Archives of Sexual Behavior
https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-025-03317-w

ORIGINAL PAPER

Women Are Slightly More Sexually Satisfied in Their Romantic Relationships Than Men: An Integrative Data Analytic Approach

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Received: 19 January 2024 / Revised: 31 March 2025 / Accepted: 11 September 2025

Abstract
Sexual satisfaction is a common goal within romantic relationships that contributes to individual and relational well-being. Yet, theoretical perspectives, and even popular assumptions, suggest that women may be less sexually satisfied than men. We tested this possibility among people in romantic relationships with two high-powered Integrative Data Analyses (one cross-sectional, $n = 11{,}841$, $k = 28$; one daily-experience, $n = 1{,}827$, $k = 8$, daily reports = 18,321). Contrary to theoretical and lay perspectives, partnered women reported slightly greater sexual satisfaction than did partnered men ($r = .08$).. To further explore why partnered women reported greater sexual satisfaction than did partnered men, we conducted supplemental analyses that revealed that women's greater sexual satisfaction was not a result of engaging in less frequent sexual behavior, their broader satisfaction with their relationship, or considering partners' sexual enjoyment. In sum, although women may face obstacles that hinder their sexual experiences, these findings suggest that partnered women do not report being less satisfied and instead report being slightly more satisfied with their sex lives than do partnered men. Nevertheless, it is still unknown whether these slight differences in sexual satisfaction have practical implications for couples' relationships or well-being.

Keywords Sexual satisfaction · Integrative Data Analysis · Romantic relationships · Gender differences · Sex

Introduction

Sex is a hallmark of most romantic relationships. Besides being necessary to fulfill couples' reproductive goals, sex also promotes intimacy and closeness (Birnbaum & Reis, 2019) likely due to the combined experience of disclosing personal desires during sexual encounters (Birnie-Porter & Lydon, 2013; Reis & Shaver, 2018), fostering responsiveness and trust among partners (Birnie-Porter & Lydon, 2013; Reis & Shaver, 2018), and the release of oxytocin (Hiller, 2004), a hormone that promotes pair bonding (Schneiderman et al., 2012). Similarly, sex promotes relationship satisfaction (Muise et al., 2016) likely due to fostering feelings of love and affection (Birnie-Porter & Lydon, 2013; Debrot et al., 2017), as well as the release of serotonin and endorphins (Jakubiak & Feeney, 2017), hormones that elicit positive feelings (i.e., pleasure) that become associated with the relationship (Hicks et al., 2016). Not only does a satisfying sex life promote relational quality (Maxwell & McNulty, 2019; McNulty et al., 2016), it also promotes life satisfaction and individual well-being (Laumann et al., 2006).

But what is a satisfying sexual relationship? Although different scholars (del Mar Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014) and lay persons (Pascoal et al., 2014) emphasize different factors that may contribute to a satisfying sexual relationship, there is considerable agreement that sexual satisfaction is an attitude about one's sexual life (see del Mar Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014; Lawrance & Byers, 1995). As an attitude, sexual satisfaction therefore reflects the positive and/or negative evaluations and feelings that people have toward the target of the attitude—in this case, their sexual relationship(s). Thus, individuals who are more sexually satisfied tend to hold more positive (vs. negative) beliefs and feelings about their sex

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Published online: 11 February 2026

lives than do people who are less sexually satisfied. Importantly, this definition is agnostic toward the specific factors that shape sexual satisfaction because people tend to have diverse sexual preferences and thus people often reflect on different aspects of their sex life when evaluating their sexual satisfaction, such as the frequency of their sexual encounters, variety or intensity of their sex life, and their partner's ability to sexually satisfy them, among others (Pascoal et al., 2014).

Given the benefits of satisfying sexual relationships, it is not surprising that most people desire a satisfying sexual relationship and consider it an important aspect of their romantic relationships (Impett et al., 2014). Further, this desire appears to be equally strong among both men and women (Pew Research Center, 2010). Nevertheless, the empirical research on gender differences in sexual satisfaction has yielded inconsistent results; some studies have revealed that men are more sexually satisfied than women (e.g., Ji & Norling, 2004; Mark et al., 2015; Peterson & Hyde, 2010; Roels & Janssen, 2020), whereas other studies have revealed that women are more satisfied than men (e.g., Heiman et al., 2011; Rehman et al., 2011), and yet, others suggest that men and women are similarly satisfied with their sex lives (e.g., del Mar Sanchez-Fuentas et al., 2014; Lawrance & Byers, 1995; McClelland, 2011; McNulty & Fisher, 2008; Oliver & Hyde, 1993; Stephenson et al., 2024). The current research aims to account for these discrepant findings by providing two high-powered tests of gender differences in sexual satisfaction within the context of romantic relationships.

Women Face Unique Obstacles That May Minimize Sexual Satisfaction

Despite the importance of sexual satisfaction for both men and women, an abundance of theoretical perspectives, cultural depictions, and lay beliefs suggest that women may be less sexually satisfied than men (Conley & Klein, 2022). For example, biological perspectives posit that anatomical and physiological sex differences contribute to sex being more painful, less desired, and less likely to result in orgasm among women compared to men (Conley & Klein, 2022; Herbenick et al., 2015). Indeed, a greater percentage of women compared to men report pain during vaginal intercourse (Herbenick et al., 2015), and such expectations for pain during intercourse are often ingrained in women's, but not men's, sexual scripts (Carpenter, 2001). Furthermore, intercourse is more likely to result in costly outcomes for women due to anatomical sex differences, such as a greater risk of urinary-tract infections, sexually transmitted infections, and pregnancy. Together, these costly outcomes may contribute to women being more apprehensive about sex, which may account for their decreased sexual desire and likelihood of orgasm during partnered, but not solo, sex (Armstrong et al., 2012; Kinsey et al., 1953; Leonhardt et al., 2023), compared to men (Conley & Klein, 2022).

Further, social learning perspectives suggest that prevalent gender norms, roles, and scripts may contribute to women learning to view and experience sex as less rewarding and more costly compared to men. For instance, women may view and experience sex as less rewarding due to norms that prioritize men's sexual pleasure over women's. Indeed, both men and women question women's (but not men's) entitlement to pleasure (Armstrong et al., 2012; Conley & Klein, 2022; Eagly & Wood, 1999), leading men to prioritize their own sexual desires over their partner's (Armstrong et al., 2012). Women may also view and experience sex as more costly due to the potential for sexual violence. Compared to men, women are more likely to experience sexual assault and coercion (Black et al., 2011) and therefore may associate sex with the potential for violence (see Conley & Klein, 2022). Similarly, women face harsher judgments for engaging in sex (i.e., the sexual double standard; Bordini & Sperb, 2013; Endendijk et al., 2020), which contributes to women's lower desire to engage in sex (Conley et al., 2013) and greater shame from engaging in sex (Walsh et al., 2019).

Because these perspectives highlight the unique sexual challenges that women face, some scholars have concluded that "women experience substantially worse sex than men do" (Conley & Klein, 2022, p. 960). However, as previously mentioned, research examining gender differences in sexual satisfaction has produced highly inconsistent findings. One reason for these inconsistent findings may be because gender differences in sexual experiences depend on the context in which it occurs (e.g., Peterson & Hyde, 2010; Stephenson et al., 2011), such as whether it occurs within romantic relationships.

Sexual Satisfaction in Romantic Relationships

Although women likely face numerous unique obstacles that inhibit their enjoyment of sex, several theoretical perspectives suggest that such obstacles may be minimized within the context of romantic relationships. For instance, both men and women question whether women, but not men, are entitled to pleasure in casual sexual encounters; however, both strongly believe that women *are* entitled to sexual pleasure in established romantic relationships (Armstrong et al., 2012). To this end, women have more responsive partners (Armstrong et al., 2012; Muise & Impett, 2015) and communicate more in ways that promote their sexual pleasure (e.g., requesting oral sex), and thus report greater sexual satisfaction (Armstrong et al., 2012), in established romantic relationships compared to casual sexual encounters. Similarly, women, but not men, tend to feel safer, perceive less stigma and thus feel less shame, and report greater comfort when engaging in sexual activity with romantic relationship partners compared

to casual sexual encounters (Marcantonio et al., 2018; Walsh et al., 2019), and such feelings contribute to greater perceived quality of sexual intercourse (Jozkowski, 2013). Nevertheless, although this research suggests that sexual experiences are better for women in romantic relationships than in casual sexual encounters, women's sexual encounters in romantic relationships may still be less satisfying than men's. Indeed, although the orgasm gap is reduced in romantic relationships, partnered women still have fewer orgasms than do partnered men (Armstrong et al., 2012; Leonhardt et al., 2023).[1]

In sum, these perspectives highlight the importance of considering the context of romantic relationships when exploring gender differences in sexual satisfaction. Given that the vast majority of sexual experiences over the lifespan tend to occur within romantic relationships (Beutel et al., 2008), it is especially important to clarify whether gender differences in sexual satisfaction exist within such relationships. Nevertheless, although numerous studies have examined whether men and women differ in sexual satisfaction, relatively few have addressed this question within romantic relationships, and those that did (Heiman et al., 2011; Lawrance & Byers, 1995; Mark et al. 2015; McNulty & Fisher, 2008; Roels & Janssen, 2020; Stephenson et al., 2024) have also yielded inconsistent results. To this end, the current research aimed to account for the lack of consideration of relationship context in past research by providing a high-powered test of gender differences in sexual satisfaction within the context of romantic relationships.

Using Integrative Data Analysis to Address Gender Differences in Sexual Satisfaction

The present research addresses gender differences in sexual satisfaction within romantic relationships. Because theoretical perspectives offer contrasting views regarding gender differences in sexual satisfaction (e.g., Armstrong et al., 2012; Conley & Klein, 2022), and past research has observed inconsistent findings regarding gender differences in sexual satisfaction (e.g., Heiman et al., 2011; Ji & Norling, 2004), we did not make specific a priori predictions about the direction or size of an anticipated gender difference. Rather, we offered a strong, well-powered test of gender differences in sexual satisfaction in romantic relationships by using Integrative Data Analysis (IDA) to combine data from 37 separate datasets collected from five Western countries.

IDA is a novel approach that pools raw data from multiple studies with similar methods (Hussong et al., 2013). To this end, IDA has many advantages that are similar to other data pooling techniques. For example, like meta-analyses, IDA maximizes sample sizes and therefore provides more accurate effect sizes and yields greater statistical power (Curran & Hussong, 2009; Hussong et al., 2013). Similarly, heterogeneity of the sample is often maximized with IDA due to pooling data across diverse datasets (Hussong et al., 2013). Importantly, some of the advantages of data pooling methods may address the limitations of previous research that led to varied results. For example, previous studies that relied on small sample sizes may have been underpowered to detect the small effects that would be expected when addressing gender differences in sexual satisfaction (Hyde, 2005).

However, IDA offers several additional benefits compared to other data pooling techniques (e.g., meta-analyses). First, by pooling the raw data rather than using the average of summary statistics from each sample, IDA offers greater enhancement of heterogeneity of the combined sample by pooling studies of low base-rate behaviors or experiences (Curran & Hussong, 2009). For example, each contributing study may have a small portion of women within the sample reporting high sexual satisfaction; by pooling the samples together, the overall absolute number of women reporting high sexual satisfaction will be greater than in the individual contributing studies. As a result, the stability of model estimation is improved and the influence of outliers is reduced (Curran & Hussong, 2009). Similarly, IDA addresses the potential restricted range of each sample. For example, a meta-analysis of two samples—one that is high in satisfaction and one low in satisfaction—would estimate the effect in both of these samples with restricted ranges and average those two effects. However, an IDA maximizes the range by combining these samples first, resulting in a new sample with greater variability and a stronger test of predictions. Second, IDA often maximizes the content validity of the construct being addressed by including diverse measures and items (Curran & Hussong, 2009). That is, the independent studies within the current IDA assessed sexual satisfaction with a single questionnaire. However, different assessments of sexual satisfaction capture slightly different aspects of the construct of sexual satisfaction, making comparisons across studies difficult despite each assessment being psychometrically sound. For example, although the Pinney Sexual Satisfaction Inventory (Pinney et al., 1987) and Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981) both contain items that assess general sexual satisfaction, only the former includes an item that assesses sexual satisfaction that is specific to a partner, whereas only the latter includes an item that assesses excitement with one's sex life. By combining multiple samples with divergent measures, the assessment of a given construct

[1] Although orgasms are typically associated with greater pleasure (Meston et al., 2004; Opperman et al., 2014) and sexual satisfaction (Frederick et al., 2017; Opperman et al., 2014), suggesting that the orgasm gap may lead women to be less sexually satisfied than men, it is important to acknowledge that orgasms are not always pleasurable and people can have sexually satisfying sexual encounters in the absence of orgasm (Chadwick et al., 2019; Opperman et al., 2014).

can be broadened, thus increasing content validity (Curran & Hussong, 2009).

