

1 Power motivations and risky sensitivity and
2 tolerance

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6 Abstract

One or two sentences providing a **basic introduction** to the field,
comprehensible to a scientist in any discipline.

Two to three sentences of **more detailed background**, comprehensi-
ble to scientists in related disciplines.

One sentence clearly stating the **general problem** being addressed by
this particular study.

One sentence summarizing the main result (with the words “**here we
show**” or their equivalent).

7 Two or three sentences explaining what the **main result** reveals in
direct comparison to what was thought to be the case previously, or
how the main result adds to previous knowledge.

One or two sentences to put the results into a more **general context**.

Two or three sentences to provide a **broader perspective**, readily
comprehensible to a scientist in any discipline.

Keywords: keywords

Word count: 2004

Add complete departmental affiliations for each author here. Each new line herein must be
indented, like this line.

Enter author note here.

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Throughout political history, tyrants and despots have influenced great power over large swaths of land and communities. One common thread amongst these individuals is how they wield their great power, often through dominant tactics such as threats and political subversion. Recent history has shown with individuals like Donald Trump, Jair Bolsonaro, and Rodrigo Duterte who display authoritarian traits often wield their power through fear and threats of violence.

1.1 Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership orientation

Research in power desire motives has focused on three sub-domains: dominance, leadership, and prestige (Suessenbach et al., 2019). Each of these three different power motives is explained as to different ways or methods that individuals in power sought power or were bestowed upon them. this

1.1.1 Dominance

The dominance motive is one of the more researched methods and well-depicted power motives. Individuals with a dominant orientation display the more primal of human behavior. These individuals will seek power through direct methods such as asserting dominance, control over resources, or physically assaulting someone (Johnson et al., 2012; Winter, 1993). Early research in dominance motives has shown that acts of dominance ranging from asserting physical dominance over another to physical displays of violence has been shown in many mammalian species, including humans (Petersen et al., 2018; Rosenthal et al., 2012). Individuals high in dominance are often high in Machiavellianism, narcissism, and often are prone to risky behavior (discussion further in the next section). Continued research has hinted at a possible tendency for males to display these dominant seeking traits more than females (Bareket & Shnabel, 2020; Sidanius et al., 2000). When high dominance individuals assert themselves they are doing so to increase their own individual sense of power (Anderson et al., 2012; Bierstedt, 1950). Asserting one's own sense of dominance over another can be a dangerous task. In the animal kingdom, it can often lead to injury. While, in humans asserting dominance can take a multitude of actions such as leering behaviors, physical distance, or other non-verbal methods to display dominance (Petersen et al., 2018; Witkower et al., 2020). Power from a dominant perspective is not always bestowed upon someone. Often, high dominance individuals will take control and hold onto it.

77 **1.1.2 Prestige**

78 Contrary to the dominant motivation of using intimidation and aggression
79 to gain more power, a prestige motivation or prestige, in general, is bestowed upon
80 an individual from others in the community (Maner & Case, 2016; Suessenbach
81 et al., 2019). Different from the dominance motivation, a prestige motivation is
82 generally unique to the human species (Maner & Case, 2016). Due in part to
83 ancestral human groups being smaller hunter-gatherer societies, individuals that
84 displayed and used important behaviors beneficial to the larger group were often
85 valued and admired by the group. Therein, the social group bestows the authority
86 onto the individual. Generally, this type of behavior can be passively achieved by
87 the prestigious individual. However, this does not remove the intent of the actor
88 in that they too can see prestige from the group, but the method of achieving
89 that social status greatly differs from that of dominance-seeking individuals.
90 Apart from dominance-motivated individuals that continually have to fight for
91 their right to have power over others, individuals that seek or were given power
92 through a prestige motivation are not generally challenged in the same sense as
93 dominant individuals. Displaying behaviors that the community would see as
94 beneficial would endear them into the community making the survival of the
95 community as a whole better (Maner & Case, 2016). Evolutionarily this would
96 increase the viability of the prestigious individual and their genes. Similar to
97 the dominance perspective, the prestige perspective overall increases the power
98 and future survivability of the individual. However, due to the natural difference
99 between prestige and dominance, dominance-seeking individuals are challenged
100 more often resulting in more danger to their position (Johnson et al., 2012).

