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 [§]
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^{*}University of Kentucky, Psychology, will.gervais@gmail.com †Blue Labs Analytics, Washington, D.C. †University of California-Davis, Psychology §University of Virginia, Psychology

Abstract

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Religion is a core feature of human nature, yet a comprehensive scientific account of religion must account for religious disbelief. Despite potentially drastic overreporting of religiosity¹, a 10 third of the world's 7 billion human inhabitants may actually be atheists—merely people who 11 do not believe in God or gods. The origins of disbelief thus present a key testing ground for 12 theories of religion. Here, we evaluate the predictions of four theoretical approaches to the origins of disbelief, and find considerable support for a dual inheritance (gene-culture coevolutionary) model. Our dual inheritance model² derives from distinct literatures addressing the putative 1) core social cognitive faculties that enable mental representation of gods³⁻⁶. 16 2) the challenges to existential security that motivate people to treat some god candidates as 17 strategically important^{7,8}, 3) evolved cultural learning processes that influence which god can-18 didates naïve learners treat as real rather than imaginary^{9–12}, and 4) the intuitive processes that sustain belief in gods^{13,14} and the cognitive reflection that may sometimes undermine it 15-17. We explore the varied origins of religious disbelief by treating these factors simul-21 taneously in a large nationally representative (USA, N=1417) dataset with preregistered analyses. Combined, we find that receiving few cultural cues of religious commitment is the most potent predictor of religious disbelief, $\beta = 0.28$, followed distantly by reflective cognitive style, $\beta = 0.13$, and less advanced mentalizing, $\beta = 0.05$. Few cultural cues of faith predicted about a 60% higher atheism rate than did peak cognitive reflection. Further, cognitive reflection may primarily predict reduced religious belief among individuals who witness relatively fewer credible contextual cues of faith in others. This work empirically unites four distinct literatures addressing the origins of religious disbelief, highlights the utility of considering both evolved cognition and cultural learning in religious transmission, emphasizes the dual roles of content-and context-biased social learning 18, and sheds light on the shared psychological mechanisms that underpin both religious belief and disbelief.

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

Introduction

Religion is somewhat 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 theories of religion have proliferated in recent years, and different theories make starkly different predictions about the nature and origins of religious disbelief. Thus, the origins of disbelief may prove a crucial testing ground for different theories of religion. Here we test predictions from four theoretical frameworks (outlined in Table 1): secularization, cognitive byproduct, cultural evolution, and an emerging dual inheritance (geneculture coevolutionary) model of religion² that views both evolved cognition and specific cultural learning mechanisms¹⁹ as key to the transmission of either faith or atheism^{12,20–22}. 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 23 . Religion simultaneously unites and divides like few other aspects of social life. The sectarian conflicts 47 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 ago²⁴ posits the existence of 500-700 million atheists. This estimate is in all likelihood a drastic 51 underestimate¹. 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^{25–29}: even atheists harbor some intuitive moral distrust of atheists worldwide³⁰. 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 practices³¹, 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 prevalence¹. 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^{13,32–34}, 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.

$_{\scriptscriptstyle 65}$ Four Atheisms

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 predict 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, 2) must have contextual surroundings which motivate belief in some gods, 3) must receive credible cultural cues that some gods are real, and 4) must intuitively 70 maintain this belief over time. Tweaks to any of these four components may instead yield disbelief in gods. 71 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 73 conceptualize gods, and mindblind atheism describes the pattern whereby individual differences in advanced 74 mentalizing abilities predict religious disbelief 5,6 in at least some samples 35 . Second, apatheism describes 75 the pattern whereby, although people are highly religiously motivated when life is insecure, unstable, and unpredictable, existential security instead predicts reduced religiosity^{7,36}. Third, inCREDulous atheism 77 describes the pattern whereby a lack of credibility enhancing displays (CREDs)¹⁹ that one ought to believe in any gods is a good global predictor of atheism^{11,37}. Finally, analytic atheism describes the pattern 79 whereby people who reflectively override their intuitions tend to be less religious than those who 'go with their guts'¹⁷, although the magnitude and consistency of this relation is debatable³⁸. Although these four 'brands' 81 of atheism relate to religious disbelief in isolation, little work considers their operation in conjunction³⁹. Different prominent theoretical perspectives place different emphasis on the role of mindblind atheism, apatheism, inCREDulous atheism, and analytic atheism, thus their relative contributions help test these theories.