In addition to using IDA, we sought to enhance the methodology of the current study in numerous ways. First, rather than relying solely on data involving only one partner from a relationship, the current study used numerous dyadic datasets, which can statistically control for the interdependence of couple's sexual experiences. Second, the current study relied on both cross-sectional and daily-experience datasets. The primary advantage of the cross-sectional datasets is that they use multi-item questionnaires to ensure a broad global assessment of sexual satisfaction (i.e., how satisfied people are with their sex life in general). In contrast, the primary advantage of the daily-experience datasets is that they capture more momentary experiences of sexual satisfaction that are specific to the encounter (e.g., how satisfied people are with a specific sexual experience) over longer periods of time. Thus, relative to the cross-sectional samples, they reflect a person's actual momentary experiences rather than their general feelings about their sex life.

Method

To examine the extent to which men and women in established romantic relationships differ in sexual satisfaction, we conducted two IDAs. The first IDA combined data from 29 cross-sectional studies ($n = 11{,}841$) in which participants completed well-established multiple-item measures of global sexual satisfaction. The second IDA combined data from eight daily-experience studies ($n = 1{,}827$; 18,321 reports) in which participants responded to items that assessed their sexual satisfaction each day for 14–28 days (85% average compliance). This project was part of a broader preregistered project (https://osf.io/vmh4t/?view_only=25fcf0af4c034a8bbf68b0ac20bcf2ef).[2]

Data Acquisition

Data for this study were acquired in three ways. First, we searched The Love Consortium Dataverse (https://dataverse.unc.edu/dataverse/love) for relevant datasets and contacted the owners of those datasets to inquire if they would be willing to include them in this study. The Love Consortium Dataverse is a centralized database containing metadata of datasets that were collected by relationship scholars who are potentially willing to share those datasets. Second, we posted a call for data on several message boards and listservs that are frequented by relationship and sex researchers (e.g., the close relationships online community of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology, the monthly announcements of the International Association for Relationship Research). Finally, we directly solicited data from researchers who we suspected had conducted studies with the relevant data.

After soliciting interest from researchers who had potentially relevant datasets, we contacted those researchers to ensure their data met the criteria for this project. Specifically, datasets were included if they contained data on participants' gender and sexual satisfaction. We additionally requested that authors include data on participants' age, ethnicity, relationship type, relationship duration, and sexual orientation, if available (see Table 1). Authors were also requested to provide information on the purpose of their study, recruitment methods, and inclusionary/exclusionary criteria for participation (see Tables 1 OSM and 2 OSM). Finally, researchers were offered authorship on any resulting publications for their contributions.

Participants

The cross-sectional analyses were conducted with 11,841 participants (5,693 men, 6,148 women) from 29 studies. Participants had a mean age of 33.47 (SD = 11.58). All participants were in romantic relationships.[3] The mean relationship length was 85.67 (SD = 88.38) months, and 5,388 (46%) were married, 3,509 (30%) were in dating relationships, and we did not have further information about the relationship type of the remaining 2,944 (25%) participants. The majority of participants ($n = 9{,}686$; 82%) identified as heterosexual, 2,061 (17%) identified as another sexual orientation (e.g., gay, lesbian), and we did not have information on the sexual orientation of 94 (1%) participants.

The daily-experience analyses were conducted with 1,827 participants (898 men, 929 women) from eight studies. Participants had a mean age of 29.66 (SD = 8.76). All participants were in romantic relationships. The mean relationship length was 65.58 (SD = 69.08) months, and 1,203 (66%) were married, 387 (21%) were in dating relationships, and we did not have information about the relationship type of the remaining 242 (13%) participants. The majority of participants ($n = 1{,}721$; 94%) identified as heterosexual, 106

[2] The preregistration encompasses a broad research project that addresses numerous diverse research questions. Because addressing these diverse research questions would be beyond the scope of a single research article, the current manuscript only addresses gender differences in sexual satisfaction. No other research questions from the preregistration have been tested or published yet. Any deviations from the preregistration have been outlined in the OSM.

[3] Given that this study was part of a broader project, some datasets contained participants who were not in romantic relationships and/or did not report their gender or reported "other" for their gender. For the current study, these participants were removed from the dataset and excluded from all analyses due to not having enough of such participants to make meaningful comparisons between groups.

Table 1 Demographic information for each individual dataset

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
Finkel (Study 1)[c]	Average = 18.13 years (SD = 0.33); Range = 18–19 years		Female (42.2%; *n* = 27), Male (53.1%; *n* = 34), Missing data (4.7%; *n* = 3)		Dating steadily (87.5%; *n* = 56), Dating casually (6.3%; *n* = 4), Friendship (3.1%; *n* = 2), Engaged (1.6%; *n* = 1), Married (1.6%; *n* = 1)	Average = 1.12 years (SD = 0.84); Range = 2.5 months–3.5 years
Reis and Maniaci (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c]	Average = 28.17 years (SD = 5.27); Range = 18–50 years	White (75.4%; *n* = 264), Asian (11.7%; *n* = 41), Black/African American (6.9%; *n* = 24), Multiracial (2.3%; *n* = 8), Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander (0.3%; *n* = 1), American Indian/Alaskan Native (0.3%; *n* = 1), Missing data (3.1%, *n* = 11)	Female (50%; *n* = 175), Male (50%; *n* = 175)		Married (100%; *n* = 350)	Average = 4.63 years (SD = 2.56); Range = 3 months–13.25 years
Overall and Cross (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c]	Average = 33.05 years (SD = 13.55); Range = 18–74 years	NZ European (54.1%; *n* = 92), European—non-NZ (15.9%; *n* = 27), Asian (10.0%; *n* = 17), Indian (8.8%; *n* = 15), Maori (3.5%; *n* = 6), Pacific (2.4%; *n* = 6), Other (4.1%; *n* = 7), Missing data (1.2%; *n* = 2)	Female (50%; *n* = 85), Male (50%; *n* = 85)	Heterosexual (100%; *n* = 170)	Married (42.4%; *n* = 72), Living together (36.5%; *n* = 62), Serious (20.0%; *n* = 34), Steady (1.2%; *n* = 2)	Average = 7.82 years (SD = 10.15); Range = 9 months–53.17 years
Leavitt (Study 1)[c]	Average = 34.93 years (SD = 10.37); Range = 18–73 years		Female (62.2%; *n* = 1,060), Male (37.6%; *n* = 640), Transgender (0.2%; *n* = 3)	Completely heterosexual (68.3%; *n* = 1,164), Mostly heterosexual (11.4%; *n* = 194), Completely homosexual (9.4%; *n* = 160), Bisexual (8.5%; *n* = 145), Mostly homosexual (2.3%; *n* = 39), Missing data (0.1%; *n* = 1)		Average = 7.90 years (SD = 7.33); Range = 2–49.17 years

Table 1 (continued)

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
Leavitt (Study 2)[c]	Average = 39.83 years (SD = 12.25); Range = 18–88 years		Female (50.1%; *n* = 516), Male (49.7%; *n* = 512), Transgender (0.2%; *n* = 2)	Completely heterosexual (78.1%; *n* = 804), Completely homosexual (8.1%; *n* = 83), Bisexual (6.1%; *n* = 63), Mostly heterosexual (5.7%; *n* = 59), Mostly homosexual (2.0%; *n* = 21)		Average = 10.89 years (SD = 9.80); Range = 2–10.89 years
Righetti (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c, d]	Average = 24.73 years (SD = 6.44); Range = 18–69 years	Dutch (87.6%; *n* = 305), EU (2.9%; *n* = 10), Turkish (0.3%; *n* = 1), Indonesian Dutch (0.9%; *n* = 3), African/Maghreb (0.6%; *n* = 2), Surinamese (2.3%; *n* = 8), Caribbean (0.3%; *n* = 1), Chinese (0.3%; *n* = 1), Otherwise (4.6%; *n* = 16)	Female (50%; *n* = 174), Male (50%; *n* = 174)		Married (7.2%; *n* = 25), Non-married relationship (92.5%; *n* = 322), Missing data (0.3%; *n* = 1)	Average = 3.76 years (SD = 4.48); Range = 4 months–42.58 years
Birnie and Brownstein (Study 1)[c]	Average = 26.96 years (SD = 7.25); Range = 18–71 years	White/Caucasian (46.6%; *n* = 144), East Asian (6.8%; *n* = 21), Multiethnic (3.2%; *n* = 10), Jewish (3.2%; *n* = 10), South Asian (2.6%; *n* = 8), Southeast Asia (1.6%; *n* = 5), Black/African American (1.0%; *n* = 3), Aboriginal/Indigenous or Native American/Alaska Native (0.3%; *n* = 1), Latin American (0.3%; *n* = 1), Other (0.3%; *n* = 1), Did not specify (33.7%; *n* = 104), Missing data (0.3%; *n* = 1)	Female (67.9%; *n* = 209), Male (32.1%; *n* = 99)	Heterosexual (92.2%; *n* = 284), Bisexual (2.9%; *n* = 9), Gay (1.9%; *n* = 6), Lesbian (1.9%; *n* = 6), Missing (1.0%, *n* = 3)	Exclusively Dating (54.5%; *n* = 168), Married (32.8%; *n* = 101), Engaged (11.0%; *n* = 34), Dating this partner and others (1.3%; *n* = 4), Missing (0.3%; *n* = 1)	Average = 4.83 years (SD = 5.73); Range = 1 month–40 years
Meltzer (Study 1)[c]	Average = 27.44 years (SD = 5.26); Range = 18–55 years	Caucasian (48.5%; *n* = 109.61), African American (27%; *n* = 61.02), Latinx (16.5%; *n* = 37.29), Asian (3.5%; *n* = 7.91), Other (4.5%; *n* = 10.17)	Female (50%; *n* = 113), Male (50%; *n* = 113)		Married (100%; *n* = 226)	

Table 1 (continued)

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
Harasymchuk, Muise, and Impett (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c, d]	Average = 32.07 years (SD = 10.10); Range = 19–67 years	White/European (78.3%; *n* = 191.05), Latin American (6.8%; *n* = 16.59), East Asian (4.3%; *n* = 10.49), South Asian (2.6%; *n* = 6.34), Black/African (2.1%; *n* = 5.12), Bi- or multiethnic/racial or self-identified as other (6%; *n* = 14.64)	Female (52.0%; *n* = 127), Male (47.5%; *n* = 116), Other (0.4%; *n* = 1)	Heterosexual/straight (85.7%; *n* = 209), Homosexual/Lesbian (6.6%; *n* = 16), Bisexual (4.9%; *n* = 12), Homosexual/Gay (0.8%; *n* = 2), Other (2.0%; *n* = 5)	Married (55.7%; *n* = 136), Seriously dating and living together (33.6%; *n* = 82), Other (10.7%; *n* = 26)	Average = 8.21 years (SD = 7.08); Range = 2–47.92 years
Muise (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c, d]	Average = 31.56 years (SD = 10.34); Range = 16–74 years	White/European (55%; *n* = 129.8), African American (14%; *n* = 33.04), Asian (8%; *n* = 18.88), Latino (5%; *n* = 11.80), Native American (3%; *n* = 7.08), Indian (1%; *n* = 2.36), Identity not listed (14%; *n* = 33.04)	Female (49.6%; *n* = 117), Male (50.4%; *n* = 119)			Average = 4.93 years (SD = 5.31); Range = 2 months–30 years
Muise (Study 2; TLC Dataverse)[c, d]	Average = 25.97 years (SD = 6.98); Range = 18–53 years	White (67%; *n* = 135.34), Asian (8%; *n* = 16.16), Black (7%; *n* = 14.14), South Asian (4%; *n* = 8.08), Latin American (4%; *n* = 8.08), South East Asian (4%; *n* = 8.08), Arab/West Asian (1%; *n* = 2.02), Multiethnic or an identity not listed (5%; *n* = 10.10)	Female (51%; *n* = 103), Male (47.5%; *n* = 96), Other (0.5%; *n* = 1), Missing data (1.0%; *n* = 2)	Heterosexual (83.7%; *n* = 169), Bisexual (5.0%; *n* = 10), Gay or Lesbian (2.5%; *n* = 5), Uncertain or questioning (1.5%; *n* = 3), Queer (1.0%; *n* = 2), I choose not to answer (1.0%; *n* = 2), Other (2.0%; *n* = 4), Missing data (3.5%; *n* = 7)	Seriously dating one person but not living together (47%; *n* = 95), Living with my partner / Common law, cohabiting (28.7%; *n* = 58), Married (16.8%; *n* = 34), Engaged (2.5%; *n* = 5), Casually dating one person (1.5%; *n* = 3), Seriously dating more than one person (0.5%; *n* = 1), Missing data (3.0%; *n* = 6)	Average = 4.53 years (SD = 3.82); Range = 6 months–22 years
Muise (Study 3; TLC Dataverse)[c, d]	Average = 32.63 years (SD = 10.19); Range = 20–88 years	White/North American/European (65.3%; *n* = 158.03), East Asian (8.3%; *n* = 20.09), South Asian (7.4%; *n* = 17.91), Bi- or multiethnic/racial (5.8%; *n* = 14.04), Not listed (12.7%; *n* = 30.73)	Female (51.2%; *n* = 124), Male (47.5%; *n* = 115), Other (0.8%; *n* = 2), Missing data (0.4%; *n* = 1)	Straight/Heterosexual (81.4%; *n* = 197), Bisexual (9.1%; *n* = 22), Asexual (2.9%; *n* = 7), Lesbian (2.5%; *n* = 6), Pansexual (1.7%; *n* = 4), Gay (0.8%; *n* = 2), Queer (0.8%; *n* = 2), Other (0.8%; *n* = 2)	Married (46.7%; *n* = 113), Living together/not common law or married (29.3%; *n* = 71), Common law (13.6%; *n* = 33), Engaged (7.9%; *n* = 19), Dating (1.2%; *n* = 3), Other (0.4%; *n* = 1), Missing data (0.8%; *n* = 2)	Average = 8.13 years (SD = 8.42); Range = 1–58 years

