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8	The Evolution of Prestige: Perspectives and Hypotheses from Comparative Studies
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19	Abstract
20	In this review, we reorganize the concept and highlight the importance of prestige in
21	humans and non-human animals by introducing key characteristics of dominance and
22	prestige and related theories. Previous studies with non-human animals have mainly
23	focused on dominance, presuming prestige as a human-unique social trait. However, to
24	deepen our understanding of the evolution of prestige, comparative studies with non-
25	human animals, especially our evolutionary closest relatives, chimpanzees and bonobos,
26	are essential. We propose the direction of future studies to investigate how prestige has
27	emerged as a viable strategy for gaining social rank while diverging from dominance,
28	which will establish a foundation for investigating the impact of prestige on propensities

29	towards large-scale cooperation and cumulative culture which are still considered unique
30	to humans. Such comparative viewpoints on prestige, along with some hypotheses of
31	species differences, will provide powerful guidance for understanding the evolution of
32	social hierarchies.
33	
34	1. Introduction
35	
36	Many animal social structures are characterized by social hierarchies. Individuals strive to navigate
37	their position in a hierarchy as higher rank is influential, ensures privileges of access to resources,
38	and receives deference. Recent studies on humans have established the concept of dual-strategies
39	theory of social rank, which suggests that humans attain social ranks by using dominance or
40	prestige strategy, each involving distinct approaches (Cheng et al., 2013; Maner, 2017; Maner &
41	Case, 2016) (Figure 1). Dominance refers to a strategy of inducing fear, through intimidation and
42	coercion to demand deference while prestige is based on freely conferred deference for
43	demonstrating skills, knowledge, and altruism in valued domains (Cheng et al., 2013; Henrich &
44	Gil-White, 2001) (Table 1). While there are many efforts to study the efficacy of the dual-strategies
45	theory of social rank in humans, the evolutionary origin of the two strategies and their divergence
46	from each other remains a mystery. Prestige is considered to be a unique trait to humans and non-
47	human animal hierarchies are mainly thought to be established and maintained based solely on
48	dominance. Therefore, most non-human animal studies have only focused on the importance of
49	dominance while little attention has been given to the possibility of prestige in the non-human

50	animal society. In this review, we summarize the importance of studying prestige in non-human
51	animals, examine the theoretical and empirical evidence, and propose future directions and several
52	hypotheses for investigating the evolution of prestige in non-human animals.
53	
54	2. What is prestige?
55	
56	The dual-strategies theory of social rank was generated based on the Henrich & Gil-White (2001)'s key
57	argument that prestige has emerged from our tendency for social learning. Those who confer prestige identify
58	and select models who are likely to possess better-than-average knowledge in the group to reduce individual
59	learning costs and enhance learning environment. Therefore, humans have evolved to rank individuals along
60	the dimension of their skills and thus, knowledgeable individuals acquire higher position in the prestige-based
61	social rank (Cheng et al., 2013). Moreover, prestige is closely associated with altruism. But altruism solely
62	cannot result in prestige because it does not necessarily incur true deference especially from the free-
63	riders and copiers might be reluctant to learn a skill that inflicts cost to themselves (Henrich &
64	Gil-White, 2001). However, when generosity is coupled with valued expertise, it can promote
65	prestige as means of advertising the generous individuals' skills (Cheng & Tracy, 2014; Tracy et
66	al., 2010). Following these accounts, we maintain that prestige should be defined and investigated in non-
67	human animals focusing on their capacity for social learning associating with prosocial aspects.
68	