86 Four Theories

Different theoretical approaches make divergent predictions about which sources of atheism (mindblind, apatheism, inCREDulous, or analytic) are most important predictors of religious belief and disbelief. First, secularization models^{7,36,40} posit that increases in existential security (wealth, health, education, etc.) reduce religious motivation; this approach is common in sociology of religion³⁶ and in social psychology under the banner of compensatory control^{7,41}. Second, cognitive science of religion and evolutionary psychology often view religion as a cognitive byproduct of other mental adaptations^{13,33,42}, such as mind perception⁴ or predator detection.ⁱ In this view, challenges in the core cognitive faculties underlying such adaptations

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, most graduate students in cognitive science of religion have tried these studies to no avail.

Table 1: Predictions From Prominent Theories

Theory	Discipline	mindblind	apatheist	inCREDulous
Secularization	Sociology & Social Psych		++++	
Cognitive Byproduct	Ev Psych & Cog Sci Rel	++	+	
Social Learning	Cultural Evolution			++++
Dual Inheritance	Gene-Culture Coevolution	+	indirect	++++

Note:

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The number of + symbols indicates the strength with which a certain theory posits that each of the four types of atheism

(e.g., advanced mentalizing) would predict disbelief, but the primary route to disbelief is people overriding
their religious intuitions via effortful cognitive reflection. Third, cultural evolutionary models highlight
the social learning processes 43-47 underpinning religious beliefs 18,48-50 and disbelief, and largely predict that
context-biased social learning-especially CREDs 19-would be strongly associated with degrees of religious
belief. Finally, dual inheritance theory integrates these various perspectives, and 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, in CREDulous 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.

We preregistered a set of analyses that pit secularization, cognitive byproduct, socialization, and dual inheritance models against each other. Specifically, we posed three broad questions:

- I. What are the relative predictive contributions of each factor when considered simultaneously?
- II. How do the factors interact with each other in predicting belief disbelief?
- III. Does early work on each individual factor successfully replicate in a nationally representative sample?

To approach these questions, we contracted a nationally representative sample of USA adults (N=1417) from GfK. Primarily, we were interested in predicting degrees of religious belief and disbelief with measures of 1) advanced mentalizing, 2) existential security, 3) theoretically modeled cues of cultural exposure to credible cues of religiosity (CREDs), and 4) reflective versus intuitive cognitive style. For robustness, we also included a number of demographic and psychological covariates. Full materials, data, and code are available on GitHub.

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

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

$\mathbf{Results}$

16 Relative Contributions

Our most important analyses considered the relative contributions of all four factors operating in concert. As preregistered, we conducted two analyses in which the four core factors predict individual differences in 118 belief and disbelief, both in the presence and absence of additional covariates. In our full model (see Table 2 and Figure 1), few credible displays of faith proved to be by far the most powerful predictor of religious 120 disbelief. Credibility enhancing displays of faith predict belief, and their absence predicts atheism, $\beta =$ 121 0.28, $[0.23, 0.34]^{iii}$, $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 1^{iv}$. Cognitive reflection remained a consistent predictor of religious 122 disbelief, $\beta = 0.13$, [0.08, 0.19], $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$, but following earlier cross-cultural work³⁸ its predictive 123 power was quite meager. Mentalizing challenges were only weakly associated with disbelief, $\beta = 0.05$, [-0.01, 124 0.11], $P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 0.95$, and existential security predicted essentially nothing. Throughout, we also 125 preregistered inclusion of a possible quadratic relationship between mentalizing and disbelief; we report it throughout for adherence to preregistration, not because it is especially interesting or noteworthy. 127