101 **1.1.3 Leadership**

102 With a shared goal a leader is someone that takes initiative and attracting
103 followers for that shared goal (Van Vugt, 2006). Leadership is an interesting as-
104 pect of behavior in that it is almost exclusive to human interaction. Discussions by
105 evolutionary psychologists point to the formation of early human hunter-gatherer
106 groups where the close interconnectedness created a breeding ground for leader-
107 ship roles. As early humans began to evolve it would become advantageous for
108 individuals to work together for a common goal. In the case of some situations,
109 an individual with more knowledge of a situation would take charge. Multiple
110 explanations of the evolution of leadership exist such as coordination strategies,
111 safety, along with evidence for growth in social intelligence in humans.
112 An interesting aspect of leadership motivation is the verification of the qualities
113 of the leader by the communities. Individuals that are often put into leadership

114 roles or take a leadership role often display the necessary goals, qualities, and
115 knowledge to accomplish the shared/stated goal. However, this is not always the
116 case especially for those charismatic leaders where they could stay on as a leader
117 longer than the stated goal requires (Vugt & Ronay, 2014). Originally leadership
118 was seen to be fluid where those that had the necessary knowledge at the time
119 would be judged and appointed as the leader. However, these charismatic leaders
120 use their charisma, uniqueness, nerve, and talent to hold onto their status.

121 **1.2 Risk**

122 Every time people leave the relative safety of their home, every decision
123 they make they are taking some form of risk. Financial risk is often discussed
124 in the media usually concerning the stock market. However, the risk is not just
125 present in finances but also in social interactions such as social risk, sexual risk,
126 health and safety risk, recreational, and ethical risks. Each individual is different
127 in their likelihood and perception of participating in those risks. Some will be
128 more inclined to be more financially risky while others would risk their health
129 and safety.

130 Whether to engage in a risky situation is very complex depending on a cost-
131 benefit analysis. Do the positives outweigh the negatives? In practice, not all
132 individuals will do a cost-benefit analysis of a risky situation. Often, the timing of
133 an event makes such an analysis disadvantageous. The benefits are often relative
134 to the individual decision-maker. Differences emerge in the general likelihood to
135 engage in risky behavior such that males tend to be more likely to engage in
136 risky behaviors than their female counterparts. Women tended to avoid risky
137 situations except for social risks.

138 **1.3 The present study**

139 The present study sought to further our understanding of dominance, pres-
140 tige, and leadership motivations in human decision-making. Furthering this, we
141 seek to bridge the connection between risk-taking behaviors, from diverse do-
142 mains, and the dominance, prestige, and leadership orientations. Following the
143 literature, we predicted that participants that were high in dominance orientation
144 would be more likely to not only engage in risky behaviors but praise the ben-
145 efits of participating in those behaviors. Individuals with prestige or leadership
146 orientation.

2 Experiment 1

2.1 Methods

Participants were a convenience sample of 111 individuals from Prolific Academic’s crowdsourcing platform (www.prolific.io). Prolific Academic is an online crowdsourcing service that provides participants access to studies hosted on third-party websites. Participants were required to be 18 years of age or older and be able to read and understand English. Participants received £4.00, which is above the current minimum wage pro-rata in the United Kingdom, as compensation for completing the survey. The Psychology Research Ethics Committee at the University of Edinburgh approved all study procedures [ref: 212-2021/1]. The present study was pre-registered along with a copy of anonymized data and a copy of the R code is available at (<https://osf.io/s4j7y>).

2.2 Materials

2.2.1 Demographic Questionnaire

In a demographic questionnaire administered prior to the main survey, participants were invited to respond to questions about their self-identified demographic characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, and ethnic origin.

2.2.2 Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership Orientation

The 18-item Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership scale, DoPL (Suessenbach et al., 2019), is used to measure dominance, prestige, and leadership orientation. Each question corresponds to one of the three domains. Each domain is scored across six unique items related to those domains (e.g., “I relish opportunities in which I can lead others” for leadership) rated on a scale from 0 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree). Internal consistency reliability for the current sample is $\alpha = 0.86$.

