

Investigating mortality salience as a potential causal influence and moderator of responses to laboratory pain

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Background. Because pain can have profound ramifications for quality of life and daily functioning, understanding nuances in the interplay of psychosocial experiences with pain perception is vital for effective pain management. In separate lines of research, pain resilience and mortality salience have emerged as potentially important psychological correlates of reduced pain severity and increased tolerance of pain. However, to date, there has been a paucity of research examining potentially interactive effects of these factors on pain perception. To address this gap, the present experiment investigated mortality salience as a causal influence on tolerance of laboratory pain and a moderator of associations between pain resilience and pain tolerance within a Chinese sample.

Methods. Participants were healthy young Chinese adults (86 women, 84 men) who first completed an initial cold pressor test (CPT) followed by measures of demographics and pain resilience. Subsequently, participants randomly assigned to a mortality salience (MS) condition completed two open-ended essay questions in which they wrote about their death as well as a death anxiety scale while those randomly assigned to a control condition completed analogous tasks about watching television. Finally, all participants engaged in a delay task and a second CPT designed to measure post-manipulation pain tolerance and subjective pain intensity levels.

Results. MS condition cohorts showed greater pain tolerance than controls on the post-manipulation CPT, though pain intensity levels did not differ between groups. Moderator analyses indicated that the relationship between the behavior perseverance facet of pain resilience and pain tolerance was significantly stronger among MS condition participants than controls.

Conclusions. This experiment is the first to document potential causal effects of MS on pain tolerance and moderator of the association between self-reported behavior perseverance and behavioral pain tolerance. Findings provide foundations for extensions within clinical pain samples.

1 Investigating Mortality Salience as a Potential Causal Influence and Moderator of 2 Responses to Laboratory Pain

3

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13

14 Abstract

15 **Background.** Because pain can have profound ramifications for quality of life and daily
16 functioning, understanding nuances in the interplay of psychosocial experiences with pain
17 perception is vital for effective pain management. In separate lines of research, pain resilience
18 and mortality salience have emerged as potentially important psychological correlates of reduced
19 pain severity and increased tolerance of pain. However, to date, there has been a paucity of
20 research examining potentially interactive effects of these factors on pain perception. To address
21 this gap, the present experiment investigated mortality salience as a causal influence on tolerance
22 of laboratory pain and a moderator of associations between pain resilience and pain tolerance
23 within a Chinese sample.

24 **Methods.** Participants were healthy young Chinese adults (86 women, 84 men) who first
25 completed an initial cold pressor test (CPT) followed by measures of demographics and pain
26 resilience. Subsequently, participants randomly assigned to a mortality salience (MS) condition
27 completed two open-ended essay questions in which they wrote about their death as well as a
28 death anxiety scale while those randomly assigned to a control condition completed analogous
29 tasks about watching television. Finally, all participants engaged in a delay task and a second
30 CPT designed to measure post-manipulation pain tolerance and subjective pain intensity levels.

31 **Results.** MS condition cohorts showed greater pain tolerance than controls on the post-
32 manipulation CPT, though pain intensity levels did not differ between groups. Moderator
33 analyses indicated that the relationship between the behavior perseverance facet of pain
34 resilience and pain tolerance was significantly stronger among MS condition participants than
35 controls.

36 **Conclusions.** This experiment is the first to document potential causal effects of MS on pain
37 tolerance and moderator of the association between self-reported behavior perseverance and
38 behavioral pain tolerance. Findings provide foundations for extensions within clinical pain
39 samples.

40

41 Introduction

42 Pain is a complex, multifaceted experience that profoundly affects quality of life and daily
43 functioning (Ehde et al. 2003; Martz et al. 2005). Understanding nuances in the interplay of
44 psychosocial experiences with pain perception is vital for effective pain management (Min et al.
45 2014; Turk 2005; Turner et al. 2001). Recent research has identified individual differences in
46 pain resilience as a key influence upon how well people adapt to pain. According to Slepian et al.
47 (2016) pain resilience has two facets: (i) behavioral and motivational tenacity (i.e., behavioral
48 perseverance) in the face of severe or prolonged pain and (ii) the perceived capacity to maintain
49 a positive outlook in regulating emotions and cognition (i.e., cognitive/emotional positivity)
50 despite pain. Higher scores of these pain resilience dimensions have been linked to lower scores
51 of measures of adverse outcomes including pain catastrophizing, fear of movement, impairment,
52 pain-related anxiety and depression as well as elevations on measures of adaptive functioning
53 such as general resilience to adversity, pain self-efficacy, hope, and optimism (Ankawi et al.
54 2017b; Slepian et al., 2016; You & Jackson 2021). Notably, however, pain resilience has had
55 mixed associations with pain intensity and tolerance in laboratory pain tasks such as the cold
56 pressor test (CPT), as significant associations have been observed in some samples (e.g., Li &
57 Jackson 2020; Ling et al. 2021; Slepian et al., 2016) but not others (e.g., Ankawi et al. 2015,
58 2020). Given the somewhat inconsistent relations between pain resilience and pain perception, it
59 may be useful to consider potential moderating factors that help to explain significant relations
60 under some conditions but not others.