128 Atheism: Binary Measure

We also measured religious disbelief with a simple binary (No, Yes) belief in God item. We ran our full model 129 analysis as a logistic model predicting atheism rates on the binary measure. Results closely matched the full model using a continuous measure of disbelief. Aside from demographic covariates, only fewer religious 131 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, in CREDulous atheism was more evident 133 than analytic atheism. To illustrate, we considered the posterior produced by our model, marginalized at various levels of our predictors. Our model predicts that an otherwise completely typical person who 135 absolutely maxed out performance on cognitive reflection would have about a 20% chance of being an 136 atheist, $P(atheism \mid analytic) = 0.2$, [0.13, 0.28]. In contrast, someone of typical cognitive reflection but 137 minimal religious CREDs would have a 30% chance of atheism, $P(atheism \mid inCREDulous) = 0.31$, [0.24, 138 0.39]. Simply put: the predicted prevalence of atheists is about 60% higher for pure inCREDulous atheism than for pure analytic atheism, relative risk = 1.59, [0.95, 2.33], $P(inCREDulous > analytic \mid data) = 0.99$. 140 This relative difference in predictive strength, replicated across continuous and binary measures of disbelief, is much more consistent with some common theoretical approaches than others. 142

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

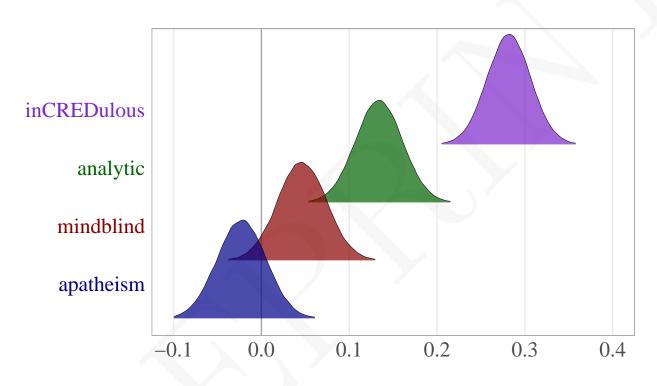
 $^{^{}iv}P(\beta > 0 \mid data) = 1$ indicates a posterior probability exceeding .99.

Table 2: Predicting Disbelief: Full Model Summary

Variable	Beta	HPDI	Pr
mindblind	0.05	[-0.01, 0.11]	0.95
mentalizing (quad)	0.01	[-0.02, 0.04]	0.81
apatheism	-0.02	[-0.08, 0.04]	0.21
inCREDulous	0.28	[0.23, 0.34]	> 0.99
analytic	0.13	[0.08, 0.19]	> 0.99
Age	0.01	[-0.04, 0.07]	0.69
Education	0.04	[-0.02, 0.1]	0.92
Male	0.07	[0.02, 0.13]	> 0.99
Social Lib	0.43	[0.35, 0.52]	> 0.99
Economic Cons	0.04	[-0.05, 0.12]	0.82
Extraversion	0.02	[-0.03, 0.08]	0.82
Conscientiousness	0.01	[-0.04, 0.07]	0.71
Neuroticism	0.00	[-0.06, 0.07]	0.56
Low Agreeableness	0.10	[0.04, 0.17]	> 0.99
Openness	0.07	[0.01, 0.13]	> 0.99
Honesty/Humility	0.04	[-0.02, 0.1]	0.91

Note:

 $^{^1}$ Mentalizing (quad) = quadratic effect of mentalizing 2 Beta = standardized beta 3 HPDI = 97% Highest posterior density interval 4 Pr = posterior probability of Beta > 0



Association With Disbelief (standardized beta)

Figure 1: Posterior densities illustrating how strongly each factor predicts disbelief

