taken together, the results of these studies provided important links in the chain between tightness and deviance. In fact, we found that individuals with high desire for tightness react emotionally strongly to deviant behaviors, given their high self-control (Study 2) and their low moral disengagement (Study 3). Moreover, results showed that hostile reactions to both negative and positive deviance partly depend to the desired tightness of employees with a high need for cognitive closure (Study 4). We also present theoretical and empirical evidence about *when* those effects are more likely to happen. Specifically, individual with high need for closure seem more likely to feel hostile emotions to negative and positive organizational deviance through a strong desire for tightness when

they have a leader with a low initiating structure leadership style. This was not a surprising result. In fact, it is plausible supposing that the lack of a leader capable of providing order and structure to his/her followers (e.g., clear rules, clear tasks and objectives, feedback, etc.), together with a need for certainty (i.e., need for closure) can trigger in them a need for coordination that results in a desire for tightness.

Given that leaders play a pivotal role in activating (or deactivating) the desired tightness, future researchers should test the moderating role of others leadership styles in turning on (or turning off) such desire. For example, since people in tight cultures have a clear preference for autocratic and strong leaders (Aktas et al., 2016; Gelfand & Lorente, 2021), it is therefore plausible that the presence of an autocratic leader can satisfy followers' desire for tightness. However, it should be kept in mind the level of tightness-looseness of the organization in which the research is carried out. It is in fact possible that an autocratic leader in a tight organization, in which compliance with the rules and punishments for deviating are necessary for the functioning of the organization itself (e.g., police stations), may be not enough to trigger the desire for tightness. This could instead happen in the presence of a permissive or visionary leader.

Future studies should implement longitudinal designs to explore the long-term effects of employees' desired tightness-looseness in pushing their organization in a tight or loose way. In this sense, desire for tightness (or looseness) could be considered a helpful mechanism to rebalance an extremely tight (or loose) organization. In fact, an exceedingly tight (or loose) organization has its drawbacks. Even while the order and coordination resulting from tightness are critical to the productivity and efficiency of the organization, tightness falls short when it comes to encouraging creativity and innovation, which are distinctively characteristics of loose cultures. At the same time, highly loose organization

with excessive freedom and no coordination may lead to anomie and chaos. It is therefore reasonable to deduce that the employees of an excessively tight (loose) organization may feel a strong desire for looseness (tightness) which, over time, could lead to a recalibration of their organizational culture in a loose (tight) way.

Some limitations should be acknowledged. First, even though we observed the effect of initiating structure manipulation, our studies are mostly based on correlational data, so we cannot infer causal relationships between the examined variables. Thus, future research should reinforce our results with longitudinal or experimental designs. For example, employees' need for closure or desired tightness could be experimentally manipulated. From a statistical point of view, all mediators examined partially mediate the tested relationships. Except for Study 5, our findings revealed a direct effect of desired tightness (Study 2 and 3) and need for closure (Study 4) on hostile reactions to negative and positive organizational deviance. In fact, in Study 2 and 3 we found that regardless of their self-control or moral disengagement, employees with a strong desire for tightness directly disapprove both positive misbehavior and negative misbehavior. The same scenario occurs again in Study 4, where employees with high need for closure strongly react to negative and positive organizational deviance despite their need for stringent norms and strong sanctions. It is thus important to remember that responses to norm-deviating behaviors may be influenced by more than just self-control, work moral disengagement, or desired tightness. Future studies should explore other possible mediators of the explored relationships between these variables and responses to deviance. It is thus worthy to investigate the influence of desired tightness on other employee attitudes, such as organizational commitment, i.e., individuals' attachment to their organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1991), job satisfaction or turnover intentions (see also Di Santo et al., 2021). For example, given that normative commitment is argued to derive from personal norms or

perceived obligations (Meyer & Allen, 1997), it is likely to relate to a greater desire for tightness. In fact, when employees believe that clear norms of conduct are followed, they also tend to commit more, feel more connected to the organization, and have higher levels of job satisfaction (e.g., Huang & Ren, 2017).

Another limitation concerns the fact that we only examined desired tightness without considering the actual tightness or looseness of the organizational culture. Following Gelfand et al. (2006), the tightness–looseness of an organization depends on the tightness–looseness of both the national culture in which the organization is placed and on the personal level of tightness–looseness of the individuals. Following this rationale, given that our samples came from Italy and USA, both loose countries (Gelfand et al., 2011), the Italian and American organizations in which the recruited employees work may also veer toward looseness. This, in turn, might have affected employees’ desire for tightness. For example, since loose nations (Gelfand et al., 2011) and loose organizations (Di Santo et al., 2021) are known to have a higher frequency of deviant behaviors, it is possible that individuals and employees who live and work in such nations and organizations may have an enhanced desired tightness, and this may translate into hostile reactions towards misbehaviors. That said, it could be useful to explore the tested relationships also in tight nations, where individuals’ need for stronger norms and sanctions may be probably minor. Considering the multilevel nature of the tightness–looseness construct, examining the cross-level interactions between national, organizational, and individual tightness–looseness would be particularly beneficial for further research in addressing this limitation.

The present research also provides practical implications for organizations. First, because desired tightness can influence employees’ reactions to norm-violating behaviors regardless of whether the behavior is advantageous or disadvantageous, it is fundamental

for leaders to be aware of this trade-off. As emerged from our results, employees desirous of tightness tend to react with hostility even to positive deviant behaviors, which are primarily aimed at favoring the organization. In the long run, these positive deviant behaviors can bring numerous benefits to the organization, in terms of effectiveness and productivity. Therefore, hindering these behaviors would be to the detriment of the organization itself. Leaders should therefore be aware of their leadership style and how this can shape the needs, behaviors, and attitudes of their followers. Indeed, it is plausible that a certain leadership style, e.g., transformational, or charismatic, may deactivate desired tightness and this, in turn, could make employees more lenient toward positive deviant behaviors, potentially leading to benefits for the organization.

Overall, with these studies, we have provided the first results on what triggers and what is triggered by the desire for tightness, as well as under what conditions it occurs. Theoretically and empirically speaking, we advanced the field by investigating an individual-level measure (i.e., the desire for tightness) of the tightness-looseness construct. Tightness-looseness at the group-level has so far received the greatest attention, revealing details about the culture of a specific country, state, or organization (e.g., Di Santo et al., 2021; Gelfand et al., 2011; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014). An individual-level measure of tightness-looseness permits to shift the focus on the single person, shedding light on his/her needs and desires. Noteworthy, it is of fundamental importance to study and deepen the intrapersonal and interpersonal dynamics within organizations: How people approach the norms, what are their motivational principles, how they relate to others. It is in fact the attitudes, behaviors, and desires of workers that can move the organization towards well-being or, on the contrary, towards malaise. Thus said, in the organizational context, the impact of the individual-level dimension of tightness-looseness is unquestionably

deserving of attention given its significance in understanding employees' behaviors and intentions, which slowly but surely reflect on the functionality of the organization itself.

Tables and Figures

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>M(SD)</i>
1. Desire for Tightness	-							5.19 (1.19)
2. Reactions to negative organizational deviance	.29**	-						2.88 (.46)
3. Reactions to positive organizational deviance	.22**	.50**	-					2.12 (.87)
4. Age	.04	.04	.07	-				31.35 (8.87)
5. Gender	-.08	.06	-.01	-.06	-			-
6. Education	-.12	-.22*	-.09	.13	.03	-		-
7. Seniority	.07	.16	.14	.76**	.03	-.05	-	5.69 (6.68)

Note: $N = 149$.