Table 1 (continued)

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
Maxwell (Study 1; TLC Dataverse; OSF)[c]	Average = 21.70 years (SD = 4.19); Range = 17–46 years	White (50.4%; *n* = 115), European (23.8%; *n* = 59), Chinese (22.6%; *n* = 56), South/South East Asian (13.7%; *n* = 34), Korean (5.2%; *n* = 13), Latin American (4.4%; *n* = 11), Black (4.0%; *n* = 10), Japanese (2.8%; *n* = 7), Middle Eastern/Arab (2.4%; *n* = 6), Aboriginal (1.2%; *n* = 3) (note: individuals could select more than one category)	Female (52.0%; *n* = 129), Male (47.6%; *n* = 118), Prefer not to say (0.4%; *n* = 1)	Mixed-sex (96.0%; *n* = 238), Same-sex (3.2%; *n* = 8), Prefer not to say (0.8%; *n* = 2)	Exclusively dating (79.0%; *n* = 196), Married (6.9%; *n* = 17), Common law (4.4%; *n* = 11), Casually dating (4.0%; *n* = 10), Open relationship (2.8%; *n* = 7), Engaged (2.4%; *n* = 6), Single (0.4%; *n* = 1)	Average = 2.06 years (SD = 1.84); Range = 2 months–10 years
Debrot (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c]	Average = 23.09 years (SD = 2.84); Range = 19–36 years	Swiss (71.4%; *n* = 100), German (21.4%; *n* = 30), Luxembourgish (2.9%; *n* = 4), Italian (1.4%; *n* = 2), Other (2.8%; *n* = 4)	Female (50%; *n* = 70), Male (50%; *n* = 70)	Heterosexual (100%; *n* = 140)	Unmarried (98.6%; *n* = 138), Married (1.4%; *n* = 2)	Average = 2.41 years (SD = 2.05); Range = 3 months–10 years
Debrot and Kim (Study 2; TLC Dataverse)[c]	Average = 33.52 years (SD = 7.99); Range = 21–61 years	White/Caucasian (74%; *n* = 145), Asian (17%; *n* = 33), South American (7%; *n* = 13), African (4%; *n* = 7), Native American (3%; *n* = 5), Caribbean (1%; *n* = 1), Middle Eastern (1%; *n* = 1), Other (2%; *n* = 3) (note: percentages total more than 100 percent as individuals could report more than one race/ethnicity category)	Female (52.6%; *n* = 103), Male (47.4%; *n* = 93)	Heterosexual (85.7%; *n* = 168), Bisexual (8.2%; *n* = 16), Gay/Lesbian (3.1%; *n* = 6), Queer (0.5%; *n* = 1), Other (0.5%; *n* = 1), Missing data (2.0%; *n* = 4)	Married (48.0%; *n* = 94), Living with my partner/Common law married/cohabiting (43.9%; *n* = 86), Engaged (6.6%; *n* = 13), Casually dating more than one person (0.5%; *n* = 1), Other (0.5%; *n* = 1), Missing data (0.5%; *n* = 1)	Average = 7.80 years (SD = 5.0); Range = 2–24 years

Table 1 (continued)

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
Debrot (Study 3; TLC Dataverse)[c]	Average = 35.42 years (SD = 10.48); Range = 21–73 years	White and/or European (78.9%; *n* = 1,266), Latino (7.9%; *n* = 127), Native American (7.5%; *n* = 120), African American (6.8%; *n* = 109), Asian (6.0%; *n* = 96), Middle Eastern (1.3%; *n* = 21), Other (2.4%; *n* = 38)	Female (49.8%; *n* = 798), Male (49.9%; *n* = 801), Transgender (0.2%; *n* = 3), I do not identify as any of the above (0.1%; *n* = 2)	Heterosexual (88.4%; *n* = 1,418), Bisexual (5.8%; *n* = 93), Gay or Lesbian (3.7%; *n* = 60), Uncertain or questioning (0.9%; *n* = 14), Queer (0.5%; *n* = 8), I choose not to answer (0.4%; *n* = 6), Other (0.3%; *n* = 5)	Married (52.5%; *n* = 842), Living with my partner/common law/cohabitating (17.1%; *n* = 275), Seriously dating one person but not living together (13.4%; *n* = 215), Casually dating one person (6.6%; *n* = 106), Engaged (5.3%; *n* = 85), Casually dating more than one person (4.1%; *n* = 65), Seriously dating more than other person (1.0%; *n* = 16)	Average = 7.90 years (SD = 8.19); Range = 6 months–46 years
Mark (Study 1)[c]	Average = 29.03 years (SD = 6.94); Range = 18–50 years		Female (58.1%; *n* = 332), Male (35.7%; *n* = 204), Transgender/queer (3.2%; *n* = 18), Missing data (3.0%; *n* = 17)	Bisexual (64.6%; *n* = 369), Heterosexual/straight (26.4%; *n* = 151), Questioning or uncertain (1.4%; *n* = 8), Lesbian/Homosexual/Gay (0.5%; *n* = 3), Other (3.2%; *n* = 18), Missing data (3.9%; *n* = 22)	Married, living with spouse (52.4%; *n* = 299), Partnered, living with partner (44.3%; *n* = 253), Missing data (3.3%; *n* = 571)	Average = 5.41 years (SD = 5.10); Range = 0–20 years
Mark (Study 2)[c]	Average = 32.59 years (SD = 8.95); Range = 18–64 years		Female (49.8%; *n* = 202), Male (50.2%; *n* = 204)	Heterosexual/straight (94.3%; *n* = 383), Bisexual (4.2%; *n* = 17), Questioning or uncertain (1.0%; *n* = 4), Other (0.2%; *n* = 1), Missing data (0.2%; *n* = 1)	Married, living with spouse (69.0%; *n* = 280), Partnered, living with partner (31.0%; *n* = 126)	Average = 9.24 years (SD = 6.87); Range = 2.5–39 years

Table 1 (continued)

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
Mark (Study 3)[c]	Average = 32.99 years (SD = 9.53); Range = 18–70 years		Female (66.4%; *n* = 685), Male (33.6%; *n* = 347)	Heterosexual/straight (56.5%; *n* = 584), Bisexual (18.7%; *n* = 193), Homosexual/Lesbian/Gay (18.4%; *n* = 190), Questioning or uncertain (1.6%; *n* = 17), Asexual (0.5%; *n* = 5), Other (4.2%; *n* = 43)	Married, living with spouse (35.6%; *n* = 367), Partnered, living with partner (25.8%; *n* = 266), Partnered, not living with partner (20.0%; *n* = 206), Single, not married or currently partnered (13.1%; *n* = 135), Divorced, not married or currently partnered (0.8%; *n* = 8), Separated (0.6%; *n* = 6), Married, not living with spouse (0.4%; *n* = 4), Widowed, not remarried or currently partnered (0.1%; *n* = 1), Other (3.8%; *n* = 39)	Average = 7.71 years (SD = 7.23); Range = 0–46 years
Mark (Study 4)[c]	Average = 48.82 years (SD = 13.39); Range = 15–91 years		Female (21.2%; *n* = 301), Male (77.9%; *n* = 1,107), Genderqueer (0.6%; *n* = 9), Other (0.3%; *n* = 4)	Heterosexual/straight (85.6%; *n* = 1,216), Bisexual/Pansexual (9.3%; *n* = 132), Gay/Lesbian (1.8%; *n* = 25), I'm not sure (1.1%; *n* = 16), Queer (0.8%; *n* = 12), Other (1.4%; *n* = 20)	In a long-term relationship with one person (58.2%; *n* = 827), Single, not dating anyone (14.4%; *n* = 205), Single, casually dating one or more person (8.4%; *n* = 120), Seriously dating one person (5.8%; *n* = 83), In a long-term relationship with more than one person (5.8%; *n* = 82), Seriously dating more than one person (1.5%; *n* = 83), Other (5.7%; *n* = 81), Missing data (0.1%; *n* = 1)	

Table 1 (continued)

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
Mark (Study 5)[c]	Average = 40.59 years (SD = 11.16); Range = 20–78 years		Male (100%; $n = 195$)	Heterosexual/straight (93.8%; $n = 183$), Bisexual (3.1%; $n = 6$), Lesbian/Homosexual/Gay (1.5%; $n = 3$), Questioning or uncertain (1.0%; $n = 2$), Missing data (0.5%; $n = 1$)	Married, living with spouse (68.2%; $n = 133$), Partnered, living with partner (14.9%; $n = 29$), Partnered, not living with partner (9.7%; $n = 19$), Single, not married or currently partnered (3.6%; $n = 7$), Divorced, not remarried or currently partnered (1.5%; $n = 3$), Married, not living with spouse (0.5%; $n = 1$), Separated (0.5%; $n = 1$), Other (1.0%; $n = 2$)	Average = 12.05 years (SD = 8.72), Range = 0–37 years
McNulty (Study 1)[c, d]	Average = 30.84 years (SD = 5.09); Range = 20–63 years	White/Caucasian (90%; $n = 241$), Hispanic or Latino/a (3%; $n = 8$), Asian (3%; $n = 8$), Black/African American (2%; $n = 4$), American Indian/Alaska Native (0%; $n = 1$), Two or more ethnicities (2%; $n = 6$)	Female (50.4%; $n = 135$), Male (49.6%; $n = 133$)		Married (100%; $n = 268$)	Average = 4.46 years (SD = 4.90); Range = 0–41 years
McNulty (Study 2)[c, d]	Average = 31.05 years (SD = 9.04); Range = 19–72 years	White/Caucasian (77%; $n = 184$), Black/African American (13%; $n = 30$), Hispanic or Latino/a (4%; $n = 9$), Asian (1%; $n = 2$), American Indian/Alaska Native (1%; $n = 2$), Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander (0%; $n = 1$), another ethnicity (1%; $n = 3$), two or more ethnicities (4%; $n = 9$)	Female (50.4%; $n = 121$), Male (49.6%; $n = 119$)		Married (100%; $n = 240$)	Average = 3.37 years (SD = 2.63); Range = 0–18 years
McNulty (Study 3)[c]	Average = 24.66 years (SD = 5.30); Range = 18–53 years	Caucasian (95%; $n = 137$); Other (5%; $n = 7$)	Female (50.0%; $n = 72$), Male (50.0%; $n = 72$)		Married (100%; $n = 144$)	

Table 1 (continued)

Contributors	Age	Ethnicity	Gender	Sexual orientation	Relationship type	Relationship length
McNulty (Study 4)[c]	Average = 25.06 years (SD = 4.19); Range = 18–48 years	Caucasian (92%; *n* = 248); Other (8%; *n* = 22)	Female (50.0%; *n* = 135), Male (50.0%; *n* = 135)		Married (100%; *n* = 270)	
Baker (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c]	Average = 32.35 years (SD = 8.71); Range = 17.53–70.57 years	White/Caucasian (64%; *n* = 129), Black/African American (27%; *n* = 55), Asian (2%; *n* = 4), Hispanic and/or Latino/a (2%; *n* = 3), another or two or more ethnicities (5%; *n* = 11)	Female (53%; *n* = 107), Male (47%; *n* = 95)	Heterosexual/Straight (88.1%; *n* = 178), Gay/Lesbian (6.4%; *n* = 13), Bisexual (5%, *n* = 10), Missing data (0.5%, *n* = 1)	Married (100%; *n* = 202)	
Carswell (Study 1)[c]	Average = 21.94 years (SD = 4.05); Range = 18–46 years	White (67.5%; *n* = 81), Asian American (21.7%; *n* = 26), Hispanic/Latino/a (16.7%; *n* = 20), Multiracial (7.5%; *n* = 9), African American (4.2%; *n* = 5), Other (1.7%; *n* = 2). Participants could select "all that apply" so it doesn't add up to 100%	Female (70.8%; *n* = 85), Male (20.8%; *n* = 25), Missing data (8.3%; *n* = 10)	Heterosexual (85%; *n* = 102), Bisexual (7.5%; *n* = 9), Gay/Lesbian (5%; *n* = 6), Missing data (2.5%; *n* = 3)	Dating Seriously (89.2%; *n* = 107), Engaged (5.8%; *n* = 7), Married (4.2%; *n* = 5), Dating Casually (0.8%; *n* = 1)	Average = 2.45 years (SD = 1.60); Range = 12 months–10.4 years
Algoe (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)[c, d]	Average = 29.76 years (SD = 4.79); Range = 23–53 years		Female (50%; *n* = 70), Male (50%; *n* = 70)		Married (54.3%; *n* = 76), Dating Exclusively (27.1%; *n* = 38), Engaged to be Married (12.1%; *n* = 17), Other (2.9%; *n* = 4), Missing data (3.6%; *n* = 5)	Average = 4.97 years (SD = 3.85); Range = 1–25 years
Algoe (Study 2; TLC Dataverse)[c]	Average = 23.58 years (SD = 5.41); Range = 18–50 years		Male (47.8%; *n* = 129), Female (47.4%; *n* = 128), Missing data (4.8%; *n* = 13)		Dating Exclusively (72.6%; *n* = 196), Married (14.1%; *n* = 38), Engaged to be Married (7.8%; *n* = 21), Other (1.9%; *n* = 5), Dating Casually (1.1%; *n* = 3), Missing data (2.6%; *n* = 7)	

[c]Included in cross-sectional analyses

[d]Included in daily-experience analyses

(6%) identified as another sexual orientation, and we did not have information on the sexual orientation of 5 (< 1%) participants.

