An edifice for enduring personal value:

A terror management perspective on the human quest for multi-level meaning

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Jon Anderson and Steve Howe of the British progressive rock band Yes developed the idea that would grow into the 1973 concept album, *Tales from Topographic Oceans*, based on ancient Indian Shastric scriptures about the essential elements of existence, and thus, the meaning of life. But like any artwork, *Tales* is composed of more basic structural elements, in this case an intricately complex series of notes, rhythms, and lyrics. While the album of course can be enjoyed in many different ways, each approach requires the individual to parse, categorize, and organize the composition’s elements at a basic perceptual level. Yet imposing such perceptual order provides no guarantee that the composition will afford a broad sense of meaning – perhaps the music makes sense and can even be experienced as enthralling, but the emergent Shastric themes fail to speak to the persons’ “big picture” questions about the world and their place within it.

We use this example to illustrate how the meaning-making process takes place at multiple levels. The multi-leveled nature of meaning-making is apparent across many domains. People may derive a profound sense of life’s meaning and purpose from close relationships, momentous life events, valued accomplishments, or spiritual encounters, but these sources of meaning are predicated on more basic conceptions of the world and one’s life as orderly and predictable rather than incoherent and chaotic.

Therefore, an important goal for understanding human meaning-making is to explain how (and why) meaning-making processes at both the “macro” and “micro” levels interrelate, as well as the underlying motivations they serve. With this broad goal in mind, the current chapter addresses the following questions: a) what is meaning, and, more specifically, what is the connection between macro- and micro-level meanings; b) why do people need (these different types of) meaning; c) how do people maintain meaning across these different levels; and d) how
does the pursuit of meaning interact with other psychological needs to influence people’s social relations? To address these questions, we adopt an existential perspective grounded in terror management theory (TMT; Greenberg et al., 1986).

**Meaning as the infrastructure for sustaining personal value**

We begin with a broad definition of meaning as the organism’s perception that its environment affords clearly defined and reliable contingencies for effective action. Any organism that actively navigates its environment relies on at least some meaning to obtain desired outcomes and to avoid undesired outcomes. For example, for a squirrel to effectively gather food, find mates, and avoid predators, it has to perceive that trees, cats, and other environmental stimuli operate in expected ways. But ultimately a definition of meaning that rests solely on expected relations misses that which renders the human quest for meaning so profound and intricate. Whereas humans share the squirrel’s reliance on meaning for the biological goals of survival and reproduction, they are also motivated to navigate their environment in the hopes of establishing a broader sense of effective action: That “who they are” and what they do have value. With this psychological imperative, humans create and invest in systems of meaning that no squirrel or salamander could recognize or appreciate, namely, reliable contingencies for attaining symbolic value. Note that we are not suggesting that providing a foundation for symbolic value is the only reason that people need or want meaning. Rather, we propose that this is one important (distal) influence on the multi-leveled nature of the human quest for meaning.

We can categorize these uniquely human meaning systems into “macro” and “micro” levels. At a macro level, humans create a cultural worldview – a set of socially constructed beliefs about reality that provides an account of the origin and nature of existence. The
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worldview not only provides a canopy under which life makes sense on a grand scale and often for some higher purpose, but importantly, it prescribes principles to live by and standards of value to attain. The individual internalizes the worldview through an immersive socialization process that reinforces prevailing norms, values, and ideals through life-long participation in collective ceremonies, rituals, and rites of passage, and through constant engagement with cultural products that embody those ideologies. This immersion endows normally socialized individuals with a global picture of which roles, statuses, group affiliations, and accomplishments qualify them for value (and which of these have the opposite effect).

At a more micro level, people seek out well-structured perceptions of their everyday social environment. Using basic social-cognitive tendencies to process information in simple and coherent ways, people can perceive other people, events, and their own experiences as well-defined and predictable. We argue that maintaining these structured perceptions is a necessary precondition for people’s efforts to first maintain adequate faith in the validity of their worldview, and from there, to live up to the worldview’s standards of value. For example, as Goffman (1959) so well articulated, to dependably negotiate social interactions and influence how others regard them, people have to perceive others’ characteristics and behaviors as being fairly consistent from one moment to the next. Similarly, to anticipate the consequences of actions and feel secure that their life projects will unfold reliably over time, people must believe that favorable and unfavorable outcomes have clear causes and are not arbitrary or random.