61

62 In this regard, Terror Management Theory (TMT) offers a novel perspective on possible
63 influences on pain perception and its links to individual difference influences such as pain
64 resilience. Terror management theorists contend that awareness of mortality influences human
65 thought, motivation, behavior, and emotion (Greenberg et al. 1986; Pyszczynski et al. 2015).
66 Heightened awareness of death or mortality salience (MS) is hypothesized to bolster
67 psychological defenses (Burke et al. 2010) in a manner that may improve adaptive functioning.
68 Specifically, people manage anxiety arising from thoughts about their death through (i)
69 embracing an internalized version of their cultural worldview that provides explanations for
70 origins and purposes of human life and transcendence beyond death and (ii) bolstering the sense
71 that they are successfully living up to standards prescribed by such worldviews (self-esteem)
72 (e.g., Pyszczynski et al. 2015). As such, accessibility to death-related thoughts should provoke
73 increased worldview and self-esteem defenses and striving. Overall support for these contentions
74 has been provided by a meta-analysis of 277 experiments that found MS manipulations yielded
75 moderate effects ($r = .35$) on various worldview- and self-esteem-related dependent measures
76 (Burke et al., 2010).

77

78 In light of such data, MS may have utility in increasing the capacity to bear pain when resilience
79 and/or acceptance of pain and suffering are emphasized within overarching cultural worldviews.

80 In East Asian cultures, the perception and management of pain and suffering are deeply
81 influenced by Confucianism, Stoicism, and Buddhism (Chen et al., 2008; Tung, & Li, 2015),
82 which view pain and suffering as essential aspects of the human experience (e.g., Wei-Ming,
83 1984) that contribute to moral self-realization (Narayan, 2010), strength of character (Narayan,
84 2010), and spiritual growth (e.g., Chen et al., 2008). These cultural worldviews encourage
85 enduring pain without outwardly expressing distress, aligning with values of personal resilience
86 and social harmony (Chen et al., 2008). Consequently, pain is often managed privately, with a
87 stoic endurance seen as a virtue, reflecting a broader cultural acceptance of suffering as a path to
88 personal and spiritual development (Chen et al., 2008; Wang & Tian, 2018). In tandem, these
89 Chinese worldviews underscore cultural beliefs about the inevitability of pain and suffering,
90 potential benefits of such experiences for personal growth and transcendence, and expectations
91 that pain should be endured without distress, if possible, as a means of demonstrating strength of
92 character and maintaining social harmony. Ji et al. (2021) found preliminary empirical support
93 for a somewhat distinct Chinese worldview of pain and suffering that contrasted with a Euro-
94 Canadian perspective. Across two studies, these authors found that Chinese participants (i)
95 generated relatively more positive (or less negative) associations in response to the construct of
96 “suffering” and (ii) added a greater number of positive ingredients and fewer negative
97 ingredients in a hypothetical potion they created to represent what people experience while
98 suffering compared to their Euro-Canadian peers. From a terror management perspective,
99 increasing MS may foster awareness and the adoption of culturally-prescribed worldviews of
100 how pain should be appraised and managed.

101

102 Select research has found preliminary support for links between MS manipulations and measures
103 of pain perception. In particular, McCabe et al. (2015) assessed effects of MS (versus a control
104 condition) and false feedback linking pain endurance to heroic traits such as bravery, courage,
105 and overcoming adversity (versus certain positive personality traits) on pain reported from a cold
106 pressor test (CPT) in a sample of U.S. men. Main effect analyses revealed exposure to the MS
107 condition and false feedback linking pain endurance to heroism were associated with
108 significantly less reported pain. These main effects were qualified by a significant interaction
109 whereby MS condition men exposed to the heroic depiction of pain endurance reported
110 significantly less pain than their peers in other conditions did. Although findings suggested that
111 MS in tandem with depictions of bravery and resilience in the face of pain predict decreases in
112 reported pain, the impact of these manipulations on objective measures of behavioral pain
113 tolerance (i.e., total time immersed in the CPT) was not assessed; examining effects on pain
114 tolerance has implications for outcomes reflecting the capacity to function despite ongoing pain
115 such as pain-related disability. Moreover, because the study was limited to U.S. men, it was not
116 clear whether findings also applied to women or other cultural groups whose worldviews are
117 characterized by acceptance and resilience in the face of suffering. Finally, although the
118 interaction of MS with a (heroic) false feedback manipulation having clear conceptual relations
119 to resilience had beneficial effects, it is not clear whether interactive effects of individual

120 differences in specific dimensions of trait-related pain resilience (i.e., behavioral perseverance
121 and/or cognitive/affective positivity) with MS also influence pain tolerance or intensity.