3. Dual-strategies theory of social rank: dominance vs. prestige

71	Dual-strategies theory of social rank holds that both dominance and prestige aid in attaining social rank
72	(Cheng et al., 2013; Maner 2017; Maner & Case, 2016; McClanahan et al., 2021). However, dominance and
73	prestige are the products of distinct selection pressures as they involve different motivations in pursuing social
74	rank (Figure 1). Therefore, to investigate the evolution of prestige, we need to understand the main differences
75	within underlying mechanisms of dominance and prestige and the attributes of social ranks derived from
76	each strategy in human society (Table 2).
77	The underlying psychology of dominance strategy is linked with coercion; intimidation through aggressive
78	means used to demand deference from subordinates and punish those who lack it (Cheng et al., 2013). In
79	consequence, subordinates tend to fear high-ranking individuals and thus avoid being in proximity to them
80	(Maner & Case, 2016; Öhman, 1986). In contrast, prestige strategy does not demand but promotes the
81	willing deference of copiers. Prestigious individuals who demonstrate and share their skills and knowledge
82	receive recognition and admiration from the group members in exchange. In order to maximize their social
83	learning opportunities for learning such behaviors, copiers preferentially choose to learn from the most
84	successful models, seek close proximity and provide services to them for potential interactions (Henrich &
85	Gil-White, 2001).
86	Both dominance and prestige result in a social rank, which is a position within a social hierarchy that
87	affords the capacity to influence others (Blader & Chen, 2014; Cheng et al., 2013; McClanahan, 2020)
88	(Table 1). Social rank allows one to rise into positions of leadership, a strategy of influencing individuals to
89	contribute to group goals (Bass, 1990; Hollander, 1985; Van Vugt, 2006; Van Vugt et al., 2008), and the

90 leadership behaviors based on dominance and prestige are also distinct. Dominant leadership is

91	associated with tendency to protect one's own social rank or personal privileges, while prestige
92	leadership is achieved by displaying desirable traits and abilities that benefit the group, not for
93	personal gain (Maner & Case, 2016).
94	Differences in leadership styles result in distinctive hierarchical structures built on these two strategies.
95	Dominance hierarchies are steep as high-ranking individuals typically exert control over power of resources
96	(Cheng et al., 2013). Thus, lower-ranked individuals constantly seek opportunities to ascend (Maner & Case,
97	2016), while higher-ranking individuals tend to exclude subordinates who could potentially threaten their
98	positions to protect their own social rank over the good of the group (Maner & Mead, 2010). Alternatively,
99	prestige hierarchies are egalitarian as high-ranking individuals gain their social rank based on the freely given
100	deference of lower-ranking individuals (Boehm, 1999). To maintain their rank, prestigious individuals
101	behave prosocially to increase admiration from lower-ranking individuals, especially by sharing assets that
102	benefit the group as a whole (Maner & Case, 2016).
103	In summary, prestigious individuals are likely to show four main components derived from the
104	copiers' adaptations for efficient social learning (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001; Maner & Case,
105	2016) (Table 3). Prestigious individuals are more often approached by others because copiers try
106	to maintain proximity to their models to enhance their learning reliability and accuracy. Also,
107	they receive gifts and services from their copiers as they try to seek interactions with their models
108	to gain easier access to valuable information. Furthermore, prestigious individuals are
109	preferentially copied by others, which is an adaptation evolved in order to save individual
110	learning costs. Lastly, like their behavioral traits, values and ideas of prestigious individuals are
111	likely to be imitated. Thus, in combination with the humans' tendency to rank prestigious

individuals in higher position, prestige can result in the attainment of leadership which allows toinfluence others with one's opinions.

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115 4. Importance of prestige in human society

116

117 So why is prestige important in human society? First of all, our current society has been shaped 118 from our proclivity to pursue stable and cooperative environments. Our ancestors from hunter-119 gatherer societies, where group members were highly interdependent, acted upon a prestige-based 120 egalitarian society as a means for maintaining cooperation (Boehm, 1999). But throughout recent 121 history, steep hierarchies built on dominance have grown prevalent in the control of large-scale 122 material resources and the division of labor and social roles (Van Vugt et al., 2008). In modern days, 123 we still utilize dominance mainly in large-scale, coercive authorities to effectively punish 124 noncooperators (Ozono, 2021). Yet, we also emphasize the importance of prestige in maintaining 125 cooperation as we actively prevent the concentration of powers in certain groups and individuals 126 and social norms that favor egalitarianism suppress dominance and facilitate behaviors that benefit 127 the group (Boehm, 1999; Ozono, 2021; Zeng et al., 2022). Furthermore, our society operates based 128 on the economic market where we select partners with the best products and services in valued 129 domains, resulting in cooperation instead of violence (Noë, & Hammerstein, 1994; Noë & 130 Hammerstein 1995), indicating that assets from prestigious individuals are granted with high values. 131 Therefore, although both dominance and prestige are both important contributors for maintaining