Conversely, if people lacked these structured perceptions – if, for example, other people’s behavior seemed contradictory or elusory, if the flow of time appeared disordered, or if events seemed haphazard – they would perceive their environment as a chaotic fantasy world in which any attempt to establish personal value and other goals would be futile. This helps explain why
people react defensively when confronted with even relatively minor threats to structured perceptions (e.g., mismatched colors on a deck of cards; Proulx & Heine, 2009): Expectations about even mundane aspects of reality serve at a distal level to buttress the person’s confidence that the world is a structured place where goal pursuit, and ultimately the securing of personal value, can be attained. At a more subjective level, the more people can feel confident that their cultural worldview captures a social environment that is orderly and predictable and prescribes legitimate routes to attain value, the more they can view life as meaningful. Of course, the sense that life is meaningful need not be a radical epiphany. Much of the time people take their cultural worldview and structured social perceptions for granted. They “ride along,” accepting the identities and long-term projects which are offered to them by virtue of their membership in certain social groups, and they commit themselves to the arrangements and routines of everyday life, secure in the knowledge that they are doing something significant (Berger & Luckmann, 1967).

However, because these meaning systems are essentially fictional accounts of reality built out of abstract symbols (e.g., rules) that escape empirical verification, they can be threatened by social experiences and environmental conditions, thereby putting people at risk for feelings of meaninglessness. For example, when people encounter followers of an alternative worldview, they may question the validity of their own worldview and its prescriptions for value (“If others have it right, what happens to me?”). Additionally, people run the risk of witnessing or falling victim to randomly occurring hazards that negate all strivings for value, or witnessing others who don’t believe in or conform to one’s worldview prosper for equally incomprehensible reasons. When the environment seems to allot favorable and unfavorable outcomes to people regardless of their adherence to the worldview’s prescriptions for valued action, people may have serious
difficulty sustaining confidence that following those prescriptions will secure lasting value.

This brings us to an important question: If people seek meaning from the cultural worldview and their structured social perceptions, in part, for the purpose of promoting a sense of personal value, why, at the core, are people motivated to view themselves as valuable?

**The existential importance of feeling valued**

To understand why people, unlike other creatures, need to obtain symbolic perceptions of value and maintain the integrity of their cultural worldviews, it is useful to consider the developmental trajectories by which these perceptions – and their importance – emerge. As many have noted (e.g., Becker, 1971; Bowlby, 1969/1982; Mead, 1934), humans are thrust into a most unsettling situation at birth. They can experience tremendous amounts of distress in the presence of threats, yet are profoundly defenseless against them. This condition renders the infant almost completely dependent on primary caregivers to assuage anxiety by providing affection and protection from threats. The caregivers also become the critical conveyors of meaning, delineating those parts of the developing child’s perceptual experience that should be welcomed, anticipated, avoided, or ignored. Over the course of socialization, the child begins to form expected relationships between specific ways of behaving and the responsiveness of the caregiver to the child’s needs, resulting in the understanding that security and anxiety-reduction is contingent upon behaving in accord with parental standards. Thus, the child’s sense of what things mean is from very early on equated with a sense of being safe and protected from harm.

This early dependency on primary caregivers for physical and psychological security sets the stage for a life-long commitment to meaning systems, and the pursuit of personal value as defined by those systems. However, with the emergence of self-awareness and other sophisticated cognitive capacities comes the distressing recognition that parental protection can
do nothing to change the terrorizing fact that death is inevitable (Becker, 1973), introducing a need for a new form of psychological protection. People “solve” the problem of mortality by adhering to a cultural worldview that allows them to view their life as embedded in a symbolic reality transcending the biological reality of death. By living up to the particular standards of value prescribed by the worldview, an individual can acquire a sense of enduring significance (i.e., self-esteem) that signals that they will “live on,” either in a literal (e.g., by means of an afterlife) or symbolic sense (e.g., by means of remembrance of one’s children, accomplishments, or group affiliations on the statues, monuments, park benches, or tombstones that pervade the cultural landscape). From this view, the life-long struggle to attain self-esteem stems in part from the need to transcend death and thus mitigate death-related anxiety. The human quest for meaning is fundamentally influenced by a desire for clearly defined, seemingly “real” routes for obtaining lasting personal value. Thus, meaning at both a macro and micro level is, as Becker (1973) put it, “more than merely an outlook on life: it is an immortality formula” (p. 255).