2.2.3 Domain Specific Risk-taking Scale

The 40-item Domain-Specific Risk-taking Scale, DOSPERT (Weber et al., 2002) is a scale assessing individuals’ likelihood of engaging in risky behaviors within 5 domain-specific risky situations: financial (“Gambling a week’s income at a casino.”), social (“Admitting that your tastes are different from those of your friends”), recreational (“Trying out bungee jumping at least once”), health and safety (“Engaging in unprotected sex”), and ethical (“Cheating on an exam”) situations. Each risky situation is then rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 being very unlikely and 5 being very likely). Two additional five-point Likert scales

181 assess risk perception and expected benefits (1 being not at all risky and 5 being
182 extremely risky; 1 being no benefits at all and 5 being great benefits) respectively.
183 Example risky situations are “Admitting that your tastes are different from those
184 of a friend” and “Drinking heavily at a social function.” Internal consistency
185 reliability for the current samples for the 3 sub-domains are $\alpha = 0.85$, $\alpha = 0.90$,
186 $\alpha = 0.92$ respectively.

187 **2.3 Procedure**

188 Participants were recruited via a study landing page on Prolific’s web-
189 site or via a direct e-mail to eligible participants (Prolific Academic, 2018). The
190 study landing page included a brief description of the study including any risks
191 and benefits along with expected compensation for successful completion. Par-
192 ticipants accepted participation in the experiment and were directed to the main
193 survey (Qualtrics, Inc; Provo, UT) where they were shown a brief message on
194 study consent.

195 Once participants consented to participate in the experiment they an-
196 swered a series of demographic questions. Once completed, participants com-
197 pleted the Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership Scale and the Domain Specific
198 Risk-taking scale. The two scales were counterbalanced to account for order ef-
199 fects. After completion of the main survey, participants were shown a debriefing
200 statement that briefly mentions the purpose of the experiment along with the
201 contact information of the main researcher (AI). Participants were compensated
202 £4.00 via Prolific Academic.

203 **2.4 Data analysis**

204 Demographic characteristics were analyzed using multiple regression for
205 continuous variables (age) and Chi-square tests for categorical variables (gender,
206 race, ethnicity, ethnic origin, and education). Means and standard deviations
207 were calculated for the relevant scales (i.e., DoPL and DOSPERT). All analyses
208 were done using (R Core Team, 2021) along with (Bürkner, 2017) package.

209 The use of bayesian statistics has a multitude of benefits to statistical
210 analysis and research design. One important benefit is through the use of prior
211 data in future analyses. Termed as priors, is the use of prior distutations for
212 future analysis. This allows for the separation of how the data might have been
213 collected or what the intention was. In essence the data is the data without the
214 interpretatoin of the scientist.

215 All relevant analyses were conducted in a Bayesian framework using the
216 brms package (Bürkner, 2018) along with the rstan package (Stan Development

Table 1

Variables	*n* = 111
Age	
Mean (SD)	26.84 (9.21)
Median [Min, Max]	24 [18,61]
Gender	
Female	54 (48.6%)
Gender Non-Binary	2 (1.8%)
Male	55 (49.5%)
Education	
Primary School	4 (3.6%)
GCSes or Equivalent	8 (7.2%)
A-Levels or Equivalent	32 (28.8%)
University Post-Graduate Program	21 (18.9%)
University Undergraduate Program	44 (39.6%)
Doctoral Degree	1 (0.9%)
Prefer not to answer	1 (0.9%)
Ethnicity	
African	8 (7.2%)
Asian	6 (5.4%)
English	10 (9.0%)
European	77 (69.4%)
Latin American	2 (1.8%)
Scottish	2 (1.8%)
Other	6 (5.4%)

217 Team, 2020)

218 3 Results

219 One hundred and eleven individuals completed the main survey. Of these
220 individuals, 111 completed all sections without incomplete data and were there-
221 fore retained in most data analyses. In later analyses to account for outliers two
222 participants had to be excluded from the dataset. Table 1 shows the demographic
223 information for the participants. The average completion time for participants
224 was 20M 58s ($SD = 10M\ 43s$).

225 3.1 Preregistered Analyses

226 We first investigated DoPL orientation on general risk preference (Figure
227 1). General risk preference was anecdotally explained by dominance orientation,
228 participant gender, and participant age (see table 2).

