The Origins of Religious Disbelief: A Dual Inheritance

2	Approach
3	Will M. Gervais*
4	$Maxine~B.~Najle^{\dagger}$
5	$Sarah\ R.\ Schiavone^{\ddagger}$
6	Nava Caluori [§]
7	Preprint December 2019

^{*}University of Kentucky, Psychology, will.gervais@gmail.com †BlueLabs Analytics, Washington, D.C. †University of California-Davis, Psychology

[§]University of Virginia, Psychology

8 Abstract

Widespread religious disbelief represents a key testing ground for theories of religion. We evaluate the predictions of three prominent theoretical approaches and find considerable support 10 for a dual inheritance perspective. This perspective derives from distinct literatures proposing 11 four pathways to disbelief, via the 1) core social cognitive faculties that enable gods' mental 12 representation, 2) the challenges to existential security that motivate belief in some gods, 3) evolved cultural learning processes that influence which god candidates naïve learners treat as real, and 4) the intuitive processes that sustain belief in gods and the cognitive reflection that may sometimes undermine it. We tested these pathways simultaneously in a nationally 16 representative (USA, N = 1417) dataset with preregistered analyses. We found that wit-17 nessing fewer credible cultural cues of religious commitment is the most potent predictor of 18 religious disbelief, $\beta = 0.28$, followed distantly by reflective cognitive style, $\beta = 0.13$, and less 19 advanced mentalizing, $\beta = 0.05$. Low cultural exposure predicted about 90% higher odds of atheism than did peak cognitive reflection, and cognitive reflection only predicted disbelief 21 among those relatively lower in cultural exposure. This highlights the utility of considering both evolved intuitions and cultural transmission, and emphasizes the dual roles of contentand context-biased social learning in the transmission disbelief.

Keywords: atheism; religion; culture; evolution; dual inheritance theory

Background

Religion is a bit of an evolutionary puzzle. Organisms like ants and aardvarks tend not to engage in painful and costly collective rituals to prove their faith in unseen ant and aardvark pantheons, respectively. It is intriguing, then, that these behaviors are cross-culturally ubiquitous in humans. Evolutionary approaches to religion have proliferated in recent years [1-4], and different theories make starkly different predictions about the existence, nature, and origins of religious disbelief. Thus, the origins of disbelief are a crucial testing ground for different theories of religion. Here we test predictions from three prominent theoretical frameworks (outlined in Table 1): secularization, cognitive byproduct, and an emerging dual inheritance (gene-culture coevolutionary) model of religion [5] that views both cognitive adaptations and specific cultural learning mechanisms [6] as key to the transmission of either faith or atheism [7–10]. This project situates the study of religious disbelief firmly within established theoretical frameworks for studying the evolution of human behavior and contributes to broader discussions of the role of transmitted versus evoked culture in core aspects of human nature [11]. Religion simultaneously unites and divides like few other aspects of social life. The sectarian conflicts between groups of religious believers may obscure a more fundamental schism: that between believers and atheists. Atheists—merely people who do not believe in the existence of a God or gods—constitute a large and perhaps growing proportion of earth's human population. A prominent estimate from about a decade ago [12] posits the existence of 500-700 million atheists globally. This estimate is in all likelihood a drastic underestimate [13]. Atheism prevalence estimates rely on census and polling data that infer individual beliefs from their self-reports. However, there is potent anti-atheist stigma that transcends national and religious boundaries [14–18]: even atheists harbor some intuitive moral distrust of atheists worldwide [19]. Thus, while it is safe to assume that self-reported atheists do not believe in God, it is probably also safe to assume that a great many people privately disbelieve without openly admitting their atheism. Consistent with this, people routinely overreport their religious practices [20], and indirect measurement of atheism in the USA reveals a potentially large gulf between some indirect ($\sim 26\%$) and direct ($\sim 3\%$) estimates of atheist prevalence [13]. Combining direct estimates and inferences drawn from the few available indirect estimates, we predict that upwards of 2 billion people on earth may in fact be atheists. Many evolutionary theories of religion posit a universal or near-universal implicit theism [21–24], and may thus be fundamentally incompatible with global atheism that is simultaneously prevalent and deliberately concealed. Therefore, sustained research into the psychological origins of disbelief is necessary to test key assumptions of various evolutionary and cultural theories of religion.

57 Four Pathways to Atheism

While it is clear that a large and perhaps unrecognized proportion of the global population does not believe in gods, what cognitive, motivational, and cultural factors yield religious disbelief? Distinct research trajectories have considered the preconditions for sustained belief in any given god. To currently believe in a god, one 1) must be able to mentally represent gods [25–28], 2) must be dispositionally or situationally motivated to believe in some gods [29,30], 3) must receive credible cultural cues that some gods are real [7,31–33], and 4) must maintain this intuitive [21,34,35] belief over time. Tweaks to any of these four components may instead 63 yield disbelief in gods. Separate lines of research partially support this supposition. First, it takes fairly advanced mentalizing abilities—the core cognitive faculty that enables us to mentally represent other minds and their contents—to conceptualize gods, and mindblind atheism describes the pattern whereby individual differences in advanced mentalizing abilities predict religious disbelief [27,28] in at least some samples [36]. 67 Second, apatheism describes the pattern whereby, although people are highly religiously motivated when life is insecure, unstable, and unpredictable, existential security instead predicts reduced religiosity [29,37]. Third, inCREDulous atheism describes the pattern whereby a lack of credibility enhancing displays (CREDs) [6] that one ought to believe in any gods is a good global predictor of atheism [7,33,38]. Finally, analytic atheism 71 describes the pattern whereby people who reflectively override their intuitions tend to be less religious than 72 those who 'go with their guts' [39-41], although the magnitude and consistency of this relation is debatable 73 [42]. Although these four potential pathways to atheism relate to religious disbelief in isolation, little work considers their operation in conjunction [43]. Prominent theoretical perspectives place different emphasis 75 on the role of mindblind atheism, apatheism, in CREDulous atheism, and analytic atheism, thus the relative predictive strength of each pathway can help adjudicate between the respective theories.