Before turning to some of the many macro and micro level strategies through which these processes unfold, let us quickly consider the basic prediction that this analysis generates. This analysis suggests that those without a secure investment in a worldview, a strong sense of self-esteem, or well-structured knowledge of the world may be especially vulnerable to feelings of meaninglessness when death-related thought is heightened. In support of this reasoning, studies have indeed found that reminders of death decrease perceptions of life’s meaningfulness among those low in self-esteem (Routledge et al., in press; Taubman Ben-Ari, in press) and among those who lack well-structured conceptions of the world (Vess, Routledge et al., 2009). These findings illustrate the importance of both macro- (culturally derived perceptions of value) and micro- (epistemic structure) level forms of meaning, and thus support the view that multi-level
perceptions of meaning contribute to protection from the awareness of death. We turn next to research examining the connections between awareness of mortality and specific macro and micro-level strategies for seeking and maintaining meaning.

*Macro level strategies for maintaining meaning in light of existential reality*

So far we have claimed that confidently held perceptions that one’s life is meaningful and valuable hold death-related thought at bay. This analysis yields several hypotheses. For one, it suggests that threats to meaning and self-esteem will increase the accessibility of death-related thought. This hypothesis has been examined in a growing set of studies that have targeted worldview relevant beliefs pertaining to such domains as religion, nationalism, close relationships, sexuality, as well as other social perceptions that support a sense of value or esteem (see Hayes et al., 2010 for a review). Using converging methods, these studies show that threatening these aspects of the worldview elevates the accessibility of death-related thought, but not the accessibility of other negative cognitions, suggesting that one function of faith in the worldview is to allay concerns about death in particular.

This work then points to a second hypothesis: If faith in a cultural worldview and self-esteem buffer concerns with personal mortality, reminding individuals of their own death (mortality salience; MS) should increase people’s identification with, and propensity to defend, their cultural beliefs as well as their efforts to obtain self-worth. Hundreds of studies have tested variants on this broad hypothesis and have shown that MS indeed increases investment in multiple aspects of the cultural worldview, including one’s nationality, religion, norms, and leaders (see Burke et al., 2010; Greenberg et al., 2008, for more comprehensive coverage). For example, in the first such demonstration, Rosenblatt et al. (1989) showed that MS increased Christians’ positivity toward fellow Christians and negativity toward Jews. The effects of MS
have been conceptually replicated cross-culturally, and MS has been shown to differ from the salience of other aversive topics (e.g., intense pain) and uncertain future events. Reminders of death have also been found to instigate various forms of self-esteem striving, leading people to try to do (or at least perceive that they are doing) that which provides them with a sense of self-worth (see Pyszczynski et al., 2004).

The assumption of the research just discussed is that cultural systems of meaning are defended (and/or hold death cognitions at bay) in part because they facilitate the perception that we live in an enduring and meaningful reality. This assumption points to an additional hypothesis that, critically, connects these effects more directly to perceptions of meaning: Defending or affirming one’s cultural worldview after reminders of mortality should carry the existential benefit of bolstering life’s perceived meaningfulness, perhaps primarily for those who suffer deficits in meaning, as well as dampening the motivation to further search for meaning.

Simon and colleagues (1998) found support for the first facet of this reasoning by exposing those with deficits in meaning, the mildly depressed, to a reminder of mortality (or a control topic) and an opportunity to defend their nationalistic worldview (or not). Depressed individuals not only defended their worldview with particular vigor after MS, but after doing so, they reported increased perceptions of meaning in life, suggesting that such defense helped to re-engage them in the worldview that provides a canopy of meaning. More recently, Vess, Arndt et al. (2009) explored the second facet of the reasoning noted above. They showed that giving religious fundamentalists the opportunity to affirm their faith after MS, in this case by advocating for the efficacy of prayer in place of medical intervention for illness, subsequently reported decreased motivation to search for meaning. This suggests that the affirmation of their worldview had satiated their thirst for meaning.
Micro level strategies for maintaining meaning in light of existential reality

The studies reviewed in the previous section point to the connection between awareness of death and specific aspects of one’s cultural worldview, such as cultural norms and religious beliefs, that provide a meaningful foundation for self-value. If, as we claim, faith in the worldview rests on more basic or non-specific conceptions that the world is a structured place, then MS should also increase people’s preference for well-structured interpretations of the people, events, and experiences that make up their social world. Accordingly, a large body of experimental research shows that MS increases the use of social-cognitive processes oriented toward simplicity, clarity, and order.

