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The Perceived Consequences of Sexual Compliance: The Role of Sexual Pressure From the Partner and Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences

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Sexual compliance means engaging in consensual sexual activity despite a lack of sexual desire and in the absence of explicit outside pressure. Sexual compliance is common in intimate relationships and can have both positive and negative consequences on well-being. However, research is limited on what may contribute to these varying consequences. The purpose of this study was to examine whether sexual pressure from a current partner outside of compliant situations or previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are associated with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance. Interactions between the main variables, gender, and relationship type were also examined.

This study utilized a Finnish population-based sample of 885 participants aged 18–50 in committed or casual relationships. Two multiple hierarchical linear regression models were used to analyze the data, one for the perceived negative and one for the perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance. The study variables amounted to a moderate to large portion (23%) of the variance in the perceived negative consequences and a small portion (2%) of the variance in the perceived positive consequences. Sexual pressure from the partner was the strongest predictor in both models. More sexual pressure from the partner was associated with more perceived negative and less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance. More and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences were only associated with more perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance. There were no significant interactions.

My findings suggest that particularly sexual pressure from the partner outside of compliant events should be a central focus when exploring sexual compliance in a clinical context, as it may expose individuals to more negative consequences of sexual compliance. Clinicians should work on identifying experiences of sexual pressure and navigate discussions of sexual discrepancies or compliance accordingly. Additionally, future studies could gain deeper insight into these associations by utilizing longitudinal diary-based approaches or examining potential moderating factors, such as avoidance motives or impaired sexual decision-making.

Key words: sexual compliance, sexual pressure, sexual consent, sexual victimization, intimate relationships, consequences of sexual compliance, sexual partners, population-based sample

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Introduction

Sexuality is an essential part of human life. One aspect of it, sexual desire, can be defined as a feeling of want or motivation to participate in sexual activity (Fahs et al., 2020; Vowels & Mark, 2020). Sexual desire can be highly variable across time and different contexts (Mark & Lasslo, 2018), and there are bound to be situations when partners' desires mismatch. Sexual desire discrepancies, meaning instances when levels of sexual desire differ between partners, are common in intimate relationships (Herbenick et al., 2014), and have been associated with decreased relationship and sexual satisfaction (see e.g., Mark, 2012; Velten & Margraf, 2017). One way to address these discrepancies is sexual compliance, commonly defined as willingly consenting to engage in sexual activity without the desire to do so (O'Sullivan & Allgeier, 1998).

Definitions and views of sexual compliance have varied in the literature. Sexual compliance has commonly been considered a relatively neutral or positive aspect of relationships, an appropriate relationship maintenance strategy, which occurs consensually and without any explicit outside pressure (see e.g., Impett & Peplau, 2003; Vannier & O'Sullivan, 2010). On the other hand, some have argued this is not the case. Some authors have viewed compliance as a form of coercion or have not separated coercion from compliance (see e.g., Basile, 1999; French & Neville, 2017; Willis & Nelson-Gray, 2022). Conroy et al. (2015) problematized the definition of compliance, arguing that gendered expectations and social coercion exert pressure, especially on women, to comply with sexual activities even without explicit coercion from a partner. Additionally, Fahs et al. (2020) have questioned if unwanted sex can be truly consensual for women, as they may, for example, feel a lack of entitlement to decline sex due to gender norms.

Studies are emerging on how people perceive the consequences of sexual compliance on well-being and how these consequences may vary between individuals, but research is still limited. This study aimed to address the research gap by examining whether sexual pressure from the partner (i.e., verbal coercion), which occurs outside of sexually compliant situations, and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are associated with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance.

Sexual Compliance in Relationships

Sexual compliance is common in intimate relationships. One study found that 25% of women and 21% of men had complied at least once in a committed relationship (Katz & Schneider, 2015). Moreover, in Vannier and O'Sullivan's (2010) study of committed relationships, 46% of all participants reported sexual compliance in a three-week period with

no significant gender differences, with compliance occurring 17.2% of the time when considering all partnered sexual activity. These studies, like most research on the topic, utilized convenience samples comprised primarily of students from the U.S. mainland. Himanen and Gunst (2023) studied compliance using a large Finnish convenience sample. They found that even up to 94% of female and 61% of male participants had complied at least once in their life and that participants complied, on average, approximately 25% of the time when considering all partnered sexual activity.

The perceived consequences of sexual compliance are varied. Compliance has been positively associated with increased relationship intimacy and partner satisfaction (Himanen & Gunst, 2023; O'Sullivan & Allgeier, 1998), as well as feelings of love (Himanen & Gunst, 2023). In contrast, compliance has also been linked with decreased mental health (Rubinsky, 2020), higher cortisol levels as one measure of physiological stress (Hartmann & Crockett, 2016), negative emotions, discomfort, disappointment in oneself (O'Sullivan & Allgeier, 1998), less relationship satisfaction reported by the compliant partner (Katz & Tirone, 2009; Kennett et al., 2013), and less enjoyable sex compared to instances where the sexual activity was desired (Vannier & O'Sullivan, 2010).

As with the consequences, there are also varying motives for complying with sex. Sexual motives have traditionally been categorized as approach motives (i.e., achieving positive outcomes, such as increased intimacy or happiness) or avoidance motives (i.e., avoiding negative outcomes, such as conflict or disappointing one's partner; Impett et al., 2005). Avoidance motives have been associated with more negative consequences of compliance than approach motives (Himanen & Gunst, 2023). Further, Katz and Tirone (2009) found that an association between more frequent compliance and less relationship satisfaction was strongest for women who reported greater avoidance motives for complying. The studies on sexual motives suggest that some individuals may be vulnerable especially to more negative outcomes of compliance, motivating research on other individual characteristics or experiences possibly contributing to the consequences of compliance.

Sexual Pressure From the Partner

In this study, sexual pressure refers to situations of verbal coercion, where an individual verbally manipulates, persists, or otherwise exerts emotional pressure to obtain sex from another (see Livingston et al., 2004; Testa & Dermen, 1999). Consenting to sex following verbal pressure is separate from sexual compliance, in which, by traditional definition, no explicit partner pressure should be present. However, while sexually compliant situations do not include any overt pressure from a partner, the partner may have acted in a

sexually pressuring manner outside of these situations, which may influence whether one complies and how one feels about the compliance. Katz and Tirone (2010) found that sexually coercive behavior from a partner was associated with increased compliance in women. Importantly, increased compliance was associated with less sexual satisfaction, particularly in women with more sexually coercive partners. The study of Katz and Tirone (2010) is, to my knowledge, the only one directly examining partner coercion in association with the consequences of compliance.

Being exposed to sexual pressure can produce a variety of negative outcomes for well-being and may contribute to, for example, the inability to resist future sexual advances (Raghavan et al., 2015). Some authors have discussed the possibility that people experiencing pressure from their partner may comply with sex as a way of avoiding or bypassing coercion (Conroy et al., 2015; Impett & Peplau, 2003; Katz & Tirone, 2010; Kern & Peterson, 2020; Pugh & Becker, 2018; Raghavan et al., 2015; Vannier & O'Sullivan, 2010). Raghavan et al. (2015) presented an instrument for assessing different types of sexual coercion and discovered experiences of sexual compliance stemming from avoidance, fear, or past sexual pressure. Additionally, one qualitative study describes situations where women had "given in" to their husbands' sexual advances (Basile, 1999). Reasons for giving in included wanting to avoid arguments or being fearful of what would happen if they did not comply because of instances of previous coercion, threats, or violence. The author did not separate coercive situations from purely compliant situations, and therefore, the results are not directly comparable to the current study. However, the role of previous coercion and previously experienced or anticipated negative outcomes of refusing sex may also be a motive for people to comply in situations without explicit coercion, possibly leading to detrimental consequences.

Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences

While verbal sexual pressure, such as repeatedly asking for sex, may result in consenting to sexual activity, nonconsensual sexual experiences in this study specifically refer to situations where the individual has not given consent to the sexual acts toward them (e.g., physical sexual violence, flashing, or sending nonconsensual sexual pictures). Terms such as sexual victimization or violence are used here synonymously with nonconsensual sexual experiences, as they have often been used to describe such events (see Gámez-Guadix et al., 2022; Koss et al., 2007). Sexual victimization is prevalent across cultures, especially among women. A systematic review from 32 countries around the world estimated that 29% of all women have experienced sexual violence (Li et al., 2023). Data from the United States

National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey revealed an estimated lifetime prevalence of being raped for 19.3% of women and 1.7% of men, and estimated rates for having experienced other types of sexual violence reached 43.9% for women and 23.4% for men (Breiding, 2015). Online sexual violence has emerged with the rapid development of technology, although research on this is still in its infancy. Online sexual violence can include acts such as the nonconsensual sharing of sexual images of the victim (Gámez-Guadix et al., 2022; McGlynn et al., 2017), sending someone unsolicited sexual pictures, gender-based hate speech, or cyber-stalking (i.e., using technology to ongoingly harass or pursue a nonconsenting victim; Cripps & Stermac, 2018).

Previous nonconsensual sexual experiences may affect sexual decision-making and behavior in victimized individuals, which is why it is important to examine their possible associations with sexual compliance and its outcomes. Nevertheless, there is little research on the subject, and existing literature is mainly limited to the amount of sexual compliance rather than its consequences. Some research links the amount or severity of sexual victimization to increased compliance in women (Krahé et al., 2000; Shotland & Hunter, 1995) and gay men (Krahé et al., 2000). Childhood sexual abuse has been linked with decreased sexual self-worth, with possible ties to sexual compliance (Guyon et al., 2024). Guyon et al. (2024) discuss how feelings of worthlessness, self-objectification, as well as avoidant coping strategies (e.g., denying or minimizing one's experiences) may lead some victims to sexually comply more, as they become more invested in their partners' needs than their own. This pattern was especially noticeable in women. Although my focus was not specifically on compliance in victims of childhood sexual abuse, similar dynamics may be at play for people who have been sexually victimized later in life.

The perceived consequences of compliance have not been empirically examined in association with sexual victimization. Previous victimization on its own has been associated with difficulties in sexual decision-making, such as less sexual resourcefulness (i.e., being able to navigate through different sexual situations with a range of self-control and coping strategies; Kennett et al., 2009). Further, lower sexual resourcefulness has been associated with experiencing more negative consequences of compliance (Himanen & Gunst, 2023). In a qualitative study by Gunst et al. (2024), some participants reported previous sexual or non-sexual traumatic experiences as contributing to the negative outcomes of sexual compliance. Additionally, sexual compliance may give rise to trauma flashbacks in individuals who have been sexually victimized. Such was found in Himanen and Gunst's (2023) study, in which participants could answer an open-ended exploratory item and report an experienced outcome

of sexual compliance. Here a few individuals that had been sexually assaulted in the past reported getting retraumatized or having trauma flashbacks while complying to sex.

The Severity of Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences

The severity of different types of sexual violence can vary depending on many factors. Bodily intrusiveness of an act or tactics used by the perpetrator are some ways in which the severity of sexual violence has been approached (Koss et al., 2007). Subjective ratings of assault severity have followed the idea of bodily intrusiveness (Swinson, 2013), with especially rape and physically violent sexual assaults being associated with more negative outcomes, as measured by subjective trauma ratings or posttraumatic stress symptoms (Eadie et al., 2008; Kern & Peterson, 2020; Lauricella & Jones, 2021; Peter-Hagene & Ullman, 2015; Testa et al., 2004).

Experiencing multiple traumatic life events has been associated with more severe posttraumatic symptoms (Scott, 2007) and increased risk for suicide attempts (Ullman & Najdowski, 2009), and multiple types of victimization with more negative health consequences (Kaufman et al., 2019) compared to experiencing fewer or singular events. Accordingly, cumulative experiences of sexual victimization may predict more severe negative outcomes, as well.

As the study of online sexual violence is fairly new, consistent definitions and reliable measures for studying the concept and its outcomes have not been established. Some studies have linked various forms of online sexual harassment with similar negative outcomes as offline sexual victimization, such as posttraumatic reactions or symptoms of depression and anxiety (Cripps & Stermac, 2018; Dahlqvist Zetterström & Gådin Gillander, 2018; Gámez-Guadix et al., 2022). However, thus far, measures of sexual violence severity have commonly been based on physical intrusiveness or force (see e.g., Swinson, 2013). Accordingly, online sexual violence would be placed at the least severe end of a sexual violence continuum.

Sexual Pressure and Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences

Previous sexual victimization has been found to increase the risk for future sexual victimization (see e.g., Jaffe et al., 2023). Decreased sexual resourcefulness skills and self-worth associated with sexual victimization (Guyon et al., 2024; Kennett et al., 2009), as well as possible fears of being sexually victimized again (Basile, 1999), may lead to having pressured sex more often with a current partner, enabling a cycle of victimization and coercion. For example, Stappenbeck et al. (2020) found that women with more severe assault histories had a higher risk of agreeing to pressured sex with their current partner. Further, as both previous sexual victimization and sexual pressure from a partner have been associated

with increased compliance (Katz & Tirone, 2010; Krahé et al., 2000) and may lead to more negative consequences of compliance (Gunst et al., 2024; Katz & Tirone, 2010), it is likely that together they may further exacerbate the experienced negative consequences of sexual compliance.

The Role of Gender

Previous research on compliance and its consequences has focused mostly on cis women (i.e., individuals whose gender identity is compatible with the sex they were assigned at birth; American Psychological Association, 2023) and heteronormative relationships, yet compliance is also common in cis men (see e.g., Khera et al., 2022) and in understudied relationships, including lesbian, gay, bisexual, queer, transgender, non-binary, and polyamorous relationships, as well as BDSM practices (i.e., bondage, discipline, dominance, submission, sadism, and masochism; Rubinsky, 2020). In Gunst et al.'s (2024) qualitative study, both men and women reported many of the same consequences and factors contributing to the consequences of sexual compliance, but women reported a wider range of contributing factors, such as time issues or stress. Notably, past negative sexual experiences were not reported by any of the men as contributing to the consequences. However, it could also be that these differences are a consequence of a smaller sample size of men than of women in their study.

There remain societal beliefs that getting sexually coerced is not considered as negative by men as it is by women, and sexual assault toward men is sometimes considered impossible or highly unlikely (Lauricella & Jones, 2021; Quinn-Nilas et al., 2013; Stemple & Meyer, 2014). It has been suggested that men underestimate the amount or consequences of coercion and nonconsensual sexual experiences because of sexual scripts, gender roles, and ideas of masculinity (Erentzen et al., 2023; Quinn-Nilas et al., 2013). If previous nonconsensual sexual experiences or sexual pressure are associated with more negative consequences of compliance in general, and men tend to perceive these as less harmful than women do, this might suggest fewer negative consequences of compliance for men compared to women. However, as men are currently underrepresented in studies of sexual pressure, compliance, and nonconsensual sexual experiences, a deeper understanding of their experiences and these associations is lacking. That said, for example, Próspero and Fawson (2010) found that men who experienced sexual victimization from their female partners in relationships also experienced more anxiety and somatic symptoms, indicating that unwanted sexual advances and coercion do affect men as well. Apart from Rubinsky's (2020) study on compliance in sexual and gender minorities, BDSM practices, and polyamorous relationships,

most of the compliance literature approaches the topic from the perspective of heteronormative dynamics, and little is known about how these gendered dynamics extend to minorities.

The Role of Relationship Type

Compliance in casual relationships may be different from compliance in committed relationships, but research on this is lacking. Katz and Schneider (2015) found that around 33% of women and 24% of men had complied with casual sex at least once, indicating that compliance occurs in these relationships as well. Further, they found that almost none of the participants who had complied with casual partners had complied with committed partners, and vice versa, suggesting there may be different reasons for complying in different relationship types. Commonly reported reasons for compliance in committed relationships include relationship maintenance motives (see e.g., Vannier & O'Sullivan, 2010). Without a similar desire to maintain a relationship, different factors may weigh more in the decision to comply with casual partners. For example, Katz and Schneider (2015) suggest that sexual scripts, which typically include gendered ideas of men being more dominant and proactive and women more submissive in sexual situations, may guide people to comply in casual sexual encounters.