78 Prominent Theoretical Approaches

Prominent theoretical approaches make rather divergent predictions about which pathways to atheism (mindblind, apatheism, inCREDulous, or analytic) are most important. First, secularization models [29,37,44]

posit that increases in existential security (wealth, health, education, etc.) reduce religious motivation; this
approach is common in sociology of religion [37] and in social psychology under the banner of compensatory
control [29,45]. Second, cognitive science of religion and evolutionary psychology often view religion as a
cognitive byproduct of other mental adaptations [21,23,46], such as mind perception [26] or predator detection. In this view, challenges in the core cognitive faculties underlying such adaptations (e.g., advanced

ⁱThough highly cited and widely discussed, there is a lack of actual empirical evidence supporting a Hyperactive Agency Detection Device and its contribution to religious cognition. Anecdotally, many-to-most graduate students in cognitive science of religion have tried these studies to no avail.

mentalizing) would predict disbelief, but the primary route to disbelief is people overriding their religious intuitions via effortful cognitive reflection. Finally, dual inheritance models incorporate insights from the byproduct account while also drawing heavily upon work in cultural evolution [47–49]. Cultural evolutionary models highlight the social learning processes [50–52] underpinning religious beliefs [53–57] and disbelief, and largely predict that context-biased social learning—especially CREDs [6]—would be strongly associated with degrees of religious belief [33]. The dual inheritance approach recognizes that evolved cognitive biases can generate content biases that canalize religious cognition, but context-biased learning may instead predict degrees of belief and disbelief [8]. Our dual inheritance approach predicts that CREDs would be most important, followed by other factors such as cognitive reflection, mentalizing, and perhaps existential security. Table 1 depicts predictions derived from each of these perspectives. By simultaneously considering mindblind atheism, apatheism, inCREDulous atheism, and analytic atheism, we are able to evaluate the suitability of four prominent theoretical approaches from separate academic subdisciplines for understanding the origins of religious disbelief.

Table 1: Predictions From Prominent Theories

Theory	Discipline	mindblind	apatheist	in CRE Dulous	analytic
Secularization	Sociology & Social Psych		++++		
Cognitive Byproduct	Ev Psych & Cog Sci Rel	+ +	+		+ + +
Dual Inheritance	Gene-Culture Coevolution	+	indirect	+ + + +	++

Note:

- + symbols indicate the predicted strength of each pathway to atheism, by theory
- ¹ mindblind = relatively lower in advanced mentalizing
- ² apatheist = relatively more existentially secure
- ³ inCREDulous = exposed to relatively fewer religious CREDs
- ⁴ Analytic = scoring relatively higher on cognitive reflection
- We preregistered a set of analyses that directly pit secularization, cognitive byproduct, and dual inheritance models against each other, https://osf.io/kfasv. Specifically, we posed three broad questions:
- I. What are the relative predictive contributions of each pathway to atheism when considered simultaneously?
- II. How do the four pathways interact with each other in predicting disbelief?
- III. Does early work on each individual pathway successfully replicate in a nationally representative sample?
- To approach these questions, we contracted a nationally representative sample of USA adults (N=1417)
- 106 from GfK. Primarily, we were interested in predicting degrees of religious belief and disbelief with measures

ⁱⁱProminent scholars of this tradition claim, for example, that atheism "require[s]... cognitive effort" [24] and that "disbelief is generally the result of deliberate, effortful work" [21], strong claims for the primacy of analytic atheism.

of 1) advanced mentalizing, 2) existential security, 3) exposure to credibility enhancing displays (CREDs) of religious faith, and 4) reflective versus intuitive cognitive style. For robustness, we also included a number of demographic and personality covariates. Full materials, data, and code are available at https://github.

111 Methods

112 Sample

To obtain a nationally representative probability sample of Americans, we worked with Growth from Knowledge (GfK) and recruited a total sample of 1685 individuals that were representative of the American population in terms of gender (50.14% female, 49.51% male, 0.35% listing another gender), age (M = 50.58, SD= 16.83), race/ethnicity, education, census region, household income, home ownership status, and residence
within a metropolitan area. We excluded 268 participants who failed an attention check, leaving a total of

119 Measures

121

120 Religious Belief

measure of religious belief. This scale includes items such as "There exists an all-powerful, all-knowing, loving God" and "Human beings have immaterial, immortal souls" measured on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) 123 to 7 (strongly agree) to assess agreement with a diverse set of items that are characteristic of religiosity. This scale was reliable, $\alpha = 0.95$, M = 4.91, SD = 1.63. We also included a binary item in which participants 125 simply indicated whether or not they believe in God. 126 We also included various other measures of religiosity which were used to gain a more fine-grained 127 understanding of the demographics of our sample, and are summarized in Table 4. For example, we asked participants how often they attended services outside of weddings and funerals (1 = more than once a week, 129 8 = never), as well as how often they pray (1 = several times a day, 7 = never). We also asked participants to indicate the religion with which they identify, and they were allowed to select multiple applicable categories (e.g., 'atheist' and 'agnostic'). 132

We relied on a popular measure of religious belief, the Supernatural Beliefs Scale [58], as our main dependent

Table 2: Sample Demographics

Category	Percent
Education	
< High School	7.55
High School	27.24
Some College	28.23
College +	36.98
God Belief	
Believer	81.27
Atheist	18.73
Religious Identity	
Catholic	22.94
Evangelical	38.46
Jehovah's Witness	1.34
Mormon	2.12
Jewish	2.40
Muslim	0.35
Orthodox	0.56
Hindu	0.35
Buddhist	0.64
UU	1.20
Other Christian	7.41
Other Non-Christian	0.71
No Religion	13.27
Atheist	5.15
Agnostic	5.29
Not Listed	4.73
Race/Ethnicity	
White	74.45
Black	8.68
Not Listed	4.30
Multiracial	10.16
Hispanic	2.40

139

141

163

133 Pathways to Religious Disbelief

To assess the four different factors that may drive religious disbelief, we measured participants' mentalizing abilities, feelings of existential security, exposure to credible cues of religiosity (CREDs), and reflective versus intuitive cognitive style.

We measured advanced mentalizing abilities, which correspond to mindblind atheism, using the Perspective Taking Subscale of the Interpersonal Reactivity Index [59]. This measure includes items like "I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision" and "Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place," measured on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). This scale reached an acceptable level of reliability, $\alpha = 0.77$, M = 4.79, SD = 0.78.