Consider terror management research on basic dissonance reducing strategies. As Heider (1958) and Festinger (1957) observed, making sense of other people and the self requires the person to resolve mental conflicts and preserve consistency between cognitions. According to TMT, the penchant for cognitive consistency is not simply a built-in feature of our cognitive system. Rather, it is motivated in part by the underlying need to mitigate mortality concerns. A world in which people and the self act in consistent ways is a world that can be reliably negotiated in an effort to make one’s lasting mark, whereas an ambiguous world of conflicting information affords few reliable opportunities for establishing a sense of personal value.

This general line of reasoning led researchers to test whether MS motivates people to maintain consistency between their cognitions and behaviors (Friedman & Arndt, 2005; Jonas et al., 2003). Friedman and Arndt (2005), for example, replicated a traditional dissonance effect in finding that participants who freely chose to write a counter-attitudinal statement reported more positive attitudes toward a boring passage compared to participants who were forced to write the statement, presumably bringing their attitudes in line with their behavior. Importantly,
participants who had been previously primed with mortality reported even stronger liking for the passage, suggesting that they were especially motivated to reduce dissonance. These findings illustrate how terror management motivation drives people to maintain consistency in even non-specific ways, since stating that a boring passage is interesting does not pose an explicit threat to any specific aspect of the participants’ cultural worldview.

Of course, some people have a high dispositional preference for well-structured knowledge. Individuals high in need for closure (NFC; Kruglanksi et al., 1993) and personal need for structure (PNS; Neuberg & Newsom, 1993) are particularly inclined to seek simple and clear interpretations of social information, and to respond aversely to complexity and ambiguity, whereas those low in dispositional structure-seeking are more comfortable with ambiguous, complex, or inconsistent information. How can we account for individual differences in structure-seeking from a TMT perspective? Solomon et al. (1991) argued that each person clings to an individualized worldview for psychological security, and differences in personality traits can reflect different sources of security-providing meaning. Thus, certain people may be especially likely to invest in well-structured conceptions of the world as a preferred means of managing terror, whereas others (i.e., low structure-seeking individuals) may be more comfortable with, and perhaps derive meaning from, epistemic openness and novelty (we revisit this latter possibility below). This suggests that individual difference constructs like NFC and PNS can be useful for predicting the types of people who are especially likely to respond to MS with increased preference for well-structured interpretations of social information.

Accordingly, research shows that MS leads individuals high, but not low, in PNS to: seek simple and consistent interpretations of other people; view social events as following a just and benevolent order; prefer order over chaos in visual stimuli; define personal characteristics and
organize autobiographical episodes, and connect their current activities with their long-term goals (e.g., Landau et al., 2004; Landau et al., 2006; Landau et al. 2009). A full review of this work is beyond this chapter’s scope (for a more complete presentation, see Greenberg et al., 2011), but let’s take a look at one line of research.

As noted earlier, the belief that social events follow a just and benevolent order constitutes a fundamental building block of terror-assuaging meaning. If people perceived that randomly occurring hazards could negate all their strivings for value, then they would have difficulty sustaining confidence that following the worldview’s prescriptions for value will facilitate their death transcendence. This suggests that MS will increase people’s efforts to construe social events as following a just and benevolent order, especially if they are dispositionally inclined to prefer structured knowledge. As one manifestation of this, Lerner (1980) observed that when people encounter information implying that the world is not just, they often restore justice by convincing themselves that the victims of misfortune deserved what happened to them. Landau et al. (2004) showed that MS increased this victim blaming tendency, especially among high structure-seeking individuals. For example, in one study, participants who had been reminded of death showed an increased preference for negative over positive information about a victim of a senseless tragedy, presumably in an effort to restore just world beliefs, but this effect held only for high-PNS participants.

