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1 Introduction

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 subdomains: 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. Often these dominant individuals will wield their power with force and possible risk to themselves to hold onto that power.

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 & Bruner, 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. [@]

82 1.1.2 Prestige

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

106 1.1.3 Leadership

107 With a shared goal a leader is someone that takes initiative and attracts
108 followers for that shared goal (Van Vugt, 2006). Leadership is an interesting
109 aspect of behavior in that it is almost exclusive to human interaction. Dis-
110 cussions by evolutionary psychologists point to the formation of early human
111 hunter-gatherer groups where the close interconnectedness created a breeding
112 ground for leadership roles. As early humans began to evolve it would become
113 advantageous for individuals to work together for a common goal. In the case
114 of some situations, an individual with more knowledge of a situation would
115 take charge. Multiple explanations of the evolution of leadership exist such
116 as coordination strategies, safety, along with evidence for growth in social
117 intelligence in humans.

118

119 An interesting aspect of leadership motivation is the verification of the
120 qualities of the leader by the communities. Individuals that are often put into
121 leadership roles or take a leadership role often display the necessary goals, qual-
122 ities, and knowledge to accomplish the shared/stated goal. However, this is not
123 always the case especially for those charismatic leaders where they could stay
124 on as a leader longer than the stated goal requires (Vugt & Ronay, 2014). Tra-
125 ditionally, leadership was thought to be fluid in that those with the necessary
126 knowledge at the time would be judged and appointed as the leader. However,
127 these charismatic leaders use their charisma, uniqueness, nerve, and talent to hold
128 onto their status.

129 1.2 Risk

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

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

146 1.3 The present study

147 The present study sought to further our understanding of dominance, pres-
148 tige, and leadership motivations in human decision-making. Furthering this, we
149 seek to bridge the connection between risk-taking behaviors, from diverse do-
150 mains, and the dominance, prestige, and leadership orientations. Following the
151 literature, we predicted that participants that were high in dominance orientation
152 would be more likely to not only engage in risky behaviors but praise the ben-
153 efits of participating in those behaviors. Individuals with prestige or leadership
154 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

189 assess risk perception and expected benefits (1 being not at all risky and 5 being
190 extremely risky; 1 being no benefits at all and 5 being great benefits) respectively.
191 Example risky situations are “Admitting that your tastes are different from those
192 of a friend” and “Drinking heavily at a social function.” Internal consistency
193 reliability for the current samples for the 3 sub-domains are $\alpha = 0.85$, $\alpha = 0.90$,
194 $\alpha = 0.92$ respectively.

195 **2.3 Procedure**

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

203 Once participants consented to participate in the experiment they an-
204 swered a series of demographic questions. Once completed, participants com-
205 pleted the Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership Scale and the Domain Specific
206 Risk-taking scale. The two scales were counterbalanced to account for order ef-
207 fects. After completion of the main survey, participants were shown a debriefing
208 statement that briefly mentions the purpose of the experiment along with the
209 contact information of the main researcher (AI). Participants were compensated
210 £4.00 via Prolific Academic.

211 **2.4 Data analysis**

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

217 The use of bayesian statistics has a multitude of benefits to statistical
218 analysis and research design. One important benefit is through the use of prior
219 data in future analyses. Termed as priors, is the use of prior distutations for
220 future analysis. This allows for the separation of how the data might have been
221 collected or what the intention was. In essence, the data is the data without the
222 interpretation of the scientist.

223 All relevant analyses were conducted in a Bayesian framework using the
224 brms package (Bürkner, 2018) along with the cmdstanr packages notes (Gabry &

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%)

225 Cesnovar, 2021). In addition to the aforementioned packages, we used bayestestR,
 226 rstan, and papaja (Aust & Barth, 2020; Makowski et al., 2019; Stan Development
 227 Team, 2020).