Further, the relationship between sexual pressure or previous nonconsensual experiences and the perceived consequences of compliance may look different for casual relationships. Experiencing pressure from a casual partner may not feel as personal as from a committed partner, as in casual relationships one may not feel similarly responsible for the partner's sexual opportunities as in committed relationships. However, saying no to pressure may also be more difficult with a less familiar casual partner, due to the potentially more novel or ambiguous nature of casual sex. Indicative of this, compliance with casual sex has been associated with less sexual refusal efficacy (i.e., the ability to refuse sex; Katz & Schneider, 2015), when controlling for compliant committed sex. Further, lower sexual resourcefulness, which includes self-control strategies to deal with unwanted sex, has been linked with previous sexual victimization (Kennett et al., 2009) and with experiencing more negative consequences of compliance (Himanen & Gunst, 2023). Thus, in the context of casual relationships, sexual pressure or past nonconsensual sexual experiences may lead to more negative and less positive perceived consequences of compliance because of possible difficulties in refusing unwanted sexual advances. However, as these potential differences between relationship types are largely speculative, I approached this theme exploratively.

The Current Study

Sexual compliance is prevalent in intimate relationships, and the perceived consequences of compliance can vary highly between individuals. Nevertheless, factors contributing to this variance have not been studied comprehensively. Uncovering these factors may help identify individuals especially vulnerable to negative consequences of compliance. Additionally, most of the previous research on compliance has focused on cis women and committed relationships. The purpose of this study was to examine whether sexual pressure from the partner outside of compliant situations and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are associated with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance on well-being in intimate relationships. Further, I aimed to examine whether there is an interaction between sexual pressure from the partner and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences in their association with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance. Additionally, I wanted to see if gender or relationship type moderates these associations. The current study used self-report survey data from a large Finnish population-based sample. The following hypotheses and one explorative research question were formulated:

H1. I hypothesized that experiencing more sexual pressure from the partner outside of compliant events is associated with more perceived negative and less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance.

H2. I hypothesized that more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are associated with more perceived negative and less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance.

H3. I hypothesized that the associations between more sexual pressure from the partner outside of compliant events and perceiving more negative and less positive consequences of sexual compliance are stronger for individuals with more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, and vice versa.

H4. I hypothesized that gender moderates the associations of sexual pressure from the partner (H1) and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences (H2) with the perceived consequences of compliance, with these associations being stronger for cis women than cis men.

Explorative research question: Are there differences between people in committed or casual relationships in how sexual pressure from the partner (H1) and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences (H2) are associated with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance? Due to scarce research on various relationship types and compliance, the comparison between casual and committed relationships in this study was exploratory.

My original plan was to compare cis women, cis men, and gender minorities. However, the sample size for gender minority participants was so small that they were excluded from the analyses to allow for a binary comparison between cis men and cis women. Additionally, I limited my analyses to people with only one committed or casual partner, as it may be difficult to evaluate the study results for people with multiple partners. For example, pressure from one partner may affect the perceived consequences of compliance with another partner.

Methods

Ethical Considerations

The research plan was approved before the data collection by The Ethics Committee of the Departments of Psychology and Logopedics at Åbo Akademi University. Participation was voluntary and participants could discontinue the questionnaire at any point. Details of the study, including information on confidentiality, anonymity, and data storage were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire. Contact information for counseling and mental health providers (Mieli crisis helpline, Tukinainen Rape Crisis Help Line) was listed at the end of the questionnaire due to the potentially sensitive topic of the survey.

Procedure

The data for this study were based on a larger population-based study questionnaire measuring different aspects of sexuality, compliance, and intimate relationships (Nickull et al., 2025). The survey was initially created in English. Three psychology students independently translated the survey items into Finnish and Swedish. The students were fluent in English and bilingual with Finnish and Swedish as their mother tongues. The students and the research group then reviewed and discussed the translations to determine which translation conveyed the details of the original items most accurately. The questionnaire was carried out on a secure online platform. Participants were selected randomly by the Digital and Population Data Service Agency of Finland and invited to the study by postal mail. Only people aged 18–50 living in Finland and having Finnish or Swedish registered as their mother tongue received an invitation. The invitation included information about the survey and its purpose, as well as a link and a QR code to the questionnaire. The letters were sent out to a total of 30,000 people on the 19th of September 2023. More men (20,000) than women (10,000) were invited to participate to arrive at an even gender distribution of responses, as women have been more likely than men to take part in similar surveys (Johansson et al., 2013). The population registry of Finland does not currently recognize other genders. Additionally, an opportunity to win a 25€ gift card was created to motivate participants to

answer the questionnaire. The lottery featured 30 gift cards to a Finnish business conglomerate (S-ryhmä) that manages, for instance, a variety of grocery stores, shops, and restaurants. The survey closed on the 23rd of October 2023.

Participants were provided the following definitions for sexual compliance, sexual activity, and sexual desire at the beginning of the survey, to ensure the key concepts were understood similarly by all:

> Sexual compliance means consensually engaging in a sexual activity with a partner despite the lack (at least in the beginning) of sexual desire for it. Sexual compliance differs from sexual coercion and assault, as sexual compliance refers to situations where consent has been given voluntarily (either explicitly or implicitly), without any pressure, manipulation, or coercion from the partner. Sexual activity means a broad range of sexual behaviors which can include, for instance, petting/touching of genitals, oral sex, or penetrative sex. Sexual desire means being interested in and personally motivated to engage in sexual activity, with or without physical reactions (e.g., erection, tingling, lubrication).

The translations of the key concepts in Finnish can be found in Appendix A.

Participants

A total of 2,163 people responded to the survey, amounting to a response rate of 7.2%. Participants who were single or had multiple partners were excluded (n = 696) from analyses. From the remaining participants, those who had not had sex with their current partner were excluded (n = 9), as well as those who had not complied to sex with their current partner (n = 207). Participants with missing data concerning their relationship type, sexual activity with their current partner, or compliance with their current partner (due to dropout, n = 46) were excluded. Furthermore, an additional 307 participants were excluded due to dropout, having not filled out the Consequences of Sexual Compliance Scale (n = 158), the items measuring sexual pressure from the partner (n = 44), or the items measuring previous nonconsensual sexual experiences (n = 105). Some participants responded that they had never complied to sexual activity but that they had complied with their current partner. As these responses are contradictory, these participants were excluded (n = 7). From the remaining 891 participants, 53.1% identified as cis women, 46.2% as cis men, 0.4% as transmen or men with trans background, and 0.2% as non-binary. As the number of gender minority participants (n = 6) was too small to analyze as a separate group, they were excluded from the analyses, leaving a final sample of 885 participants. The mean age of participants was 34.1 years (SD = 8.9, range 18.0–51.0). The median relationship duration was 6.7 years (M = 9.4, SD = 8.0, range

0.1– 35.0) for participants with committed partners and 0.6 years (*M* = 4.5, *SD* = 7.1, range 0.1– 23.8) for participants with sex or dating partners. Only 0.2% of the participants reported only negative consequences, 21.5% reported only positive consequences, and 75.5% reported both positive and negative consequences of sexual compliance during a three-month period. Additionally, 2.8% reported no consequences at all or had not complied during the past three months. For more information on the sample, see Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Variable	*n*	%
Gender		
Cis woman	473	53.4
Cis man	412	46.6
Relationship type		
Committed partner	828	93.6
Sex partner[a]	28	3.2
Dating partner[a]	29	3.3
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	775	87.6
Bisexual	73	8.2
Gay/lesbian	8	0.9
Pansexual	16	1.8
Asexual	4	0.5
Other	9	1.0
Education		
Middle/junior high school (9 years)	25	2.8
Vocational school or high school (12 years)	346	39.1
Bachelor’s degree (applied or university)	312	35.3
Master’s degree (applied or university)	184	20.8
Licentiate/doctorate degree	17	1.9
Other	1	0.1
Occupation		
Studying	150	16.9

Employed or self-employed	671	75.8
Retired	11	1.2
Unemployed	26	2.9
Other	27	3.1
Monthly gross income		
Less than 500€	72	8.1
500-999€	66	7.5
1,000-1,999€	101	11.4
2,000-2,999€	236	26.7
3,000-3,999€	187	21.1
4,000-4,999€	114	12.9
5,000-5,999€	67	7.6
6,000€ or more	42	4.7
Nationality		
Finnish	882	99.7
Other	3	0.3
Frequency of compliance with the current partner[b]		
Once	27	3.1
A handful of times	270	30.5
A few dozen times	236	26.7
More than a hundred times	352	39.8
Language of the survey		
Finnish	815	92.1
Swedish	64	7.2
English	6	0.7

Note. $N = 885$.