We measured feelings of existential security, which corresponds to apatheism, with a number of items 142 assessing concerns that are salient to participants and participant faith in institutions like the government, 143 health care, and social security to provide aid in the face of need [43]. Items about the salience of different concerns included questions about how often participants worry about losing their job, worry about having 145 enough money in the future, and feel they cannot afford things that are necessary. These items were assessed on a scale from 1 (never) to 4 (all the time). Illustrative items regarding faith in institutions include "How 147 much do you feel confident in our country's social security system" and "How much do you feel that people 148 who start out poor can become wealthy if they work hard enough," assessed on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 149 4 (a lot). Items measuring faith in institutions were reverse-scored, and all items were averaged together to 150 form a composite index of existential insecurity ($\alpha = 0.77$, M = 2.2, SD = 0.39), with higher scores reflecting 151 more insecurity. 152

We measured cognitive reflection, which corresponds to analytic atheism, using nine items from the
Cognitive Reflection Test [60–62]. This measure poses a series of questions to participants that rely on logical
reasoning to answer correctly. All have a seemingly simple initial answer, but upon further consideration
people arrive at a different (and correct) answer. We therefore measured whether or not participants provided
the correct answers to these questions that require more cognitive reflection. If they answered a question
correctly, they were given a 1, and if they answered it incorrectly, they were given a 0. Our full index
of cognitive reflection is composed of the sum of the number of questions that each participant answered
correctly, with a higher score thus indicating a more reflective and analytic cognitive style. The average
score was 3.18, with a standard deviation of 2.66.

We measured exposure to CREDs, which corresponds to inCREDulous atheism, with the CREDs Scale [31]. This scale assesses the extent to which caregivers demonstrated religious behaviors during the respondent's childhood, such as going to religious services, acting as good religious role models, and making

personal sacrifices to religion. The frequency of these types of behaviors was measured on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (always). This scale was highly reliable, $\alpha = 0.93$, M = 2.42, SD = 0.84.

167 Personality Measures

We also gathered data on participants' personality to serve as control variables in our models. We used 168 the MINI-IPIP6 [63] to measure the personality factors of Extraversion ($\alpha = 0.79, M = 3.69, SD = 1.12$), 169 Agreeableness ($\alpha = 0.75$, M = 4.96, SD = 0.92), Conscientiousness ($\alpha = 0.68$, M = 4.97, SD = 0.97), Neuroticism ($\alpha = 0.75$, M = 3.52, SD = 1.08), Openness to Experience ($\alpha = 0.73$, M = 4.69, SD = 1.01), 171 and Honesty-Humility ($\alpha = 0.76$, M = 4.8, SD = 1.13). Items in this scale were measured on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) scale. 173 We also measured tolerance for ambiguity using the Multiple Stimulus Types Ambiguity Tolerance Scale-174 II [64]. This included items such as "I don't tolerate ambiguous situations well (reversed)" and "I prefer a 175 situation in which there is some ambiguity." This scale was reliable, $\alpha = 0.83$, M = 4.17, SD = 0.68. 176

177 General Demographics

Finally, we included a demographics questionnaire to adjust for known religion-predictive participant characteristics like age, education, and political ideology. We assessed education level by asking participants
what their highest level of education was, from no formal education to professional or doctorate degree.
We measured social ideology with the question "With respect to your views on social issues (e.g., same-sex
marriage, abortion), would you consider yourself more liberal or more conservative?" (1 = very liberal to 7 = very conservative, M = 4.07, SD = 1.77) and economic ideology with the question "With respect to
your views on economic issues (e.g., taxes, government spending), would you consider yourself more liberal
or more conservative?" (1 = very liberal to 7 = very conservative, M = 4.36, SD = 1.54).

186 Results

187 Analytic Strategy

We used Bayesian estimation throughout. Bayesian estimation allows us to evaluate the credibility of different parameter estimates, given data and statistical models [65–69]. Most analyses report a point estimate reflecting the most credible parameter estimate as well as a highest posterior density interval (HPDI), the region in which the 97% most credible estimates lie. We chose 97% coverage because it is no more arbitrary than any other cutoff, but provides a very conservative range of plausibe values. We also report a variety

of posterior probabilities, which state the probability of something ($\beta > 0$, etc.) being true, given data and model. Heuristically, the posterior probabilities have the properties people misintuit frequentist p-values as having (e.g., the probability of some hypothesis being true) [70], and the HPDIs have the properties people misintuit frequentist confidence intervals as having (e.g., the probability that a parameter lies in that range) [71]. We used gently regularizing priors throughout, primarily deployed to buffer against model overfitting. Inferences are highly robust to non-ludicrous alternative priors. Full materials, data, and code are available at https://github.com/wgervais/disbelief-origins.

I. Relative Contributions

Our most important analyses considered the relative contributions of all four pathways operating in concert. 201 As preregistered, we conducted analyses in which the four core factors predict individual differences in belief 202 and disbelief, both in the presence and absence of additional covariates. In our full model predicting a continuous multi-item measure of religious disbelief (see Measures for details), witnessing fewer credible 204 displays of faith proved to be by far the most powerful predictor of religious disbelief (see Table 2 and Figure 1). Credibility enhancing displays of faith predict belief, and their absence predicts atheism, $\beta = 0.28$, [0.23, 206 0.34liii, $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$ iv. Cognitive reflection remained a consistent predictor of religious disbelief, $\beta =$ $0.13, [0.07, 0.19], P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$, but following earlier cross-cultural work [42] its predictive power was 208 relatively meager. Lower scores on a measure of advanced mentalizing abilities were reliably but weakly 209 associated with disbelief, $\beta = 0.05$, [-0.01, 0.11], $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 0.96$, and existential security predicted 210 essentially nothing. Clearly, in CREDulous atheism is the strongest individual pathway when all four are 211 considered simultaneously. 212

213 Atheism: Binary Measure

We also measured religious disbelief with a simple binary (No, Yes) belief in God item. We reran our full model analysis as a logistic model predicting atheism rates on the binary measure. Results closely matched the continuous full model. Aside from demographic covariates, only fewer religious CREDs, beta = 0.83, [0.61, 1.05], $P(beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$, and more cognitive reflection, beta = 0.38, $[0.17, 0.59] = P(beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$, predicted atheism. However, inCREDulous atheism was again much stronger than analytic atheism. To illustrate, we considered the posterior produced by our model, marginalized at various levels of our predictors. Specifically, we compared the hypothetical probability of atheism for model-predicted golems who are either

iii Values in brackets are 97% highest posterior density interval (HPDI).