** $p < .001$, * $p < .01$

Table 2.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>M(SD)</i>
1. Desire for Tightness	-							3.79 (1.39)
2. Reactions to negative organizational deviance	.23*	-						2.90 (.54)
3. Reactions to positive organizational deviance	.28*	.38**	-					2.36 (.81)
4. Age	.04	.12	-.14	-				32.33 (10.40)
5. Gender	.10	.11	.07	.08	-			-
6. Education	-.09	.003	-.07	.08	.07	-		-
7. Seniority	.05	-.07	.04	.43**	.11	.06	-	4.23 (4.24)

Note: $N = 137$.

** $p < .001$, * $p < .01$

Table 3.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	<i>M(SD)</i>
1. Desire for Tightness	-								5.53 (1.34)
2. Self-control	.27***	-							3.63 (.70)
3. Reactions to negative organizational deviance	.33***	.28***	-						3.03 (.53)
4. Reactions to positive organizational deviance	.24***	.25***	.45***	-					2.37 (.96)
5. Age	.26***	.27***	.26***	.14*	-				35.14 (11.48)
6. Gender	-.17**	-.06	-.16**	-.15**	-.14*	-			-
7. Education	-.17**	.01	-.03	-.01	-.13*	.12*	-		-
8. Seniority	.24**	.24***	.21***	.09	.86***	-.17**	-.24***	-	8.55 (9.87)

Note: $N = 312$.

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 4.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	<i>M(SD)</i>
1. Desire for Tightness	-								3.97 (1.21)
2. Work Moral Disengagement	-.17**	-							2.20 (.66)
3. Reactions to negative organizational deviance	.21***	-.31***	-						2.90 (.47)
4. Reactions to positive organizational deviance	.22***	-.21***	.41***	-					2.53 (.80)
5. Age	.12*	-.27***	.05	.07	-				32.90 (9.36)
6. Gender	-.03	-.01	.03	.06	-.05	-			-
7. Education	-.07	.04	-.06	-.13	-.02	.06	-		-
8. Seniority	.03	-.14*	.03	.01	.57***	.08	-.06	-	4.70 (4.86)

Note: $N = 319$.

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 5.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	<i>M(SD)</i>
1. Need for closure	-								3.53 (.76)
2. Desire for Tightness	.26**	-							5.37 (1.32)
3. Reactions to negative organizational deviance	.31***	.37***	-						3.53 (.67)
4. Reactions to positive organizational deviance	.27***	.32***	.64***	-					2.85 (1.05)
5. Age	.18**	.25***	.40***	.24***	-				36.65 (11.96)
6. Gender	.08	.12*	.18***	.14***	.22***	-			-
7. Education	-.13	.04	-.05	-.01	-.04	.19***	-		-
8. Seniority	.15**	.22*	.37***	.18***	.85***	.18***	-.06	-	9.50 (10.46)

Note: $N = 381$.

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 6.

Descriptive statistics and correlations among variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>M(SD)</i>
1. Need for closure	-							3.40 (.53)
2. Desire for Tightness	.17*	-						4.85 (1.12)
3. Reactions to negative organizational deviance	.10	.20**	-					2.94 (.37)
4. Reactions to positive organizational deviance	.10	.24**	.31**	-				1.90 (.80)
5. Age	-.004	-.07	-.05	-.08	-			23.32 (2.85)
6. Gender	-.06	-.03	-.09	.08	-.03	-		-
7. Education	-.001	-.04	-.01	-.04	.49**	.08	-	-

Note: $N = 306$.

** $p < .001$, * $p < .01$

Table 7.

Moderated mediation analysis.

	Desire for Tightness					Emotional Reactions to Negative Deviance					Emotional Reactions to Positive Deviance				
	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>p</i>	95%CI		<i>b</i>	SE	<i>p</i>	95%CI		<i>b</i>	SE	<i>p</i>	95%CI	
				LL	UL				LL	UL				LL	UL
Need for Closure	.42	.13	<.001	.18	.67	.05	.04	.235	-.03	.12	.11	.09	.221	-.06	.27
Desire for Tightness						-.06	.02	.001	.02	.09	.16	.04	<.001	.08	.24
Initiating Structure Leadership	.77	.42	.069	-.06	1.60										
Desire for Tightness x Initiating Structure Leadership	-.25	.12	.043	-.49	-.01										
Age	-.02	.03	.381	-.07	.03	-.01	.01	.436	-.03	.01	-.02	.02	.387	-.05	.02
Gender	-.06	.12	.591	-.31	.18	-.06	.04	.142	-.14	.02	.14	.09	.099	-.03	.31
Education Level	-.01	.09	.881	-.21	.18	.01	.03	.656	-.05	.08	-.01	.07	.929	-.14	.13

Table 8.

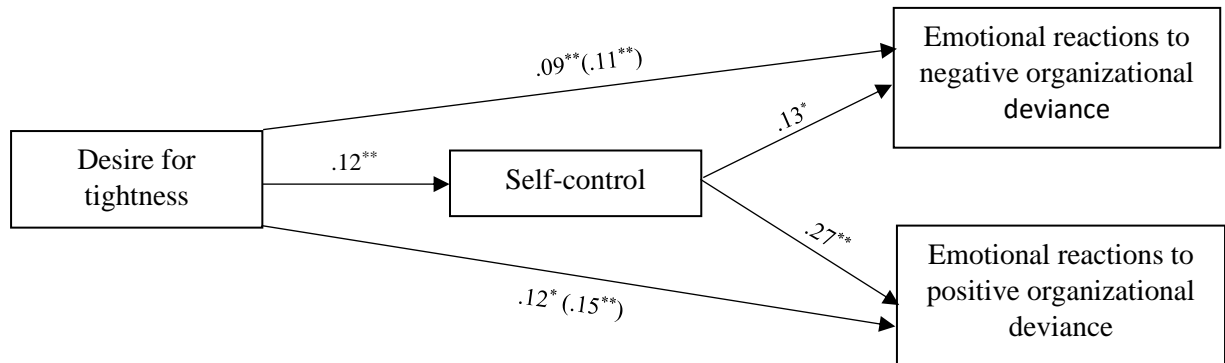
Meta-analysis.

	Desire for tightness (Study 1a, <i>N</i> = 149)	Desire for tightness (Study 1b, <i>N</i> = 137)	Desire for tightness (Study 2, <i>N</i> = 312)	Desire for tightness (Study 3, <i>N</i> = 319)	Desire for tightness (Study 4, <i>N</i> = 381)	Desire for tightness (Study 5, <i>N</i> = 306)	Average effect size (Total <i>N</i> = 1604) <i>df</i> = 5	t-test of effect size (Total <i>N</i> = 1604) <i>df</i> = 5
Reactions to negative deviant organizational behaviors	0.292**	0.229*	0.333**	0.209**	0.373**	0.202**	.29** (<i>SD</i> = .12)	5.98
Reactions to positive deviant organizational behaviors	0.223**	0.278*	0.237**	0.221**	0.318**	0.235**	.26** (<i>SD</i> = .08)	8.18

Note. ** $p < .001$, * $p < .01$

Figure 1.

Effects of desire for tightness on reactions towards negative and positive organizational deviance via self-control (Study 2).