132	stable and cooperative society, these accounts are closely linked to our current preference towards
133	prestige strategy, especially group-benefitting behaviors, unlike the self-interested motives from
134	dominance strategy (Henrich et al., 2015).
135	Prestige also plays an important role in the formation of culture. Henrich & Gil-White (2001)
136	proposed that humans have a capacity for social learning, which has evolved with adaptations for
137	facilitating effective information transmissions. As a consequence, prestige-biased learning, or
138	preferentially learning from knowledgeable individuals, has become a crucial part of our culture
139	due to our tendency to select models based on their level of prestige (Atkisson et al., 2012; Brand
140	et al., 2020; Brand et al., 2021; Chudek et al., 2012; Jimenez & Mesoudi, 2019; McGuigan, 2013).
141	This capacity for social modeling presents itself in our preference for prestige, ultimately leading
142	to a cumulative cultural evolution (Henrich et al., 2015). From these theoretical examples, prestige
143	has proven to be effective and prevalent in our society, making it important to conduct more in-
144	depth investigation on the shaping of these trends from the evolutionary perspective.
145	
146	5. Dominance and prestige in non-human animals
147	
148	Most studies on social hierarchy assume that prestige is exclusive to humans because humans are only

149 capable of high-fidelity imitation of another's behavior (Cheng, 2020; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001), while

- 150 dominance is considered a principal way of increasing fitness in non-human animals. Thus, non-human
- 151 animal studies are mostly centered on dominance and there is a lack of investigation on the possibility of

152	prestige. However, to understand the evolution of current human social hierarchy and its underlying
153	mechanisms, more attention must be given to prestige-like features in non-human animals.
154	Previously, efforts have been made on discovering features that are functionally similar to prestige. The
155	leverage concept, a power based upon resources that cannot be taken by force, suggested that non-human
156	animals do attain advantage during social conflicts without relying on dominance (Chapais, 2015; Hand,
157	1986; Lewis, 2002; de Waal, 1996). However, leverage is a more inclusive concept than prestige, comprising
158	broader sources that do not necessarily involve social learning. For example, fertilizable egg is an inalienable
159	commodity of an estrus female that aids in increasing her leverage advantage (but not prestige) against other
160	non-estrus females or males regardless of dominance. But because prestige, by definition, has evolved based
161	on our capacity for social learning, we need to focus on commodities found in non-human animals that are
162	associated with social learning in order to accurately investigate the evolution of prestige.
163	Several lines of evidence support the relationship between prestige and social learning in non-
164	human animals. It has been previously found that chimpanzees prefer to learn from older and
165	experienced individuals (Biro et al., 2003; Horner et al., 2010; Matsuzawa et al., 2008). Although
166	the successful social models in Horner et al (2010) were highly ranked in their dominance hierarchy,
167	it is important to note that they had past success on relevant tasks while unsuccessful models were
168	inexperienced. Also, juvenile vervet monkeys observed adults more frequently than other similarly
169	aged conspecifics (Grampp et al., 2019). Additional studies revealed that individuals do not
170	necessarily observe and copy the actions or skills of dominant conspecifics (vervet monkeys:
171	Botting et al., 2018; brown capuchin monkeys: Dindo et al., 2011) or choose to learn from
172	knowledgeable models over dominant individuals (chimpanzees: Kendal et al., 2015). These

findings suggest while dominance rank may not be an appropriate proxy for social modeling,
experience and knowledge may be and therefore prestige-biased learning occurs in non-human
animals.