Measures

Across both IDAs, participants completed self-report assessments of sexual satisfaction. Although self-reports are not always accurate, they are typically the best method available for assessing internal states (Schwarz, 2007) and are currently the only method for assessing sexual satisfaction (for review, see Maxwell & McNulty, 2019). Participants also completed self-report assessments of other variables (i.e., relationship satisfaction, sexual frequency/engagement) that were used in supplemental exploratory analyses. Additional information about each measure (e.g., example items, response options) can be found in the OSM.

Global Sexual Satisfaction

Five measures were used to assess sexual satisfaction in the cross-sectional datasets, including the Global Measures of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992), the Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981), the Pinney Sexual Satisfaction Inventory (Pinney et al., 1987), the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (Snyder et al., 1981), and the New Scale of Sexual Satisfaction (Štulhofer et al., 2010). All measures have demonstrated adequate internal consistency and convergent validity (see Mark et al., 2014; Pinney et al., 1987; Snyder et al., 1981). Additionally, four datasets used face-valid items to assess sexual satisfaction.

Global Relationship Satisfaction

Nine measures were used to assess relationship satisfaction in the cross-sectional datasets, including the relationship satisfaction subscale of the Investment Model Scale (Rusbult et al., 1998), the Quality Marriage Index (Norton, 1983), the satisfaction subscale of the Perceived Relationship Quality Components Inventory (Fletcher et al., 2000), the Global Measure of Relationship Satisfaction (Byers et al., 1998), the Couples Satisfaction Index (Funk & Rogge, 2007), the Semantic Marital Differential Scale (Mattson et al., 2013), the Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick et al., 1998), the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (Schumm et al., 1986), and the Positive/Negative Qualities in Marriage Scale (Rogge et al., 2017). All measures have demonstrated sound psychometric properties, including adequate internal consistency or convergent validity (see Fletcher et al., 2000; Graham et al., 2011; Quinn-Nilas, 2023; Rogge et al., 2017; Rusbult et al., 1998). Additionally, one dataset used a face-valid item to assess relationship satisfaction.

Global Sexual Frequency

All cross-sectional datasets used face-valid items to assess sexual frequency. All items were coded to reflect the average frequency of sexual behavior per day.

Daily Sexual Satisfaction

Three daily-experience datasets had participants complete the Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992) each day. The remaining five datasets asked participants to respond to face-valid items.

Daily Relationship Satisfaction

Two daily-experience datasets had participants complete items from the Investment Model Scale (Rusbult et al., 1998). Two daily-experience datasets had participants complete one item from the Perceived Relationship Quality Components Inventory (Fletcher et al., 2000). Four daily-experience datasets had participants complete face-valid items.

Daily Sexual Engagement

All daily-experience datasets used face-valid items that asked participants whether they engaged in sexual behavior on a given day.

Results

Data Integration

As noted, many of the datasets that were included in the two IDAs used different measures of the same construct. Despite this, these datasets were combined into a single dataset by first harmonizing similar items into new merged items (Hussong et al., 2013). To do so, we first used a linear stretch scale homogenization method (De Jonge et al., 2014) to transform the responses to a common numerical scale for any identical items that had a different number of response options across datasets. For example, one study may have permitted participants to respond to an item on a 5-point scale, while another study may have permitted participants to respond to the same item on a 7-point scale. The linear stretch scale homogenization method stretches the values from the study with fewer response options to be on the same scale as the study with the most response options by recoding values such that the lowest number assigned to a response option is always projected onto the lowest value and the highest number onto the highest value, while all intermediate options are given equally distanced numbers in between. This ensured that response

scales were consistent for each measure across all contributing datasets that included that measure.

Next, we standardized each item across all datasets that used that same item. We standardized items across all the datasets, rather than within each individual dataset, because the latter approach would reduce between-study variability. That is, we recognize that meaningful between-study variability likely exists on these items (for example, between samples that contain more women), and if we standardized the items within each dataset before combining the datasets, it would eliminate such variability that we hoped our measures would capture. Indeed, as noted, capturing such variability is one of the primary advantages of IDA over other data pooling approaches (e.g., meta-analysis; see Hussong et al., 2013).

We then harmonized the items following the recommendations of Hussong et al. (2013). To do so, we first identified identical items across different measures, as well as nonidentical items with similar semantic meanings. We identified nonidentical, yet similar, items by selecting items that were addressing the same construct but were worded slightly differently. Consistent with the process of harmonization described by Hussong et al. (2013), these nonidentical items were identified as having similar semantic meaning through discussion and consensus between the research team. For such items, we harmonized the items by transforming the original item and/or response scales to create new, logically equivalent items across measures. For example, we created a new item that combined items across different scales that reflect satisfaction with one's sex life (e.g., "Generally, I am satisfied with my sex life" from the Pinney Sexual Satisfaction Inventory with "Our sex life is fully satisfying" from the Marital Satisfaction Inventory). Because we expected that items that are similar, yet not identical, may result in measurement invariance due to slight differences in the wording of those items, we standardized items across all datasets that used the identical item prior to harmonizing them with similar, yet nonidentical, items to eliminate any item-level differences in wording. As a hypothetical example, people might endorse an item such as "In most ways, my sexual life is close to my ideal" more than the item, "I feel that nothing is lacking in my sex life" because the latter is worded in a more extreme manner. Thus, before combining the responses from people who responded to the first item with the responses from people who responded to the latter item, we would standardize each item across all datasets that used the identical item prior to harmonizing. Such an approach sought to eliminate any measurement invariance that occurred due to differences in how the items were worded. In sum, because we wanted to capture between-study variability in identical items, we did not standardize those items prior to combining participants across datasets. However, because we did not want results to be biased by minor differences in item wording, we standardized the items prior to harmonizing them.

This procedure resulted in 55 harmonized items that assessed sexual satisfaction and 38 harmonized items that assessed relationship satisfaction in the combined cross-sectional dataset, and six harmonized items that assessed sexual satisfaction and four harmonized items that assessed relationship satisfaction in the combined daily-experience dataset. For details about the specific items that were harmonized, see: https://osf.io/vmh4t/?view_only=25fcf0af4c034a8bbf68b0ac20bcf2ef.

Data Reduction

Next, to ensure that the harmonized items reflect the underlying construct, we conducted four separate confirmatory factor analyses (CFA): one that included the sexual satisfaction items in the cross-sectional dataset, one that included the relationship satisfaction items in the cross-sectional dataset, one that included the sexual satisfaction items in the daily-experience dataset, and one that included the relationship satisfaction items in the daily-experience dataset. Each CFA was conducted in MPlus 7 (Muthén, 2015). In each model, the variance of the latent variable was constrained to one. The fit of each model was considered acceptable if the comparative fit index (CFI) was equal to or greater than 0.90, the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) was equal to or less than 0.80, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was equal to or less than 0.06. We gave preference to these fit indices over the chi-square goodness-of-fit test because chi-square tests are heavily influenced by sample size and correlations among variables (Bearden et al., 1982) and we had a large sample size and highly correlated items. Items with high missingness were removed from the model if those variables prevented the model from converging. Further, items with factor loadings less than 0.5 were removed from the model.

Results suggested that the model fit for the model estimating cross-sectional sexual satisfaction was acceptable, CFI = .94, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .04, and 19 harmonized items were retained in the model. Similarly, the model fit for the model estimating daily sexual satisfaction was acceptable, CFI > .99, SRMR = .02, RMSEA = .04, and all six harmonized items were retained in the model. The model fit for the model estimating cross-sectional relationship satisfaction was acceptable, CFI = .95, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .04, and 22 harmonized items were retained in the model. Finally, the model fit for the model estimating daily relationship satisfaction was acceptable, CFI > .99, SRMR = .03, RMSEA = .05, and three harmonized items were retained in the model.

Items that were retained in the model were used to create a commensurate measure for the four composite variables of interest (i.e., cross-sectional sexual satisfaction and daily

sexual satisfaction). To do so, we first calculated weighted scores for each item by multiplying the original standardized item by the standardized first-order factor loading derived from the CFA. This effectively allows the items to contribute to participants' overall score to a degree that is proportional to the extent to which those items load onto the latent construct. Finally, we calculated each scale score (e.g., sexual satisfaction) by taking the average of the weighted items.

Primary Analyses

Given that many of the datasets were dyadic, all research questions were tested with two-level models in which persons were nested within dyads to account for the non-independence between romantic partners using the HLM Version 7.01 computer program (Raudenbush et al., 2013). To test our predictions with the cross-sectional data, we regressed sexual satisfaction onto a dummy-code for gender (0 = *man*, 1 = *woman*) and a randomly varying intercept. To test our predictions with the daily-experience data, we regressed sexual satisfaction onto a dummy code for gender (0 = *man*, 1 = *woman*), a variable indicating the day of assessment, and a randomly varying intercept. In these daily-experience analyses, persons and time of assessment were crossed given that both partners' reports were provided at roughly the same time (Kenny et al., 2006).

Contrary to theoretical perspectives suggesting that women are likely less sexually satisfied than men (e.g., Conley & Klein, 2022), but consistent with the idea that sexual satisfaction may operate differently in established relationships, multilevel models that account for dependency in the datasets revealed that partnered women ($M_{\text{cross-sectional}} = 0.08$, $SD_{\text{cross-sectional}} = 0.70$; $M_{\text{daily}} = 0.01$, $SD_{\text{daily}} = 0.93$) reported slightly *greater* sexual satisfaction than did partnered men ($M_{\text{cross-sectional}} = -0.01$, $SD_{\text{cross-sectional}} = 0.78$; $M_{\text{daily}} = -0.01$, $SD_{\text{daily}} = 0.94$). In particular, results from both the cross-sectional, $b = 0.05$, SE = 0.01, $t(2{,}744) = 4.32$, $p < .001$, $r = .08$ (see Fig. 1), and daily-experience, $b = 0.11$, SE = 0.04, $t(882) = 2.44$, $p = .015$, $r = .08$[4] (see Fig. 2), studies revealed a significant effect of participants' gender on reports of their sexual satisfaction. Although these effects were relatively small, they are consistent with theoretical perspectives suggesting that differences between genders' sexuality are often minor (Hyde, 2005). Two sets of supplemental analyses are reported in the OSM. The first tested whether men and women differed on each individual item of the harmonized

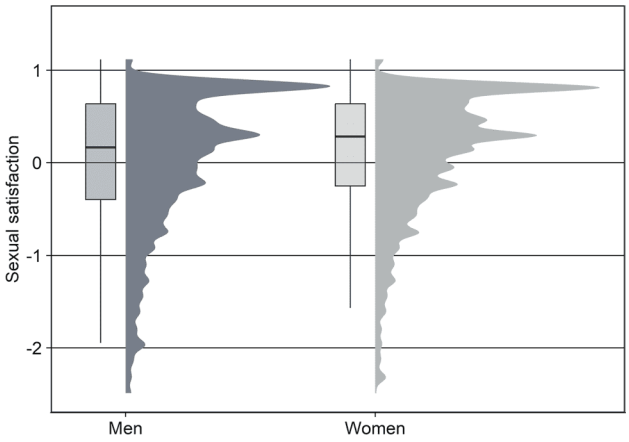

Fig. 1 Gender differences in standardized sexual satisfaction in the cross-sectional dataset. For each boxplot, the dividing line depicts the median response, hinges depict the inter-quartile range (IQR; i.e., 25th and 75th percentiles), and whiskers depict 1.5*IQR. Density plots depict the distribution of scores