 $^{^{\}text{iv}}P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$ indicates a posterior probability exceeding .99.

^vWe preregistered a possible quadratic relationship between mentalizing and disbelief. For theoretical and statistical reasons, we depart from preregistration and don't analyze the quadratic here. See online Supplement for further discussion.

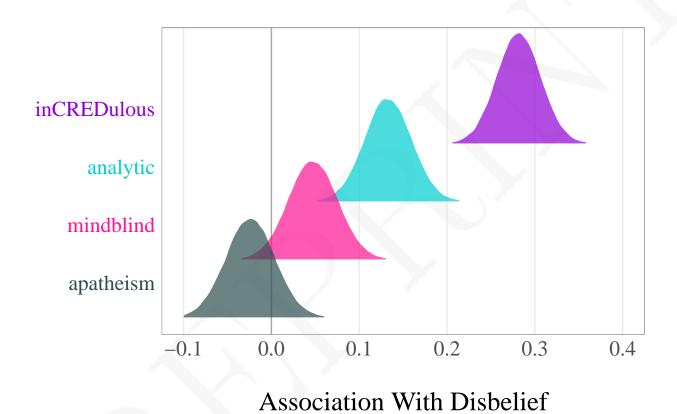


Figure 1: Posterior densities illustrating how strongly each factor predicts disbelief. Height in each density indexes credibility of estimate: values higher up each curve are better guesses.

(standardized beta)

Variable	Beta	HPDI	\Pr
mindblind	0.05	[-0.01, 0.11]	0.96
apatheism	-0.02	[-0.08, 0.04]	0.2
inCREDulous	0.28	[0.23, 0.34]	> 0.99
analytic	0.13	[0.07, 0.19]	> 0.99
Age	0.01	[-0.04, 0.07]	0.67
Education	0.04	[-0.02, 0.1]	0.92
Male	0.07	[0.02, 0.13]	> 0.99
Social Lib	0.44	[0.35, 0.52]	> 0.99
Economic Cons	0.04	[-0.04, 0.12]	0.84
Extraversion	0.02	[-0.03, 0.08]	0.82
Conscientiousness	0.02	[-0.04, 0.07]	0.72
Neuroticism	0.00	[-0.06, 0.07]	0.54
Low Agreeableness	0.10	[0.04, 0.17]	> 0.99
Openness	0.07	[0.02, 0.13]	> 0.99
Honesty/Humility	0.04	[-0.02, 0.1]	0.92

Table 3: Predicting Disbelief: Full Model Summary

Note:

perfectly inCREDulous (scoring at floor for religious CREDs) but typical on all other variables, or else
perfectly analytical (scoring at ceiling on cognitive reflection) but otherwise typical. The predicted odds
of atheism are about 90% higher for the purely inCREDulous golem, P(atheism | inCREDulous) = 0.31,
[0.24, 0.39], than for the purely analytic golem, P(atheism | analytic) = 0.2, [0.13, 0.28], odds ratio = 1.87,
[0.93, 3.03], P(inCREDulous > analytic | data) = 0.99. This relative difference in predictive strength for
inCREDulous atheism and analytic atheism, replicated across continuous and binary measures of disbelief,
is consistent with a dual inheritance approach.

II. Hypothesized Interactions

Next, we probed for preregistered interactions among the four factors vi finding an interaction between cultural learning and reflective cognitive style, $\beta = -0.08$, [-0.12, -0.03], $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$. We considered the association between disbelief and reflective cognitive style among those comparatively high and low on credible cultural cues of religious belief (Figure 2), finding that reflective cognitive style primarily predicts religious disbelief among those who were also comparatively low in cultural exposure to credible religious cues of faith. Indeed, cognitive reflection moderately predicted religious disbelief among those witnessing

 $^{^{1}}$ Beta = standardized beta

 $^{^2}$ HPDI = 97% Highest posterior density interval

 $^{^{3}}$ Pr = posterior probability of Beta > 0

viPreregistered analyses probing for interactions with mentalizing yielded nothing of particular note and are summarized in the Online Supplement.

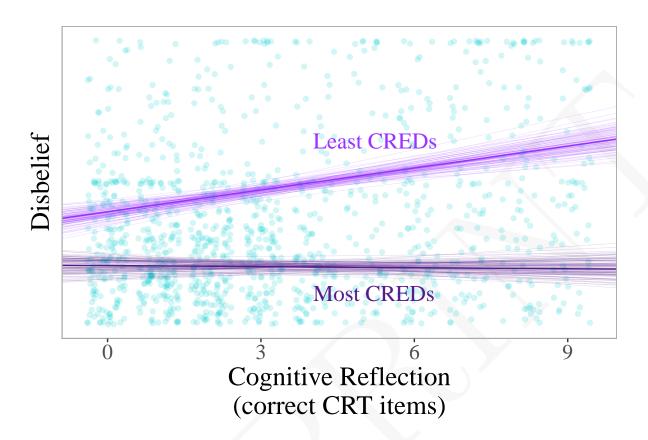


Figure 2: Cognitive reflection primarily predicts disbelief among individuals who are also relative low in exposure to religious CREDs. Each cluster contains 100 regression lines drawn from the posterior to illustrate estimate uncertainty and regions of highest posterior density. Y-axis depicts the entire range of possible values for the arbitrarily scaled continuous measure.

the fewest religious CREDs, $\beta = 0.26$, [0.15, 0.35], $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 0$, but not at all among those highest in religious CREDs, $\beta = -0.01$, [-0.13, 0.1], $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 0.6$. These patterns highlight the interactive predictive roles of cultural context and evolved intuitions on religious cognition, consistent with a dual inheritance perspective.

III. Individual Replications

239

Finally, we tested each candidate factor in isolation, merely to replicate in a nationally representative sample previous work that has independently correlated indices of mentalizing, existential security, religious CREDs, and cognitive style with various measures of religious belief. In individual zero-order replication analyses (Table 3), inCREDulous atheism, analytic atheism, and mindblind atheism largely replicated previous work. Apatheism was again not evident in this sample. That one of the candidate factors culled from existing literature did not appear as a robust predictor may suggest tempered enthusiasm for its utility as a predictor

of individual differences in religiosity more broadly, although existential security is still quite useful in analyzing larger-scale regional and international trends [37].