228 2.5 Results

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

235 2.5.1 Preregistered Analyses

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

239 2.5.2 Demographic and DoPL

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

246 2.6 Domain-Specific Risk-Taking

247 2.7 Interactions

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

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

257 2.8 Discussion

258 3 Experiment 2

259 3.1 Methods

260 Materials remain the same in terms of the (1) Demographic Questionnaire,
261 (2) Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership Questionnaire, and (3) DOSPERT
262 Questionnaire. However, we added the Brief-Pathological Narcissism Inventory to
263 assess possible interactions of dominance and narcissism in risky decision-making.
264 ## Participants

265 Following experiment 1, participants were a convenience sample of 111
266 individuals from Prolific Academic’s crowdsourcing platform (www.prolific.io).
267 Prolific Academic is an online crowdsourcing service that provides participants
268 access to studies hosted on third-party websites. Participants were required to be
269 18 years of age or older and be able to read and understand English. Participants
270 received £4.00, which is above the current minimum wage pro-rata in the United
271 Kingdom, as compensation for completing the survey. The Psychology Research
272 Ethics Committee at the University of Edinburgh approved all study procedures
273 [ref: 212-2021/1]. The present study was pre-registered along with a copy of

274 anonymized data and a copy of the R code is available at ([https://osf.io/](https://osf.io/s4j7y)
275 [s4j7y](https://osf.io/s4j7y)).

276 **3.2 Materials**

277 **3.2.1 Brief-Pathological Narcissism Inventory**

278 The 28 item Brief Pathological Narcissism Inventory (B-PNI; Schoenleber
279 et al., 2015) is a modified scale of the original 52-item Pathological Narcissism
280 Inventory (PNI; Pincus et al., 2009). Like the PNI the B-PNI is a scale measuring
281 individuals' pathological narcissism. Items in the B-PNI retained all 7 patholog-
282 ical narcissism facets from the original PNI (e.g., exploitativeness, self-sacrificing
283 self-enhancement, grandiose fantasy, contingent self-esteem, hiding the self, de-
284 valuing, and entitlement rage). Each item is rated on a 5 point Likert scale
285 ranging from 1 (not at all like me) to 5 (very much like me). Example items
286 include "I find it easy to manipulate people" and "I can read people like a book."

287 **3.3 Procedure**

288 Participants were recruited via a study landing page on Prolific's website
289 or via a direct e-mail to eligible participants (Prolific Academic, 2018). The study
290 landing page included a brief description of the study including any risks and ben-
291 efits along with expected compensation for successful completion. Participants
292 accepted participation in the experiment and were directed to the main survey
293 on pavlovia.org (an online JavaScript hosting website similar to Qualtrics) where
294 they were shown a brief message on study consent.

295 Once participants consented to participate in the experiment they an-
296 swered a series of demographic questions. Once completed, participants com-
297 pleted the Dominance, Prestige, and Leadership Scale and the Domain Specific
298 Risk-taking scale. An additional survey was added (the novel aspect of experi-
299 ment 2) where participants, in addition to the two previous surveys, were asked to
300 complete the brief-pathological narcissism inventory. The three scales were coun-
301 terbalanced to account for order effects. After completion of the main survey,
302 participants were shown a debriefing statement that briefly mentions the purpose
303 of the experiment along with the contact information of the main researcher (AI).
304 Participants were compensated £4.00 via Prolific Academic.

305 **3.4 Data analysis**

306 Demographic characteristics were analyzed using multiple regression for
307 continuous variables (age) and Chi-square tests for categorical variables (gender,
308 race, ethnicity, ethnic origin, and education). Means and standard deviations

309 were calculated for the relevant scales (i.e., DoPL and DOSPERT). All analyses
310 were done using (R Core Team, 2021) along with (Bürkner, 2017) package.

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312 analysis and research design. One important benefit is through the use of prior
313 data in future analyses. Termed as priors, is the use of prior distributions for
314 future analysis. This allows for the separation of how the data might have been
315 collected or what the intention was. In essence, the data is the data without the
316 interpretation of the scientist.