[a] Sex partner and dating partner groups were combined to form one casual partner group.

[b] Frequency of compliance with the current partner was assessed using rough approximates, as using precise numerical items (e.g., counting the number of times one has complied) would not be sensible.

Measures

Demographic information was gathered for all participants, including age, gender, sexual orientation, education level, employment status, current income, and nationality. The

questionnaire contained multiple subscales measuring different aspects of sexuality, relationships, and well-being, but only scales relevant to the current study are described below.

Consequences of Sexual Compliance

The Consequences of Sexual Compliance Scale (CSCS; Nickull et al., 2025) was used to assess the perceived consequences of sexual compliance on both personal and relationship well-being. The data employed to develop the scale overlaps with the data used in this study (i.e., same data but different exclusion criteria). The CSCS development was based on previous research, including a qualitative study by Gunst et al. (2024), in which the authors examined the perceived consequences of sexual compliance, as well as perceptions of factors contributing to the consequences. The CSCS is a 20-item scale, with 10 items measuring positive consequences and 10 items measuring negative consequences. Participants were asked how often they had experienced any of the listed consequences as a result of complying to sex in the last three months. An example of a positive consequence is "your relationship improved" and an example of a negative consequence is "your self-esteem decreased". All items were answered on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Never*, 2 = *Some of the time*, 3 = *Half of the time*, 4 = *Most of the time*, 5 = *All of the time*). A sum score was calculated separately for the perceived positive and the perceived negative consequences, as Nickull et al. (2025) found these to be moderately negatively correlated with each other and suggested a two-factor solution following factor analyses. Scores can range from 10 to 50 for both subscales. Higher scores indicate either more perceived positive or more perceived negative consequences. The internal consistency for this sample was good for the perceived negative consequences subscale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$) and excellent for the perceived positive consequences subscale (Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$). The scale can be found in Appendix B.

Sexual Pressure From the Partner

For measuring sexual pressure from the partner, 5 items were used from the Commitment Manipulation subscale of the Sexual Coercion in Intimate Relationships Scale (SCRIS; Shackelford & Goetz, 2004). The original scale contains 34 items addressing psychological and behavioral tactics used in sexual coercion. The SCIRS consists of three subscales: Resource Manipulation/Violence, Commitment Manipulation, and Defection Threat. The Commitment Manipulation subscale includes coercive acts in which men appeal to relationship status to manipulate their partner into feeling obliged to engage in sexual activity. For the current data collection, the wording of the items was changed from "him" to

"them" to make the scale gender neutral. Participants were asked to indicate how often the listed acts had occurred in their current relationship in the past month. An example of a coercive act is "my partner hinted that if I were truly committed to them, I would have sex with them". All items were answered on a 6-point Likert scale (0 = *did not occur in the past month*, 1 = *act occurred 1 time in the past month*, 2 = *act occurred 2 times in the past month*, 3 = *act occurred 3 to 5 times in the past month*, 4 = *act occurred 6 to 10 times in the past month*, 5 = *act occurred 11 or more times in the past month*). A sum score was created for the items, ranging from 0 to 25. Higher scores indicate more instances of sexual pressure from the current partner. Importantly, these experiences of sexual pressure from the partner were separate from experiences of sexual compliance, which were measured with the scale introduced earlier. The internal consistency for this sample was acceptable (Cronbach's α = .79). The scale can be found in Appendix C.

Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences

Previous nonconsensual sexual experiences refer to different forms of sexual victimization experiences across the lifespan, with the amount and severity of these experiences as my main interest. A self-created scale was used to measure previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, based on a scale from the Crime Survey for England and Wales 2019 (Karsna & Kelly, 2021). The scale was modified to fit the purpose of this study better, with most modifications made to question wording (e.g., changing the phrases "did not want to" to "did not consent to"), while the response items remained the same. Additional "none of the above has happened to me" items were added to ensure that all participants could respond to the scale. The full scale used in the current study is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences Scale

Question	Items
Has anyone ever done any of the following things to you when you did not consent to it?	1. Made you watch or listen to sexual acts or look at sexual images (this might have been in person or in videos, images or phone calls) 2. Made or shared sexual images or videos of you[a] 3. Deliberately exposed themselves to you (i.e. flashing) 4. Sent you sexual images or videos of themselves or others 5. None of the above has happened to me

Has anyone ever done, or tried to do, any of the following things to you when you did not consent to it?	6. Kissed or groped any part of your body in a sexual way (whether or not you were wearing clothes) 7. Forced or manipulated you into touching someone else's body (including their own) for sexual purposes 8. Penetrated your mouth, vagina or anus with their penis 9. Penetrated your vagina or anus with an object (including fingers) 10. None of the above has happened to me

Note. Participants could check multiple responses.

[a] Item was removed from the analyses since assessing its severity in relation to other items proved challenging.

Additionally, one item ("*made or shared sexual images or videos of you"*) was subsequently removed from the analyses. This is because the acts described may be interpreted in different ways (i.e., either making/taking a picture or sharing a picture). Additionally, having one's sexual image or video shared without one's consent may be accompanied by threats and other forms of harassment (McGlynn et al., 2017), and its possible social outcomes may be extensive (see e.g., Idoiaga Mondragon et al., 2022). Thus, assessing the item's severity in relation to the other items proved challenging, and placing the experience on the current severity scale did not seem sensible.

Each remaining item was assigned a severity score based on previous research on sexual violence severity. As the bodily intrusiveness of an act has been linked with severity ratings (see e.g., Swinson, 2013) no-contact items (1, 3, and 4) were given a score of 1, contact items (6–7) were given a score of 3, and penetrative items (8–9) were given a score of 6. "None of the above" items (5 and 10) were scored as 0. Acts of online sexual violence were included within the no-contact items.

A final score was calculated for each participant by combining two different scoring methods, originally presented by Davis et al. (2014) for the revised Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss et al., 2007), which has been used to measure sexual victimization and shares some similarities with the subscale in the current study. Participants were assigned a severity rank score based on their most severe experience. Furthermore, a sum of the severity scores of all the items the participants had responded to was created to consider the cumulativeness of experiences (see Kaufman et al., 2019). The severity rank score and sum score of the items were summed to calculate the final score of each participant. For instance, if a participant

checked items 4 and 6, their severity rank score was 3, their sum score was 4 (i.e., 1 + 3), and their final score was 7 (i.e., 3 + 4). The final score ranged from 0 to 27, though some values (1 and 5) could not be obtained due to the scoring method. Higher scores on this subscale indicate more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences. A continuous variable was formed based on this scoring method to maintain information on both the severity and number of different nonconsensual sexual experiences and to avoid potential issues from categorizing the variable (e.g., overly complex analyses and uneven categories). Considering previous research, the aim of this scoring system was to measure the concept on a mean level as accurately as possible. However, the severity of an experience is always subjective and may be affected by multiple other factors, and individual scores are not intended to reflect how each participant should perceive the severity of their own experiences. Internal consistency was not measured for this scale, as it is not sensible to expect separate experiences of sexual victimization to be correlated with each other (see Koss et al., 2007).

Statistical Analyses

The data were analyzed using the IBM SPSS Statistics 29 software. Participants with one sex partner or one dating partner were combined to form a casual relationship group. Participants with one committed partner constituted a committed relationship group. Dummy codes were created for the dichotomous variables (0 = cis woman, 1 = cis man; 0 = committed relationship, 1 = casual relationship).

The distribution of the study variables was assessed by histograms and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, which revealed that none of the variables were normally distributed ($p < .001$). Nevertheless, as the sample sizes were sufficiently large (full sample $n = 885$, cis women $n = 473$, cis men $n = 412$, committed $n = 828$, casual $n = 57$), parametric tests were used in further analyses based on the central limit theorem. Independent samples t-tests were conducted to examine the descriptive statistics of different groups more closely, with Cohen's *d* as the effect size. When comparing cis women and cis men, the assumption of equal variances was not met for any of the comparisons except for the positive consequences of compliance, as indicated by Levene's test ($p < .05$). Likewise, when comparing committed and casual relationships, the assumption of equal variances was not met for the comparison of sexual pressure from the partner ($p < .05$). Accordingly, the Welch t-test correction for unequal variances was applied to all the comparisons with unequal variances. Additionally, Pearson's correlations were analyzed between all study variables for the full sample and

different groups (cis women, cis men, casual, and committed relationships) to examine initial relationships between the variables.