In a follow-up study Landau et al. (2004) tested whether presenting information suggesting that victims of tragedy are actually good people will weaken participants’ secure conception of events and therefore unleash mortality concerns. This hypothesis was based on the large body of research noted earlier showing that threatening meaning structures increases death though accessibility. As predicted, high-PNS participants who read positive (but not negative)
information about the victim of a tragedy exhibited heightened death thought accessibility, whereas low-PNS participants did not (see also, Hirschberger, 2006).

**Perceptual shifts and the extraction of meaning**

Seeing events as connected to a just benevolent order is one example of a process that requires events to be perceived, not as isolated acts, but as connected to the broader scheme of how the world operates. This suggests that mortality reminders will motivate people to adjust their view of even mundane actions and objects, since the opportunity for death-transcending value rests on the ability to view these objects and events in terms of how they fit into the bigger picture.

Emerging research has begun to demonstrate how mortality awareness can lead people to shift from viewing the world in local, detail-oriented ways, to viewing it in more global or abstract ways (e.g., Landau et al., 2011; Vail et al., 2011). On this note, it is important to keep in mind that extensive research shows that conscious thoughts of death instigate efforts to remove thoughts of death from focal awareness, and that terror management motives to seek meaning and self-esteem occur when death thought has faded outside of conscious awareness yet remains cognitively accessible (see e.g., Goldenberg & Arndt, 2008). Indeed, in all the previously noted effects, death reminders affected meaning-seeking strategies after a distracting exercise designed to remove death-thought from focal awareness. As such, Vail et al. (2011) also reasoned that the shift in perceptual construal from local to global would occur when death-related thought is active, but outside of focal awareness.

Thus, Vail et al. reminded participants of death or control topic, and then, either immediately or after a delay, presented a series of simple behaviors that were taken from Vallacher and Wegner’s (1989) measure of action identification and asked participants to decide
whether a detail-oriented or an abstract description (e.g., locking a door as either the concrete behavior of inserting a key in a lock, or more abstractly as securing one’s house) best fit the behavior. The results indicated that immediately after MS there was no difference in levels of construal, but after a delay, MS led participants to make more abstract (vs. detail-oriented) descriptions. This research helps demonstrate the role of cognitive construals in the perception of one’s actions as meaningful. Even basic behaviors, such as caring for one’s houseplants, would be existentially meaningless if merely viewed as the physical act of pouring water in some soil. But when such actions are identified as an opportunity to make one’s home look nice and inviting to others, the individual becomes perceptually ready to pursue a death-denying sense of value according to his or her broader, more abstract system of meaning.

In addition to abstract construals of actions, the perception of our surroundings as composed of purpose-oriented items reinforces micro-level meaning by perceptually organizing otherwise unrelated aspects of one’s environment. Consider, for example, teleological reasoning—the belief that things exist for an ultimate purpose. The present analysis predicts that reminders of mortality should intensify such beliefs, and indeed, Davis et al. (2011) showed that MS increased belief in unfounded teleological statements, for instance, that the earth developed an ozone layer in order to protect life from harmful UV radiation.

Similar efforts to maintain abstract and purposeful construals appear to drive people to seek out more integrative conceptions of how their past experiences relate to their current self as a means of clarifying what they have become in time. In one recent study exploring this idea (Landau et al., 2011), when participants contemplated ways that their own important past experiences (vs. those of others) could have turned out differently, MS increased the perception that these events had a formative impact on their lives. By a similar token, people who are more
prone to nostalgic reflection tend to view the past as more significant rather than pointless, which helps them stave off death-related cognition and anxiety, and preserves their sense of meaning in life (Juhl et al., 2010; Routledge et al., 2008).

This analysis extends to inform people’s perceptions of their futures as well. Clearly, a person’s ability to perceive themselves, and their way of life, as progressing toward collective ambitions and personal goals bears a significant consequence for their opportunity to maintain a satisfactory sense of worth. If they are not able to see a meaningful way to progress toward these aspirations, then they would essentially be left to wallow in a sea of meaningless action with little hope to achieve future success. Thus, when reminded of death, people actually perceive that more of their daily activities are substantively performed in the service of their long-term life goals (Landau et al., 2011). And, at least among Westerners (though possibly others), heightened faith in the continued trajectory of human progress and improvement into the indefinite future—a view that fundamentally rests upon the expectation that the people are capable of meaningfully impacting their futures—helped buffer mortality concerns (Rutjens et al., 2009).