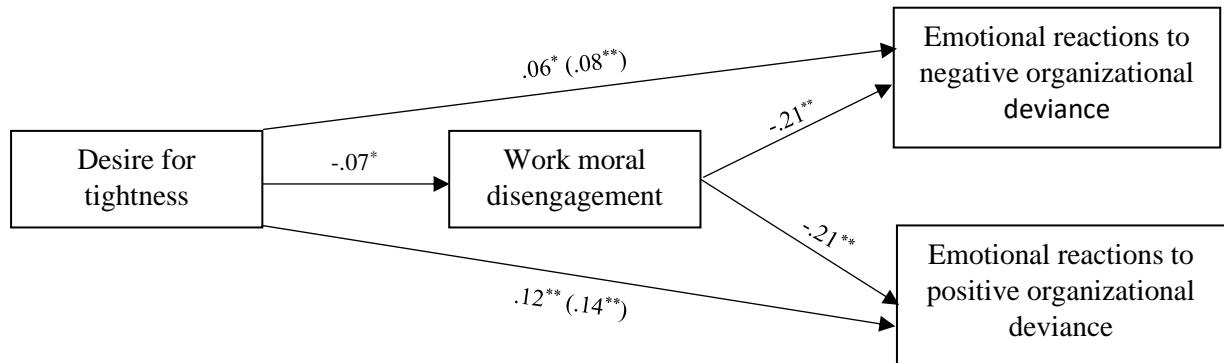


Note: $N = 312$. All coefficients are unstandardized. The total effects are inside the parentheses.

* $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .001$. Higher levels of reactions towards organizational deviance reflect higher disapproval (i.e., anger, fury).

Figure 2.

Effects of desire for tightness on reactions towards negative and positive organizational deviance via work moral disengagement (Study 3).

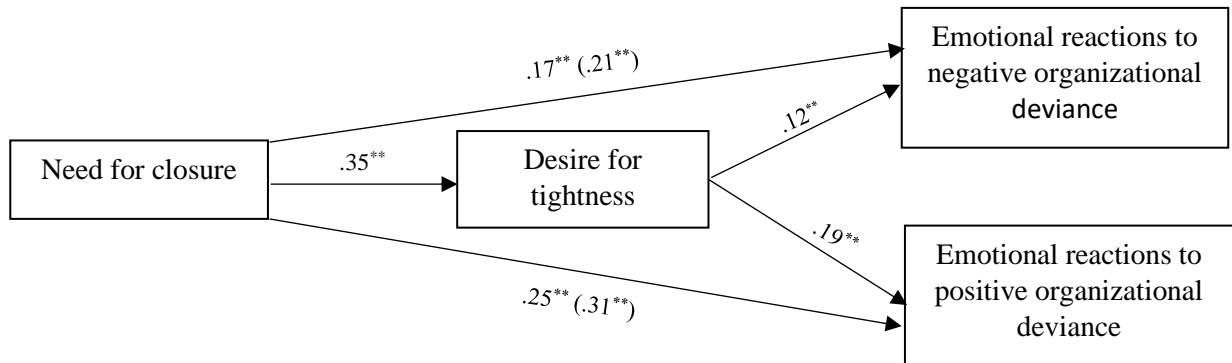


Note: $N = 319$. All coefficients are unstandardized. The total effects are inside the parentheses.

* $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .001$. Higher levels of reactions towards organizational deviance reflect higher disapproval (i.e., anger, fury).

Figure 3.

Effects of need for closure on reactions towards negative and positive organizational deviance via desire for tightness (Study 4).

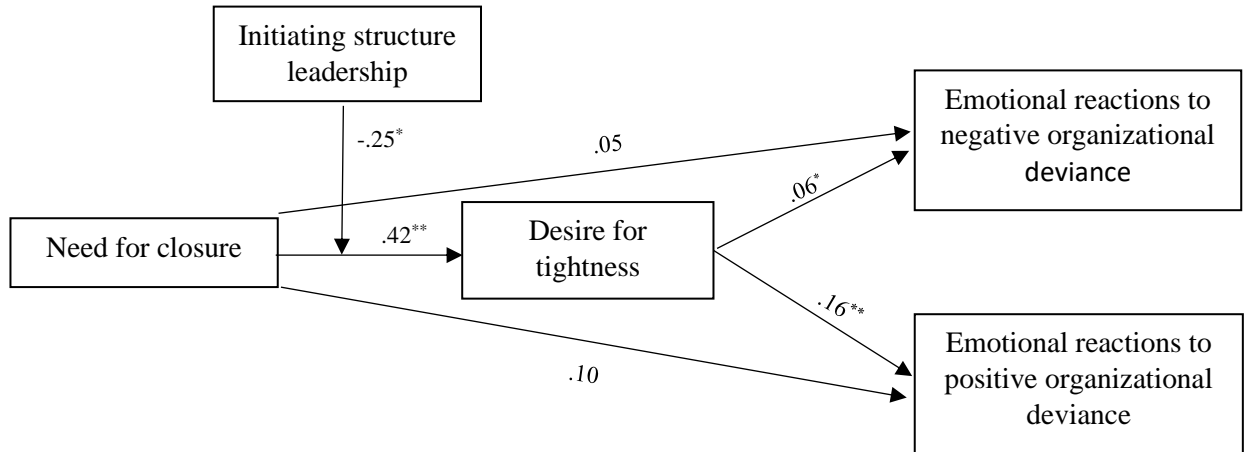


Note: $N = 381$. All coefficients are unstandardized. The total effects are inside the parentheses.

* $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .001$. Higher levels of reactions towards organizational deviance reflect higher disapproval (i.e., anger, fury).

Figure 4.

Moderated mediation effects (Study 5).

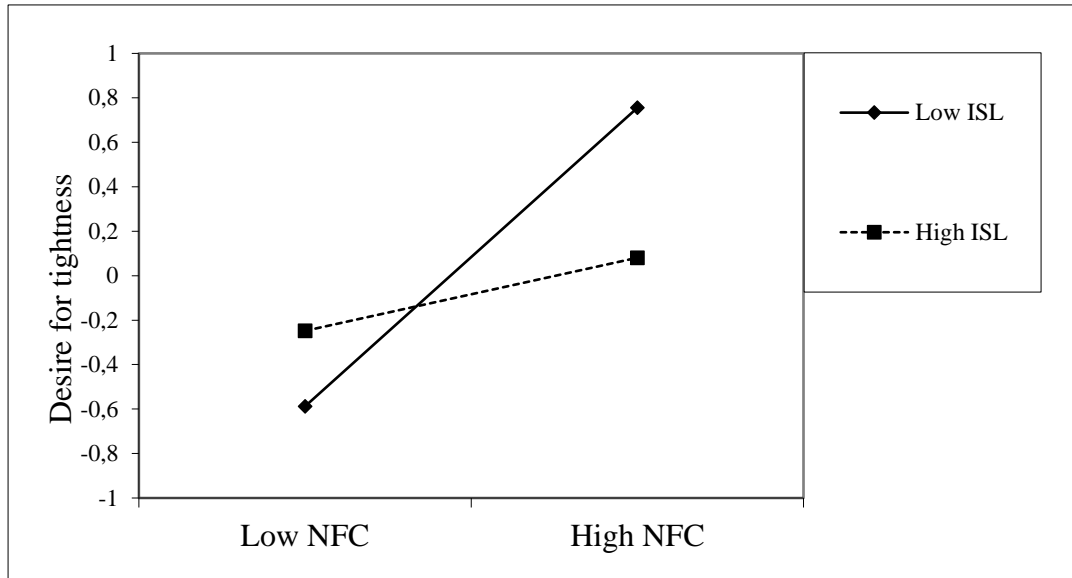


Note: $N = 306$. All coefficients are unstandardized.