Two multiple hierarchical linear regression models were conducted to examine the main effects of sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, gender, and relationship type on 1) the perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance and 2) the perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance. Additionally, five interaction terms (sexual pressure from the partner * previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, gender * sexual pressure from the partner, gender * previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, relationship type * sexual pressure from the partner, relationship type * previous nonconsensual sexual experiences) were added in a second block to both regression models to examine hypotheses H3-H4 and the explorative research question.

Assumptions for the multiple hierarchical linear regressions were checked while building the models. Initial scatterplots between the two dependent variables and their predictor variables showed no notable evidence of non-linearity or more complex associations. Multicollinearity was high for some variables after adding the interaction terms in block 2 of both models, with VIF > 10. The means of the continuous independent variables were centered to reduce multicollinearity and help interpret the results. The assumption of normality of residuals was not achieved for the regressions based on the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ($p < .001$). Additionally, to examine the presence of heteroscedasticity in the regression models, I conducted a Breusch-Pagan test, which indicated that there was significant evidence of heteroscedasticity in the regression model ($p < .05$) for perceived negative consequences of compliance. To account for these limitations and to ensure that results are robust, I conducted the analyses by bootstrapping with 1,500 samples. Bootstrapping utilizes a repeated sampling method by virtually treating the original data as a population from which samples are taken, which allows for robust estimates of the sample distribution for statistics of interest. Additionally, outliers were assessed for both regression models by examining standardized residuals greater than +-3 standard deviations from the mean. Eighteen outliers were found in the data for the negative consequences model and 27 for the positive consequences model. However, Cook's distance was less than 1 for all these cases, indicating that the outliers did not significantly influence the models. After manually examining the cases for any errors in the data, I decided to keep them in the analyses. See Appendix D for scatterplots of the residuals of both regression models.

Results

Descriptive Results

On average, cis women had significantly higher scores than cis men on perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance (t[879.25] = 3.53, p < .001), with a small effect (d = 0.23). Cis women also scored significantly higher on the scale measuring previous nonconsensual sexual experiences than cis men (t[692.23] = 15.07, p < .001). This represented a large effect (d = 0.97). However, there were no significant differences between cis women and cis men on sexual pressure from the partner (t[879.58] = 1.5, p = .133, d = 0.1), or perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance (t[883] = 0.89, p = .372, d = 0.06).

On average, there were no significant differences between participants in casual relationships and committed relationships in any of the study measures: perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance (t[883] = 0.31, p = .755, d = 0.04), perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance (t[883] = 0.47, p =.636, d = 0.07), sexual pressure from the partner (t[58.91] = 0.93, p = .357, d = 0.19), and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences (t[883] = 0.03, p = .974, d = 0.004). Descriptive values for cis women, cis men, committed, and casual relationships are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Results for Cis Women, Cis Men, Committed, and Casual Relationships

Variable	Cis women, n = 473		Cis men, n = 412		Committed, n = 828		Casual, n = 57	
	M (SD)	Range	*M (SD)*	Range	*M (SD)*	Range	*M (SD)*	Range
Negative consequences	13.5 (4.1)	10–36	12.6 (3.3)	10–38	13.1 (3.8)	10–38	13.3 (3.6)	10–28
Positive consequences	37.3 (8.7)	10–50	37.8 (8.8)	10–50	37.5 (8.8)	10–50	38.1 (8.1)	10–50
Sexual pressure	0.8 (2.1)	0–19	0.6 (1.7)	0–17	0.7 (1.8)	0–19	1.0 (3.0)	0–19
Nonconsensual sexual experiences	8.6 (7.5)	0–27	2.7 (3.6)	0–17	5.9 (6.7)	0–27	5.9 (6.4)	0–27

Note. Negative consequences of sexual compliance full range 10–50, positive consequences of sexual compliance full range 10–50, sexual pressure from the partner full range 0–25, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences full range 0–27. Higher scores on negative or positive consequences of sexual compliance indicated more perceived negative or more

perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance, higher scores on sexual pressure from the partner indicated more reported instances of sexual pressure from the current partner, and higher scores on previous nonconsensual sexual experiences indicated reports of more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences.

Correlations

Correlational analyses revealed that more sexual pressure from the partner was significantly associated with more perceived negative consequences of compliance for cis men, cis women, and participants in committed and casual relationships. This association was strong for people in casual relationships and moderate for all other groups. Additionally, for all groups except for cis men, more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences were significantly associated with more perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance. However, these correlations were weak for cis women and committed relationships, but moderate for casual relationships. There was no significant association between previous nonconsensual sexual experiences and the perceived negative consequences of compliance for cis men.

Less sexual pressure from the partner was significantly associated with perceiving more positive consequences of sexual compliance for all groups except for casual relationships. However, all these correlations were weak. There was no significant association between sexual pressure from the partner and the perceived positive consequences of compliance for casual relationships. Furthermore, perceived positive consequences were not significantly associated with previous nonconsensual sexual experiences in any of the groups.

Reporting more positive consequences of sexual compliance was significantly associated with reporting fewer negative consequences of sexual compliance for all groups, with a moderate effect. More sexual pressure from the partner was also significantly associated with more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences for participants in committed relationships. However, this effect was very weak, and the correlation was not significant for cis men, cis women, or casual relationships. Further information about the correlations and their significance levels can be seen in Table 4 for cis women and cis men and in Table 5 for committed and casual relationships. Correlations for the full sample can be found in Appendix E.

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Study Variables Split by Gender

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Negative consequences	-	-.342***	.490***	.164***
2. Positive consequences	-.303***	-	-.129**	-.015
3. Sexual pressure	.417***	-.189***	-	.085
4. Nonconsensual sexual experiences	.080	.024	.062	-

Note. Correlations for cis women (n = 473) displayed above the diagonal, correlations for cis men (n = 412) displayed below the diagonal.
** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Study Variables Split by Relationship Type

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Negative consequences	-	-.319***	.442***	.160***
2. Positive consequences	-.422**	-	-.149***	-.009
3. Sexual pressure	.750***	-.245	-	.082*
4. Nonconsensual sexual experiences	.419**	-.140	.188	-

Note. Correlations for participants in committed relationships (n = 828) displayed above the diagonal, correlations for casual relationships (n = 57) displayed below the diagonal.
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

Multiple Hierarchical Regressions

Regression Block Comparisons

Both regressions were run in two blocks. The main variables were included in the first block while the interaction terms were added in a second block. R^2 change and Akaike information criterion (AIC) was used to compare the fit of the regression blocks of both models (see e.g., Field, 2013, p. 324). For both regression models, the second block did not result in a significant change in adjusted R^2. For the perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance, adjusted R^2 decreased 0.001 in the second block ($F_{change}[5,875] = 0.72$, $p = .609$). For the perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance, adjusted R^2 decreased 0.002 in the second block ($F_{change}[5,875] = 0.70$, $p = .627$). This indicates that adding the interaction variables did not improve the overall fit of the models.

Furthermore, for the perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance, the AIC value in the first block was smaller (3.819) than in the second block (3.821), indicating that

the first block provided a slightly better fit for the data. In contrast, for the perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance, the AIC value in the first block was larger (2.172) than in the second block (2.164), indicating that the second block provided a slightly better fit for the data. However, the difference in AIC for both models was small. Additionally, the R^2 change was so small that focusing on the more complex second block over the simpler first block was not justified. Therefore, I argue that the focus should remain on block 1 results for both regression models.

Regression Model for the Perceived Negative Consequences of Sexual Compliance

In the first block of the multiple hierarchical linear regression model, sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, gender, and relationship type explained a moderate to large portion (23%) of the variance in perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance. The model fit the data better than an empty model (F[4, 880] = 67.85, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .23$). Sexual pressure from the partner (β = .45) and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences (β = .12) were significantly positively associated with the perceived negative consequences of compliance. This indicates that reporting more sexual pressure from the partner outside compliant events or more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences is associated with more perceived negative consequences of compliance, as was suggested by my first and second hypotheses on the perceived negative consequences of compliance. However, neither gender nor relationship type was significantly associated with the perceived negative consequences of compliance. This indicates that there are no differences in the amount of perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance between cis men and cis women or casual and committed relationships when controlling for the other variables in the model.