122

123 To address these gaps, we investigated effects of an MS manipulation on tolerance and intensity
124 of laboratory pain within a cultural group (i.e., Chinese women and men) for whom dominant
125 worldviews highlight pain and suffering as inevitable, potentially positive experiences to be
126 endured without overt distress, in part, to demonstrate strength of character. We also assessed
127 moderating effects of this manipulation on associations of perseverance and positivity
128 dimensions of trait pain resilience with pain tolerance and intensity. Based on the preceding
129 review, we hypothesized that **higher scores on pain resilience dimensions of behavioral**
130 **perseverance and cognitive./affective positivity as well as** exposure to an MS manipulation
131 (versus a control manipulation) would be related to increased pain tolerance and lower levels of
132 reported pain. Furthermore, **based on preliminary evidence from McCabe et al. (2015)**, we
133 hypothesized that the manipulation would moderate relations between pain resilience dimensions
134 and measures of pain tolerance and intensity.

135

136 **Materials & Methods**

137 **3.1 Research design and data collection procedures**

138 We employed a randomized experimental design approved by the Human Research Ethics
139 Committee of the associated university (Approval [H20071]), adhering to the Declaration of
140 Helsinki. Recruitment focused on university students because this group has been found
141 previously to exhibit more distinct responses to MS manipulations than non-students do (Burke
142 et al. 2010). Based on past research (e.g., Jackson et al., 2005), exclusion criteria included the
143 presence of a neurological disorder, serious mental illness (e.g., bipolar disorder, schizophrenia),
144 a current or past pain condition, a history of medical conditions including diabetes, Raynaud's
145 disease, a circulation or cardiovascular disorder, anemia, hypertension, blood coagulation
146 disorder, epilepsy, skin diseases or a past severe cold injury (e.g., frostbite) as well as current
147 medication use for any of these conditions. We also excluded people who had previously
148 undertaken a CPT to control for effects of familiarity with experimental stimuli (Wang et al.
149 2016). A gender-balanced sample of 80-92 women and 80-92 men was sought so that findings
150 would apply across men and women. Because the quota of women was recruited more quickly,
151 later stages of the recruitment process targeted men exclusively. This strategy yielded a closely
152 balanced gender distribution for the final cohort.

153

154 Upon arrival, participants were informed about the general study focus (factors that might
155 influence pain perception) and procedures (completion of several questionnaires and a CPT) as
156 well as the time involved (35-45 minutes). After signing the informed consent and completing a
157 checklist of exclusion criteria, participants engaged in a standardized 15 second practice CPT
158 and completed self-report measures of demographics and pain resilience. Subsequently, they
159 engaged in the (MS versus control) experimental manipulation, a delay task, and a longer actual

160 CPT, each of which is described below. Following the actual CPT, pain intensity ratings were
161 solicited and participants were asked to guess the specific research purpose(s). The study was
162 conducted from October 2020 to January 2021.

163

164 **Apparatus.** The CPT was conducted using a Model DX-208 cold water bath, measuring 25 cm x
165 25 cm x 20 cm, filled with 12.5 L of water at 2 °C (± 0.1 °C). This temperature was consistently
166 maintained using a thermostat-regulated electric pump (Wang et al. 2016). The CPT is widely
167 used because it mimics effects of chronic pain conditions effectively due to its' unpleasantness
168 and excellent reliability and validity (e.g., Jackson et al., 2005; Mitchell et al., 2004).

169

170 **Practice CPT.** Following standard published protocols (Jackson & Phillips 2011; Wang et al.
171 2016), participants first immersed their non-writing hand in room-temperature water for 30
172 seconds, followed by a 15-second immersion in 2°C water. The practice CPT was used to ensure
173 all those who engaged in the subsequent CPT were familiar with the experimental pain stimulus
174 and had the same minimal baseline pain tolerance level prior to experimental manipulations.

175

176 **Completion of Background Measures**

177

178 **Demographics.** Sex, age, height (centimeters), weight (kilograms), ethnicity, religion,
179 relationship status (single, non-single), number of dependents, and total years of university
180 education were assessed.

181

182 **Pain Resilience Scale-Chinese** (You & Jackson 2021). The 10-item Chinese version of the Pain
183 Resilience Scale (PRS; Ankawi et al. 2017a; Slepian et al. 2016) was used to evaluate behavioral
184 perseverance and cognitive/affective positivity facets of pain resilience in respondents. Items
185 were rated on a scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (all the time). The Chinese PRS replicated
186 the two-factor structure of the original PRS and has demonstrated reliability and validity in
187 Chinese samples (You & Jackson 2021). In this experiment, behavioral perseverance and
188 cognitive/affective positivity subscales each had Cronbach's alpha values of $\alpha = .82$.