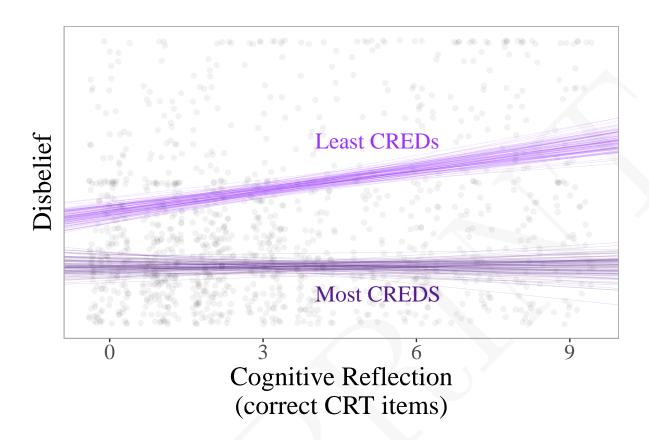


Figure 2: Cognitive reflection primarily predicts disbelief among individuals who are also relative low in exposure to religious CREDs. Lines reflect intercepts and slopes drawn from the posterior distribution and illustrate estimate uncertainty.

Hypothesized Interactions

Next, we probed for preregistered interactions among the four factors 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 with 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 roles of cultural context and evolved intuitions on religious cognition, as predicted by dual inheritance theories.

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

Table 3: Predicting Disbelief: Individual Replication Analyses

Variable	Beta	HPDI	Pr
mindblind	0.06	[0, 0.12]	0.98
mentalizing (quad)	0.02	[-0.02, 0.06]	0.89
apatheism	-0.03	[-0.09, 0.02]	0.1
inCREDulous	0.38	[0.32, 0.43]	> 0.99
analytic	0.18	[0.12, 0.24]	> 0.99

Note:

53 Individual Replications

Finally, we tested each candidate factor in isolation, merely to replicate previous work. Previous work has independently correlated indices of mentalizing, existential security, religious CREDs, and cognitive style with various measures of religious belief. We follow these efforts, and present individual analyses in which we see if established patterns replicate in a large nationally representative sample. In individual replication analyses (Table 3), inCREDulous atheism, analytic atheism, and to a lesser extent mindblind atheism replicated previous work. Apatheism was 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 predictora of individual differences in religiosity more broadly, although existential security is still quite useful in analyzing larger-scale regional and international trends.

163 Discussion

Summary

Overall, these results present one of the most comprehensive available analyses of the cognitive, cultural, and motivational factors that predict individual differences in religious belief and disbelief in the USA. They also speak directly to competing theoretical models of religious disbelief, culled from sociology, social psychology, evolutionary psychology, cognitive science of religion, cultural evolution, and gene-culture coevolution. Consistent inferences emerged, suggesting that the most potent predictor of disbelief is—by a 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 relationship

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

² HPDI = 97% Highest posterior density interval

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

was relatively modest. Advanced mentalizing was a consistent but weak predictor of religious belief, and existential security did not meaningfully predict belief and disbelief in this nationally representative sample.

175 Theoretical Implications

We hoped to test predictions about the origins of disbelief from four theoretical perspectives: secularization, cognitive byproduct, socialization, and dual inheritance. Comparing the predictions in Table 1 with the 177 results of Figure 1, it is clear that our results are most consistent with dual process theories. Indeed, this 178 was the only theoretical perspective that predicted prominent roles for both in CREDulous atheism and 179 analytic atheism. Given the primacy of cultural learning in our data, any model that does not rely heavily 180 on context-biased cultural learning is likely a poor fit for explaining the origins of religious disbelief. By extension, such models fail as as evolutionary accounts of religion. Indeed, continuous variability in entirely 182 ordinary levels of cultural exposure to religion consistently predicted rates of disbelief. Simply growing up in a home with few credible displays of faith yielded disbelief, contra prior assertions from the cognitive 184 science of religion that disbelief results from "special cultural conditions" and "a good degree of cultural scaffolding"³⁴. Instead, disbelief emerges quite naturally and easily in the absence of repeated and credible 186 cues of others' belief. 187

Analytic atheism is perhaps the most discussed avenue to disbelief in the literature^{15–17} and broader culture⁵¹, but its popularity may overstate its actual influence. Although in this sample overall there was some evidence of analytic atheism, the pattern appears to vary by religious exposure, and sufficient religious CREDs effectively buffered believers against the putatively corrosive influence of reflective cognition on faith.