Including the interaction variables in the second block did not improve the overall fit of the model, and there were no significant associations between the interaction variables and the perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance. This was contrary to my third and fourth hypotheses on the perceived negative consequences of compliance. For more information on the regression model and its blocks, see Table 6.

Table 6

Multiple Linear Regression for the Perceived Negative Consequences of Sexual Compliance with Bootstrapped Confidence Intervals, Standard Errors, and P-values

	Block 1							Block 2						
					95% *CI*							95% *CI*		
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*LL*	*UL*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*LL*	*UL*	*p*
Sexual pressure	0.88	0.11	.45	15.29	0.67	1.13	< .001	0.94	0.21	.48	10.35	0.59	1.40	< .001
Nonconsensual sexual experiences	0.07	0.02	.12	3.50	0.02	0.11	.003	0.06	0.02	.11	2.96	0.02	0.11	.014
Gender[a]	-0.33	0.24	-.04	-1.31	-0.79	0.15	.183	-0.38	0.28	-.05	-1.40	-0.89	0.21	.183
Relationship type[b]	-0.15	0.32	-.01	-0.33	-0.71	0.46	.628	-0.15	0.32	-.01	-0.33	-0.71	0.40	.621
Sexual pressure * Nonconsensual sexual experiences								0.004	0.02	.01	0.35	-0.04	0.05	.843
Gender * Sexual pressure								-0.13	0.29	-.04	-0.97	-0.64	0.36	.638
Gender * Nonconsensual sexual experiences								-0.02	0.05	-.01	-0.36	-0.12	0.11	.751
Relationship type * Sexual pressure								-0.13	0.26	-.03	-0.73	-0.65	0.52	.575
Relationship type * Nonconsensual sexual experiences								0.10	0.10	.04	1.38	-0.07	0.27	.314
Adjusted R^2				.23							.23			

Note. $N = 885$; *B* = unstandardized regression coefficient (beta); *SE* = standard error (bootstrapped); β = standardized regression coefficient; *CI* = confidence interval for the regression coefficient (bootstrapped, type BCa); *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit, *p* = *p*-value (bootstrapped).

Bootstrapped values are based on 1,500 bootstrap samples.

[a] Gender was dummy coded as 0 = cis woman, 1 = cis man.

[b] Relationship type was dummy coded as 0 = committed, 1 = casual.

Regression Model for the Perceived Positive Consequences of Sexual Compliance

In the first block of the multiple hierarchical linear regression model for the positive consequences of compliance, sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, gender, and relationship type explained only a small portion (2%) of the variance in perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance. The model fit the data better than an empty model ($F[4, 880] = 5.64$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .02$). However, only sexual pressure from the partner was significantly negatively associated with the perceived positive consequences ($\beta = -.16$). As my first hypothesis on the perceived positive consequences suggested, this indicates that more sexual pressure from the partner outside of compliant events is associated with less perceived positive consequences of compliance when controlling for the other variables in the model. There was no significant association between previous nonconsensual sexual experiences and the perceived positive consequences of compliance. Contrastingly to my second hypothesis on the perceived positive consequences, this indicates that more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are not associated with less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance when controlling for the other variables in the model. Similarly to the regression model for negative consequences of compliance, gender or relationship type were not significantly associated with the perceived positive consequences, indicating that the amount of perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance does not vary between cis men and cis women or committed and casual relationships when controlling for the other variables in the model.

Similarly to the regression for the perceived negative consequences, adding the interaction variables in a second block did not improve the perceived positive consequences model. None of the interaction variables in this model were significantly associated with the perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance, further contrasting with my third and fourth hypotheses on the perceived positive consequences of compliance. For more information on the regression model and its blocks, see Table 7.

Table 7

Multiple Linear Regression for the Perceived Positive Consequences of Sexual Compliance with Bootstrapped Confidence Intervals, Standard Errors, and P-values

	Block 1							Block 2						
					95% *CI*							95% *CI*		
Predictor	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*LL*	*UL*	*p*	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*LL*	*UL*	*p*
Sexual pressure	-0.70	0.17	-.16	-4.64	-1.03	-0.42	< .001	-0.44	0.31	-.10	-1.84	-1.09	0.02	.147
Nonconsensual sexual experiences	0.01	0.05	.01	0.24	-0.09	0.11	.815	0.003	0.05	.002	0.06	-0.10	0.11	.951
Gender[a]	0.45	0.66	.03	0.69	-0.87	1.85	.500	0.64	0.70	.04	0.90	-0.77	1.95	.364
Relationship type[b]	0.80	1.08	.02	0.67	-1.46	2.91	.468	0.65	1.12	.02	0.55	-1.85	2.92	.553
Sexual pressure * Nonconsensual sexual experiences								-0.02	0.03	-.04	-0.89	-0.08	0.02	.347
Gender * Sexual pressure								-0.58	0.45	-.08	-1.60	-1.48	0.31	.161
Gender * Nonconsensual sexual experiences								0.10	0.13	.03	0.76	-0.15	0.32	.426
Relationship type * Sexual pressure								0.04	0.49	.003	0.09	-1.14	1.07	.904
Relationship type * Nonconsensual sexual experiences								-0.13	0.23	-.02	-0.66	-0.57	0.33	.559
Adjusted R^2				.02							.02			

Note. $N = 885$; *B* = unstandardized regression coefficient (beta); *SE* = standard error (bootstrapped); β = standardized regression coefficient; *CI* = confidence interval for the regression coefficient (bootstrapped, type BCa); *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit, *p* = *p*-value (bootstrapped).

Bootstrapped values are based on 1,500 bootstrap samples.

[a] Gender was dummy coded as 0 = cis woman, 1 = cis man.

[b] Relationship type was dummy coded as 0 = committed, 1 = casual.

Discussion

This study aimed to examine the associations between sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, and the perceived consequences of sexual compliance in a Finnish population-based sample. Firstly, I hypothesized that experiencing more sexual pressure from the partner outside of compliant events is associated with more perceived negative and less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance. The results provided support for this hypothesis. Secondly, I hypothesized that more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are associated with more perceived negative and less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance. This hypothesis was supported only on the part of the perceived negative consequences of compliance. Additionally, I hypothesized that the associations between sexual pressure from the partner and the consequences of sexual compliance would be stronger for those with more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, and vice versa. No evidence was found supporting this hypothesis. Further, I examined whether gender (cis man, cis woman) or relationship type (casual, committed) moderates these associations. Here, I hypothesized that the associations of sexual pressure from the partner and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance are stronger for cis women than cis men. The moderating effects of relationship type were examined exploratively. However, I found no evidence of gender of relationship type moderating these associations.

Sexual Compliance and its Consequences

In this sample, nearly 40% of participants had complied more than a hundred times with their current partner. In contrast, only 3% of the sample had complied just once with their current partner. In a previous study by Vannier and O'Sullivan (2010), 46% of participants had complied at least once in a three-week study period and, overall, compliance amounted to 17.2% of all sexual activity during this time. In some other samples, sexual compliance has amounted to, on average, 25% of all partnered sexual activity in a relationship (Conroy et al., 2015; Himanen & Gunst, 2023). Although I did not compare the amounts of sexual compliance to all partnered sexual activity, compliance seems to be common and recurrent in this sample.

Overall, participants in this sample reported significantly more positive than negative consequences of sexual compliance. At least some negative consequences were reported by 75.7% of participants, while 97% reported at least some positive consequences. Notably, only 0.2% of participants reported only negative consequences, while 21.5% reported only

positive consequences. This is inconsistent with earlier research in Finland. Two studies examined the frequencies of reporting only positive, only negative, or both positive and negative consequences of compliance, and reporting at least some or only negative consequences turned out to be the most common (Gunst et al., 2024; Himanen & Gunst, 2023). However, this may be due to differences in measures or sample characteristics. For example, Himanen and Gunst (2023) used a 7-item scale in which lower scores indicated experiencing negative consequences, and higher scores indicated experiencing positive consequences, while the CSCS used in the current study includes a total of 20 items and the perceived negative and positive consequences of compliance are assessed separately. Additionally, these studies did not utilize population-based samples similar to the current study, and the participants consisted only of women. Therefore, my findings are likely more generalizable to the larger population, but future research should aim to replicate the results to see if these differences persist.