189

190 **Exposure to experimental manipulations**

191

192 Participants were randomly assigned to either an MS group or a neutral control group. Those in
193 the MS group responded to two standard open-ended questions designed to evoke thoughts about
194 death: (a) "What will happen to you physically when you die?" and (b) "What emotions are
195 aroused in you when you think about your death?" based on past work (Rosenblatt et al. 1989).
196 Additionally, MS group members completed the 17-item University Student Personal Death
197 Anxiety Scale (Zhou et al. 2019) as another way of increasing exposure to MS. Conversely,
198 control group cohorts responded to two open-ended questions about personal reactions to
199 television-viewing: (a) "What will happen to you when you watch television?" and (b) "What

200 emotions are aroused in you when you think about watching television?" (Greenberg et al. 1992).
201 Control group members also completed a 17-item scale related to satisfaction with television
202 viewing (Song 2018). Across these conditions, participants were instructed to engage in the
203 writing task for 10 minutes (Burke et al. 2010). Following experimental manipulations, all
204 participants responded to three manipulation check items used to assess the validity of MS
205 manipulations in other published research (Guan et al. 2020). Specifically, participants were
206 asked, "How much did you think about death?" (2) "How much fear did you feel?" (3) "How
207 unpleasant did you feel?" during the task on 11-point scales with "0 = not at all" and "10 = very
208 strong") as anchors.

209

210 **Delay tasks**

211

212 TMT posits that the effects of MS are most potent when thoughts of death are accessible yet not
213 in conscious awareness, necessitating a short delay between MS inductions and responding to
214 dependent measures for optimal impact (Arndt et al. 2002; Greenberg et al. 2000). Longer delays
215 (7–20 min) and engagement in two or three different tasks during delays result in more
216 significant MS effects than shorter delays (2–6 min), single task delays, or no delays do (Burke
217 et al. 2010). Accordingly, our experiment incorporated two distinct delay tasks. First,
218 participants completed the Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS; Qiu et al. 2008)
219 which is commonly used as a delay task (Burke et al. 2010). The PANAS-Chinese version
220 comprises 18 items that evaluate positive and negative emotions experienced over the past week.
221 Items were rated on a frequency scale ranging from 1 ('never or rarely') to 5 ('very strong') (Qiu
222 et al. 2008). Subsequently, participants engaged in a Sudoku game. A total time of 10 minutes
223 was allocated for both tasks regardless of participant completion speed to ensure standardization
224 of the delay time and optimize potential effects of the MS manipulation.

225

226 **Actual CPT**

227

228 For the actual CPT, participants were to immerse their left hand in cold water for as long as
229 possible although they could withdraw at any point, particularly if the pain was unbearable.
230 During the immersion, they could use any coping strategy they chose to manage the pain though
231 the experimenter who quietly recorded its duration from behind would not engage with them
232 until after the CPT was terminated. Unknown to participants, the maximum immersion time was
233 four minutes, after which they were told to withdraw the hand if they reached the time limit.

234

235 **Measurement of post-CPT pain tolerance and pain intensity**

236

237 Pain tolerance from the actual CPT was based on the duration each participant's hand remained
238 immersed in ice water to the nearest hundredth of a second up to a four-minute time limit.
239 Immediately after the CPT, participants answered three widely used pain intensity items

240 (Jackson et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2016) assessing pain intensity at the moment one withdrew
241 from the ice water, as well as average pain intensity during the course of the CPT and highest
242 level of pain experienced during the immersion. Each item was rated on a numeric scale with 0
243 (“no pain”) and 10 (“worst pain imaginable”) as anchors. Responses from these items were
244 averaged to obtain total pain intensity scores. In this sample, the three-item pain intensity scale
245 had an internal consistency of $\alpha = .90$.

246

247 **Debriefing**

248

249 Following the second CPT, participants were asked to guess the specific research purposes and
250 hypotheses as as means of assessing awareness of research questions as an influence on results.
251 They were then informed of the main research focus, given the opportunity to ask lingering
252 questions and paid 30 RMB and thanked for their time and participation.

253

254 **3.2 Data analyses**

255 The sample size estimate was based, in part, on G*power 3.1 software. Power analysis estimated
256 minimum of N's of 99 participants and 140 participants (70 per group), respectively, for multiple
257 linear regression and t-test analyses, based on medium effect sizes ($f^2 = .15$ or $d = .50$) (Cohen,
258 1992), with 90% power and a 5% error probability. Based on these parameters, minimum sample
259 size requirements were met. In addition, we sought a final sample size that approximated that of
260 McCabe et al.'s (2015) conceptually-related experiment ($N = 160$) to ensure that statistically
261 significant effects in the present experiment were not due to using a much larger sample size.
262 SPSS 20.0 was employed for analyses. Independent samples t-tests and chi-square tests were
263 used to assess MS versus control group differences on measures of demographics, pain resilience
264 dimensions and manipulation checks based on a significance threshold of $p < .05$. MS versus
265 control condition differences in pain tolerance and pain intensity were evaluated via analyses of
266 covariance (ANCOVA), adjusting for potential differences on background characteristics.