* $p \leq .01$ ** $p \leq .001$. Higher levels of reactions towards organizational deviance reflect higher disapproval (i.e., anger, fury).

Figure 5.

Interaction effect of need for closure and initiating structure leadership on desired tightness (Study 5).



Note. NFC = Need for Closure, ISL = Initiating Structure Leadership

Appendix A

Desire For Tightness Scale (ITA) (Study 1a, 2, 4, 5)

In che misura pensa che l'organizzazione in cui lavora attualmente debba avere le seguenti caratteristiche?

Avere norme sociali flessibili	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Avere norme sociali rigide
Trattare benevolmente le persone che non si conformano alle norme	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Trattare duramente le persone che non si conformano alle norme
Avere meno regole	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Avere più regole
Essere permissiva	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Essere restrittiva
Essere tollerante verso chi viola le norme	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Essere intransigente verso chi viola le norme

Desire For Tightness (ENG) (Study 1b, 3)

Below you will find statements that refer to the Organization in which you currently work. NOTE that some of them refer to "Social Norms", which represent generally unwritten rules of conduct.

To what extent do you think the organization in which you currently work should have the following characteristics?

Having flexible social norms	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Having rigid social norms
Treating people who do not conform to the norms kindly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Treating people who do not conform to the norms harshly
Having less rules	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Having more rules
Being permissive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Being restrictive
Being tolerant of those who violate the rules	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Being intransigent with those who violate the rules

Appendix B

Emotional Reactions to Negative Organizational Deviant Behaviors (ITA) (Study 1a, 2, 4, 5)

(Bennett & Robinson, 2000)

Qui di seguito troverà una serie di comportamenti che potrebbero verificarsi sul lavoro. Vorremo che Lei indicasse quale sarebbe la sua reazione emotiva più probabile se scoprisse che qualcuno/a mette in atto tali comportamenti all'interno dell'organizzazione per cui lavora.

1	2	3	4	5
Approvazione	Indifferenza	Contrarietà	Rabbia	Ira Violenta

	Reazione emotiva				
Sottrarre dei beni dal posto di lavoro senza permesso	1	2	3	4	5
Dedicarsi a cose personali nell'orario di lavoro	1	2	3	4	5
Falsificare una ricevuta per ottenere un rimborso di entità superiore rispetto a quanto effettivamente speso	1	2	3	4	5
Fare più pause o una pausa più lunga di quanto sia consentito dall'organizzazione	1	2	3	4	5
Arrivare in ritardo al lavoro senza permesso	1	2	3	4	5
Trascurare di seguire le istruzioni dei superiori	1	2	3	4	5
Lavorare più lentamente del necessario	1	2	3	4	5
Discutere informazioni confidenziali dell'organizzazione con persone non autorizzate	1	2	3	4	5
Dedicare pochi sforzi al lavoro	1	2	3	4	5
Soffermarsi sul lavoro anche quando non necessario per ottenere lo straordinario	1	2	3	4	5
Andare via prima dal lavoro senza permesso	1	2	3	4	5
Assentarsi spesso dal lavoro anche quando non strettamente necessario	1	2	3	4	5
Falsificare il cartellino per risultare presente sul lavoro quando invece si è assente	1	2	3	4	5
Perdere tempo sul lavoro	1	2	3	4	5

Emotional Reactions to Negative Organizational Deviant Behaviors (ENG) (Study 1b, 3)

(Bennett & Robinson, 2000)

Below you will find a number of behaviors that could occur at work.

If you find someone engaging in such behaviors in your workplace, what would be your most likely emotional reaction?

1 Approval	2 Indifference	3 Opposition	4 Anger	5 Violent fury
---------------	-------------------	-----------------	------------	-------------------

	Emotional Reaction
Taken property from work without permission	1 2 3 4 5
Worked on a personal matter instead of work for your employer	1 2 3 4 5
Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses	1 2 3 4 5
Taken an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at your workplace	1 2 3 4 5
Come in late to work without permission	1 2 3 4 5
Neglected to follow your boss's instructions	1 2 3 4 5
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked	1 2 3 4 5
Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person	1 2 3 4 5
Put little effort into your work	1 2 3 4 5
Dragged out work in order to get overtime	1 2 3 4 5
Left work early without permission	1 2 3 4 5
Being often absent from work even when not strictly necessary	1 2 3 4 5
Wasting time at work	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix C

Emotional Reactions to Positive Organizational Deviant Behaviors (ITA) (Study 1a, 2, 4, 5) (Dahling et al., 2012)

Qui di seguito troverà una serie di comportamenti che potrebbero verificarsi sul lavoro.

Vorremo che Lei indicasse quale sarebbe la sua reazione emotiva più probabile se scoprisse che qualcuno mette in atto tali comportamenti all'interno dell'organizzazione per cui lavora.

1	2	3	4	5
Approvazione	Indifferenza	Contrarietà	Rabbia	Ira Violenta

	Reazione emotiva				
Infrangere le regole o le politiche organizzative per svolgere il proprio lavoro in modo più efficiente.	1	2	3	4	5
Disobbedire alle politiche organizzative per aiutare altri/e dipendenti che hanno bisogno di aiuto.	1	2	3	4	5
Infrangere le regole organizzative per fornire un servizio migliore alla clientela.	1	2	3	4	5

**Emotional Reactions to Positive Organizational Deviant Behaviors (ENG) (Study 1b,
3)
(Dahling et al., 2012)**

Below you will find a number of behaviors that could occur at work.

If you find someone engaging in such behaviors in your workplace, what would be your most likely emotional reaction?

1 Approval	2 Indifference	3 Opposition	4 Anger	5 Violent fury
---------------	-------------------	-----------------	------------	-------------------

	Emotional Reaction
Breaking organizational rules or policies to do the job more efficiently	1 2 3 4 5
Breaking organizational rules if coworkers need help with their duties	1 2 3 4 5
Breaking organizational rules to provide better customer service	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix D

Work Moral Disengagement Scale (Study 3) (ENG) (a short version from Fida et al., 2015)

Read the following statements and indicate how much you agree with each according to your beliefs and experiences.

1 = Completely disagree 5 = Completely agree

It is acceptable for an employee to leave work without permission for personal interests if other employees do the same.	1 2 3 4 5
Being absent from work frequently is acceptable, giving that many people at work are not productive anyway.	1 2 3 4 5
It is all right to be absent from work due to illness, when the employee uses this as a way to cope with his/her hostile work environment.	1 2 3 4 5
Doing less work when you are at your job is not that bad since many employees do not work at all.	1 2 3 4 5
An employee should not be blamed for the wrongdoing done on behalf of the organization.	1 2 3 4 5
It is not a big deal to be absent from work since everyone does it.	1 2 3 4 5
If the majority of colleagues do not work hard enough, there is no reason why an employee should act differently.	1 2 3 4 5
Using organizational resources for inappropriate purposes is not shameful since managers embezzle stakeholders' money.	1 2 3 4 5
It's not a big deal if you get behind in your work since everyone does it.	1 2 3 4 5

Work Moral Disengagement Scale (Study 3) (ITA) (a short version from Fida et al., 2015)

Legga le seguenti affermazioni e indichi il Suo grado d'accordo con ciascuna di esse in base alle sue credenze ed esperienze.