In one qualitative study, women were found to report negative consequences of compliance from a wider range of different categories than men (Gunst et al., 2024). In another qualitative study focusing exclusively on compliance in men, participants described compliant casual or committed sex as socially beneficial or altruistic, with few negative consequences (Quinn-Nilas et al., 2018). Quantitative research on these gender differences is lacking. My initial comparisons between groups revealed that cis women experienced more perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance than cis men with a small effect, but the amount of perceived positive consequences did not differ between genders. However, after controlling for sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, and relationship type these gender differences disappeared. The initial differences may be explained by the variance in previous nonconsensual sexual experiences. Cis men reported significantly fewer previous nonconsensual sexual experiences than cis women and were the only group for which these experiences did not correlate with the perceived negative consequences of compliance. Thus, gender differences may have diminished when the amount and/or severity of previous nonconsensual sexual experiences were controlled for.

Further, relationship type was not associated with the perceived consequences of compliance in either the descriptive analyses or regressions, suggesting that individuals in casual or committed relationships experience, on average, similar amounts of both positive and negative consequences from sexual compliance. As there is little previous research

comparing sexual compliance or its consequences across casual or committed relationships, these comparisons were approached exploratively throughout this study.

Stronger Findings in the Negative Consequences Model

In the regressions, a moderate to large portion (23%) of the variance in the perceived negative consequences was explained by sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, gender, or relationship type, and adding the interaction variables did not increase the fit of the model. In contrast, a very small portion (2%) of the variance in the perceived positive consequences was explained by sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, gender, or relationship type. Adding the interaction variables did not increase the fit of the model. This indicates that factors linked with more negative consequences are not automatically associated with less positive consequences, supporting the idea of examining these in separate models. Stronger results in the negative consequences model may be due to a negativity bias. People tend to learn from, experience, and memorize negative information more strongly than positive information (Vaish et al., 2008). Additionally, the main predictor variables (sexual pressure from the partner and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences) themselves have a more negative than positive or neutral connotation. That is, while a high amount of these can generally be considered negative, a low amount of these may not be considered automatically positive. Consequently, sexual pressure and nonconsensual experiences may also be stronger predictors for increased negative consequences of compliance, but their association with the positive consequences of compliance is not as straightforward.

Sexual Pressure From the Partner and the Consequences of Sexual Compliance

As I expected, experiencing more sexual pressure from the partner was associated with perceiving more negative consequences of sexual compliance. Notably, this was the strongest association in the model ($\beta = .45$ in block 1). Further, as I expected, experiencing more sexual pressure from the partner was associated with less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance ($\beta = -.16$ in block 1). This was the only significant association in the model. Despite this, as sexual pressure from the partner, along with the other study variables, contributed to only a small portion of the variance in the perceived positive consequences of compliance, it seems that its value in predicting these consequences is poor.

There is a significant research gap in studies focusing on sexual pressure and the consequences of sexual compliance. Existing literature is mainly limited to one study, which found that a partner's prior sexual coercion predicts less sexual satisfaction in women in

association with future sexual compliance (Katz & Tirone, 2010). The current results add to these findings. Further, the current study assessed a wider range of possible consequences of sexual compliance (e.g., increased/decreased self-esteem, pleasure, or anxiety) than sexual satisfaction.

One suggested mechanism behind the association of sexual pressure and compliance is avoiding possible future pressure (see Conroy et al., 2015; Impett & Peplau, 2003; Katz & Tirone, 2010; Kern & Peterson, 2020; Pugh & Becker, 2018; Raghavan et al., 2015; Vannier & O'Sullivan, 2010). Avoidance motives have been linked with more negative consequences of compliance (Himanen & Gunst, 2023), and previous coercion or sexual violence may lead to sexual compliance through fear of future coercion or violence (see Basile, 1999; Katz & Tirone, 2010; Raghavan et al., 2015). This could lead to a cycle of pressure and compliance to avoid pressure, which in turn may blur the line between pressure and compliance. That is, compliance in these situations may involve implicit pressure even in the absence of outside pressure. Pugh and Becker (2018) call for a distinction between benign sexual compliance motivated by intimacy, compromise, or relationship maintenance and sexual compliance possibly arising from a history of sexual pressure. Additionally, some authors argue that sexual compliance nearly always stems from some level of societal pressure (see Conroy et al., 2015; Fahs et al., 2020). Thus, future research should focus more carefully on the distinction between "pure" compliance and possible implicit pressure that may be embedded in the relationship dynamics and history. Examining avoidance motives, sexual refusal efficacy, and sexual pressure with sexual compliance or refining the definitions of compliance to include aspects of implicit and societal pressure may open new avenues for understanding compliance and its positive or negative implications more profoundly.

Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences and the Consequences of Sexual Compliance

As I hypothesized, having experienced more and/or more severe nonconsensual sexual events in the past was associated with perceiving more negative consequences of compliance. However, this association was notably weaker ($\beta = .12$ in block 1) compared to sexual pressure from the partner. One potential mechanism behind this association may be sexual resourcefulness. Especially for women, lower sexual resourcefulness has been associated with past experiences of sexual victimization (Kennett et al., 2009), more sexual compliance, and more negative consequences of sexual compliance (Himanen & Gunst, 2023). Raghavan et al. (2015) and Kennett et al. (2009) suggest that more severe past sexual victimization may add susceptibility to learned helplessness concerning sexual experiences

(e.g., feeling like one has no power to stop unwanted sexual advances). This may, in turn, lead to more negative consequences of compliance from feeling helpless or not in control of one's sexual decisions. Some individuals may also experience trauma flashbacks or retraumatization in situations of sexual compliance, as was found in Himanen and Gunst's (2023) open-ended explorative research question, leading to possible detrimental outcomes from sexual compliance. However, it is not clear from their research whether these trauma flashbacks exist in the context of sexual compliance specifically or if they occur within desired sexual activity, as well.

Contrastingly to my second hypothesis on the perceived positive consequences, the amount or severity of past nonconsensual sexual experiences was not associated with the amount of perceived positive consequences of compliance. This, and the fact that sexual pressure was a stronger predictor of the perceived negative consequences of compliance than previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, may point to a recency effect (i.e., recent experiences are learned or remembered better than events from further in the past; see Baddeley & Hitch, 1993). Perhaps past nonconsensual sexual experiences are not as strong indicators of the consequences of sexual compliance compared to likely more recent sexual pressure. Many lifetime nonconsensual sexual experiences have likely happened with different persons than with the current partner, while sexual pressure explicitly refers to pressure from the current partner. However, as the perpetrator of these nonconsensual sexual acts was not specified in our questionnaire, some of them may have happened with the current partner or during the current relationship. It could be that the consequences of compliance look different depending on whether compliance occurs with the same person as past nonconsensual experiences, or someone else.

Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences Scale

In addition to these possible recency or perpetrator effects, the scale used to measure previous nonconsensual sexual experiences may have not meaningfully captured the nuances of sexual victimization severity, possibly contributing to the results. The scoring of this scale was based on the physical intrusiveness of the experiences and the number of different experiences. However, some studies indicate that while the most violent and intrusive acts of sexual violence can usually be accurately placed at the most severe end on a continuum of sexual violence, a hierarchical structure of severity may not be best for other kind of experiences (Swinson, 2013; Testa et al., 2004). That said, high scores on this scale were very rare, and it may be that our measure did not accurately capture severity in this sample with mostly less intrusive and smaller number of experiences. Additionally, our scale included

items assessing online nonconsensual sexual experiences, which, to my knowledge, have not been examined together with offline nonconsensual sexual experiences. However, as the expansion of social media and ongoing technological advances have produced opportunities to different kinds of online sexual victimization (see e.g., Cripps & Stermac, 2018; Dahlqvist Zetterström & Gådin Gillander, 2018), these were included in the current scale, as well.

While our measure focused on the physical intrusiveness and number of different acts, multiple other factors may impact the severity of one's experiences, as well. For example, familiarity with the offender, threatened force, used force, self-schemas, and substance use have been associated with the severity of sexual violence (Koss et al., 2007; Peter-Hagene & Ullman, 2015; Swinson, 2013). Further, we did not separate attempted and completed acts in the second part of the scale, and subjective severity may vary depending on this (Swinson, 2013). Therefore, a more nuanced scale may be considered for future studies.