267

268 We calculated Spearman correlation coefficients to identify statistically significant relations of
269 experimental manipulation conditions and dimensions of pain resilience with dependent
270 measures (pain tolerance and pain intensity). When the experimental manipulation had a
271 significant effect on a dependent measure, moderator analyses were conducted using Jamovi
272 (<https://www.jamovi.org>) and the Process macro in SPSS 20.0, supplemented by a 5,000-
273 iteration bootstrapping procedure to generate model estimates and confidence intervals (CIs).
274 This non-parametric approach was used to identify interaction and their statistical significance,
275 defined by excluding zero in the bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (Preacher & Hayes
276 2008; Shrout & Bolger 2002; Tetreault et al. 2018). Variables were standardized as z-scores prior
277 to conducting the moderator analysis.

278

279 **Results**

280

281 4.1 Preliminary analyses

282

283 From an initial sample of 182 healthy college students, data from five participants were excluded
284 for failing to display minimal pain tolerance (i.e., less than 15 seconds) on the actual CPT based
285 on other published work suggesting such responses are highly anomalous and reflect a lack of
286 effort (Jackson et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2016). Results were fully replicated
287 when these data were included in main analyses. Data from seven other participants were also
288 excluded for inadequate responses to the experimental manipulation (i.e., answers to the two
289 open-ended questions were overly brief and reflected a lack of engagement); manipulations did
290 not have differential effects on this factor, $\chi^2 = 1.24$, $p = .266$, suggesting experimental
291 conditions did not differ regarding overall engagement in completing MS versus control
292 condition tasks. Finally, none of the participants guessed the specific research purposes.

293

294 The final sample comprised 86 women and 84 men, primarily of Han Chinese ethnicity (84%),
295 no formal religious affiliation (94%), and right-handedness (100%). A majority reported being
296 single (62%). The sample had an average age of 19.74 years ($SD = 1.53$, range: 18–26 years), a
297 mean of 2.22 years of university education ($SD = 1.31$ years, range = 1–7 years), an average of
298 3.95 dependents in their family ($SD = 1.13$, range = 1–8) and a mean body mass index of 21.15
299 ($SD = 2.96$, range = 15.24 - 35.83).

300

301 No significant MS versus control group differences were found on demographic measures or
302 pain resilience (see Tables 1 and 2). However, because a statistical trend emerged for age (i.e. the
303 MS group was slightly younger than the control group, $p = .051$), age was included as a covariate
304 in main analyses of group differences in pain tolerance and intensity to be conservative. Results
305 were fully replicated when age was not treated as a covariate in main analyses. Regarding
306 manipulation check items, MS group participants reported significantly more thoughts of death
307 [MS group: $M = 7.18$, $SD = 1.83$ versus control group: $M = .42$, $SD = 1.36$, $t(168) = 27.29$, $p <$
308 $.001$], feelings of fear [MS group: $M = 4.31$, $SD = 2.30$ versus control group: $M = 0.66$, $SD =$
309 1.25 , $t(168) = 12.83$, $p < .001$] and feeling unpleasant [MS group: $M = 4.19$, $SD = 2.48$ versus
310 control group: $M = 1.65$, $SD = 1.75$, $t(168) = 7.73$, $p < .001$]. Hence, experimental
311 manipulations designed to ensure group differences in MS were effective.

312

313 4.2 Main analyses

314

315 As shown in Table 2, the MS group exhibited significantly longer pain tolerance on the CPT than
316 the control group did ($p = .001$) with a medium effect size strength (Cohen's $d = .54$).
317 Conversely, there was no significant experimental condition difference in overall pain intensity
318 ($p = .743$); the corresponding effect size was very small (Cohen's $d = .05$). As presented in
319 Table 3, behavioral perseverance and cognitive/affective positivity facets of self-reported pain

320 resilience had significant positive correlations with pain tolerance as well as negative
321 correlations with pain intensity; related effect size magnitudes were small based on Cohen,
322 1992). In line with ANCOVA results, random assignment to the MS (versus Control)
323 manipulation had a significant positive correlation with pain tolerance and a non-significant
324 association with pain intensity. In light of these bivariate correlations, we tested potential
325 moderating effects of MS on relations of behavioral perseverance and cognitive/affective
326 positivity with pain tolerance while moderator analyses were not run for pain intensity as an
327 outcome.

328

329 As highlighted in Table 4, random assignment to the MS condition moderated the relationship
330 between behavioral perseverance and pain tolerance; the experimental manipulation \times behavior
331 perseverance interaction remained significant even when main effects of experimental
332 manipulation condition and behavior perseverance were retained in the model. The 95% bias-
333 corrected confidence interval for this interaction excluded zero, further underscoring the
334 significant moderating effect of MS. Finally, in support of moderation, a simple slope analysis,
335 conditioned at ± 1 SD from the mean (Preacher et al. 2006), self-reported behavioral
336 perseverance and pain tolerance had significant association with a medium effect size magnitude
337 in the MS group ($\beta_{\text{simple}} = .31$, $SE = .10$, $p = .001$) and a non-significant association in the control
338 group, with a very small effect size ($\beta_{\text{simple}} = .00$, $SE = .11$, $p = .988$). In contrast to these results,
339 the experimental manipulation did not significantly moderate the relationship between
340 cognitive/affective positivity dimension and pain tolerance (see Table 4).