Despite claims that atheism generally requires cognitive effort or reflection¹³, analytic atheism—as in other recent work³⁸—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^{36,52}. Further, it has been used
successful in experimental work^{7,53}, although these experimental insights may be less robust than initially
assumed⁵⁴. 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 drives down 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 thought²³, such as evolutionary psychology and cultural evolution, further
targeted investigation is needed.

210 Metascientific Implications

This work suggests three broader meta-scientific points. First, we illustrates a sort of replication-plus ap-211 proach to forensically evaluating the literature while simultaneously testing and advancing theory. We 212 conducted preregistered replications of four distinct findings from four different literatures, attesting to their 213 relative strength or weakness. This is of course intrinsically valuable. However, these four replications gain 214 theoretical significance when combined, as we were able to directly evaluate the suitability of four promi-215 nent theoretical perspectives on the origins of disbelief. Replication-plus approaches may prove similarly useful in other domains. Although a Registered Replication Report format has taken central stage in the 217 psychology metascience world, alternative approaches and viewpoints on replication and methodology may be beneficial^{55,56}. Second, of the four candidate factors we tested, one (credibility enhancing displays) is 219 derived from formal theoretical modeling in gene-culture coevolution, while the other three emerged from 220 verbal argumentation. In terms of predicting large-scale real-world patterns, the formally modeled theory 221 empirically outclassed the three 'veories'. vi Verbal theorizing is an important step in the research process, 222 but formal theorizing is an indispensable tool as well⁵⁷. Formal models are obviously wrong yet, they are 223 useful mental prostheses simply because they are precisely and transparently wrong^{23,57}. Further devel-224 opment in theory can circumvent methodological challenges to replicability^{58,59}, sharpen thinking beyond statistical desiderada⁶⁰, and spur scientific discovery⁵⁵. Third, most psychology research nowadays emerges 226 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 228 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 61,62. As such, we encourage 230 similar analyses across different cultures³⁹. This is especially necessary because cultural cues themselves 231 emerged as the strongest predictor of belief and disbelief. If this general pattern holds across societies, we 232 predict that—beyond religion—veories developed by WEIRD researchers to explain the weird mental states 233

vi'veories' are verbal theories, the intuitive verbal models that predominate much of psychology, and are a useful first step in formal theorizing.

of WEIRD participants will continue to ever more precisely answer only an outlier of an outlier of our most important scientific questions about human nature.

236 Coda

The importance of transmitted culture and context-biased cultural learning as a predictor of belief and disbelief cannot be overstated. Combined, the data we collected suggest that if you are guessing whether or not individuals are believers or atheists, you are better off knowing how their parents behaved—Did they tithe? Pray regularly? Attend synagogue?—than how they themselves process information. Further, 240 our interaction analyses suggest perhaps that sufficiently strong cultural exposure yields sustained religious 241 commitment, even in the face of the putatively corrosive influence of cognitive reflection. Theoretically, these results fit well with dual inheritance theories of religion, as evolved cognitive capacities for cultural 243 learning prove to be the most potent predictor of individual differences in the cross-culturally universal display of religious belief. In an applied sense, they also speak to the shared cognitive and cultural forces 245 that generate, depending on circumstances, either belief or disbelief. Atheists are becoming increasingly common in the world, not because human psychology is fundamentally changing, but rather because evolved 247 cognition remains 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 atheism is the natural result in others.

$_{\scriptscriptstyle{250}}$ Methods

251 Sample

To obtain a nationally representative 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 a manipulation check, leaving a total of 1417 respondents. Participant demographics are described in Table 4.