Table 4: Predicting Disbelief: Individual Replication Analyses

Variable	r	HPDI	Pr
mindblind	0.06	[0, 0.12]	0.99
apatheism	-0.03	[-0.09, 0.02]	0.1
inCREDulous	0.38	[0.32, 0.43]	> 0.99
analytic	0.18	[0.13, 0.24]	> 0.99

Note:

Discussion

249 Summary

Overall, we present one of the most comprehensive available analyses of the cognitive, cultural, and moti-250 vational factors that predict individual differences in religious belief and disbelief in the USA. These results speak directly to competing theoretical perspectives on the origins of religious disbelief culled from sociology, 252 social psychology, evolutionary psychology, cognitive science of religion, cultural evolution, and gene-culture coevolution. Consistent patterns emerged, suggesting that the most potent predictor of disbelief is—by a 254 wide margin—lack of exposure to credibility enhancing displays of religious faith. Once this context-biased cultural learning mechanism is accounted for, reflective cognitive style predicts some people being slightly more prone to religious disbelief than their cultural upbringing might otherwise suggest. That said, this 257 relationship was relatively modest. Advanced mentalizing was a robust but weak predictor of religious belief, and existential security did not meaningfully predict disbelief. In terms of different disbelief pathways, 259 inCREDulous atheism appears relatively strong and robust, analytic atheism is robust but modest, and there is robust evidence for a very small role of mindblind atheism. 261

262 Theoretical Implications

We evaluated predictions about the origins of disbelief from three prominent theoretical perspectives: secularization, cognitive byproduct, and dual inheritance. Comparing the predictions in Table 1 with the results of Figure 1, it is clear that our results are most consistent with the dual inheritance perspective. Indeed, this was the only theoretical perspective that predicted prominent roles for both inCREDulous atheism and

¹ HPDI = 97% Highest posterior density interval

² Pr = posterior probability of Beta > 0

analytic atheism. Given the primacy of cultural learning in our data, any model that does not rely heavily
on context-biased cultural learning is likely a poor fit for explaining the origins of religious disbelief. By
extension, such models are necessarily incomplete or faulty evolutionary accounts of religion. Simply growing
up in a home with relatively fewer credible displays of faith predicted disbelief, contra prior assertions from
the cognitive science of religion that disbelief results from "special cultural conditions" and "a good degree
of cultural scaffolding" [24]. Instead, disbelief emerges quite naturally and easily in the mere relative absence
of repeated and credible cues of others' belief.

Analytic atheism is perhaps the most discussed avenue to disbelief in the literature [39–41] and broader culture [72], but its popularity greatly overstates its actual influence. Although in this sample overall there was consistent evidence of analytic atheism, the overall trend was modest, the trend itself varied considerably across exposure to CREDs, and sufficient religious CREDs predictively buffered believers against the putatively corrosive influence of reflective cognition on faith. Despite claims that atheism generally requires cognitive effort or reflection [21,24], analytic atheism—as in other recent work [42]—does not appear to be an especially general or powerful phenomenon.

It is initially puzzling that existential security proved impotent in our analyses, as it appears to be an important factor in explaining cross-cultural differences in religiosity [37,73]. Further, it has been used successful in experimental work [29,74], although these experimental insights may be less robust than initially assumed [75]. It is possible that our analyses were at the wrong level of analysis to capture the influence of existential security, which may act as a precursor to other cultural forces. There may actually be a two-stage generational process whereby existential security demotivates religious behavior in one generation, leading the subsequent generation to atheism as they do not witness credibility enhancing displays of faith. This longitudinal societal prediction merits future investigation.

Finally, this work has implications beyond religion. Presumably, many beliefs arise from an interaction between core cognitive faculties, motivation, cultural exposure, and cognitive style. The general dual
inheritance framework adopted here may prove fruitful for other sorts of beliefs elsewhere. Indeed, a thorough exploration of the degree to which different beliefs are predicted by cultural exposure relative to other
cognitive factors may be useful for exploring content- versus context-biased cultural learning, and the contributions of transmitted and evoked culture. As this is a prominent point of contention between different
schools of human evolutionary thought [11], such as evolutionary psychology and cultural evolution, further
targeted investigation may be productive.

320

321

322

323

324

325

327

Metascientific Implications

This work suggests three broader meta-scientific points. 298

First, it illustrates a sort of replication-plus approach to forensically evaluating the literature while simultaneously testing and advancing theory. We conducted preregistered replications of four distinct findings 300 from four different literatures, attesting to their relative strength or weakness. This is of course intrinsically valuable. However, these four replications gain theoretical significance when combined, as we were able to 302 directly evaluate the predictive suitability of prominent theoretical perspectives on the origins of disbelief. 303 This would not have been possible in separate direct replications. Replication-plus approaches like ours may prove similarly useful in other domains. Although a Registered Replication Report format, in which multiple 305 labs conduct a single replication of a unique operationalization, has taken central stage in the psychology 306 meta-science world, alternative approaches and viewpoints on replication and methodology may be beneficial 307 [76,77], including this replication-plus approach, proof-of-concept paradigmatic replication [78], and radically 308 randomized meta-studies [79]. 309

Second, of the four candidate factors we tested, one (credibility enhancing displays) is derived from formal 310 theoretical modeling in gene-culture coevolution, while the other three emerged from verbal argumentation. 311 In terms of predicting large-scale real-world patterns, the formally modeled approach empirically outclassed 312 the three 'veories'. Vii Verbal theorizing is an important step in the research process, but formal theorizing is 313 an indispensable tool as well [80]. Formal models are obviously wrong, yet they are useful mental prostheses 314 simply because they are precisely and transparently wrong [11,80]. In contrast, veories invite flexibility 315 in interpretation and subsequent research design and analysis, hampering true empirical and theoretical 316 progress [81]. Further development in theory can circumvent methodological challenges to replicability [82,83], sharpen thinking beyond statistical desiderada [84], and spur scientific discovery [76]. 318

Third, most psychology research nowadays emerges from convenience samples of undergraduates and Mechanical Turk workers. These samples are fine for some purposes, but representative samples are necessary for others. While our nationally representative sampling allows us to generalize beyond samples we can access for free (in lab) or cheap (MTurk), even a large nationally representative sample barely scratches the surface of human diversity [85,86]. As such, we encourage similar analyses across different cultures [43]. Indeed, the possible existence of a historically contingent relationship between certain religious norms and the origins of WEIRD psychology [87] underscores the potential sensitivity of these and similar results to cultural context. Diversifying the samples that make up the empirical portfolio of evolutionary approaches to religion is especially necessary because cultural cues themselves emerged as the strongest predictor disbelief in this and

vii'veories' are verbal theories, the intuitive verbal models that predominate much of the social sciences.

related work [33,36,42,43]. If this general pattern holds across societies, we predict that—beyond religion—
veories developed by WEIRD researchers to explain the weird mental states of WEIRD participants can only
aspire to ever more precisely answer a mere outlier of an outlier of our most important scientific questions
about human nature.