341

342 Discussion

343 Building on separate lines of research that have identified experimental manipulations of MS
344 (e.g., McCabe et al., 2015) and individual differences in trait measures of pain resilience
345 (Ankawi et al. 2017b; Li & Jackson, 2020; Slepian et al., 2016; You & Jackson 2021) as
346 potential influences on pain perception, our research evaluated the causal impact of MS
347 manipulations on pain tolerance and intensity as well as its moderating effects on relations
348 between pain resilience and pain perception. **Analyses provided partial support for hypotheses.**
349 **Associations between higher levels of self-reported pain resilience and longer behavioral pain**
350 **tolerance replicated past several experimental pain studies (e.g., Li & Jackson 2020; Ling et al.**
351 **2021; Slepian et al., 2016). Regarding more novel findings, this experiment in the first to**
352 **document a significant association between exposure to an MS (versus control condition)**
353 **manipulation and longer tolerance of laboratory pain, even though these experimental conditions**
354 **did not have significant differential effects on reported pain intensity levels. Furthermore,**
355 **moderator analyses resulted in the novel finding that being randomly assigned to the MS**
356 **condition was related to a significant moderate positive association between pre-task self-**
357 **reported trait behavioral perseverance and objectively-measured behavioral pain tolerance while**
358 **random assignment to the control condition resulted in a very small, non-significant association**
359 **between these variables. Conversely, MS did not moderate cognitive/affective positivity-pain**

360 tolerance relations. Implications of novel MS and moderator analysis findings are elaborated
361 briefly below.

362

363 An overarching premise of TMT is the view that heightened awareness of death can facilitate
364 adaptive outcomes (Burke et al. 2010). We tested this contention based on responses to painful
365 laboratory stimulation within a young Chinese adult sample. Selective support was found for this
366 perspective, as MS condition participants demonstrated greater behavioral tolerance for cold
367 pressor pain than control condition cohorts did. This effect was especially notable because no
368 MS versus control condition difference was observed for overall pain intensity. As such, the
369 significantly stronger capacity to endure painful stimulation displayed among MS condition
370 participants was not due to experiencing comparatively less severe pain. Furthermore, because
371 participants were randomly assigned to MS versus control condition manipulations, group
372 differences on measures of background functioning were also unlikely to account for this
373 difference, at least in theory. **As such, our findings suggest that exposure to MS cues has a
374 significant causal impact on the capacity to bear painful stimulation for more extended periods of
375 time.**

376

377 The absence of a significant MS versus control condition difference in reported pain intensity
378 aligns with results from a small ($N = 18$) college student sample of Chinese men (Wang & Tian,
379 2018) whereby pain intensity ratings did not differ between an MS priming condition on one day
380 and a control priming condition on the second day. On the surface, null effects in Chinese
381 samples appear to diverge from elements of Chinese worldviews reflecting expectations that pain
382 should be endured without showing emotion (Wang & Tian, 2018). Strictly speaking, however,
383 sensory pain indexes such as subjective intensity ratings are not synonymous with affective
384 measures that tap pain unpleasantness or negative emotional reactions to painful stimulation such
385 as pain catastrophizing. Hence, because overt expressions of emotion were not assessed in
386 China-based experiments, MS versus control group differences in subjective pain ratings may
387 have been attenuated. Null effects on pain intensity from the present study also contrast with
388 evidence from McCabe et al. (2015) who found reminders of mortality (versus a control topic)
389 resulted in lower pain intensity and unpleasantness ratings in a U.S. sample. Possible differences
390 in cultural worldviews (e.g., norms related to overt expressions of emotion) and the exclusion
391 versus inclusion of “unpleasantness” in the measurement of reported pain may help to explain
392 these discrepancies.

393

394 In sum, main effect results for the MS versus control condition manipulation suggested that
395 procedures used to induce MS have potential causal effects on the capacity to endure laboratory
396 pain, independent of subjective pain intensity levels. As such, these findings provide
397 experimental foundations for extensions of relevant theoretical frameworks such as existential
398 psychotherapy and intervention strategies designed to increase MS within future pain
399 management studies of laboratory pain, acute pain, and chronic pain. In a related meta-analysis

400 on the efficacy of existential therapies, Vos et al. (2015) concluded that the overall quality of
401 intervention studies warrants improvements but structured interventions incorporating facets of
402 existential psychotherapy related to mortality and meaning can have direct, positive effects on
403 physically ill patients. Furthermore, in line with our MS (versus control) manipulation effects
404 upon pain tolerance but not subjective pain intensity, Gebler and Maercker (2014) found a
405 cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) intervention that incorporated tenets of an existential
406 perspective led to significant post-treatment reductions in the capacity for daily functioning
407 despite pain but no difference in subjective pain severity compared to CBT-alone.