1 = Completamente in disaccordo 5 = Completamente d'accordo.

Un dipendente che si fa timbrare il cartellino da un collega per uscire a sbrigare necessità personali non è da biasimare, se anche tutti i suoi colleghi lo fanno.	1 2 3 4 5
Assentarsi spesso dal posto di lavoro non è poi così grave, dal momento che molta gente viene al lavoro e poi non combina nulla.	1 2 3 4 5
È giusto che un lavoratore si assenti per malattia, se questo è il modo per allontanarsi da un ambiente di lavoro ostile.	1 2 3 4 5
Impegnarsi meno degli altri sul lavoro non è poi così grave, se si pensa a tutti i dipendenti che non si impegnano affatto.	1 2 3 4 5
Un dipendente non deve essere biasimato se fa qualcosa di sbagliato per conto della sua azienda.	1 2 3 4 5
Non bisogna farsi troppi problemi ad assentarsi dal lavoro quando se ne ha bisogno, perché tanto lo fanno tutti.	1 2 3 4 5
Se la maggioranza dei colleghi si impegna poco non c'è motivo perché un dipendente si comporti diversamente.	1 2 3 4 5
Usufruire impropriamente delle risorse messe a disposizione dall'azienda non è poi così grave, visto che ci sono dirigenti che si appropriano indebitamente dei capitali degli azionisti.	1 2 3 4 5
Non è grave restare indietro con il proprio lavoro dal momento che lo fanno tutti.	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix E

Self-Control Scale (Study 2) (ENG) (Tangney et al., 2004)

Using the scale provided, please indicate how much each of the following statements reflects how you typically are.

1 = Not at all 5 = Very much.

I am good at resisting temptation.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a hard time breaking bad habits.	1	2	3	4	5
I am lazy.	1	2	3	4	5
I say inappropriate things.	1	2	3	4	5
I do certain things that are bad for me if they are fun	1	2	3	4	5
I refuse things that are bad for me.	1	2	3	4	5
I wish I had more self-discipline.	1	2	3	4	5
People would say that I have iron self- discipline.	1	2	3	4	5
Pleasure and fun sometimes keep me from getting work done.	1	2	3	4	5
I have trouble concentrating.	1	2	3	4	5
I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals.	1	2	3	4	5
Sometimes I can' t stop myself from doing something, even if I know it is wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
I often act without thinking through all the alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5

Self-Control Scale (Study 2) (ITA) (Tangney et al., 2004)

Utilizzando la scala fornita, La preghiamo di indicare quanto ciascuna delle seguenti affermazioni riflette come Lei è tipicamente. Tenga conto che 1= Per niente e 5=Fortemente

Sono bravo/a nel resistere alla tentazione.	1 2 3 4 5
Ho difficoltà a interrompere le cattive abitudini.	1 2 3 4 5
Sono pigro/a.	1 2 3 4 5
Dico cose inappropriate.	1 2 3 4 5
Faccio alcune cose che mi fanno male, se sono divertenti.	1 2 3 4 5
Rifiuto cose che mi fanno male.	1 2 3 4 5
Vorrei avere una maggiore auto-disciplina.	1 2 3 4 5
Le persone direbbero di me che ho una ferrea autodisciplina.	1 2 3 4 5
Svago e divertimento a volte mi impediscono di portare a termine il lavoro.	1 2 3 4 5
Ho difficoltà a concentrarmi.	1 2 3 4 5
Sono in grado di lavorare efficacemente verso obiettivi a lungo termine.	1 2 3 4 5
A volte non riesco a impedirmi di fare qualcosa, anche se so che è sbagliato.	1 2 3 4 5
Spesso agisco senza pensare a tutte le alternative.	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix F

Revised Need for Closure Scale (Study 4, 5) (ENG) (Pierro & Krunglanski, 2005)

Read each of the following statements and decide how much you agree with each according to your beliefs and experiences. Please respond according to the following scale.

1 = Strongly disagree 6 = Strongly agree.

In cases of uncertainty, I prefer to make an immediate decision, whatever it may be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I find myself facing various, potentially valid alternatives, I decide in favor of one of them quickly and without hesitation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I prefer to decide on the first available solution rather than to ponder at length what decision I should make.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I get very upset when things around me are not in their place.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Generally, I avoid participating in discussions on ambiguous and controversial problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I need to confront a problem, I do not think about it too much and I decide without hesitation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
When I need to solve a problem, I generally do not waste time in considering diverse points of view about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I prefer to be with people who have the same ideas and tastes as myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Generally, I do not search for alternative solutions to problems for which I already have a solution available.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel uncomfortable when I do not manage to give a quick response to problems that I face.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any solution to a problem is better than remaining in a state of uncertainty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I prefer activities where it is always clear what is to be done and how it need to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6
After having found a solution to a problem I believe that it is useless waste of time to consider diverse possible solutions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
I prefer things to which I am used to those I do not know, and cannot predict.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Revised Need for Closure Scale (Study 4, 5) (ITA) (Pierro & Krunglanski, 2005)

Per favore legga le affermazioni che seguono e indichi in che misura è d'accordo con ciascuna di esse sulla base dei Suoi atteggiamenti, le Sue opinioni e le Sue esperienze. La preghiamo di rispondere seguendo la scala che segue, segnando un solo numero per ciascuna affermazione.

1 = Completamente in disaccordo, 6 = Completamente d'accordo

In caso di incertezza, preferisco arrivare ad una decisione immediata, qualunque essa sia.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quando mi trovo di fronte a diverse alternative tutte potenzialmente valide, decido rapidamente e senza esitazioni per una di esse.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Preferisco decidere per la prima soluzione disponibile piuttosto che riflettere a lungo sulla decisione da prendere.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sono molto contrariato/a quando le cose intorno a me non sono al loro posto.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Generalmente, evito di partecipare a discussioni su problemi ambigui e controversi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quando devo affrontare un problema, non ci penso troppo sopra e decido senza esitare.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Quando devo risolvere un problema, in genere non perdo tempo a considerare i diversi punti di vista su esso.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Preferisco stare con persone che abbiano le mie stesse idee ed i miei stessi gusti.	1	2	3	4	5	6
In genere, non vado in cerca di soluzioni alternative a problemi per i quali ho già una soluzione disponibile.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mi sento a disagio quando non riesco a dare una risposta rapida ai problemi che mi si presentano.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Qualsiasi soluzione ad un problema è meglio che rimanere in uno stato di incertezza.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Preferisco quelle attività dove è sempre chiaro ciò che va fatto e come deve essere fatto.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Dopo aver trovato una soluzione per un problema credo sia un'inutile perdita di tempo prendere in considerazione possibili diverse soluzioni ad esso.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Preferisco le cose a cui sono abituato a ciò che non conosco e che non posso prevedere.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix G

Low Initiating Structure Leadership Manipulation

Da ormai quasi 5 anni sei dipendente di un'importante azienda italiana, sotto la supervisione di Andrea, il tuo capo. Durante la mattina di lavoro, tu e il tuo gruppo di colleghi/e ricevete una mail da parte del vostro capo. Avete appena consegnato un importante lavoro e nella mail non vi comunica nessuna sua impressione sul lavoro svolto. Di ciò non ne siete sorpresi/e. Il vostro capo, infatti, non è solito manifestarvi esplicitamente i suoi pensieri e atteggiamenti: non vi dà mai dei feedback sul vostro lavoro, né vi fornisce delle indicazioni ben precise sul compito da eseguire e non vi informa a sufficienza su cosa dovrebbe essere fatto e su come dovrebbe essere fatto. Inoltre, non avevate nessuna scadenza da rispettare. Sapete bene, infatti, che lui non ha mai preteso che le norme e i regolamenti vigenti nella vostra organizzazione vengano sempre rispettati da tutti voi.