332 Coda

The importance of transmitted culture and context-biased cultural learning as a predictor of belief and 333 disbelief cannot be overstated. Combined, the data we collected suggest that if you are guessing whether or 334 not individuals are believers or atheists, you are better off knowing how their parents behaved—Did they 335 tithe? Pray regularly? Attend synagogue?—than how they themselves process information. Further, our interaction analyses suggest that sufficiently strong cultural exposure yields sustained religious commitment, 337 even in the face of the putatively corrosive influence of cognitive reflection. Theoretically, these results fit well within a dual inheritance approach, as evolved cognitive capacities for cultural learning prove to be the 339 most potent predictor of individual differences in the cross-culturally canalized expression of religious belief. Atheists are becoming increasingly common in the world, not because human psychology is fundamentally 341 changing, but rather because evolved cognition remains fairly stable in the face of a rapidly changing cultural context that is itself the product of a coevolutionary process. Faith emerges in some cultural contexts, and 343 atheism is the natural result in others.

345 Acknowledgements

- This research was supported by a grant to WMG from the John Templeton Foundation (48275). The content
- is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of its funders.
- The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish or preparation of
- the manuscript.

350 Author Contributions

- 351 WMG designed the study, with survey revision and implementation from MBN and SRS. MBN contributed
- ₃₅₂ feedback and piloting throughout the life of this project. WMG performed the primary analyses and NC
- ₃₅₃ performed descriptive analyses. WMG wrote the manuscript with NC. All authors approved the final
- manuscript.

355 Ethics

This project was approved by the University of Kentucky Office of Research Integrity.

Data, code and materials

- All data, code, and materials are available at https://github.com/wgervais/disbelief-origins and https://osf.
- io/kfasv.

References

- 361 1. Purzycki BG, Apicella C, Atkinson QD, Cohen E, McNamara RA, Willard AK, Xygalatas D, Norenzayan
- ₃₆₂ A, Henrich J. 2016 Moralistic gods, supernatural punishment and the expansion of human sociality. *Nature*
- 2. Watts J, Greenhill SJ, Atkinson QD, Currie TE, Bulbulia J, Gray RD. 2015 Broad supernatural
- punishment but not moralizing high gods precede the evolution of political complexity in Austronesia. Pro-
- ceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences 282, 20142556.
- 3. Baumard N, Boyer P. 2013 Explaining moral religions. Trends in Cognitive Sciences 17, 272–280.
- 4. Atran S, Ginges J. 2012 Religious and sacred imperatives in human conflict. Science 336, 855–857.
- 5. Norenzayan A, Gervais WM. 2013 The origins of religious disbelief. Trends in cognitive sciences 17, 20–25.
- 6. Henrich J. 2009 The evolution of costly displays, cooperation and religion. *Evolution and Human*Behavior **30**, 244–260. (doi:10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2009.03.005)
- 7. Lanman J. 2012 The importance of religious displays for belief acquisition and secularization. *Journal* of Contemporary Religion 27, 49–65.
- 8. Gervais WM, Willard AK, Norenzayan A, Henrich J. 2011 The cultural transmission of faith: Why innate intuitions are necessary, but insufficient, to explain religious belief. *Religion* 41, 389–410.
- 9. Geertz AW, Markússon GI. 2010 Religion is natural, atheism is not: On why everybody is both right and wrong. *Religion* 40, 152–165. (doi:10.1016/j.religion.2009.11.003)
- 10. Harris PL, Koenig MA. 2006 Trust in testimony: How children learn about science and religion.

 Child development 77, 505–524.
- 11. Laland KN, Brown GR. 2011 Sense and Nonsense: Evolutionary Perspectives on Human Behaviour.
 OUP Oxford.
- 12. Zuckerman P. 2007 Atheism: Contemporary numbers and patterns.
- ³⁸³ 13. Gervais WM, Najle MB. 2018 How many atheists are there. Social Psychological and Personality Science 9, 3–11.
- 14. Hall DL, Cohen AB, Meyer KK, Varley AH, Brewer GA. 2015 Costly signaling increases trust, even
 across religious affiliations. Psychological science, 0956797615576473.
- 15. Evans R. 2013 Atheists face death in 13 countries, global discrimination: Study. Reuters
- 16. Edgell P, Gerteis J, Hartmann D. 2006 Atheists as 'other': Moral boundaries and cultural membership in American society. *American Sociological Review* **71**, 211–234.
- ³⁹⁰ 17. Gervais WM, Shariff AF, Norenzayan A. 2011 Do you believe in atheists? Distrust is central to ³⁹¹ anti-atheist prejudice. *Journal of personality and social psychology* **101**, 1189.