Together, this research suggests that existential concerns motivate people to construe the world in meaningful ways, from reorienting themselves toward more abstract or purposeful construals of basic actions, objects, and phenomena, to enhancing the perception that one’s personal past, present, and future experiences are substantively connected across time. But more broadly, this suggests that people maintain a basic perception of meaning to help manage the awareness of death.

**Implications for the interplay between the strivings for meaning and self-esteem**

This analysis allows for a nuanced and generative consideration of the dynamics that exist between people’s strivings for meaning and self-esteem. Again, we argue that security in
the face of awareness of mortality is based on the perception that one is satisfying the
prescriptions of value which are designated by the worldview. This suggests that for self-esteem
to effectively serve an anxiety-buffering function, the standards from which it is derived must be
perceived as legitimate and important.

Arndt and Greenberg (1999) directly assessed this possibility. They reasoned that if the
time of a self-esteem boost to buffer mortality concerns rests on the perception that the relevant
standards are legitimate, then a self-esteem boost based on dubious standards will be less
effective at buffering mortality concerns, and therefore will not reduce MS-induced worldview
defense. Supporting this reasoning, after MS, American participants who received neutral
feedback about their personality derogated a target who criticized the United States, but not if
they had received positive feedback about either their relationship skills or their academic
performance within their academic major (thus conceptually replicating Harmon-Jones et al.,
1997). However, if the target criticized the academic major itself, participants who received
positive feedback about their academic performance continued to derogate the anti-major target.
This suggests that even positive feedback on one’s performance in a domain loses its capacity to
buffer against mortality concerns if the standards on which that feedback is based are discredited.

The current analysis is also relevant for understanding how people react when their
strivings for meaning and self-esteem pull them in opposing directions. While meaning and self-
esteeem normally act in concert to assuage mortality concerns, there are interesting situations in
which enhancing self-esteem threatens to undermine faith in the worldview. We can imagine, for
example, a scientist on the verge of a breakthrough discovery, or a young adult who makes an
apple pie that rivals the one her extended family has made for generations. These individuals
might feel ambivalent about, on the one hand, gaining validation for their talent and creativity
and, on the other, discrediting the very belief systems that formally kept their world intact. Will they choose to self-enhance regardless of its consequences for the worldview, or will they put the brakes on their self-enhancement?

Our analysis suggests that the worldview is generally the more fundamental basis of security because self-esteem is predicated on meeting the worldview’s standards of personal value. A threat to the worldview necessitates a threat to the standards of value on which people stake their self-esteem (Arndt & Greenberg, 1999). However, discounting self-esteem bolstering accomplishments and other individuating efforts does not reciprocally entail a worldview threat. This suggests that, when faced with a conflict, people will typically opt to preserve faith in the worldview and temper their self-esteem strivings.

Supporting this reasoning, Landau et al. (2008) showed that MS led people to forego opportunities to bolster or defend self-esteem when doing so would threaten the status or credibility of revered, worldview-representative authorities. Specifically, mortality salient participants discounted the validity of self-esteem bolstering feedback when they were led to believe that institutional authorities dismissed the feedback as bogus; a similar study showed that mortality salient participants were reluctant to discount the validity of self-esteem threatening feedback that was ostensibly sanctioned by institutional experts. In a follow-up study, MS led people to rate themselves higher on a valued dimension after rating a close friend who excels on that dimension, but not if people first rated a parent who excels on that dimension. Similarly, MS led participants to judge feedback that they surpassed a current political figure as more valid, but feedback that they surpassed a canonical cultural figure as less valid. Taken together, these findings suggest that heightening mortality concerns generally increases self-enhancement but also increases reluctance to self-enhance when doing so would challenge important aspects of the
individual’s meaning-providing worldview.