Appendix H

High Initiating Structure Leadership Manipulation

Da ormai quasi 5 anni sei dipendente di un'importante azienda italiana, sotto la supervisione di Andrea, il tuo capo. Durante la mattina di lavoro, tu e il tuo gruppo di colleghi/e ricevete una mail da parte del vostro capo. Avete appena consegnato un importante lavoro e nella mail vi comunica le sue impressioni sul lavoro svolto. Di ciò non ne siete sorpresi/e. Il vostro capo, infatti, è solito manifestarvi esplicitamente i suoi pensieri e atteggiamenti: vi dà sempre dei feedback su come avete eseguito il vostro lavoro, vi dà sempre delle indicazioni ben precise sul compito da eseguire e vi informa a sufficienza su cosa dovrebbe essere fatto e su come dovrebbe essere fatto. Inoltre, avete rispettato la scadenza che vi aveva imposto. Sapete bene, infatti, che lui pretende che le norme e i regolamenti vigenti nella vostra organizzazione vengano sempre rispettati da tutti voi.

References

- Aktas, M., Gelfand, M. J., & Hanges, P. J. (2016). Cultural tightness–looseness and perceptions of effective leadership. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *47*(2), 294-309, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022115606802>
- Aoki, M. (1988). *Information, incentives, and bargaining in the Japanese economy*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Arun, K., Şen, C., & Okun, O. (2020). How does leadership effectiveness related to the context? Paternalistic leadership on non-financial performance within a cultural tightness-looseness model?. *JEEMS Journal of East European Management Studies*, *25*(3), 503-529. <https://doi.org/10.5771/0949-6181-2020-3-503>
- Bach, P., Gunter, T. C., Knoblich, G., Prinz, W., & Friederici, A. D. (2009). N400-like negativities in action perception reflect the activation of two components of an action representation. *Social Neuroscience*, *4*(3), 212-232. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17470910802362546>
- Baldner, C., Di Santo, D., Viola, M., & Pierro, A. (2022). Perceived COVID-19 threat and reactions to noncompliant health-protective behaviors: the mediating role of desired cultural tightness and the moderating role of age. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*(4), 2364, <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19042364>
- Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Mechanisms of moral disengagement in the exercise of moral agency. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *71*(2), 364, <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.71.2.364>

- Barnouw, V. (1950). *Acculturation and personality among the Wisconsin Chippewa*. *American Anthropologist*, 52(4).
- Barry, H. III, Child, I. L., & Bacon, M. K. (1959). Relation of child training to subsistence economy. *American Anthropologist*, 61(1), 51-63.
- Bashshur, M. R., & Oc, B. (2015). When voice matters: A multilevel review of the impact of voice in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 41(5), 1530-1554. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314558302>
- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational dynamics*, 18(3), 19-31. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(90\)90061-S](https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(90)90061-S)
- Benedict, R. (1934). *Patterns of culture*. New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 85(3), 349. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.85.3.349>
- Berry, J. W. (1967). Independence and conformity in subsistence-level societies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 7(4), 415-418. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0025231>
- Berson, Y., Oreg, S., & Dvir, T. (2008). CEO values, organizational culture, and firm outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, 29(5), 615-633. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.499>
- Boldt, E. D. (1978). Structural tightness and cross-cultural research. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 9(2), 151-165. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/002202217892003>

- Boldt, E. D., & Roberts, L. W. (1979). Structural tightness and social conformity: A methodological note with theoretical implications. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 10(2), 221-230. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022022179102008>
- Branzei, O., Vertinsky, I., & Camp, R. D. (2007). Culture-contingent signs of trust in emergent relationships. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 104(1), 61-82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2006.11.002>
- Carpenter, S. (2000). Effects of cultural tightness and collectivism on self-concept and causal attributions. *Cross-Cultural Research*, 34(1), 38-56. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/106939710003400103>
- Chan, D. K.-S., Gelfand, M. J., Triandis, H. C., & Tzeng, O. (1996). Tightness-looseness revisited: Some preliminary analyses in Japan and the United States. *International Journal of Psychology*, 31(1), 1-12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/002075996401179>
- Chua, R. Y., Roth, Y., & Lemoine, J. F. (2015). The impact of culture on creativity: How cultural tightness and cultural distance affect global innovation crowdsourcing work. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 60(2), 189-227, <https://doi.org/10.1177/0001839214563595>
- Cropley, A. (2006). In praise of convergent thinking. *Creativity research journal*, 18(3), 391-404. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326934crj1803_13
- Crossland, C., & Hambrick, D. C. (2011). Differences in managerial discretion across countries: how nation-level institutions affect the degree to which CEOs matter. *Strategic Management Journal*, 32(8), 797-819, <https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.913>

- Dahling, J. J., Chau, S. L., Mayer, D. M., & Gregory, J. B. (2012). Breaking rules for the right reasons? An investigation of pro-social rule breaking. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(1), 21-42, <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.730>
- De Dreu, C. K. (2010). Human creativity: Reflections on the role of culture. *Management and Organization Review*, 6(3), 437-446. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1740-8784.2010.00195.x>
- Delhey, J., & Newton, K. (2005). Predicting cross-national levels of social trust: Global pattern or Nordic exceptionalism? *European Sociological Review*, 21(4), 311-327. <https://doi.org/10.1093/esr/jci022>
- Di Santo, D., Talamo, A., Bonaiuto, F., Cabras, C., & Pierro, A. (2021). A Multilevel Analysis of the Impact of Unit Tightness vs. Looseness Culture on Attitudes and Behaviors in the Workplace. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.652068>
- Dirks, K. T., Lewicki, R. J., & Zaheer, A. (2009). Repairing relationships within and between organizations: Building a conceptual foundation. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(1), 68-84. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2009.35713285>
- Embree, J. F. (1950). Thailand – a loosely structured social system. *American Anthropologist*, 52(2), 181-193. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1525/aa.1950.52.2.02a00030>
- Eun, C. S., Wang, L., & Xiao, S. C. (2015). Culture and R2. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 115(2), 283-303. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfineco.2014.09.003>
- Ferrin, D. L., & Gillespie, N. (2010). Trust differences across national-societal cultures: Much to do, or much ado about nothing? In M. Saunders, D. Skinner, G. Dietz, N.