- 18. Gervais WM. 2014 Everything is permitted? People intuitively judge immorality as representative of atheists. *PloS one* **9**, e92302. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0092302)
- 19. Gervais WM et al. 2017 Global evidence of extreme intuitive moral prejudice against atheists. Nature

 Human Behaviour 1, s41562–017–0151.
- 20. Hadaway CK, Marler PL, Chaves M. 1993 What the polls don't show: A closer look at US church attendance. *American Sociological Review*, 741–752.
- ³⁹⁸ 21. Boyer P. 2008 Being human: Religion: Bound to believe? *Nature* **455**, 1038–1039.
- ³⁹⁹ 22. Bering JM. 2010 Atheism is only skin deep: Geertz and Markússon rely mistakenly on ⁴⁰⁰ sociodemographic data as meaningful indicators of underlying cognition. *Religion* **40**, 166–168. ⁴⁰¹ (doi:10.1016/j.religion.2009.11.001)
- 23. Barrett JL. 2004 Why would anyone believe in God? AltaMira Press.
- 24. Barrett JL. 2010 The relative unnaturalness of atheism: On why Geertz and Markusson are both right and wrong. *Religion* 40, 169–172. (doi:10.1016/j.religion.2009.11.002)
- 25. Purzycki BG, McNamara RA. 2016 An ecological theory of gods' minds. Cognitive science of religion
 and its philosophical implications, 143–167.
- 26. Gervais WM. 2013 Perceiving Minds and Gods How Mind Perception Enables, Constrains, and Is
 Triggered by Belief in Gods. Perspectives on Psychological Science 8, 380–394.
- 27. Norenzayan A, Gervais WM, Trzesniewski KH. 2012 Mentalizing deficits constrain belief in a personal God. *PloS one* **7**, e36880.
- 28. Willard AK, Norenzayan A. 2013 Cognitive biases explain religious belief, paranormal belief, and belief in life's purpose. *Cognition* **129**, 379–391. (doi:10.1016/j.cognition.2013.07.016)
- 29. Kay AC, Gaucher D, Napier JL, Callan MJ, Laurin K. 2008 God and the government: Testing a compensatory control mechanism for the support of external systems. *Journal of personality and social* psychology 95, 18.
- 30. Gray K, Wegner DM. 2010 Blaming God for our pain: Human suffering and the divine mind.

 Personality and Social Psychology Review 14, 7–16.
- 31. Lanman JA, Buhrmester MD. 2017 Religious actions speak louder than words: Exposure to credibility-enhancing displays predicts theism. *Religion, Brain & Behavior* 7, 3–16.
- 32. Gervais WM, Henrich J. 2010 The Zeus problem: Why representational content biases cannot explain faith in gods. *Journal of Cognition and Culture* **10**, 3–4.
- 33. Gervais WM, Najle MB. 2015 Learned faith: The influences of evolved cultural learning mechanisms on belief in Gods. *Psychology of Religion and Spirituality* 7, 327.

- 34. Kelemen D. 2004 Are children 'intuitive theists'? Reasoning about purpose and design in nature.
- Psychological Science 15, 295–301.
- 35. Bloom P. 2007 Religion is natural. Developmental science 10, 147–151.
- 36. Maij DLR, van Harreveld F, Gervais W, Schrag Y, Mohr C, van Elk M. 2017 Mentalizing skills do not
- differentiate believers from non-believers, but credibility enhancing displays do. PLOS ONE 12, e0182764.
- 429 (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0182764)
- 37. Inglehart R, Norris P. 2004 Sacred and secular: Religion and politics worldwide. Cambridge: Cam-
- bridge University Press.
- 38. Banerjee K, Bloom P. 2013 Would Tarzan believe in God? Conditions for the emergence of religious
- belief. Trends in cognitive sciences 17, 7–8.
- 39. Pennycook G, Cheyne JA, Seli P, Koehler DJ, Fugelsang JA. 2012 Analytic cognitive style predicts
- religious and paranormal belief. Cognition 123, 335–346.
- 40. Shenhav A, Rand DG, Greene JD. 2012 Divine intuition: Cognitive style influences belief in God.
- 437 Journal of Experimental Psychology: General 141, 423.
- 41. Pennycook G, Ross RM, Koehler DJ, Fugelsang JA. 2016 Atheists and Agnostics Are More Reflective
- than Religious Believers: Four Empirical Studies and a Meta-Analysis. PloS one 11, e0153039.
- 42. Gervais WM et al. 2018 Analytic atheism: A cross-culturally weak and fickle phenomenon? Judgment
- and Decision Making **13**, 268–274.
- 43. Willard AK, Cingl L. 2017 Testing theories of secularization and religious belief in the Czech Republic
- and Slovakia. Evolution and Human Behavior 38, 604-615. (doi:10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2017.01.002)
- 44. Vail KE, Arndt J, Abdollahi A. 2012 Exploring the existential function of religion and supernatural
- 445 agent beliefs among Christians, Muslims, Atheists, and Agnostics. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin
- 446 **38**, 1288–1300.
- 45. Laurin K, Kay AC, Moscovitch DA. 2008 On the belief in God: Towards an understanding of the
- emotional substrates of compensatory control. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology 44, 1559–1562.
- 46. Kirkpatrick LA. 1999 Toward an evolutionary psychology of religion and personality. Journal of
- 450 Personality 67, 921–952. (doi:10.1111/1467-6494.00078)
- 45. Boyd R, Richerson PJ. 1985 Culture and the Evolutionary Process. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago
- Press.
- 48. Mesoudi A, Whiten A, Laland KN. 2006 Towards a unified science of cultural evolution. Behavioral
- and Brain Sciences 29, 329–347. (doi:10.1017/S0140525X06009083)
- 49. Boyd R, Richerson PJ, Henrich J. 2011 The cultural niche: Why social learning is essential for human
- adaptation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 108, 10918–10925.