317 All relevant analyses were conducted in a Bayesian framework using the
318 brms package (Bürkner, 2018) along with the cmdstanr packages notes (Gabry &
319 Cesnovar, 2021). In addition to the aforementioned packages, we used bayestestR,
320 rstan, and papaja (Aust & Barth, 2020; Makowski et al., 2019; Stan Development
321 Team, 2020).

322 **3.5 Results**

323 **3.6 Preregistered Analyses**

324 **3.6.1 Demographic and DoPL**

325 **3.7 Domain-Specific Risk-Taking**

326 **3.8 Interactions**

327 **3.9 Discussion**

328 **3.10 Limitations**

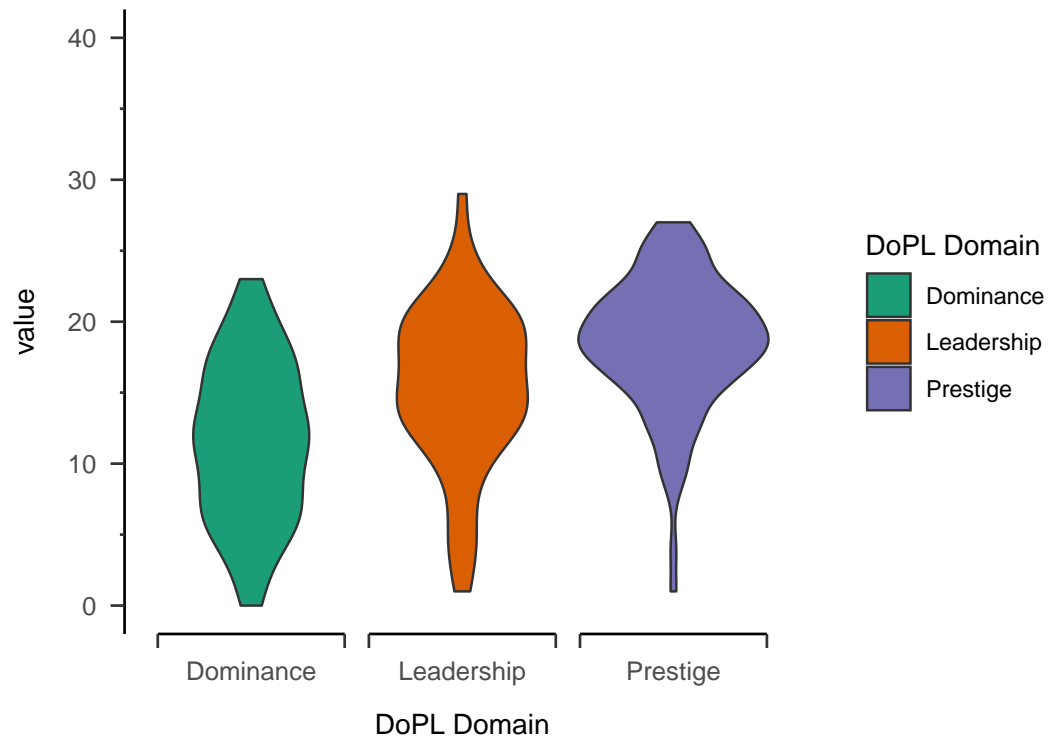
329 **3.11 Future Implications**

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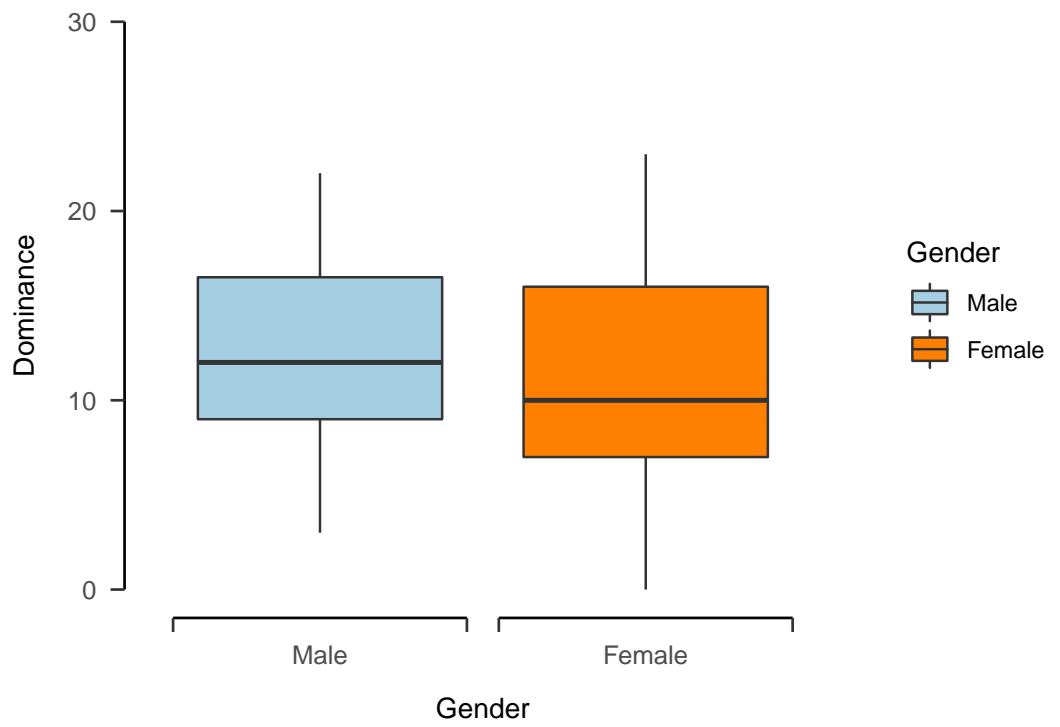
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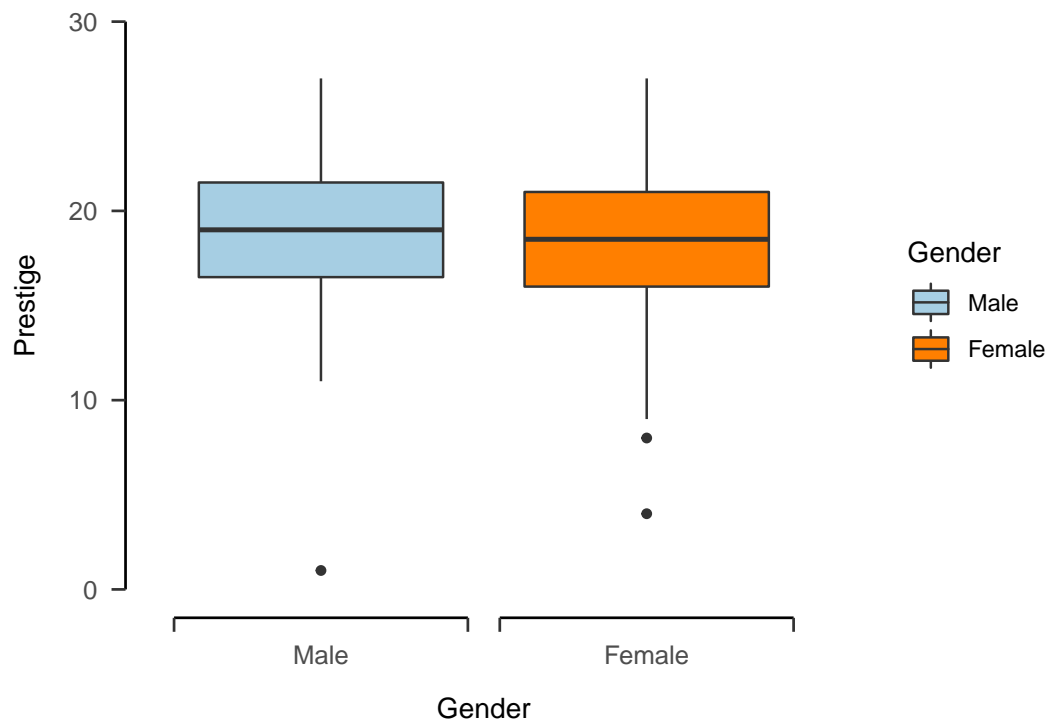
5 Figures and Tables