Gillespie & R. J. Lewicki (Eds.), *Trust Across Cultures: Theory and Practice*.
Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Fida, R., Paciello, M., Tramontano, C., Fontaine, R. G., Barbaranelli, C., & Farnese, M. L. (2015). An integrative approach to understanding counterproductive work behavior: The roles of stressors, negative emotions, and moral disengagement. *Journal of business ethics*, 130(1), 131-144, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2209-5>

Gailliot, M. T., Gitter, S. A., Baker, M. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (2012). Breaking the Rules: Low Trait or State Self-Control Increases Social Norm Violations. *Psychology*, 03(12), 1074 – 1083. <https://doi.org/10.4236/psych.2012.312159>

Gedik, Y., & Ozbek, M. F. (2020). How cultural tightness relates to creativity in work teams: Exploring the moderating and mediating mechanisms. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 29(4), 634-647, <https://doi.org/10.1111/caim.12409>

Gelfand, M. (2018). *Rule makers, rule breakers: Tight and loose cultures and the secret signals that direct our lives*. Scribner.

Gelfand, M. J., & Lorente, R. (2021). Threat, tightness, and the evolutionary appeal of populist leaders. In *The Psychology of Populism* (pp. 276-294). Routledge.

Gelfand, M. J., Harrington, J., & Jackson, J. C. (2017). The Strength of Social Norms Across Human Groups: Insights from Cultural Psychology. *Perspectives in Psychological Science*, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691617708631>

Gelfand, M. J., Leslie, L. M., Keller, K., & de Dreu, C. (2012). Conflict cultures in organizations: How leaders shape conflict cultures and their organizational-level

- consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(6), 1131.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029993>
- Gelfand, M. J., Nishii, L. H., & Raver, J. L. (2006). On the nature and importance of cultural tightness-looseness. *Journal of applied psychology*, 91(6), 1225,
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.91.6.1225>
- Gelfand, M. J., Raver, J. L., Nishii, L., Leslie, L. M., Lun, J., Lim, B. C., ... & Yamaguchi, S. (2011). Differences between tight and loose cultures: A 33-nation study. *science*, 332(6033), 1100-1104, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1197754>
- Giacomantonio, M., Pierro, A., Baldner, C., & Kruglanski, A. (2017). Need for closure, torture, and punishment motivations: The mediating role of moral foundations. *Social Psychology*, 48(6), 335, <https://doi.org/10.1027/1864-9335/a000321>
- Gibbs, J. J., Giever, D., & Martin, J. S. (1998). Parental management and self-control: An empirical test of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory. *Journal of research in crime and delinquency*, 35(1), 40-70,
<https://doi.org/10.1177/002242789803500100>
- Giberson, T. R., Resick, C. J., & Dickson, M. W. (2005). Embedding Leader Characteristics: An Examination of Homogeneity of Personality and Values in Organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(5), 1002-1010.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.1002>
- Gottfredson, M. R., & Hirschi, T. (2022). A general theory of crime. In *A General Theory of Crime*. Stanford University Press.

- Gunia, B. C., Brett, J. M., Nandkeolyar, A. K., & Kamdar, D. (2011). Paying a price: Culture, trust, and negotiation consequences. *Journal of applied psychology*, 96(4), 774. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021986>
- Gunter, T. C., & Bach, P. (2004). Communicating hands: ERPs elicited by meaningful symbolic hand postures. *Neuroscience Letters*, 372(1), 52-56. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neulet.2004.09.011>
- Hanges, P. J., & Dickson, M. W. (2004). The development and validation of the GLOBE culture and leadership scales. *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of*, 62, 122-151.
- Harrington, J. R., & Gelfand, M. J. (2014). Tightness–looseness across the 50 united states. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(22), 7990-7995, <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1317937111>
- Harrington, J. R., Boski, P., & Gelfand, M. J. (2015). Culture and national well-being: Should societies emphasize freedom or constraint? *PloS One*, 10(6). <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0127173>
- Hayes, A. F. (2018). Introduction to Mediation, Moderation, and Conditional Process Analysis Second Edition: A Regression-based Approach. New York, NY: Ebook The Guilford Press. Google Scholar.
- Henry, K. B., Arrow, H., & Carini, B. (1999). A tripartite model of group identification: Theory and measurement. *Small group research*, 30(5), 558-581. <https://doi.org/10.1177/104649649903000504>
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture's consequences. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis?. *Journal of management*, 23(3), 409-473. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(97\)90037-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(97)90037-4)
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Sage publications.
- Huang, B., & Ren, X. (2017, December). The effect of tightness-looseness on well-being: Residential mobility as a moderator. In *2017 IEEE International Conference on Industrial Engineering and Engineering Management (IEEM)* (pp. 2189-2193). IEEE; December 10–13, 2017; Singapore; 2189–2193
- Hunt, J. G., Boal, K. B., & Sorenson, R. L. (1990). Top management leadership: Inside the black box. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 41-65. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(90\)90014-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(90)90014-9)
- Inglehart, R., Basáñez, M., & Menéndez Moreno, A. (1998). *Human Values and Beliefs: A Cross-cultural Sourcebook: Political, Religious, Sexual, and Economic Norms in 43 Societies; Findings from the 1990-1993 World Values Survey*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Jackson, J. C., Gelfand, M., & Ember, C. R. (2020). A global analysis of cultural tightness in non-industrial societies. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B*, 287(1930), 20201036. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2020.1036>
- Jackson, J. C., Gelfand, M., De, S., & Fox, A. (2019). The loosening of American culture over 200 years is associated with a creativity–order trade-off. *Nature human behaviour*, 3(3), 244-250. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/s41562-018-0516-z>

- Jackson, J. C., Van Egmond, M., Choi, V. K., Ember, C. R., Halberstadt, J., Balanovic, J., ... & Gelfand, M. J. (2019). Ecological and cultural factors underlying the global distribution of prejudice. *PLoS one*, *14*(9), e0221953, <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0221953>
- John, O. P., Naumann, L. P., & Soto, C. J. (2008). Paradigm shift to the integrative BigFive trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and conceptual issues. In O. P. John, R. W. Robins, & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research* (pp. 114-158). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Johnson, J. L., & Cullen, J. B. (2002). Trust in cross-cultural relationships. In M. J. Gannon & K. Newman (Eds.), *The Blackwell Handbook of Cross-Cultural Management*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of applied psychology*, *89*(1), 36, <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.1.36>
- Kenny, D. A. (2003). *Meta-Analysis: Easy to Answer (Version III)*. Storrs, CT: University of Connecticut.
- Kim, Y. J., & Toh, S. M. (2019). Stuck in the past? The influence of a leader's past cultural experience on group culture and positive and negative group deviance. *Academy of Management Journal*, *62*(3), 944-969, <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2016.1322>
- Kluckhohn, F., & Strodtbeck, F. (1961). Variation in value orientation. *Evanson, IL: Row and Peterson*.
- Kruglanski, A. W. (1989). Lay epistemics and human knowledge: Cognitive and motivational bases. New York: Plenum.

- Kruglanski, A. W., Pierro, A., Higgins, E. T., & Capozza, D. (2007). “On the Move” or “Staying Put”: Locomotion, need for closure, and reactions to organizational change. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 37(6), 1305-1340, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2007.00214.x>
- Kruglanski, A. W., Pierro, A., Mannetti, L., & De Grada, E. (2006). Groups as epistemic providers: need for closure and the unfolding of group-centrism. *Psychological review*, 113(1), 84, <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.113.1.84>
- Kruglanski, A. W., Shah, J. Y., Pierro, A., & Mannetti, L. (2002). When similarity breeds content: need for closure and the allure of homogeneous and self-resembling groups. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 83(3), 648, <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.83.3.648>
- Kwan, L. Y. Y., Leung, A. K. Y., & Liou, S. (2018). Culture, creativity, and innovation. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 49(2), 165-170. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022117753306>
- Livi, S., Kruglanski, A. W., Pierro, A., Mannetti, L., & Kenny, D. A. (2015). Epistemic motivation and perpetuation of group culture: Effects of need for cognitive closure on trans-generational norm transmission. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 129, 105-112, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2014.09.010>
- Lomax, A., & Berkowitz, N. (1972). The evolutionary taxonomy of culture. *Science*, 177(4045), 228-239. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1126/science.177.4045.228>
- Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (1991). Cognitive theory in industrial and organizational psychology. *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 2, 1-62.