176 Moreover, experimenters introduced a novel skill that produces food reward to certain individuals 177 chosen for being trained prior to the sharing of their new knowledge with other group members. 178 As a result, skilled individuals received more grooming or were more frequently approached by 179 other individuals than before the experiment (Fruteau et al., 2009; Stammbach, 1988). In a similar 180 study of lemurs, skill performers became more socially central in both grooming and proximity 181 networks and the effects lasted even after the experiment (Kulahci et al., 2018). We still cannot 182 conclude that grooming and physical proximity in these experiments are equivalent to the 183 attainment of prestige or prestige-based social rank, however we should note that these variables 184 are key features of prestige (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). Therefore, further investigations are 185 needed to test whether the increase in these variables resulted from the possession of novel 186 knowledge could be associated with other cues of prestige (Table 3). Then, we can draw a firm 187 conclusion that each of these variables could indicate gain of prestige or prestige-based social rank 188 in non-human animals.

189

190 **6.** Future perspectives

191

192 To test the above questions, we propose a comparative experiment with non-human animals.

193	Following the main cues for measuring prestige and prestige-based social rank in humans, we
194	should focus on testing the correlation between social centrality values constructed with the number
195	of proximate individuals and frequency of grooming received (Kulahci et al., 2018; Reyes-Garcia
196	et al., 2008) and frequency of being copied by other individuals (Brand et al., 2020; Horner et al.,
197	2010) as possible measurements for prestige in non-human animals (Table 3). Based on this
198	relationship, we can investigate whether knowledgeable individuals tend to be influential during
199	collective actions as a means of leadership granted from prestige-based social rank (Brand &
200	Mesoudi, 2018; Cheng et al., 2013; McClanahan et al., 2021) (Table 3).
201	Taking these methods into account, we should first investigate whether mere possession of a no
202	vel skill can lead to a change in social centrality in non-human animals (Table 4).
203	Specifically, we propose an experiment in which we teach certain individuals how to solve a novel
204	puzzle box that rewards the performer with food once solved. Then, we will allow the individuals
205	to demonstrate the skill in front of naïve group members and observe whether this increases their
206	centrality values like the results from previous studies (Fruteau et al., 2009; Kulahci et al., 2018;
207	Stammbach, 1988). Based on this result, we can further test if these demonstrators with increased
208	centrality are preferentially copied by other conspecifics and influential during shared decision-
209	making context. Results from this study will provide a foundation for the investigation on prestige-
210	based strategy being a viable strategy for gaining social rank, along with the interspecific
211	differences.

212 Future investigation should address the role of prestige strategy in the development of cooperation

213	and cumulative culture (Table 4). Comparing the efficacy of self-rewarding and group-rewarding
214	skill or socially learnable and socially non-learnable skill in gaining prestige will provide potential
215	evidence for the interdependence of prosociality and cumulative culture with prestige. Different
216	versions of the puzzle box that provide food reward also to the nearby audiences or cannot be
217	imitated by mere observation in proximity to the demonstrator can be utilized for these
218	investigations.
219	
220	7. Hypotheses on prestige-based strategies in chimpanzee and bonobos
221	
222	Our phylogenetically closest relatives, chimpanzees and bonobos, are often studied as comparative
223	models for understanding human social systems (Hare & Yamamoto 2015). Here, we propose three
224	hypotheses on the possible differences of prestige-based strategies between chimpanzees and
225	bonobos in various viewpoints for future investigations on the evolutionary background of prestige
226	(Table 4).
227	We first focus on the dual-strategies theory of social rank considering the differences in the nature
228	of hierarchical structures of chimpanzees and bonobos. Due to the contrasting social structures led
229	by opposite sexes, we expect species differences in the efficacy of prestige-based strategies for
230	acquiring a social rank. Chimpanzees have a steep, male-dominated hierarchy with frequent
231	aggression and competition for social rank and resources (Goodall, 1986). As a consequence,
232	abilities related to dominance will be more essential than those related to prestige. Thus, prestige-