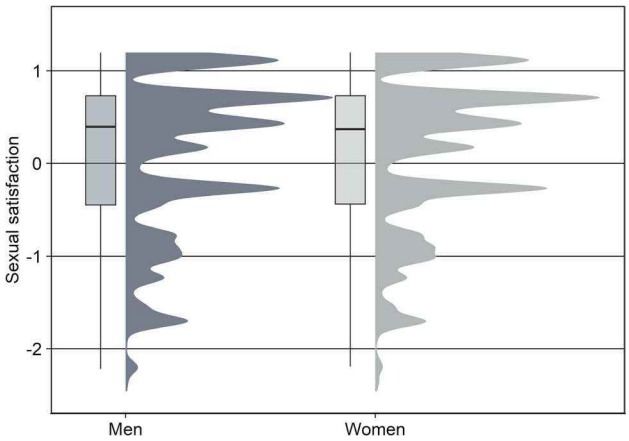

Fig. 2 Gender differences in standardized sexual satisfaction in the daily-experience dataset. Interpretation is the same as Fig. 1

scales. These results demonstrated that women (vs. men) reported greater values to items that were most central to the construct of sexual satisfaction (e.g., enjoyment of sex, satisfaction with sex life)— i.e., valenced items that reflected the positive and/or negative evaluations and feelings that people have toward their sexual relationship (Lawrance & Byers, 1995). In contrast, men (vs. women) reported greater values to items that were more tangential to the construct (e.g., sexual inhibition, sexual arousal)—i.e., items that people often consider when evaluating different aspects of their sexual life and satisfaction. The second set of supplemental analyses demonstrated that results were largely robust to the specific measure used within each study.

[4] We estimated *r* using the formula $r = \text{sqrt}(t\text{^}2/(t\text{^}2 + df))$ where the *t* and d*f* values were obtained from HLM, and can be interpreted as an indicator of effect size that accounts for the variance explained by covariates in the model, where the values .10, .24, and .37 represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively (McGrath & Meyer, 2006).

Supplemental Exploratory Analyses

To further explore *why* partnered women reported slightly greater sexual satisfaction than did partnered men, we conducted post-hoc supplemental exploratory analyses (dependent upon the constructs available within these datasets) that controlled for three sets of variables. First, given that sexual satisfaction in romantic relationships often reflects not only mere physical pleasure, but also the extent to which sexual experiences promote relational benefits (e.g., intimacy, closeness), and given that women tend to value the relational benefits from sex more than men (Birnbaum & Reis, 2019), we controlled for relationship satisfaction to address whether such relational benefits would account for any observed gender difference in sexual satisfaction. Further, given that relationship satisfaction is robustly associated with sexual satisfaction (McNulty et al., 2016; Park et al., 2023), controlling for relationship satisfaction ensures that gender differences in sexual satisfaction are specific to the sexual domain and did not simply reflect global positive evaluations of the relationship and/or partner. Second, given that women tend to consider both partners' sexual enjoyment when reporting their sexual satisfaction more than men (McClelland, 2011), we controlled for partners' sexual satisfaction to address whether any observed gender difference in sexual satisfaction may be due to having a partner who is more sexually satisfied.[5] Third, we controlled for demographic variables typically associated with sexual satisfaction. Results suggested that women's reports of sexual satisfaction were still slightly greater than men's reports in both the cross-sectional, $b = 0.07$, SE = 0.03, $t(1{,}082) = 2.81$, $p = .005$, $r = .09$, and daily-experience, $b = 0.11$, SE = 0.04, $t(569) = 3.21$, $p = .001$, $r = .13$, datasets after simultaneously controlling for relationship satisfaction, partners' sexual satisfaction, age, sexual orientation (heterosexual vs. sexually diverse), relationship length, relationship type (married vs. dating), geographic location (United States vs. non-United States), and participants' missing data rates (i.e., the percentage of days they did not complete the daily survey).

Next, we examined whether sexual frequency moderated the gender difference in sexual satisfaction. In particular, women tend to have lower sexual desire compared to men (Kim et al., 2021; Santtila et al., 2007), and as previously mentioned, theoretical perspectives suggest that sexual experiences are likely more pleasurable for men than women (Conley & Klein, 2022). Given that reports of sexual satisfaction can reflect enjoyment with specific sexual encounters as well as a general satisfaction with one's sex life, it is possible that women's sexual experiences are still worse than men's, but they are more satisfied with their sex lives than men to the extent that they have less frequent sex. If so, sexual frequency should moderate the gender difference in sexual satisfaction, such that women should be more sexually satisfied than men to the extent that they engage in relatively less frequent sexual behavior and men should be more sexually satisfied than women to the extent that they engage in more frequent sexual behavior (McNulty & Fisher, 2008). Results did not support this idea, however; neither the frequency in which participants engaged in sexual behavior in the cross-sectional dataset, $b = 0.01$, SE = 0.05, $t(2{,}172) = 0.23$, $p = .816$, $r < .01$, nor whether they engaged in sexual behavior that day in the daily-experience dataset, $b = -0.02$, SE = 0.06, $t(16{,}516) = -0.33$, $p = .743$, $r < .01$, moderated the gender differences in sexual satisfaction.

Finally, the gender difference in sexual satisfaction was also not moderated by sexual orientation, $b = -0.06$, SE = 0.03, $t(2{,}728) = -1.61$, $p = .108$, $r = -.03$, relationship length, $b = -2.00\text{E}{-4}$, SE = 1.45E−4, $t(2{,}326) = -1.38$, $p = .168$, $r = -.03$, relationship type, $b = -0.03$, SE = 0.03, $t(2{,}230) = -1.14$, $p = .253$, $r = -.02$, or geographical location, $b = 0.03$, SE = 0.03, $t(1{,}588) = 0.73$, $p = .467$, $r = .02$, in the cross-sectional dataset. However, the gender difference was moderated by age, $b = 2.63\text{E}{-3}$, SE = 1.12E−3, $t(2{,}664) = 2.24$, $p = .026$, $r = .04$, such that it was observed in people who were one standard deviation older than the mean, $b = 0.05$, SE = 0.02, $t(2{,}664) = 2.24$, $p = .025$, $r = .04$, but not among those who were one standard deviation younger than the mean, $b = -0.02$, SE = 0.02, $t(2{,}664) = -1.03$, $p = .304$, $r = -.02$. Finally, the gender difference in sexual satisfaction was not moderated by age, $b = 0.01$, SE = 0.01, $t(645) = 0.10$, $p = .919$, $r < .01$, sexual orientation, $b = 0.03$, SE = 0.34, $t(645) = 0.10$, $p = .921$, $r < .01$, relationship type, $b = -0.12$, SE = 0.11, $t(645) = -1.07$, $p = .286$, $r = -.04$, geographical location, $b = 0.14$, SE = 0.11, $t(645) = 1.29$, $p = .199$, $r = .05$, or the extent of missing data, $b = 0.04$, SE = 0.27, $t(645) = 0.15$, $p = .885$, $r = .01$, in the daily-experience dataset. However, the gender difference was moderated by relationship length, $b = 2.16\text{E}{-3}$, SE = 8.50E−4, $t(645) = 2.54$, $p = .011$, $r = .10$, such that it was observed in people who were in relationships one standard deviation longer than the mean, $b = 0.39$, SE = 0.08, $t(645) = 4.72$, $p < .001$, $r = .18$, but not among those who were one standard deviation shorter than the mean, $b = 0.10$, SE = 0.07, $t(645) = 1.45$, $p = .147$, $r = .06$.

Discussion

An abundance of research has addressed gender differences in sexual satisfaction, yet inconsistent findings have created an unclear understanding as to whether gender differences in

[5] Partner's sexual satisfaction was only available in the dyadic studies; thus, partner's sexual satisfaction was treated as missing data in the non-dyadic studies.

sexual satisfaction exist. To this end, the goal of the current research was to provide a robust assessment of gender differences in sexual satisfaction among people in established romantic relationships. Results revealed that partnered women report being slightly more sexually satisfied than partnered men. Although the observed effect was quite small, the size of the effect is consistent with theoretical perspectives and research that posit that any observed gender differences in sexuality are typically small, and men and women share many similarities in the sexual domain (Hyde, 2005; Peterson & Hyde, 2010).

We conducted several supplemental analyses to better understand the observed results; however, none of these analyses provided support for explanations for the obtained gender difference. First, given that women tend to value the relational benefits from sex more than men (Birnbaum & Reis, 2019), we controlled for relationship satisfaction to address whether the relational benefits would account for any observed gender difference in sexual satisfaction; however, the observed gender difference in sexual satisfaction remained significant, suggesting that this difference was not the result of women prioritizing the relational benefits of sex more than men. Second, given that women tend to consider both partners' sexual enjoyment when reporting their sexual satisfaction more than men (McClelland, 2011), we controlled for partners' sexual satisfaction to address whether any observed gender difference in sexual satisfaction may be due to having a partner who is more sexually satisfied; however, the observed gender difference in sexual satisfaction similarly remained significant, suggesting that women were not more sexually satisfied because they were considering their partner's sexual satisfaction. Finally, given that women may be more satisfied with their sex lives than men to the extent that they have less frequent sex, we examined whether sexual frequency moderated the gender difference in sexual satisfaction to address whether women are more sexually satisfied than men to the extent that they engage in relatively less frequent sexual behavior; however, sexual frequency did not moderate the observed gender difference in sexual satisfaction, suggesting that women were not more sexually satisfied than men because less frequent sex bothers men more than women.

Why then are partnered women slightly more sexually satisfied than partnered men? Future research would benefit from addressing several remaining possibilities. First, given that men's sexual satisfaction tends to be more strongly influenced by sexual novelty compared to women's (de Oliveira et al., 2022; Frederick et al., 2017), and given novelty declines as relationships persist, men's sexual satisfaction in established romantic relationships might decline more rapidly than women's. Consistent with this idea, supplemental exploratory analyses in the daily-experience dataset revealed that the gender difference was present among people who were in relationships one standard deviation longer than the mean (i.e., > 11.25 years) but not present among people who were in relationships one standard deviation less than the mean. However, inconsistent with this idea, relationship length did not moderate the gender difference in the cross-sectional dataset.

Second, the current pattern of results may have emerged because the sexual encounter itself is better than assumed for partnered women. Indeed, partnered women tend to experience more frequent foreplay and orgasms than do non-partnered women (Leonhardt et al., 2023), and women often report deriving considerable sexual pleasure from sex that does not result in orgasm (Nicolson & Burr, 2003). Thus, although partnered women experience fewer orgasms than partnered men (Armstrong et al., 2012; Leonhardt et al., 2023), it is possible that their overall enjoyment of the sexual experience may still be similar, or even slightly greater, than men's. Future research would benefit by examining whether gender differences in enjoyment with specific sexual experiences account for the obtained differences in overall sexual satisfaction.

Third, the current pattern of results may have emerged because, compared to men, women may have had worse prior sexual encounters that lead to lower standards or expectations for sex. For example, women might form lower standards or expectations for sex due to often experiencing less satisfying casual sexual encounters than do men (Armstrong et al., 2012) and than in established romantic relationships (Armstrong et al., 2012; Marcantonio et al., 2018; Muise & Impett, 2015; Walsh et al., 2019). Importantly, these lower standards and expectations should be easier to exceed when having sex with a romantic partner, which likely inflates their current sexual satisfaction if they are using previously dissatisfying experiences as a point of comparison (Rusbult & Buunk, 1993; see McClelland, 2011). This perspective aligns with the Interpersonal Exchange Model of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1995), which posits that sexual satisfaction will be greater to the extent that a person's current level of rewards and costs in the sexual relationship compares favorably to a person's expected level of rewards and costs.

Finally, it is possible that women may instead simply be less willing to disclose a lack of sexual satisfaction than men due to being socialized to avoid discussing sexual problems (Conley & Klein, 2022). That is, given that women are held to higher moral standards surrounding sex (Bordini & Sperb, 2013), they often learn that it is inappropriate to talk about sex (Montemurro et al., 2015) and thus feel less comfortable disclosing their sexual problems compared to men (Montemurro et al., 2015).