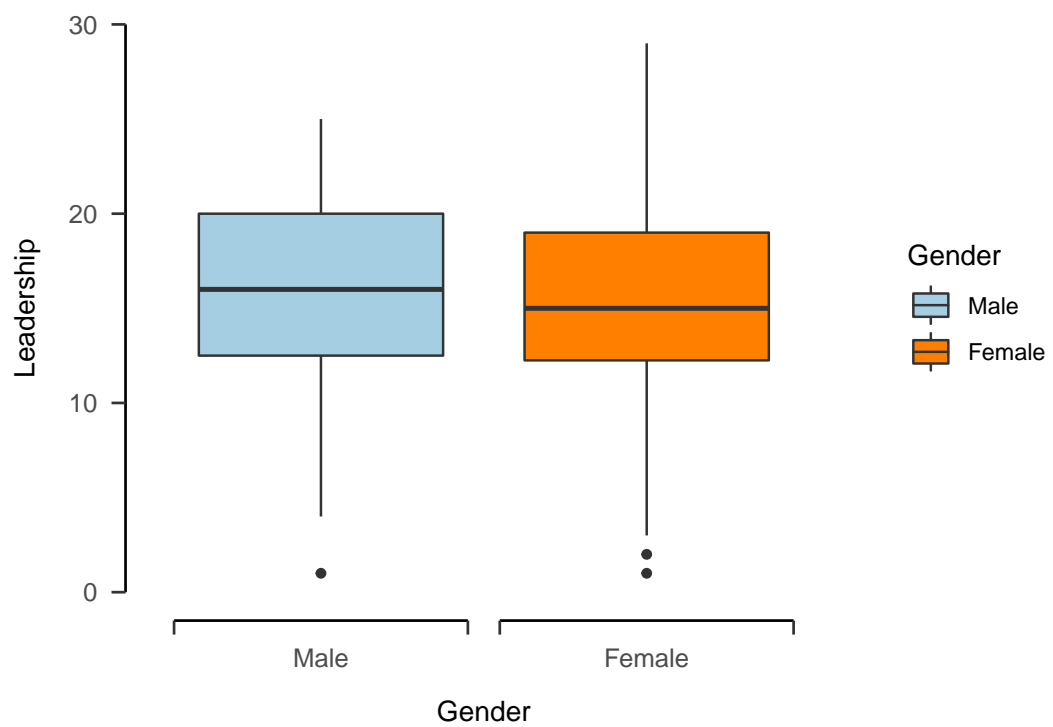
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Table 2

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
5	b_ethicalPreference_Intercept	0.95	2.85	4.42
6	b_ethicalPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.61	1.71
14	b_financialPreference_Intercept	0.95	7.50	9.67
15	b_financialPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.14	1.59
41	b_socialPreference_Intercept	0.95	8.34	11.67
42	b_socialPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.60	2.87
23	b_healthAndSafetyPreference_Intercept	0.95	4.65	6.59
24	b_healthAndSafetyPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.41	1.77
32	b_recreationalPreference_Intercept	0.95	0.95	2.48
33	b_recreationalPreference_dominanceSum	0.95	0.66	1.74
29	b_recreationalPreference_Gender1	0.95	-1.83	-0.47
28	b_recreationalPreference_Age	0.95	0.06	0.87