**Managing terror and finding meaning in a less rigid fashion**

As the foregoing analysis has shown, the need to quell existentially distressing concerns about mortality can ultimately give rise to an intensely rigid reliance on existing knowledge about the world. This reliance can manifest itself in a variety of ways, unfortunately often implicating socially maladaptive outcomes ranging from intergroup prejudice and aggression to risky decision making. At the same time, affirming the integrity of macro-level sources of meaning (i.e., cultural worldview) and possessing coherently structured micro-level foundations of meaning (i.e., basic structure) both contribute to elevated meaning perceptions in the face of mortality concerns. This brings us to a cross-road, both in terms of this chapter and the current state of terror management research. Is it the case that all terror management efforts to maintain a sense of meaning require rigidity and must foster socially and individually deleterious consequences? We propose this need not be the case. Although sustaining identification with less rigid beliefs may be quite challenging in light of the tolerance for ambiguity they require, embracing cultural diversity, novelty, and growth-oriented engagements with the world has the potential to contribute to perceptions of meaning and help alleviate existential distress. An exciting direction for the next generation of terror management research is to examine the factors that make it possible for people to manage mortality concerns in a less rigid and dogmatic fashion.

Initial insights in this vein come from examining links between mortality concerns, need for simple structure, and reliance on clear interpretations of the world. Vess and colleagues (2009) reasoned that individual differences in PNS would moderate the effects of death-relevant thought on the strategies that people use to extract perceptions of meaning in life. Given the
openness to novelty and tolerance for ambiguity that is characteristic of low-PNS individuals (e.g., Neuberg & Newsome, 1993), Vess et al. hypothesized that these individuals will show a marked willingness to engage in novel exploration as a way of dealing with mortality concerns. Accordingly, low-PNS participants scored higher on an exploration scale and expressed more interest in countercultural information following reminders of death. Critically, Vess et al. also found that these explorative responses do in fact restore meaning for low-PNS individuals when death is salient. Thus, while considerable work has revealed many dogmatic responses to death-related thought, there is optimistic evidence that low levels of dispositional structure-seeking predict more growth-oriented ways of maintaining a buffer of meaning against the threat of death.

Open-mindedness or exploration might also stem, in part, from one’s degree of faith in a salient set of beliefs. In this respect, the religious domain offers an opportunity to examine how a specific death-denying belief might funnel responses when that belief is worldview consistent (e.g., among the religious), but might also encourage the exploration or contemplation of other meaning structures when the belief is not applicable for terror management purposes (e.g., among atheists). For many, belief in supernatural agents and afterlife can be quite a handy, and potent, defense against existential concerns (Norenzayan & Hansen, 2006). For the religious, then, MS should therefore inspire greater faith and ideological rigidity. For Atheists, however, the inapplicability of such beliefs may result in the need to seek out and explore other potential avenues for extracting meaning after death reminders. Indeed, in a recent series of studies, Vail et al. (2011) found that after being reminded of death, Christians and Muslims each boosted faith in their worldview-consistent deity (i.e., God and Allah, respectfully) and reduced faith in their respective worldview-inconsistent deities, but atheists showed a floor effect on all supernatural
beliefs. Importantly, however, death reminders increased Christian’s faith in religion, which in turn led to an increase in dogmatic belief style and decrease in need for cognition. In contrast, death reminders reduced Atheists’ faith in religion, leading to a decrease in their dogmatic belief style and an increase in their need for cognition.

These studies suggest that although firm adherence to a particular ideology can defend against mortality concerns, a willingness to explore ideas may serve a similar function when that particular ideology is less applicable to the individual’s worldview. The capacity of a given belief to provide a sense of existential meaning may be what renders that belief more appealing when faced with awareness of death. This may help to explain why Tracey and colleagues (in press) recently found that although reminders of death generally increased peoples’ acceptance of intelligent design theory and decreased their acceptance of evolutionary theory, these effects were reversed when naturalism was portrayed as a source of existential meaning.

More broadly, it is critical for future research to continue to explore strategies that facilitate a more open-minded and less defensive orientation to viewing life as meaningful in light of the human existential predicament. Said differently, how can meaning be achieved while, as Becker (1971) questioned, imposing the least harm on those outside the culture and future generations while also providing access to the widest range of people? Although this is an important research agenda to occupy the next generation of inquiry into the existential components and ramifications of meaning, there already exist some promising lines of work.