- Mandel, A., & Realo, A. (2015). Across-Time Change and Variation in Cultural Tightness-Looseness. *PloS One*, 10(12). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0145213>
- March, J. G., & Simon, H. A. (1958). *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Martins, E., & Martins, N. (2002). An organisational culture model to promote creativity and innovation. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 28(4), 58-65. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v28i4.71>
- Mattila, A. S., & Choi, S. (2012). Societal norms, need for closure, and service recovery. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 24(5), 356-371, <https://doi.org/10.1080/08961530.2012.741479>
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resources Management Review*, 1 (1), 61-89, [https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822\(91\)90011-Z](https://doi.org/10.1016/1053-4822(91)90011-Z)
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications
- Meyerson, D., Weick, K. E., & Kramer, R. M. (1996). Swift trust and temporary groups. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 166-195). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mu, Y., Kitayama, S., Han, S., & Gelfand, M. J. (2015). How culture gets embrained: Cultural differences in event-related potentials of social norm violations. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(50), 15348-15353, <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1509839112>
- Mula, S., & Pierro, A. (2022). I don't care why you do it, just don't! Reactions to negative and positive organizational deviance partly depend on the desire for tightness of

- prevention-focused employees. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6132, <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.951852>
- Mula, S., Di Santo, D., Gelfand, M. J., Cabras, C., & Pierro, A. (2021). The mediational role of desire for cultural tightness on concern with COVID-19 and perceived self-control. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 4021, <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.713952>
- Mula, S., Di Santo, D., Resta, E., Bakhtiari, F., Baldner, C., Molinario, E., ... & Leander, N. P. (2022). Concern with COVID-19 pandemic threat and attitudes towards immigrants: The mediating effect of the desire for tightness. *Current Research in Ecological and Social Psychology*, 3, 100028, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cresp.2021.100028>
- O'Reilly, Caldwell, D. F., Chatman, J. A., & Doerr, B. (2014). The Promise and Problems of Organizational Culture: CEO Personality, Culture, and Firm Performance. *Group & Organization Management*, 39(6), 595-625. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601114550713>
- Ozeren, E., Ozmen, O. N. T., & Appolloni, A. (2013). The relationship between cultural tightness–looseness and organizational innovativeness: a comparative research into the Turkish and Italian marble industries. *Transition Studies Review*, 19(4), 475-492. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11300-013-0262-x>
- Pelto, P. J. (1968). The differences between "tight" and "loose" societies. *Trans-action*, 5, 37-40. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03180447>
- Peltokorpi, V., & Froese, F. (2014). Expatriate personality and cultural fit: The moderating role of host country context on job satisfaction. *International Business Review*, 23(1), 293-302, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2013.05.004>

- Pierro, A., & Kruglanski, A. W. (2005). *Revised need for Cognitive Closure Scale* (unpublished manuscript). Università di Roma La Sapienza, Roma, Italia.
- Pierro, A., Cicero, L., Bonaiuto, M., van Knippenberg, D., & Kruglanski, A. W. (2005). Leader group prototypicality and leadership effectiveness: The moderating role of need for cognitive closure. *Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 503-516, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.06.002>
- Pierro, A., De Grada, E., Mannetti, L., Livi, S., & Kruglanski, A. W. (2004). Bisogno di chiusura cognitiva e risposta a violazioni normative di carattere quotidiano. *Giornale Italiano di Psicologia*, 31(1), 129-140. <https://doi.org/10.1421/13216>
- Pratt, T. C., & Cullen, F. T. (2000). The empirical status of Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime: A meta-analysis. *Criminology*, 38(3), 931-964, <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9125.2000.tb00911.x>
- Price, R. H. & Bouffard, D. L. (1974). Behavioral appropriateness and situational constraint as dimensions of social behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30(4), 579-586. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/h0037037>
- Redding, S. G., Norman, A., & Schlander, A. (1994). The nature of individual attachment to the organization: A review of East Asian variations. *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, 4, 647-688.
- Rentfrow, P. J., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2008). A theory of the emergence, persistence, and expression of geographic variation in psychological characteristics. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 3(5), 339-369. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6924.2008.00084.x>

- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of management journal*, 38(2), 555-572.
<https://doi.org/doi:10.2307/256693>
- Ryan, B. F., & Straus, M. A. (1954). *The integration of Sinhalese society*. Pullman, WA: State College of Washington.
- Saroghi, H., Libaers, D., & Burkemper, A. (2015). Examining the relationship between creativity and innovation: A meta-analysis of organizational, cultural, and environmental factors. *Journal of business venturing*, 30(5), 714-731.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2014.12.003>
- Schein, E. H. (2006). So how can you assess your corporate culture. *Organization Development: A Jossey-Bass Reader*, 614-633.
- Song, Y., & Wang, L. (2021). The Influence of School Loose-Tight Culture on Bullying of Middle School Students: The Mediating Role of Collective Moral Disengagement and Collective Efficacy. *Best Evidence in Chinese Education*, 9(2), 1263-1272,
<https://doi.org/10.15354/bece.21.ar060>
- Stamkou, E., Homan, A. C., van Kleef, G. A., & Gelfand, M. J. (2022). The spatial representation of leadership depends on ecological threat: A replication and extension of Menon et al. (2010). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 123(3), e1–e22. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspa0000304>
- Stogdill, R. M. (1963). *Manual for the leader behavior description questionnaire-Form XII: An experimental revision*. Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University.

- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In J. A. Williams & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–47). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Tangney, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Boone, A. L. (2004). High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. *Journal of Personality*, 72(2), 271-324. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-3506.2004.00263.x>
- Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of Culture's consequences: a three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of applied psychology*, 95(3), 405. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018938>
- Toh, S. M., & Leonardelli, G. J. (2012). Cultural constraints on the emergence of women as leaders. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 604-611, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.013>
- Triandis, H. C. (1977). *Interpersonal behavior*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, 96(3), 506-520. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.96.3.506>
- Uz, I. (2015). The Index of Cultural Tightness and Looseness Among 68 Countries. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 46(3), 319-335. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022022114563611>
- Weber, J. M., Malhotra, D., & Murnighan, J. K. (2005). Normal acts of irrational trust: Motivated attributions and the trust development process. *Research in*

Organizational Behavior: An Annual Series of Analytical Essays and Critical Reviews, 26, 75-101. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085\(04\)26003-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(04)26003-8)

Webster, D. M., & Kruglanski, A. W. (1994). Individual differences in need for cognitive closure. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 67(6), 1049, <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.67.6.1049>

Witkin, H. A., & Berry, J. W. (1975). Psychological differentiation in cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 6, 4-87. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/002202217500600102>

Yamagishi, T., & Yamagishi, M. (1994). Trust and commitment in the United States and Japan. *Motivation and Emotion*, 18(2), 129-166. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF02249397>

Acknowledgements