233 based strategy may be less effective for social rank ascension, especially within male hierarchies. 234 In contrast, bonobo society is female-centered with a relatively more egalitarian nature, based on 235 tolerance towards lower-ranking individuals and outgroup members (de Waal, 1998; Furuichi, 236 2011). As bonobos show reduced intensity of aggression relative to chimpanzees (Furuichi, 2011; 237 Hare et al., 2012; Peterson & Wrangham, 1997), high-ranking bonobos may put less importance 238 on dominance for maintaining their social rank. Thus, prestige-based strategies, especially in 239 dominant females, may more prominently affect bonobo rank than that of chimpanzees. In bonobos, 240 the oldest females with knowledge of their niche tend to lead group-initiation movements, while only dominance rank and not age predicts males who lead (Tokuyama & Furuichi, 2017), raising 241 242 the possibility that prestige can be well acknowledged, especially in females.

From the viewpoint of differences in prosocial or cooperative nature between the two species, we 243 hypothesize that prestige-based strategy, especially other-rewarding behaviors, will be more 244 245 recognized in bonobos than chimpanzees. Massen et al. (2010) maintained that long-tailed 246 macaques have been utilizing prosocial behaviors as a strategy for enhancing or maintaining their 247 social rank. This raises the possibility that such a strategy may also be applicable to our closest 248 relatives. Bonobos are known to exhibit greater levels of prosociality than chimpanzees (Tan et al., 249 2017), especially in food sharing contexts (Krupenye et al., 2018; Nolte & Call, 2021; Tan & Hare, 250 2013; Yamamoto, 2015). Considering these results, in bonobo society where prosociality is more 251 pervasive, behaviors like voluntary food sharing that reward other group members will possess 252 more concrete value as a strategy for gaining prestige than in chimpanzee society.

253	Another important point to consider is the differences in material culture between the two species.
254	Tool use has been found in both chimpanzees and bonobos as chimpanzees mostly use tools for
255	foraging purposes (McGrew, 1992; Boesch and Boesch, 1990) whereas bonobos for social function
256	(Ingmanson, 1996). However, their proficiency at and frequency of tool use significantly differ,
257	where chimpanzees tend to have more advanced and frequent tool use than bonobos in the wild
258	(Furuichi et al., 2015; Hohmann & Fruth, 2003; Koops et al., 2015) despite the evidence that these
259	apes are equally proficient at tool use in captivity (Gruber et al., 2010). We therefore predict that
260	chimpanzees will be more dependent on possession and transmission of material skills due to their
261	increased intrinsic motivation towards manipulation of tools than their relatives (Koops et al., 2015).
262	In other words, an acquisition of novel skill in tool use in chimpanzees will have more prominent
263	impact in earning prestige than in bonobos.

264

265 8. Conclusion

266

In this review, we have reorganized the concept and highlighted the importance of prestige in humans and non-human animals by introducing key characteristics of dominance and prestige and related theories. Our hypotheses on the possible differences between chimpanzees and bonobos can help build the conceptual basis for understanding how prestige has emerged as a viable strategy for gaining social rank while diverging from dominance, as well as its impact on propensities towards large-scale cooperation and cumulative culture which are still considered unique to