Implications

The current results have numerous practical and clinical implications. As mentioned, the observed effect was quite small, suggesting that women may only be slightly more sexually satisfied than men. Importantly, when sample sizes are very large, as was the case with these samples, even very small effects are likely to be detected (Meehl, 1992; Sullivan & Feinn, 2012) and these obtained effects would likely not be statistically significant in a typically powered study. Although we preregistered our analyses, including the alpha level for significance, we did not specify which size of effects are considered meaningful. Ultimately, this raises questions about the practical importance of these results and suggests that women and men may experience similar levels of sexual satisfaction for all practical purposes. Indeed, if these gender differences in sexual satisfaction were meaningful, they should have downstream consequences for other intra- and interpersonal processes. However, we suspect that this is not the case because previous research has observed no, or only very minor, differences between men and women on outcomes like relationship satisfaction (McNulty et al., 2016), life satisfaction (Batz-Barbarich et al., 2018), and positive affect (Masumoto et al., 2016; Roothman et al., 2003). Nevertheless, given the abundance of theoretical perspectives and lay beliefs that support the idea that women likely do not enjoy sex as much as men (Armstrong et al., 2012; Conley & Klein, 2022; Herbenick et al., 2015), the current results remain important given that partnered women were no less sexually satisfied than partnered men.

Importantly, the current findings do not suggest that women do not face obstacles to sexual enjoyment. Our results do not negate the likelihood that women experience more pain (Conley & Klein, 2022; Herbenick et al., 2015), fewer orgasms (Armstrong et al., 2012; Leonhardt et al., 2023), and greater costs (Armstrong et al., 2012; Conley & Klein, 2022; Eagly & Wood, 1999) from sex compared to men. Rather, women report being slightly subjectively happier with their sex lives than do men despite these obstacles. This is a critical distinction for clinicians to acknowledge when working with couples who may be experiencing challenges in their sex life. For example, clinicians may be inclined to attribute couples' sexual challenges to an innate dysfunction within women (e.g., female sexual interest/arousal disorder, female orgasmic disorder) rather than considering situational obstacles that may be contributing to such challenges (Brotto et al., 2010). Importantly, however, the current research demonstrates that a satisfying sex life is possible—and indeed, the norm—for women. Similarly, research has shown that relationship therapists are less likely to pursue a sexuality-related focus to address couples' issues when women report greater sexual satisfaction than their male partner (Emond et al., 2024), suggesting that couples are not perceived as having problems with their sex life if the woman reports greater sexual satisfaction. However, just because a woman reports greater sexual satisfaction than her partner does not suggest that she is not experiencing obstacles in her sex life, and such obstacles may be informing her partners' satisfaction or the greater functioning and well-being of the relationship.

Strengths and Limitations

Several aspects of the current research increase our confidence in the results. Notably, the approaches used in the current study provide a more robust test of gender differences in sexual satisfaction compared to past research. Specifically, we used IDA to combine data from over 35 separate samples, ultimately resulting in a large and diverse dataset. Not only is IDA a novel approach to data pooling, but it is also considered an advantageous approach due to yielding greater statistical power and content validity than other data pooling techniques (e.g., meta-analysis; Hussong et al., 2013). To this end, although the observed effect was quite small, we are confident that the analyses were sufficiently powered to observe such effects. The current research also included several dyadic datasets and thus allowed us to statistically account for the interdependence of couples' sexual experiences, as well as both cross-sectional and daily-experience datasets. Unlike past research that has relied solely on cross-sectional datasets to address gender differences in sexual satisfaction (e.g., Peterson & Hyde, 2010), the use of these diverse methods allowed us to capture both global assessments and momentary experiences of sexual satisfaction. Importantly, similar results emerged across both the cross-sectional and daily-experience datasets and remained after controlling for numerous variables typically associated with sexual satisfaction (e.g., relationship satisfaction, partner's sexual satisfaction).

Nevertheless, several factors limit the conclusions that can be drawn from these results until they are replicated and extended in future research. First, given that the majority of participants were in their 20s and 30s, the current findings may not be generalizable to other age groups. However, limited research suggests that the observed results may apply to older adults. For example, Heiman et al. (2011) found that women reported greater sexual satisfaction than did men in a sample of mid-aged to older adults in romantic relationships. Similar to such findings, supplemental exploratory analyses in the cross-sectional dataset revealed that women reported greater sexual satisfaction than did men for people who were one standard deviation older than the mean (i.e., those who were approximately 45 years old or older), but not among those who were one standard deviation younger than the mean. However, inconsistent with this idea, age did not moderate the gender difference in the daily-experience dataset. Thus, future research should further explore how

gender differences in sexual satisfaction may shift throughout the lifespan.

Second, further research could more directly assess the generalizability of the observed effects by examining combinations of gender identities and sexual orientations of both couple members. Importantly, many of the explanations for the current results that we have offered reflect experiences that may be more applicable to man–woman couples, raising questions about whether gender differences in sexual satisfaction extend to couples with diverse gender and sexual orientation configurations. For example, the idea that sex is less satisfying for women because they experience greater pain and costlier outcomes (e.g., unwanted pregnancy; Conley & Klein, 2022) would likely not reflect experiences among women partnered with women. Similarly, the perspective that sex is more satisfying for men because they are less concerned about safety (Walsh et al., 2019) may not apply to experiences among gay men who may be more concerned about their safety than heterosexual men. If the obtained gender differences in sexual satisfaction are the result of factors that are unique to man–woman couples, then these gender differences would likely be moderated by participants' sexual orientation. Nevertheless, sexual orientation did not moderate the results of either IDA, which may help rule out these explanations for the obtained results. Although the current study included a total of over 2,000 sexually diverse participants, and sexual orientation did not moderate the results of either IDA, additional research would benefit from addressing to what extent gender differences in sexual satisfaction extend to couples of other gender and sexual configurations.

Finally, future research may benefit from considering the extent to which the current results generalize after accounting for other relevant factors. For example, although we tested for generalizability across several demographic variables, our samples were from Western cultures. Likewise, we did not assess other factors that could affect the pattern of results, such as disability status, social class, or education levels. Similarly, although the current research addressed gender differences among people in established relationships and offered explanations for why sexual satisfaction might operate uniquely in this context, future research may benefit from assessing both partnered and single individuals to compare the strength and direction of the gender difference between partnered and singles' sexual satisfaction. Lastly, the current sample may disproportionately reflect people who are highly satisfied in their relationship or comfortable with discussing sensitive topics such as sexual experiences. Indeed, people are less likely to participate in research that makes them feel uncomfortable (Dawson et al., 2019).

Conclusion

The current research joins a growing body of literature suggesting that prevalent perceptions regarding gender differences in sexual experiences are often incomplete (see Colson et al., 2006). Specifically, despite the prevailing view that women are likely less sexually satisfied than men (e.g., Conley & Klein, 2022), the current research suggests that women report slightly greater sexual satisfaction than men in the context of romantic relationships. Although the observed gender differences were not especially large, they were still surprising given that past research suggests women face more obstacles to satisfying sex than men (Conley & Klein, 2022; Herbenick et al., 2015). This is not to say that partnered women do not face obstacles to sexual enjoyment; however, the current results suggest that women report being slightly subjectively happier with their sex lives than do men despite these obstacles.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-025-03317-w.

Author Contributions Sara B. Algoe, Carolyn Birnie-Porter, Marlee Brownstein, Kathleen L. Carswell, Emily J. Cross, Anik Debrot, Eli J. Finkel, Cheryl Harasymchuk, Emily A. Impett, James J. Kim, Chelom E. Leavitt, Geoff MacDonald, Michael R. Maniaci, Kristen P. Mark, James K. McNulty, Andrea L. Meltzer, Amy Muise, Nickola C. Overall, Yoobin Park, Harry T. Reis, and Francesca Righetti contributed equally to this work. AB, LRB, and JAM contributed to conceptualization. AB, LRB, and JAM contributed to methodology. AB and LRB performed dataset collection and analysis. LRB, JAM, SBA, CB-P, MB, KLC, EJC, AD, EJF, CH, EAI, JJK, CEL, GM, MRM, KPM, JKM, ALM, AM, NCO, YP, HTR, and FR were involved in data contribution. AB, LRB, and JAM performed writing—original draft preparation. AB, LRB, JAM, SBA, CB-P, MB, KLC, EJC, AD, EJF, CH, EAI, JJK, CEL, GM, MRM, KPM, JKM, ALM, AM, NCO, YP, HTR, and FR performed writing—review and editing.

Funding This work was supported by the following: The Love Consortium and The John Templeton Foundation grant 61280; Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada Joseph-Armand Bombardier Graduate Scholarship; Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada Insight Grant; Patty Brisben Foundation for Women's Sexual Health; American Institute of Bisexuality; National Science Foundation grant BCS-1251520; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development grant 1 R03 HD058314; The Fetzer Institute; Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research No. 451-12-024; Swiss National Science Foundation grant P2FRP1-161722; National Science Foundation grant BCS-719780; Expanding the Science and Practice of Gratitude Project run by UC Berkeley's Greater Good; Science Center in partnership with UC Davis with funding from the John Templeton Foundation; and National Institute of Mental Health R01 MH59615.

Availability of Data, Materials, and Code The data and code are not publicly available due to restrictions of the individual datasets that were made available for the purpose of this project through private access. Requests for data, materials, and code can be directed to the corresponding author.

Declarations

Competing interests The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Human and Animal Rights This work included human subjects. All studies followed proper ethical guidelines set forth by the corresponding institutions' Institutional Review Board, including obtaining informed consent.

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Online Supplemental Materials for:

Women are slightly more sexually satisfied in their romantic relationships than men

This PDF file includes:

Supporting text

OSM References

Method

Measures

Global Sexual Satisfaction

Five measures were used to assess sexual satisfaction in the cross-sectional studies. For all measures, responses were recoded such that higher scores denote greater sexual satisfaction. First, fourteen studies used the Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992), which asks participants to describe their sexual relationship using five seven-point semantic differentials: Good-Bad, Pleasant-Unpleasant, Positive-Negative, Satisfying-Unsatisfying, and Valuable-Worthless. Second, seven studies used the Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981), which consists of 25 items (e.g., "I think that our sex is wonderful") that participants respond to on a 7-point Likert response scale (1 = *none of the time*, 7 = *all of the time*). Third, two studies used the Pinney Sexual Satisfaction Inventory (Pinney et al., 1987), which consists of 24 items (e.g., "generally, I am satisfied with my sex life") that participants respond to on a 7-point Likert response scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*). Fourth, one study used the sexual dissatisfaction subscale of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (Snyder et al., 1981), which consists of 24 items (e.g., "I enjoy sexual contact with my partner") that participants respond to on a 5-point Likert response scale (1 = *does not apply at all*, 5 = *applies exactly*). Fifth, one study used the New Scale of Sexual Satisfaction (Štulhofer et al., 2010), which consists of 20 items (e.g., "my mood after sexual activity") that participants rate their satisfaction with on a 5-point Likert response scale (1 = *not at all satisfied*, 5 = *extremely satisfied*). Additionally, four studies used face-valid items to assess sexual satisfaction (i.e., "When my partner and I have sexual contact, I enjoy it a great deal", "Over the past 4 weeks, how satisfied have you been with the amount of emotional closeness during sexual

activity between you and your partner?", "Over the past 4 weeks, how satisfied have you been with your sexual relationship with your partner?", "How satisfied are you with the quality of the sex you have had with your partner over the past three months?", "How satisfied are you with the frequency with which you have had sex with your partner over the past three months?").

Global Relationship Satisfaction

Nine measures were used to assess relationship satisfaction in the cross-sectional studies. For all measures, responses were recoded such that higher scores denote greater relationship satisfaction. First, eight studies used the relationship satisfaction subscale of the Investment Model Scale (Rusbult et al., 1998), which consists of five items (e.g., "I feel satisfied with our relationship") that participants respond to on a 9-point Likert response scale (0 = *do not agree at all*, 8 = *agree completely*). Second, seven studies used the Quality Marriage Index (Norton, 1983), which consists of five items (e.g., "My relationship with my partner makes me happy") that participants respond to on a 7-point Likert response scale (1 = *very strong disagreement*, 7 = *very strong agreement*) and one item ("All things considered, how happy are you in your marriage/relationship?") that participants respond to on a 10-point Likert response scale (1 = *very unhappy*, 10 = *perfectly happy*). Third, six studies used the satisfaction subscale of the Perceived Relationship Quality Components Inventory (Fletcher et al., 2000), which consists of three items (e.g., "How satisfied are you with your relationship?") that participants respond to on a 7-point Likert response scale (1 = *none at all*, 7 = *extremely*). Fourth, five studies used the Global Measure of Relationship Satisfaction (Byers et al., 1998) that asks participants to describe their relationship using five seven-point semantic differentials (i.e., "Good-Bad", "Pleasant-Unpleasant", "Positive-Negative", "Satisfying-Unsatisfying", "Valuable-Worthless"). Fifth, four studies used the Couples Satisfaction Index (Funk & Rogge, 2007), which consists of sixteen

items (e.g., “My relationship with my partner makes me happy”) that participants respond to on a 6-point Likert response scale (1 = *not at all true*, 6 = *completely true*). Sixth, four studies used the Semantic Marital Differential scale (Mattson et al., 2013), which asks participants to describe their relationship using fifteen seven-point semantic differentials (e.g., “Bad-Good”, “Satisfied-Dissatisfied”). Seventh, three studies used the Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick et al., 1998), which consists of seven items (e.g., “In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?”) that participants respond to on a 5-point Likert response scale (1 = *very unsatisfied*, 5 = *very satisfied*). Eighth, three studies used the Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale (Schumm et al., 1986), which consists of three items (e.g., “How satisfied are you with your relationship with your partner?”) that participants respond to on a 7-point Likert response scale (1 = *not at all satisfied*, 7 = *extremely satisfied*). Ninth, one study used the Positive/Negative Qualities in Marriage scale (Rogge et al., 2017), which asks participants to describe their relationship using sixteen items (e.g., “Enjoyable”, “Pleasant”) on a 6-point Likert response scale (1 = *not at all*, 6 = *extremely*). Additionally, one study used a face-valid item to assess relationship satisfaction (i.e., “I am satisfied with my relationship”).