- 50. Rendell L, Fogarty L, Hoppitt WJ, Morgan TJ, Webster MM, Laland KN. 2011 Cognitive culture:
- Theoretical and empirical insights into social learning strategies. Trends in Cognitive Sciences 15, 68–76.
- 459 (doi:10.1016/j.tics.2010.12.002)
- 51. Kline MA. 2015 How to learn about teaching: An evolutionary framework for the study of teaching be-
- havior in humans and other animals. Behavioral and Brain Sciences 38, e31. (doi:10.1017/S0140525X14000090)
- 462 52. Legare CH, Nielsen M. 2015 Imitation and Innovation: The Dual Engines of Cultural Learning.
- 463 Trends in Cognitive Sciences 19, 688–699. (doi:10.1016/j.tics.2015.08.005)
- 53. Legare CH, Evans EM, Rosengren KS, Harris PL. 2012 The Coexistence of Natural and Supernatural
- 465 Explanations Across Cultures and Development: Coexistence of Natural and Supernatural Explanations.
- 466 Child Development 83, 779–793. (doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2012.01743.x)
- 54. Lane JD, Wellman HM, Evans EM. 2012 Sociocultural input facilitates children's developing under-
- standing of extraordinary minds. Child development 83, 1007–1021.
- 55. Evans EM. 2001 Cognitive and contextual factors in the emergence of diverse belief systems: Creation
- versus evolution. Cognitive Psychology 42, 217–266. (doi:10.1006/cogp.2001.0749)
- 56. Willard AK, Henrich J, Norenzayan A. 2016 Memory and Belief in the Transmission of Counterintu-
- 472 itive Content. Human Nature 27, 221–243. (doi:10.1007/s12110-016-9259-6)
- 57. Richert RA, Saide AR, Lesage KA, Shaman NJ. 2017 The role of religious context in children's
- differentiation between God's mind and human minds. British Journal of Developmental Psychology 35,
- 475 37–59.
- 58. Jong J, Halberstadt J, Bluemke M. 2012 Foxhole atheism, revisited: The effects of mortality salience
- on explicit and implicit religious belief. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology 48, 983–989.
- 59. Davis MH. 1980 Interpersonal reactivity index. Edwin Mellen Press.
- 60. Frederick S. In press. Cognitive reflection and decision making. Journal of Economic Perspectives
- 480 **19**, 25–42. (doi:10.1257/089533005775196732)
- 61. Primi C, Morsanyi K, Chiesi F, Donati MA, Hamilton J. 2016 The development and testing of a new
- version of the cognitive reflection test applying item response theory (IRT). Journal of Behavioral Decision
- 483 Making **29**, 453–469.
- 62. Toplak ME, West RF, Stanovich KE. 2014 Assessing miserly information processing: An expansion
- of the Cognitive Reflection Test. Thinking & Reasoning 20, 147–168.
- 63. Milojev P, Osborne D, Greaves LM, Barlow FK, Sibley CG. 2013 The Mini-IPIP6: Tiny yet highly
- stable markers of Big Six personality. Journal of Research in Personality 47, 936-944.
- 64. McLain DL. 2009 Evidence of the properties of an ambiguity tolerance measure: The multiple
- stimulus types ambiguity tolerance scaleII (MSTATII). Psychological reports 105, 975–988.

- 65. McElreath R. 2016 Statistical Rethinking: A Bayesian Course with Examples in R and Stan. CRC 490 Press.
- 66. Kruschke JK. 2010 Doing Bayesian data analysis: A tutorial introduction with R. Academic Press. 492
- 67. Kruschke JK. 2013 Bayesian estimation supersedes the t test. Journal of Experimental Psychology: General 142, 573.
- 68. Wagenmakers E-J, Morey RD, Lee MD. 2016 Bayesian benefits for the pragmatic researcher. Current
- Directions in Psychological Science 25, 169–176.

516

519

of Sciences 115, 2607–2612.

- 69. Etz A, Vandekerckhove J. 2018 Introduction to Bayesian inference for psychology. Psychonomic 497 Bulletin & Review 25, 5-34.
- 70. Oakes M. 1986 Statistical inference: A commentary for the social and behavioral sciences. 499
- 71. Hoekstra R, Morey RD, Rouder JN, Wagenmakers E-J. 2014 Robust misinterpretation of confidence intervals. Psychonomic Bulletin & Review 21, 1157–1164. 501
- 72. Dawkins R. 2006 The God Delusion. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- 73. Solt F, Habel P, Grant JT. 2011 Economic inequality, relative power, and religiosity. Social Science 503 Quarterly **92**, 447–465. 504
- 74. Kay AC, Shepherd S, Blatz CW, Chua SN, Galinsky AD. 2010 For God (or) country: The hydraulic relation between government instability and belief in religious sources of control. Journal of personality and 506 social psychology 99, 725. 507
- 75. Hoogeveen S, Wagenmakers E-J, Kay AC, Elk M van. 2019 Compensatory Control and Belief in 508 God: A Registered Replication Report Across Two Countries. (doi:10.31234/osf.io/vqu2x)
- Devezer B, Nardin LG, Baumgaertner B, Buzbas EO. 2019 Scientific discovery in a model-510 PLOS ONE 14, e0216125. centric framework: Reproducibility, innovation, and epistemic diversity. (doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0216125) 512
- 77. O'Connor C, Weatherall JO. 2018 Scientific polarization. European Journal for Philosophy of Science 513 8, 855-875. 514
- 78. Vohs KD, Schmeichel BJ, Lohmann S, Gronau QF, Finley AJ, Gervais WM, Wagenmakers E-J, 515 Albarracín D. In press. A preregistered paradigmatic test of the ego depletion effect. Preprint
- 79. Baribault B, Donkin C, Little DR, Trueblood JS, Oravecz Z, Van Ravenzwaaij D, White CN, De 517
- Boeck P, Vandekerckhove J. 2018 Metastudies for robust tests of theory. Proceedings of the National Academy
- 80. Smaldino PE. 2017 Models Are Stupid, and We Need More of Them. In Computational Social
- Psychology (eds RR Vallacher, SJ Read, A Nowak), pp. 311–331. New York: Routledge, 2017. | Series: 521
- Frontiers of social psychology: Routledge. (doi:10.4324/9781315173726-14)

- 81. Landy J et al. 2019 Crowdsourcing hypothesis tests: Making transparent how design choices shape research results. Psychological Bulletin
- 82. Muthukrishna M, Henrich J. 2019 A problem in theory. *Nature Human Behaviour* **3**, 221–229. (doi:10.1038/s41562-018-0522-1)
- 83. Smaldino P. 2019 Better methods can't make up for mediocre theory. *Nature* **575**, 9–9. (doi:10.1038/d41586-019-03350-5)
- 84. Navarro DJ. 2018 Between the Devil and the Deep Blue Sea: Tensions Between Scientific Judgement and Statistical Model Selection. *Computational Brain & Behavior* (doi:10.1007/s42113-018-0019-z)
- 85. Rad MS, Martingano AJ, Ginges J. 2018 Toward a psychology of *Homo Sapiens*: Making psychological science more representative of the human population. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*115, 11401–11405. (doi:10.1073/pnas.1721165115)
- 86. Henrich J, Heine SJ, Norenzayan A. 2010 The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral and Brain*Sciences 33, 61–83. (doi:10.1017/S0140525X0999152X)
- 87. Schulz JF, Bahrami-Rad D, Beauchamp JP, Henrich J. 2019 The Church, intensive kinship, and global psychological variation. *Science* **366**.