229 3.1.1 Demographic and DoPL

230 All participants completed the dominance, leadership, and prestige
231 scale (Suessenbach et al., 2019). Empirically, men have generally been more
232 dominance-oriented in their behavior (citation). Following the literature, men
233 tended to be more dominant-oriented than women. The marginal posterior dis-
234 tribution of each parameter is summarized in Table #. Interestingly, older indi-
235 viduals tended to be more dominant-oriented than younger individuals.

236 3.2 Domain-Specific Risk-Taking

237 3.3 Interactions

238 When investigating dominance, prestige, and leadership motivations with
239 domain-specific risk-taking findings supported the common expectations in the
240 literature. Table 5 shows the interactions with like CI values. Dominance overall
241 explained the relationship of DoPL orientation and preference, specifically for eth-
242 ical, financial, social, health and safety, and recreational preference. Participant
243 age and gender also appeared to affect recreational preference.

244 Following these findings, we investigated the effect of DoPL on general
245 risk preference and found that dominance overall affected risk preference along
246 with gender and age of the participant (Table 5).

247 3.4 Discussion

248 4 Experiment 2

249 4.1 Procedure

250 4.2 Data analysis

251 5 Results

252 5.1 Preregistered Analyses

253 5.1.1 Demographic and DoPL

254 5.2 Domain-Specific Risk-Taking

255 5.3 Interactions

256 5.4 Discussion

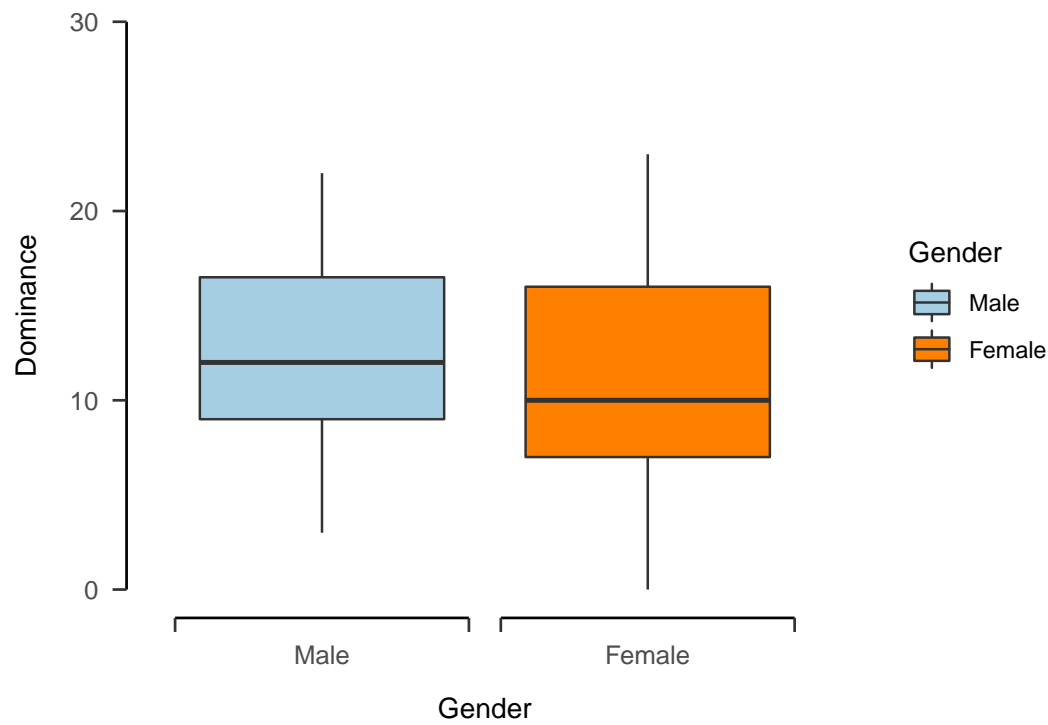
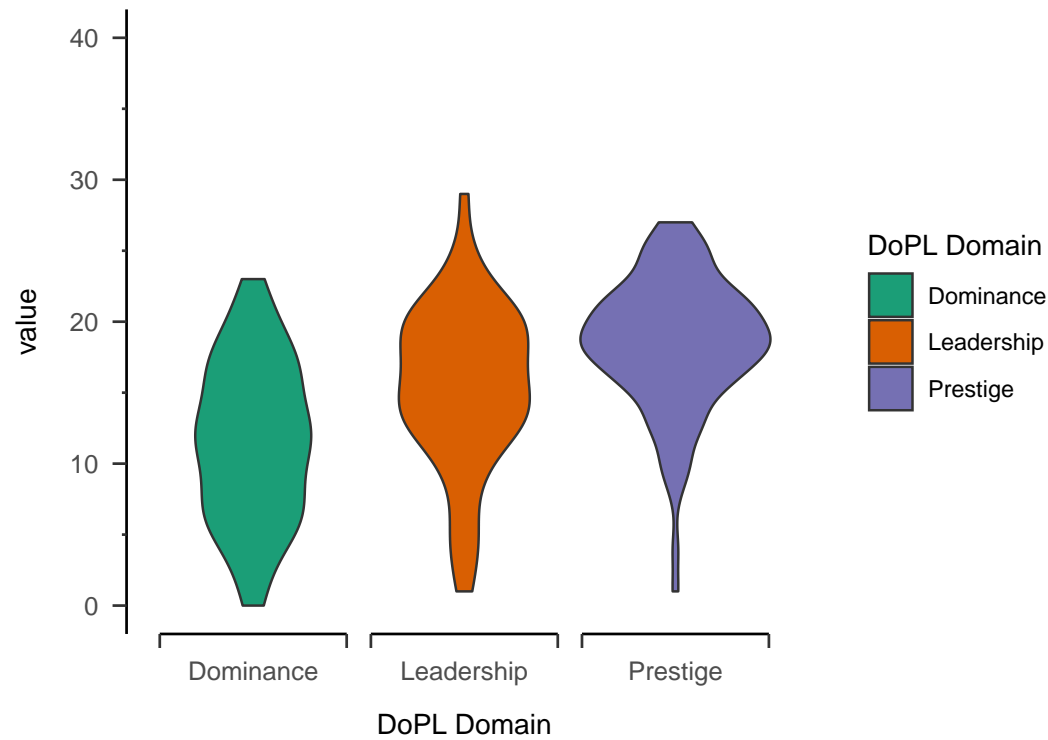
257 5.5 Limitations