Measures Measures

Religious Belief

We relied on a popular measure of religious belief, the Supernatural Beliefs Scale⁶³, as our main dependent measure of religious belief. This scale includes items such as "There exists an all-powerful, all-knowing,

Table 4: Sample Demographics

Category	Percent
Education	
< High School	7.55
High School	27.24
Some College	28.23
College +	36.98
God Belief	
Believer	18.73
Atheist	81.27
Religious ID	
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

loving God" and "Human beings have immaterial, immortal souls" measured on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) 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 simply indicated whether or not they believe in God.

We also included various other measures of religiosity which were used to gain a more fine-grained 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, 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').

²⁷² Factors Predicting Religious (Dis)belief

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 Index⁶⁴. 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 281 assessing concerns that are salient to participants and participant faith in institutions like the government, health care, and social security to provide aid in the face of need³⁹. Items about the salience of different 283 concerns included questions about how often participants worry about losing their job, worry about having 284 enough money in the future, and feel they cannot afford things that are necessary. These items are assessed 285 on a scale from 1 (never) to 4 (all the time). Illustrative items regarding faith in institutions include "How 286 much do you feel confident in our country's social security system" and "How much do you feel that people 287 who start out poor can become wealthy if they work hard enough," assessed on a scale from 1 (not at all) 288 to 4 (a lot). Items measuring faith in institutions were reverse-scored, and all items were averaged together to form a composite index of existential insecurity ($\alpha = 0.77$, M = 2.2, SD = 0.39.), with higher scores 290 reflecting more insecurity.

We measured cognitive reflection, which corresponds to analytic atheism, using nine items from the Cognitive Reflection Test^{65–67}. 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 Scale⁹. 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.

306 Personality Measures

We also gathered data on participants' personality to serve as control variables in our models. We used 307 the MINI-IPIP6⁶⁸ to measure the personality factors of Extraversion ($\alpha = 0.79$, M = 3.69, SD = 1.12), 308 Agreeableness ($\alpha = 0.75$, M = 4.96, SD = 0.92), Conscientiousness ($\alpha = 0.68$, M = 4.97, SD = 0.97), 309 Neuroticism ($\alpha = 0.75$, M = 3.52, SD = 1.08), Openness to Experience ($\alpha = 0.73$, M = 4.69, SD = 1.01), 310 and Honesty-Humility ($\alpha = 0.76$, M = 4.8, SD = 1.13). Items in this scale were measured on a 1 (strongly 311 disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) scale. We also measured tolerance for ambiguity using the Multiple Stimulus Types Ambiguity Tolerance Scale-313 II⁶⁹. This included items such as "I don't tolerate ambiguous situations well (reversed)" and "I prefer a situation in which there is some ambiguity." This scale was reliable, $\alpha = 0.83$, M = 4.17, SD = 0.68. 315

316 General Demographics

Finally, we included a demographics questionnaire to allowed us to measure how participant characteristics like age, education, etc. might shape the relationship between different predictors of atheism and religious belief. These measures included age, gender, education level, social liberalism, and economic conservatism.

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).

327 Analytic Strategy

We used Bayesian estimation throughout. Bayesian estimation allows us to evaluate the credibility of differ-328 ent parameter estimates, given data and our statistical models^{70–73}. Most analyses report a point estimate 329 reflecting the most credible parameter estimate as well as a highest posterior density interval, the region in 330 which the 97% most credible estimates lie. We also report a variety of posterior probabilities, which state 331 the probability of something ($\beta > 0$, etc.) being true, given data and model. Heuristically, the posterior 332 probabilities have the properties people intuitively misinterpret frequentist p-values as having (e.g., the prob-333 ability of some hypothesis being true)⁷⁴, and the HPDIs have the properties people intuitively misinterpret 334 frequentist confidence intervals as having (e.g., the probability that a parameter lies in that range)⁷⁵. We used gently regularizing priors throughout, primarily deployed to buffer against model overfitting. Inferences 336 are highly robust to non-ludicrous alternative priors.

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343 Author Contributions

WMG designed the study, with survey revision and implementation from MBN and SRS. WMG performed
the primary analyses and NC performed descriptive analyses. WMG wrote the manuscript with NC. All
authors approved the final manuscript.

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