Global Sexual Frequency

All cross-sectional studies used face-valid items to assess sexual frequency. These items varied in two ways. First, the length of time assessed often varied across studies (e.g., one study asked participants to report sexual frequency over the past 30 days, while another asked about the past 6 months). Second, some studies allowed participants to provide the exact number of sexual encounters that occurred, whereas others allowed participants to choose from limited options (e.g., “once per day”, “two to three times per week”, “once per week”). All items were coded to reflect the average frequency of sexual behavior per day. Specifically, for items that had

continuous response options, we divided the total number of reported sexual encounters by the length of time that was assessed (e.g., five sexual encounters over one month was calculated as 5/31 or 0.16). For items that had categorical response options, the response was recoded to reflect the reported number of times the participants reported engaging in sexual behavior divided by the number of days the participant is reporting on (e.g., a categorical response option of "once a week" was coded as 1/7 or 0.14). Following our preregistration plan, extreme values reported for sexual frequency were truncated to the 95th percentile of the combined datasets.

Daily Sexual Satisfaction

Three daily-experience studies had participants complete the previously described Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction each day. The remaining five studies asked participants to respond to face-valid items (i.e., "How satisfied were you with your sex life today?", "Today I am satisfied with our sexual activities", "I was satisfied with my capacity for enjoying sex today", "Overall, I had great fun during sex", "I enjoyed the sexual experience", "Please rate your overall satisfaction with the sexual contact").

Daily Relationship Satisfaction

Two daily-experience studies had participants complete two items from the previously described Investment Model Scale each day (i.e., "I feel satisfied with my relationship with my partner today", "Our relationship made me very happy today"). Similarly, two daily-experience studies had participants complete one item from the previously described Perceived Relationship Quality Components Inventory each day (i.e., "How satisfied were you with your relationship?"). Four daily-experience studies had participants complete face-valid items (i.e., "Right now, I feel satisfied with my relationship with my partner", "How satisfied were you with your partner

today?", "How satisfied were you with your relationship your partner today?", "How satisfied were you with your marriage today?").

Daily sexual engagement

All daily-experience studies used face-valid items to assess daily engagement in sexual behavior (e.g., "Did you have sex with your partner today?"). To this end, this variable represents whether or not participants engaged in sexual behavior on a given day.

Results

Supplemental Analyses

To better understand whether certain aspects of the construct of sexual satisfaction were responsible for the current results, we conducted supplemental analyses that examined whether men and women differed on each individual item of the harmonized sexual satisfaction scales. Analyses followed the same approach as what was reported in the primary manuscript except that each individual item, rather than the combined scale, was specified as the dependent variable in each analysis. Results are presented in Tables 3-OSM and 4-OSM. As can be seen there, in the cross-sectional dataset, women reported greater values than men in response to 12 of the 19 items (9 of the 12 were statistically significant differences) and men reported greater values than women on the remaining 7 items (3 were statistically significant differences). Importantly, compared to men, women reported statistically greater values when responding to items that tended to be more central to the construct of sexual satisfaction (e.g., satisfaction with sex life, enjoyment of sex, belief that sex is valuable, belief that sex is good). In contrast, compared to women, men reported statistically greater values when responding to items that tended to be more tangential to the construct of sexual satisfaction (i.e., feeling sexually inhibited, sexual arousal, belief that sex is exciting). In the daily-experience datasets, women reported greater

values than men in response to four of the six items and men reported greater values than women on the remaining two items, although statistically significant differences were not obtained for any of the six items. Taken together, these results suggest that women's greater sexual satisfaction was not driven by specific individual items.

Similarly, to examine whether results varied depending on the measure that was originally used in each study, we conducted supplemental analyses that examined whether the measure used in each study moderated the gender difference in sexual satisfaction. In each of these analyses, we followed the same approach as what was reported in the primary manuscript except that we also included a dummy-code that indicated whether that study used a specific measure (e.g., 0 = *used the PSSI*; 1 = *did not use the PSSI*), and the Gender X Measure interaction. Results indicated that the effect of gender was not moderated by whether or not participants were from studies that used the PSSI, b = -0.05, SE = 0.05, t(2,743) = -1.24, p = .214, r = -.02, the ISS, b = 0.04, SE = 0.03, t(2,743) = 1.54, p = .124, r = .03, or the GMSEX, b = -0.04, SE= 0.02, t(2,743) = -1.75, p = .080, r = .03. The effect of gender was moderated by whether or not participants were from studies that used the MSI, b = -0.17, SE = 0.07, t(2,743) = -2.35, p = .019, r = -.05; however, simple effects tests revealed that women from both the studies that did, b = 0.21, SE = 0.07, t(2,743) = 3.03, p = .002, r = .06, and did not, b = 0.05, SE= 0.01, t(2,743) = 4.01, p < .001, r = .08, use the MSI reported greater sexual satisfaction than men, although the difference was greater in the studies that did not use the MSI. Finally, the effect of gender was also moderated by whether participants were from the only study that used the NSSS, b = 0.09, SE = 0.03, t(2,743) = 2.77, p = .006, r = .05; specifically, among the only study that used the NSSS, women and men did not differ in their reported sexual satisfaction, b = -0.03, SE = 0.03, t(2,743) = -1.00, p = .318, r = -.02.

Deviations from Preregistration

This project was part of a broader preregistered project intended to address three inconsistencies in the literature about the implications of sexual experiences for individual and relational well-being. Given the diversity of research questions included in the preregistration, we realized that disparate research questions would be best addressed in separate manuscripts. The preregistered hypotheses that are not tested in the current manuscript have not yet been reported in other publications.

Further, as we cleaned and analyzed the data for the current research question, we realized that we would need to make several changes to our preregistered plan. These changes are outlined in this document. Importantly, unless otherwise noted, all of these changes were made prior to examining the results from analyses.

1. For the daily diary analyses, we decided to test an additional moderator: whether or not participants reported engaging in sexual behavior on a given day. We decided to add these analyses after discovering that roughly half of the datasets assessed sexual satisfaction only on days in which participants reported engaging in sexual activity. Thus, we tested whether engaging in sex moderated the reported effects to ensure that results were not exclusive to days when participants either did or did not engage in sex.
2. Although we noted that we would conduct confirmatory factor analyses after harmonizing the items for several of the scales, we failed to note that we would follow this same approach when creating the scales for sexual satisfaction. To this end, we followed the same steps outlined for the other constructs when conducting the CFA for sexual satisfaction.

3. Although we noted that we would exclude items that loaded poorly on the predicted underlying construct, we also excluded items for two other reasons. First, we excluded items with high missingness when those items prevented the confirmatory measurement models from converging. Second, when the fit of our measurement models did not meet our preregistered standards, we excluded items until fit became acceptable.
4. For the diary analyses, our preregistered plan was to predict changes in next-day outcomes from previous day predictors, controlling for previous day outcomes. This approach is appropriate for predictions for separate manuscripts involving independent variables that were assessed daily (i.e., does daily sexual satisfaction predict changes in relationship satisfaction from the current day to the next day?). However, the current predictions involve an independent variable that does not fluctuate daily and thus was only assessed once (i.e., the gender of the participant). Thus, we instead conducted analyses that examined whether this independent variable (i.e., gender) predicts the dependent variable (i.e., sexual satisfaction) over the course of the study.
5. After discovering that women were more sexually satisfied than men, we decided to conduct supplemental exploratory analyses because we anticipated that readers would want to know why this effect emerged, given that it was in the opposite direction of what some theory would suggest. Specifically, we examined whether women were more sexually satisfied than men because (a) of the relational benefits of sex (i.e., relationship satisfaction), (b) they are more likely to consider their partner's sexual satisfaction, and (c) because of having less frequent sex. The decision to conduct specific supplemental analyses was driven by theory, as well as the availability of variables in the dataset.

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Table 1-OSM. Methodological information about each cross-sectional dataset.

Contributors	Goal of Study	Sample Description	Dyadic? (Yes/No)	Country (Language)	Eligibility Criteria	Recruitment Method	Collection Method (in-person/online)	Sexual Satisfaction Assessment
Eli Finkel (Study 1)	To track romantic relationships across the first year of college, and especially to study breakup dynamics prospectively.	N = 69 (individuals in relationships)	No	USA (English)	Northwestern first-year undergraduates in a relationship for at least 2 months (18 or 19 years old).	Participants were recruited through flyers posted around campus of Northwestern University.	In-person	"When my partner and I have sexual contact, I enjoy it a great deal"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.38, *SD* = 1.29
Harry Reis & Michael Maniaci (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	To examine the role of compassionate love in newlywed relationships.	N = 350 (175 couples)	Yes	USA & Canada (English)	Over the age of 18; first marriage for both partners; fluent in English; access to a computer.	Postcards sent to bridal registry participants around the country.	Online	"Over the past 4 weeks, how satisfied have you been with the amount of emotional closeness during sexual activity between you and your partner"; Range = 1 – 6, *M* = 4.88,

								SD = 1.22 "Over the past 4 weeks, how satisfied have you been with your sexual relationship with your partner?"; Range = 1- 5, *M* = 3.72, *SD* = 1.14
Nickola Overall & Emily Cross (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	Examine emotion regulation and support processes when facing significant stressful challenges within romantic relationship.	N = 170 (85 couples)	Yes	New Zealand (English)	Heterosexual couples who have been together for at least one year.	Participants primarily recruited from the community surrounding Auckland, NZ via newspaper and Facebook advertisements.	In-person	"How satisfied are you with the quality of the sex you have had with your partner over the past three months?"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.23, *SD* = 1.73 "How satisfied are you with the frequency with which you have had sex with your partner over the past three

								months?"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 4.27, *SD* = 1.91
Chelom Leavitt (Study 1)	Examine individuals' sexual response cycle.	N = 1,703 (individuals in relationships)	No	USA (English)	Participants were recruited to be in a romantic relationship for at least two years and live in the U.S.	Participants were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk.	Online	New Scale of Sexual Satisfaction (Stulhofer et al., 2010); Range = 1 – 5, *M* = 3.65, *SD* = 0.91
Chelom Leavitt (Study 2)	Examine individuals' and couples' sexual response cycles.	N = 1,030 (515 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	Participants were recruited to be in a romantic relationship for at least two years.	Participants were recruited with Bovitz Inc.	Online	Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.92, *SD* = 1.29
Francesca Righetti (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	General couple study but also very focused on implicit partner evaluations.	N = 348 (174 couples)	Yes	Netherlands (Dutch; translated and cross-checked by research assistants)	Participants were required to be exclusively committed to their partner for 4 months or more, be 18 years of age or older, see each other on a daily basis, and be fluent	Flyers, recruiting agencies, personal approach.		"How satisfied are you with your sexual relationship (so that your sexual needs and expectations are met)?"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.61,

					in Dutch.			*SD* = 1.15
Carolyn Birnie & Marlee Brownstein (Study 1)	(1) To replicate previous cross-sectional findings on intimacy and subjective well-being, and (2) to examine intimacy as a predictor of subjective well-being using a longitudinal approach.	N = 308 (individuals in relationships)	No	Canada (English)	Participants were eligible if they were at least 18 years old and in a "married or dating relationship".	Word of mouth, online posts to websites, posts on classified ad pages (e.g., Kijiji), psychology related listservs, posters in public locations in a major Canadian city.		Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.10, *SD* = 1.19
Andrea Meltzer (Study 1)	To examine a wide range of long-term relationship processes.	N = 226 (113 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	All participants were required to be married for fewer than 4 months, were at least 18 years of age, were in their first marriage, and spoke English (to ensure comprehension of questionnaires	Participants were recruited by sending invitations to couples in the area who had recently applied for marriage licenses in the county of the study location (Dallas County, TX,		Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.92, *SD* = 0.83