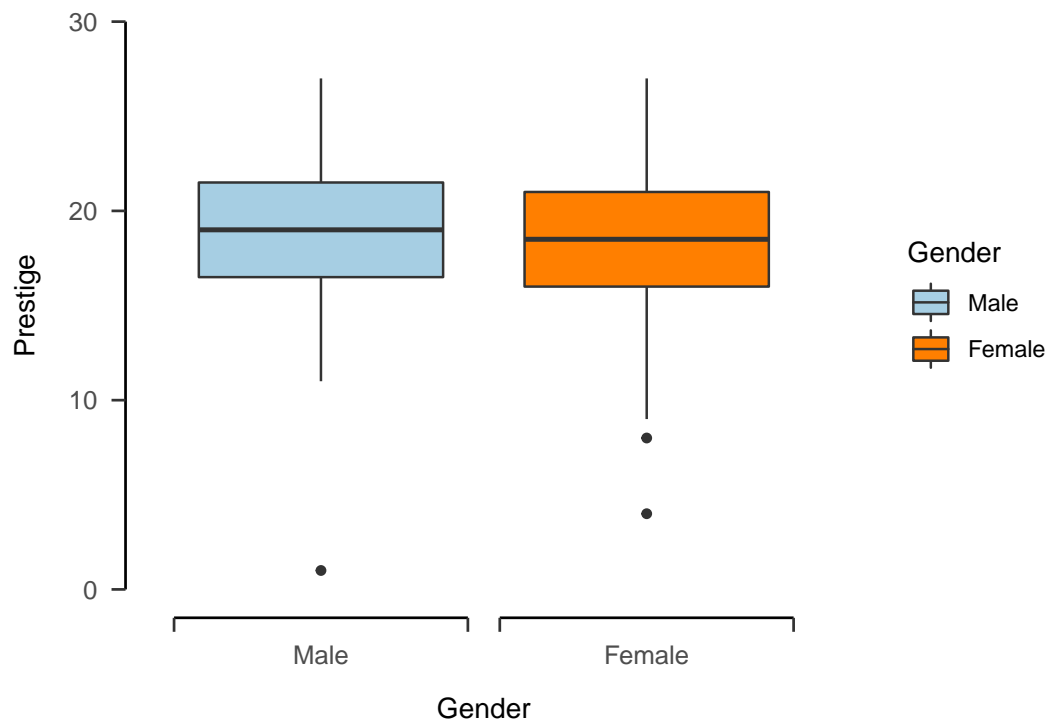
258 5.6 Future Implications

6 References

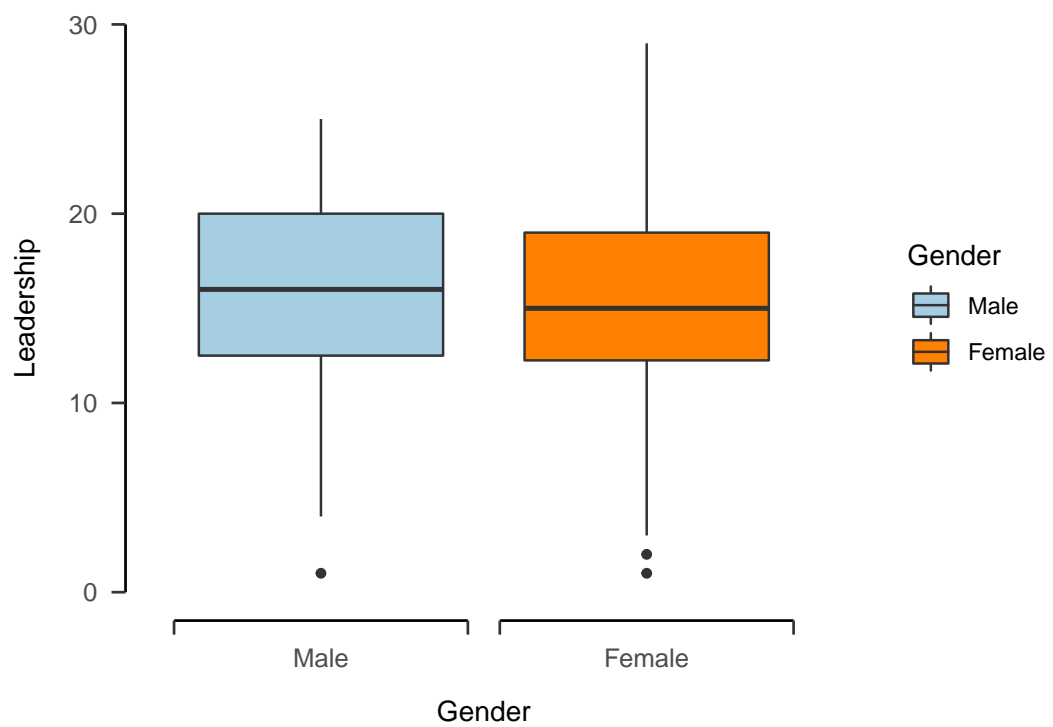
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328



329

Table 2

Parameter	CI	CI_low	CI_high
b_Intercept	0.95	1.37	5.81
b_dominanceSum	0.95	1.07	4.91
b_leadershipSum	0.95	-3.88	-0.02
b_Gender1	0.95	-4.95	-1.09
b_Age	0.95	-4.80	-0.96

Table 3

	Estimate	Est.Error	Q2.5	Q97.5
Intercept	3.62	1.13	1.41	5.86
dominanceSum	3.00	0.99	1.08	4.93
prestigeSum	0.09	0.99	-1.84	2.02
leadershipSum	-1.91	0.98	-3.85	0.02
Gender1	-3.02	0.99	-4.95	-1.08
Age	-2.86	0.99	-4.78	-0.93

Table 4

Parameter	CI	CI_low	CI_high
b_ethicalPreference_Intercept	0.95	2.85	4.42
b_ethicalPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.61	1.71
b_financialPreference_Intercept	0.95	7.50	9.67
b_financialPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.14	1.59
b_socialPreference_Intercept	0.95	8.34	11.67
b_socialPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.60	2.87
b_healthAndSafetyPreference_Intercept	0.95	4.65	6.59
b_healthAndSafetyPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.41	1.77
b_recreationalPreference_Intercept	0.95	0.95	2.48
b_recreationalPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.66	1.74
b_recreationalPreference_Gender1	0.95	-1.83	-0.47
b_recreationalPreference_Age	0.95	0.06	0.87