273	humans.
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474	Tables					
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476	Table 1. Glossary of terminologies for the dual-strategies theory of social rank					
477						
	Term		Definition			
	Dominance		Induction of fear, through intimidation and coercion to demand			
			deference			
	,		Freely conferred deference and recognition	Freely conferred deference and recognition for demonstrating skills,		
	Pr	estige	knowledge, and altruism in valued doma	knowledge, and altruism in valued domains		
	Social Rank		A position within a social hierarchy that affords the capacity to			
			influence others, high social rank allows one to take on a leadership			
			role by influencing others to contribute to group goals			
478	478					
479	.79					
480	Table 2. Main differences between domi		ween dominance and prestige			
481	481					
			Dominance	Prestige		
Me	Mechanisms of			Admiration, respect, liking, social		
influence		Co	ercion, intimidation, aggression	modeling		
		DC		Freely conferred and is a property		
		Deference is demanded and is a property of the		of the perceiver, does not fear		
(deference act		, fears higher-ranking individuals	higher-ranking individuals		
F	Followers'			- 		
n	rovimity to			Tend to seek proximity, provide		

and admiration

linuenee		modeling
Source of deference	Deference is demanded and is a property of the actor, fears higher-ranking individuals	Freely conferred and is a property of the perceiver, does not fear higher-ranking individuals
Followers' proximity to higher-ranking individuals	Tend to avoid	Tend to seek proximity, provide services to higher-ranking individuals for interaction
		Egalitarian, individuals hold
	Relatively steep, power held by most dominant	prestige within areas defined by
Nature of more	individuals, subject to change in higher ranks due	their knowledge and skillset,
Nature of group hierarchies	to occasional challenges, higher-ranked individuals	higher-ranked individuals prioritize
merarchies	exclude highly skilled subordinates to prevent	the success of the group, display
	threats to their positions	prosocial behaviors to gain respect

Table 3. Prestige cues in humans and their possible corresponding measurements in non-human animals

772					
	Prestige Cues in Humans	Possible Measurements human Ani	•		
	Prestigious individuals are more of	_			
	approached by others (Henrich & White, 2001)	Gil- number of proxima	te individuals		
	People seek interactions with presti	gious Social centrality measu	ured based on the		
	individuals by providing services (H & Gil-White, 2001)		frequency of grooming received		
	People preferentially copy behavior prestigious individuals (Henrich & White, 2001)	Erealiency of heing a			
	Prestigious individuals attain leade (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001; Man	Success rate for initi	• •		
	Case, 2016)	decision-makin	ig process		
493					
	ble 4. Overview of proposed hypotheses a		etween chimpanzees and		
495 bor 496	nobos and corresponding experiments and	predictions for each hypothesis			
Hypothesis	Factual Background	How to Test	Prediction		
	Steeper hierarchy with more	1100 10 1031	More prominent increase in		
Nature of	intense aggressions in	Effect of a novel skill in	prestige-based social rank will		
hierarchical	chimpanzees than bonobos	prestige-based social rank	be observed in bonobos than		
structures	Ĩ		chimpanzees		
	More frequent prosocial	Comparison between the effect	Group-rewarding skill will be		
Prosociality	behaviors in bonobos (e.g., food	of self-rewarding and group-	more effective and will be more		
Tiosocianty	sharing) than chimpanzees	rewarding skill in earning	prominent in bonobos than		
		prestige	chimpanzees		
	More advanced and frequent	Comparison between the effect	Socially learnable skill will be more effective and will be more		
Tool usage	tool use in wild chimpanzees than bonobos	of socially learnable and socially non-learnable skill in	prominent in chimpanzees than		
	ulan bonobos	earning prestige	bonobos		
497		omme provide			
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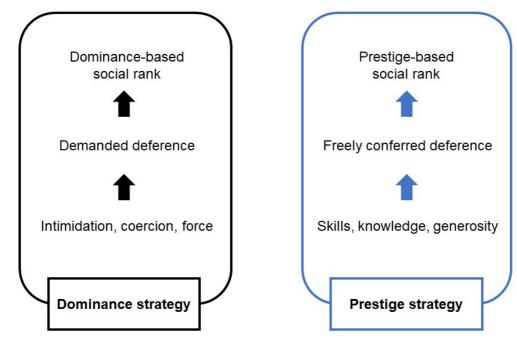


Figure 1. Diagram for illustrating the dual-strategies theory of social rank