					).	USA)		
Cheryl Harasymchuk, Amy Muise, & Emily Impett (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	The purpose of this study is to understand couples' everyday relationship experiences such as relationship quality, sexual experiences, conflict, shared leisure, as well as individual differences such as personality, self-esteem, and goals.	N = 244 (122 couples)	Yes	Canada (English)	Couples were eligible to participate if they were in an exclusive, monogamous relationship for at least two years and were living together.	Online ads posted in five major Canadian cities (Reddit, Kijiji) and through advertisements posted in public locations in a major Canadian city.		Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.61, *SD* = 1.30
Amy Muise (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	The primary goal of the study was to understand couples daily experiences of self-expansion in relationships and associations with sexual desire.	N = 236 (118 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	Participants were eligible if they were in a relationship, living together, both partners were interested in participating, and both partners were aged 18 or older.	Online advertisements posted on Craigslist in 12 major U.S. cities.		Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.52, *SD* = 1.02

Amy Muise (Study 2; TLC Dataverse)	The primary goal of the study was to understand how couples make sexual decisions in relationships.	N = 202 (101 couples)	Yes	Canada (English)	To be eligible to participate, both members of the couple had to agree to take part in the study and be over the age of 18. Eligible couples also had to see their partner several times a week and be sexually active.	Participants were recruited through online postings and classroom visits at a small Canadian university and through online postings on the websites Kijiji and Craigslist in the greater Toronto area.		Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.97, *SD* = 1.06
Amy Muise (Study 3; TLC Dataverse)	The primary goal of the study was to understand couples daily experiences in their relationships.	N = 242 (121 couples)	Yes	USA & Canada (English)	Eligible couples were currently living together or seeing each other at least five out of seven days, sexually active, 18 years of age or older, residing in Canada or the United States, able to read and understand	Couples were recruited through online (e.g., Reddit, Kijiji, Facebook, Craigslist) and physical (e.g., university campuses, public transportatio n centers) advertisemen ts in Canada and the		Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.01, *SD* = 1.40

					English, and had daily access to a computer with internet. Both partners had to agree to participate.	United States.		
Jessica Maxwell (Study 1; TLC Dataverse; OSF)	The goal of the study was to examine how attachment orientation affects individuals' empathic accuracy in inferring their partner's positive emotions during a video-taped conversation about love. A secondary goal was to examine couples members' levels of sexual destiny and sexual growth	N = 248 (124 couples)	Yes	Canada (English)	Romantic couples were eligible to participate if they were dating at least 6 months.	Couples were undergraduates at the University of Toronto and community members from the Greater Toronto, Canada.	In-person	Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.26, *SD* = 0.90

	beliefs.							
Anik Debrot (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	To test the stress buffering effect of partner and stranger touch after experimentally inducing stress and to explore different moderators of this buffering effect.	N = 140 (70 couples)	Yes	Switzerland (German; translated by the PI)	To participate: a) the participants had to be in romantic heterosexual relationship for at least three months, b) both partners had to participate, c) they needed to be between 18 and 40 years old, d) they had to have a high school degree. We excluded from participation people who had a seriously impairing illness, had a diagnosed psychological disorder or taking psychoactive drugs, or were parents.	Participants were recruited by giving a short presentation in several well-attended University classes, by posting ads and posters, and by sending emails to several colleges.	Online	Sexual dissatisfaction subscale of the Marital Satisfaction Inventory (Snyder et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 5, *M* = 4.25, *SD* = 0.54

Anik Debrot & James Kim (Study 2; TLC Dataverse)	Goal 1: to implement the Sexual Rejection Scale in a daily experience (daily "diary") study of romantic dyads to address the question of whether there are certain ways of rejecting a partner for sex that may lead to better relationship and sexual outcomes. Goal 2: to test whether touch shows a weaker association with psychological well-being as a function of higher attachment avoidance.	N = 196 (98 couples)	Yes	Canada (English)	Couples were eligible to participate if they were together in a relationship for at least 2 years, were living together, and each partner was at least 18 years old.	Participants recruited via online ads (posted on Kijiji).		Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.51, *SD* = 1.23
Anik Debrot	The aim was	N = 1,604	No	USA	Participants	Participants	Online	Global

(Study 3; TLC Dataverse)	to get a more nuanced picture of the experience of the romantic partner's touch as a function of the attachment style.	(individuals in relationships)		(English)	had to be at least 21 years old and currently in a romantic relationship for at least six months.	were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk.		Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.68, *SD* = 1.40
Kristen Mark (Study 1)		N = 573 (individuals in relationships and couples)	Yes (but not entire dataset)					Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 9, *M* = 7.34, *SD* = 1.70
Kristen Mark (Study 2)		N = 408 (204 couples)	Yes					Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 9, *M* = 7.23, *SD* = 1.64
Kristen Mark (Study 3)		N = 1,032	No					Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992);

								Range = 1 – 9, *M* = 7.20, *SD* = 1.82
Kristen Mark (Study 4)		N = 1,421	No					Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 4.38, *SD* = 1.94
Kristen Mark (Study 5)		N = 195	No					Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.14, *SD* = 1.44
Jim McNulty (Study 1)	Identify predictors of changes in marital satisfaction.	N = 268 (134 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	(a) they were married and cohabiting, (b) they were at least 18 years of age, and (c) they spoke English and had completed at least 10 years of education (to ensure	Participants were recruited online through flyers, craigslist.com, and facebook.com		Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.43, *SD* = 0.95

					comprehension of the questionnaires)			
Jim McNulty (Study 2)	Identify predictors of changes in marital satisfaction.	N = 240 (120 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	(a) had been married for fewer than three months, (b) were at least 18 years of age, and (c) spoke English (to ensure comprehension of questionnaires)	Participants were recruited from northern Florida via letters sent to couples who had recently applied for marriage licenses, fliers, and Facebook advertising.		Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.89, *SD* = 0.79
Jim McNulty (Study 3)	Identify predictors of changes in marital satisfaction.	N = 144 (72 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	(a) they had been married for less than 6 months, (b) neither partner had been previously married, (c) they were at least 18 years of age, and (d) they spoke English and had completed at least 10 years of	Participants were recruited from north-central Ohio.		Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.71, *SD* = 0.85

					education (to ensure comprehension of the questionnaires)			
Jim McNulty (Study 4)	Identify predictors of changes in marital satisfaction.	N = 270 (135 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	(a) they had been married for less than 6 months, (b) neither partner had been previously married, (c) they were at least 18 years of age, (d) they spoke English and had completed at least 10 years of education (to ensure comprehension of the questionnaires), and (e) did not yet have children (because a larger aim of the study was to examine the transition to	Participants were recruited from eastern Tennessee through advertisements placed in community newspapers and bridal shops and through invitations sent to eligible couples who had applied for marriage licenses in counties near the study location.		Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.98, *SD* = 0.89

					parenthood).			
Levi Baker (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	Identify predictors of changes in marital satisfaction.	N = 202 (101 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	(a) they had been married for less than 3 months, (b) they were at least 18 years of age, and (c) they spoke English and had completed at least 10 years of education (to ensure comprehension of the questionnaires)	Participants were recruited from North Carolina through invitations sent to eligible couples who had applied for marriage licenses in the county where the study took place.		Index of Sexual Satisfaction (Hudson et al., 1981); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.74, *SD* = 0.96
Katie Carswell (Study 1)	The main goal of the study was an examination of romantic passion and passion beliefs.	N = 120 (individuals in relationships)	No	USA (English)	Participants were required to be in a relationship for at least one year at the beginning of the study.	Participants were recruited from Northwestern University campus.		Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.63, *SD* = 1.24
Sara Algoe (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)		N = 106 (53 couples)	Yes	USA (English)	Participants were eligible if they were at least 24 years old, cohabiting	Participants were recruited from Chapel Hill, NC and the		Pinney Sexual Satisfaction Inventory (Pinney et al., 1987); Range

					with the romantic partner, not taking antidepressants or been recently diagnosed with depression or an anxiety disorder; women were ineligible if they were over 40, postmenopausal, pregnant (or planning to become pregnant during the study), within 6 months postpartum (lactating), or have had an oophorectomy; men were ineligible if they were taking steroid medication.	surrounding region (e.g., Durham, NC)		= 1 – 7, *M* = 5.11, *SD* = 0.94
Sara Algoe (Study 2; TLC		N = 258 (129 romantic	Yes	USA (English)	To be eligible, they must have been at	Participants were recruited		Pinney Sexual Satisfaction

Dataverse)		couples			least 18 years old and in a romantic relationship for a minimum of one year. Additionally, participants must not have been recently diagnosed with anxiety or depression, nor could they be taking steroid medication; women were pre-menopausal, not currently pregnant or nursing, not pregnant in the prior six months, and had not had an oophorectomy .	from Chapel Hill, NC and the surrounding region (e.g., Durham, NC)		Inventory (Pinney et al., 1987); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.45, *SD* = 1.23

Table 2-OSM. Methodological information about each daily-experience dataset.

Contributors	Goal of Study	Sample Description	Days of Assessment	Sexual Satisfaction Assessment
Francesca Righetti (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	General couple study but also very focused on implicit partner evaluations.	N = 348 (174 couples)	14	"Today I am satisfied with our sexual activities"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.37, *SD* = 1.45
Cheryl Harasymchuk, Amy Muise, & Emily Impett (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	The purpose of this study is to understand couples' everyday relationship experiences such as relationship quality, sexual experiences, conflict, shared leisure, as well as individual differences such as personality, self-esteem, and goals.	N = 244 (122 couples)	21	Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.43, *SD* = 0.90
Amy Muise (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)	The primary goal of the study was to understand couples daily experiences of self-expansion in relationships and associations with sexual desire.	N = 236 (118 couples)	21	"Overall, I had great fun during sex"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.44, *SD* = 1.07 "I enjoyed the sexual experience"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.51, *SD* = 0.97
Amy Muise (Study 2; TLC Dataverse)	The primary goal of the study was to understand how couples make sexual decisions in relationships.	N = 202 (101 couples)	21	Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 6.37, *SD* = 0.89
Amy Muise (Study 3; TLC Dataverse)	The primary goal of the study was to understand couples daily experiences in their relationships.	N = 242 (121 couples)	21	Global Measure of Sexual Satisfaction (Lawrance & Byers, 1992); Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.55, *SD* = 1.68
Jim McNulty (Study 1)	Identify predictors of changes in marital satisfaction.	N = 268 (134 couples)	14	"In reflecting upon your day as a whole, please answer the following

				question – How satisfied were you with your sex life today?"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 4.42, *SD* = 1.98
Jim McNulty (Study 2)	Identify predictors of changes in marital satisfaction.	N = 240 (120 couples)	14	"In reflecting upon your day as a whole, please answer the following question – How satisfied were you with your sex life today?"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 4.82, *SD* = 1.98 "Please rate your overall satisfaction with the sexual contact"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.81, *SD* = 1.32
Sara Algoe (Study 1; TLC Dataverse)		N = 106 (53 couples)	28	"I was satisfied with my capacity for enjoying sex today"; Range = 1 – 7, *M* = 5.36, *SD* = 1.33

Table 3-OSM. Gender differences of each harmonized sexual satisfaction item in the combined cross-sectional dataset.

Item	*t*	*df*	*p*	*r*
Satisfaction with frequency of sex	1.40	262	.164	.09
Satisfaction with sex life	8.20	1,493	< .001	.21
Satisfaction with closeness during sex	-1.10	358	.273	-.06
Enjoyment of sex	3.04	739	.002	.11
Satisfaction with sexual variety	2.16	739	.031	.08
Satisfaction with quality of sex	1.07	744	.286	.04
Dyadic enjoyment of sex	7.28	739	< .001	.26
Belief that sex is valuable	7.82	1,556	< .001	.19
Sexual inhibition	-2.59	184	.010	-.19
Belief that sex life is good	2.96	2,045	.003	.07
Partner responsiveness during sex	6.16	848	< .001	.21
Partner is sexually satisfying	-0.87	856	.383	-.03
Partner is enthusiastic during sex	2.17	738	.030	.08
Provides enjoyment to partner	1.46	666	.144	.06
Sexual arousal	-8.25	668	< .001	-.30
Sex life is exciting	-4.40	668	< .001	-.17
Sex is fun	-0.32	663	.752	-.01

Partner is a good sexual mate	2.87	669	.004	.11
Sex is an important part of the relationship	-0.61	667	.543	.02

Note. Positive effects indicate that women reported greater values than men, negative effects indicate that men reported greater values than women. Highlighted columns signify statistically significant effects.

Table 4-OSM. Gender differences of each harmonized sexual satisfaction item in the combined daily-experience dataset.

Item	*t*	*df*	*p*	*r*
Satisfaction with sex	1.54	736	.124	.06
Enjoyment of sex	1.71	454	.089	.08
Sex is fun	1.01	731	.314	.04
Sex is positive	-0.35	308	.724	-.02
Sex is valuable	-0.03	308	.980	< .01
Sex is good	0.68	307	.495	.04

Note. Positive effects indicate that women reported greater values than men, negative effects indicate that men reported greater values than women.