408

409 Moderator analyses underscored a significant correlation of a medium effect size strength ($\beta =$
410 $.31$) between pre-CPT self-reports of trait behavioral perseverance and behavioral tolerance of
411 cold pressor pain among participants exposed to the MS manipulation. Conversely, the
412 behavioral perseverance-pain tolerance correlation had a very small effect size strength ($\beta = .00$)
413 in the control condition. These results have parallels with moderator analyses from McCabe et al.
414 (2015) who observed a significantly lower mean reported pain rating among men exposed to an
415 MS manipulation and a false feedback manipulation linking pain endurance to heroic depictions
416 that, in part, reflected resilience (e.g., overcoming adversity) compared to men in other
417 experimental conditions. Several other experiments have also found exposure to MS
418 manipulations may bolster strengths of relation between particular self-regulatory behaviors and
419 responses on self-report measures of related constructs such as self-control and desire for control
420 (e.g., Alper & Ozkan 2015; Kelley & Schmeichel, 2015; Kelley et al., 2014). Essentially, this
421 small body of research suggests that MS manipulations could act as a psychological catalyst that
422 enhance relations of positive self-perceptions with related behavior responses. Significant
423 moderating effects observed in the present experiment are preliminary and need to be replicated
424 **but also suggest that mortality reminders may increase the capacity to bear pain, particularly**
425 **among people who are already endowed with strong beliefs that they can persevere in their daily**
426 **tasks despite experiences of pain.**

427

428 Finally, elevations on the cognitive/affective positivity dimension of pain resilience also had a
429 significant positive correlation with behavioral tolerance of cold pressor pain yet the MS
430 manipulation did not moderate the association of reported positivity levels with behavioral pain
431 tolerance times. Given that cognitive/affective positivity reflects the capacity to experience
432 positive emotions and maintain an optimistic outlook despite pain, it is possible that MS may
433 have moderating effect on more directly relevant outcomes such as state optimism or positive
434 affect during exposure to painful stimulation instead of less conceptually relevant outcomes such
435 as tolerance of cold pressor pain. This conjecture should also be a focus of future studies.

436

437 **Strengths and Limitations**

438 Given the growing recognition of psychological factors as important influences on the
439 experience and management of pain, our focus on exposure to an MS manipulation as a potential

440 cause and moderator of responses to painful stimulation is a novel aspect of this research. The
441 use of a large, mixed gender sample and experimental study design featuring random assignment
442 to carefully matched experimental manipulations that permitted evaluations of possible causal
443 effects of MS versus control conditions on pain tolerance and intensity were related
444 methodological strengths **that provide empirical foundations for related tests within acute pain
445 and chronic pain samples.**

446

447 The main limitations of this study also merit attention. First, although the assessment of college
448 students was useful because this population may be especially sensitive to effects of MS
449 manipulations (Burke et al. 2010), findings may not generalize **to clinical pain samples**, other age
450 groups or different socioeconomic status groups. **Second**, despite support for the hypothesis that
451 the MS manipulation would increase tolerance for a particular laboratory stimulus of a brief
452 duration (cold), it is not clear whether MS manipulations influence the capacity to bear pain over
453 extended intervals or apply to other kinds of noxious stimulation. Third, although results
454 underscored effects of MS (versus control condition) manipulations on laboratory pain and their
455 relations to specific facets of pain resilience, **we could not directly test whether increases in
456 defenses reflecting Chinese cultural worldviews and self-esteem were the specific mechanisms
457 that explained pain tolerance results, in part, because there are no clear guidelines for how or
458 when to evaluate these defenses within laboratory pain paradigms. The use of free association
459 strategies in response to “suffering” (e.g., Ji et al., 2021) or “pain” warrants consideration as a
460 means of accessing TMT defenses such as cultural worldviews (Burke et al., 2010) versus other
461 alternate factors such as changes in appraisals of pain as a threat or a challenge (e.g., Jackson et
462 al., 2014) as mechanisms that account for MS manipulation effects on behavioral pain tolerance.**
463 Finally, random assignment to distinct standardized manipulations is a widely accepted means of
464 controlling for unwanted sensitization effects and group differences on innumerable background
465 factors that are simply not feasible to measure. However, random assignment is not a panacea.
466 **Replications are needed to ensure causal effects of MS manipulations in this experiment are
467 robust across independent samples.**

468

469 **Conclusions**

470 In conclusion, this experiment is the first to document causal effects of an MS manipulation on
471 tolerance for cold pressor pain and its role as a moderator of the association between the self-
472 reported behavioral perseverance and behavioral pain tolerance. Exposure to reminders of death
473 resulted in significantly increased pain tolerance a significantly stronger positive correlation
474 between pre-task beliefs about behavioral perseverance capacities and actual pain tolerance
475 relative to exposure a control manipulation. These findings offer compelling, initial empirical
476 evidence for contemplation of mortality as a facilitative influence on pain tolerance, especially
477 among people who already have strong beliefs in their capacity to persevere in daily tasks
478 despite pain. Replications and extensions are needed to evaluate the stability of these findings
479 and gauge their relevance and applicability to clinical pain samples.