One possibility stems from the capacity for creative integration of new information and experiences with existing psychological structures and in so doing fashioning a more self-determined sense of meaning. Although often eschewed for dogmatic reliance on what is expected, the possibility of departing from the known makes it possible to create a relatively
autonomous constellation of meaning structures that would share many of the features so well articulated in self-determination theory research (e.g., Ryan & Deci, 2000). Perhaps such a constitution could provide expectations and standards that control anxiety and provide for a more open-minded approach to extracting meaning from life. There are a few encouraging findings in this vein. When the cultural value of creativity is primed, participants reminded of mortality expressed more interest in novel social, cultural, and environmental experiences (Routledge & Arndt, 2009). Further, as noted, Vess et al. (2009) demonstrated that giving low need for structure individuals the opportunity to explore alternative cultural perspectives boosted their perceived meaning in life after MS. And finally, Vail et al. (2011) demonstrated that people can use the basic nutrients of self-determination (needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) as a resource for managing the awareness of mortality and facilitating less defensive responses (see also Neimeic et al., 2010).

This possibility of using open-minded thinking to maintain meaning and thus alleviate existential fear is further bolstered by findings concerning the flexibility of the terror management system to rely on situationally salient values and norms (e.g., Jonas et al., 2008). Many belief systems contain prescriptions that encourage tolerance of deviant others, for example, as values to enrich a meaningful life. It may be useful to bring these tenets to the fore as a way of fostering less dogmatic and harmful responses to those outside the conventional belief system. The promise of such an approach can be seen in studies where people encouraged to re-conceptualize the nature of ingroup identifications to emphasis common humanity respond to reminders of mortality with less outgroup derogation (see Pyszczynski et al., 2008).

Yet another potential direction stems from work suggesting that deeper conscious recognition of mortality can foster greater attention to intrinsic values, which have been found to
be a potent contributor to eudemonic well-being. Drawing from the post traumatic growth literature, studies indicate that a more open and in-depth confrontation with the idea of life’s finality can inspire greater attention to self-transcendent values and goals (e.g., Cozzolino et al., 2004; Lykins et al., 2007). Of course, it is probably difficult to maintain this perspective. Maintaining focus on thoughts of death – particularly in the depth required to foster this orientation – would likely interfere with other endeavors, the business of living as it were, that allows us to experience the routine events and momentous occasions that help to produce a sense of meaning and purpose. And what happens when such ideation fades from conscious attention? Research shows that whereas conscious thoughts of death engender immediate derogation of extrinsic goals, the delayed effect of non-conscious thoughts of death is an inflation of the importance of extrinsic goals (Kosloff & Greenberg, 2009). Still, the possible benefits of a more honest acknowledgement of life’s transience are worth exploring.

**Conclusion: Death as a catalyst toward meaning**

The available research manipulating thoughts of death relative to other threats, and the research measuring patterns of death thought accessibility, as well as the historical record suggest that death awareness plays a unique role in the development and maintenance of meaning structures. Of course, a number of other threats can, and obviously do, lead to a greater need for meaning as well. The issue, therefore, is not to examine which threat underlies all defensive meaning preferences, but rather to explore and understand the differential influences of these various threats – when and how might they alter individuals’ efforts to bolster meaning, and what might those threats ultimately tell us about what people really need. To the extent that meaning reflects, in part, the perception of a network of expected relations that guide one’s value-seeking efforts, TMT is able to offer unique and coherent insights into the need for
meaning: as ultimately reflecting the perception of a clear path toward securing personal value, and thus symbolically transcending death. This explanation can help us understand why some meanings are more central to guiding one’s efforts to accrue value than others, and when.

In this light, it makes sense that departures toward the absurd motivate efforts to reinstate one’s sense of meaning (e.g., Proulx & Heine, 2009). A person with an apple as a face, or a red card suddenly switching black, clearly signals a violation of one’s broad rule-based system of meaning, but demonstrating such tells us little about why, at a deeper level, people need to see meaning in their lives. Even a child playing a board game knows that without at least some basic rules, there is no way to earn the glory of victory; and by the same token, she also knows that when she is not playing the game, the rules of the game are completely irrelevant. That is, meaning structures are not important for their own sake. Rather, life’s basic rules help map out the consequences of our thoughts and behaviors in predictable ways, allowing us to meaningfully direct our attitudes and actions in ways that will help us transcend death (i.e., “beat the game”). Transcending death means being good, and ways of being good cannot even be imagined without a stable, structured, system of meaning.
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