480

481 Author Contributions

482 Beibei You: Experimental design; Experimental performance; Data analysis; Figures/Tables
483 preparation; Funding acquisition; Writing-original draft; Writing-review & editing. Hongwei
484 Wen: Data analysis; Figures/Tables preparation; Writing-review & editing. Todd Jackson:
485 Experimental design; Figures/Tables preparation; Funding acquisition; Supervision; Writing-
486 review & editing. All authors discussed results and commented on the manuscript.

487

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490

491

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631

Table 1 (on next page)

Mortality salience and control group differences on demographic measures (N = 170).

1 Table 1.

2 Mortality salience and control group differences on demographic measures ($N = 170$).

Characteristics Measure	Mortality		χ^2/t	p	Cohen's d
	Saliency	Control			
	$N=85$ $M (SE)$	$N=85$ $M (SE)$			
Gender (% male)	49%	49%	0.00	1.000	--
Ethnicity (% Han)	84%	84%	0.00	1.000	--
Religion status (% no)	96%	92%	1.70	.192	--
Relationship status (% single)	61%	64%	0.10	.752	--
Age	19.51 (1.41)	19.96 (1.62)	-1.97	.051	.30
Body mass index	21.07 (3.33)	21.22 (2.55)	-0.34	.733	.05
Years of university education	2.08 (1.25)	2.35 (1.37)	-1.35	.180	.21
Number of dependents	4.05 (1.22)	3.86 (1.03)	1.09	.279	.17

3 *Note.* Values are mean (SE) for continuous variables, n% for categorical variables.

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

5

Table 2 (on next page)

Mortality salience and control group differences on measures of pain resilience, pain tolerance and pain intensity (N = 170).

1 Table 2.

2 Mortality salience and control group differences on measures of pain resilience, pain tolerance and pain intensity ($N = 170$).

Characteristics	Mortality	Control	t/F	p	Cohen's d	Difference MS
	$N=85$	$N=85$				
Measure	$M (SD)$	$M (SD)$				minus CG (95%
Pain Resilience Scale – Chinese	2.50 (.58)	2.38 (.54)	1.40	.164	.21	.12 (-.05, .29)
Behavior perseverance	2.70 (.73)	2.67 (.62)	0.26	.792	.04	.03 (-.18, .23)
Cognitive/affective positivity	2.43 (.63)	2.27 (.60)	1.69	.094	.26	.16 (-.03, .35)
Pain tolerance	84.16 (74.94)	49.57 (50.58)	11.71**	.001	.54	34.59 (15.24, 53.96)
Pain intensity	6.77 (1.47)	6.84 (1.26)	0.11	.743	.05	.07 (-.49, .34)

3 *Note.* Pain tolerance and intensity differences are reported after first controlling for all other measures on which resilience subgroups
 4 had significant (or margin significant) differences in analyses of covariance (i.e. age). MS: mortality salience; CG: control group; CI:
 5 confidence interval.

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

7

Table 3 (on next page)

Correlations between facets of pain resilience, experimental manipulation, pain tolerance and pain intensity in the study sample.

- 1 Table 3.
 2 Correlations between facets of pain resilience, experimental manipulation, pain tolerance and pain
 3 intensity in the study sample.

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Behavior perseverance	--				
2 Cognitive/Affective positivity	.456***				
3 Experimental manipulation	.024	.121			
4 Pain tolerance	.169*	.288***	.360***		
5 Pain intensity	-.145	-.238**	.003	-.272***	--

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

5

Table 4(on next page)

Moderating effects of mortality salience on association of between pain resilience dimensions and pain tolerance in the study sample (N=170).

- 1 Table 4.
 2 Moderating effects of mortality salience on association of between pain resilience dimensions and
 3 pain tolerance in the study sample ($N=170$).

Measure	β	BootSE	t	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Behavior perseverance	.156	.076	2.115*	.009	.308
Experimental manipulation	.259	.072	3.573***	.118	.403
Behavior perseverance \times Experimental manipulation	.154	.075	2.086*	.0001	.295
Overall Model $R^2 = .13^{***}$		Overall Model $F = 7.910^{***}$			
Cognitive/Affective Positivity	.214	.074	2.902**	.068	.359
Experimental manipulation	.235	.074	3.196**	.090	.380
Cognitive/Affective Positivity \times Experimental manipulation	.046	.074	0.617	-.100	.191
Overall Model $R^2 = .12^{***}$		Overall Model $F = 7.325^{***}$			

- 4 *Note.* β = Standardized Beta Coefficient. Boot SE = Bootstrap Standard Error. LLCI = lower level
 5 for confidence interval. ULCI = upper level for confidence level.
 6 * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$