Interactions

Sexual Pressure From the Partner and Previous Nonconsensual Sexual Experiences

Previous sexual victimization has been found to increase vulnerability to future sexual victimization (see e.g. Jaffe et al., 2023) and women with more severe assault histories may have a higher risk of agreeing to pressured sex with their current partner (Kennett et al., 2009; Stappenbeck et al., 2020). This could indicate more detrimental outcomes from sexual compliance, as well. Therefore, I expected to find evidence of an interaction between sexual pressure and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences in their association with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance. Surprisingly, correlational analyses revealed only a very weak association between more sexual pressure from the partner and more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, and no interaction effects emerged when controlling for other variables in the regression. The association of previous nonconsensual sexual experiences with the perceived negative consequences of compliance was relatively weak overall, and they were not associated with the perceived positive consequences. It may be that the scale did not capture these phenomena as intended, contributing to the results. It could also be that the recency or perpetrator of these experiences is more relevant to these associations than the amount or severity. That is, whether the nonconsensual sexual experiences and sexual pressure from the partner both happened with the same person as sexual compliance or not. Future research should aim to replicate these findings and explore this idea further.

Gender

Additionally, I expected gender to moderate the associations between sexual pressure from the partner, previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, and the perceived negative or positive consequences of compliance. To my surprise, no moderating effects emerged, indicating that sexual pressure and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are connected to the perceived consequences of compliance similarly regardless of gender when controlling for the other variables in the regressions.

Initial analyses revealed that on average, cis men and cis women both experienced very little sexual pressure from their partner, with no significant differences in these amounts. It may be that in this marginally pressured sample, any clear gender differences did not emerge. That said, verbal sexual pressure may just be experienced similarly regardless of gender, with similar associations to the negative consequences of compliance. Regarding previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, initial analyses showed that cis men reported significantly fewer previous nonconsensual sexual experiences than cis women and were the only group for which these experiences did not correlate with the perceived negative consequences of compliance. This follows the lines of a qualitative study by Gunst et al. (2024) with a Finnish sample, where past negative sexual experiences were reported by some women as contributing to the consequences of compliance, but not reported by any of the men. Considering these initial findings, it seems surprising no gender differences emerged when controlling for the other variables in the regressions. This may, in part, result from the fact that few cis men reported any previous nonconsensual sexual experiences in our sample or generally reported less severe experiences compared to cis women. Men may underestimate the amount or consequences of sexual pressure or past nonconsensual sexual experiences because of sexual scripts, gender roles, and harmful stereotypes depicting them as virtually unable to get sexually assaulted (Erentzen et al., 2023; Quinn-Nilas et al., 2018; Stemple & Meyer, 2014). However, sociocultural factors, such as comprehensive sexuality education and greater gender equality in Finland compared to multiple other countries (Ketting et al., 2021; World Population Review, 2024) may lead to more progressive views toward sexuality, pressure, consent, and compliance. Consequently, perhaps the few cis men who reported sexual pressure or previous nonconsensual experiences were not as constrained by traditional sexual scripts concerning sexual victimization and, therefore, reported similar amounts of perceived consequences of compliance as cis women.

Relationship Type

Similarly to gender, relationship type did not moderate any associations in either the negative or positive consequences model, indicating that sexual pressure and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences are connected to the perceived consequences of compliance similarly regardless of relationship type. Further, relationship type was not correlated with any other variable in the initial analyses. However, our sample consisted of relatively few participants in casual relationships (n = 57) compared to committed relationships (n = 828), which may decrease the power for detecting differences. That is, although the sample size of the casual group should be sufficient for any considerable differences between relationship types to emerge, small differences might not be detected. Additionally, the average relationship length for people in casual relationships was quite high (4.5 years), although most of these participants reported shorter relationship durations. It could be that relationship length or partner familiarity would be a better predictor here than relationship type, as the dynamics of sexual compliance might be different with less familiar partners. Future research could try to replicate these findings with more balanced groups and possibly controlling for relationship length.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions

This study was, to my knowledge, the first to examine sexual compliance, sexual pressure, and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences using a population-based Finnish sample. Several strengths and limitations of this study can be identified.

The first notable strength was the large sample size. Additionally, the survey invitation procedure allowed for a nearly equal distribution of cis men and cis women in this study. This increases the generalizability of the results to the larger population and provides new information, as most research on sexual pressure, previous victimization, sexual compliance, or its consequences has focused merely on women. The sample included participants with various sexual identities (heterosexual 87.6%, bisexual 8.2%, gay/lesbian 0.9%, pansexual 1.8%, asexual 0.5%, other 1.0%), with numbers approximately resembling previous population-based Finnish data (heterosexual 88.1%, bisexual 7.3%, gay/lesbian 2.7%, pansexual 0.7%, asexual 0.7%, other 0.5%; Källström et al., 2022) as well as global research (see Rahman et al., 2020). I also focused on both committed and casual relationships, contrastingly to previous research on compliance, which has mostly focused on heterosexual committed relationships. Regrettably, as gender comparisons were one aim of the study, the few gender minority participants in our sample were excluded from the analyses due to negligible statistical power. In future studies, more emphasis could be placed

on gender and sexual minorities, as these groups are often overlooked in research. Additionally, non-monogamous relationships may differ from monogamous relationships in patterns of sexual compliance, pressure, or nonconsensual experiences and could be the focus of future research.

Despite the sample size being significant, the response rate of the survey was a regrettably low 7.2%. Thus, individuals choosing to take part in this study may differ from those who did not. The participants in my sample were, on average, more highly educated compared to the Finnish population of the closest 20–49 age group (Statistics Finland, 2023b). For example, 56.1% of the participants had either a bachelor's or master's degree as their highest education level, compared to 34.7% of the general population. However, many other demographics, such as the employment rate of 75.8% (vs. 77.9% in the 20–64 age group) and median income among employed participants of 3,000-3,999€ (vs. 3654€ in the 15–74 age group) were similar to the general population (Statistics Finland, 2023a, 2023c).

One concern is that the survey theme or length may have impacted participation. Beforehand, participants were informed that the survey would be about sexuality and sexual health and would take approximately 40 minutes to fill out. This may have shied away some individuals not comfortable with disclosing sexual information or spending that much time on the questionnaire. The sensitive nature of the study topic may have also guided some participants to respond in a socially desirable way (de Graaf et al., 2023; King, 2022), although information about anonymity and confidentiality in handling the survey responses was disclosed to all participants to minimize these issues. Additionally, retrospective self-reports about past experiences of sexual compliance, pressure, and nonconsensual events are susceptible to some level of inaccuracy and bias, possibly decreasing the reliability of the responses. The cross-sectional nature of this study can also be viewed as a limitation, as interpretations of causality cannot be made based on the results. Future research could benefit from a longitudinal diary-based approach in uncovering more precise patterns connecting sexual pressure, prior victimization, sexual compliance, and its consequences.

Additionally, some limitations regarding the timelines of the CSCS and sexual pressure from the partner scale should be noted. Participants were asked about the consequences of compliance during the last three months but not if they had complied in those three months. Due to this, our sample may include participants who had complied with their current partner but not within the last three months and, therefore, responded "never" to all questions about the consequences of compliance. However, "never" responses on this scale amounted to merely 2.8% of the whole sample, suggesting they did not significantly

impact the results. The sexual pressure from partner scale had a narrower timeline compared to the CSCS, as participants were asked to report any sexual pressure from their partner during the past month. Thus, it is likely that some consequences of compliance had happened before pressure or that occasions of pressure and compliance alternated with each other. This may have made it more difficult for some participants to separate occasions of compliance and sexual pressure from each other, despite that sexual compliance was defined at the beginning of the survey to ensure that all participants understood it similarly. The scale may have also overlooked some participants who have experienced pressure in their current relationship but not during the past month—possibly contributing to the low number of participants overall who reported sexual pressure from their partner.

As some of the findings were against my expectations, future studies could aim to replicate these to form a clearer picture of what might contribute to the results. Additionally, future research could aim to uncover potential moderating factors behind the associations, such as avoidance motives or sexual resourcefulness. Examining forms of implicit or societal pressure together with sexual compliance could provide meaningful avenues for research. Further, possible perpetrator or recency effects together with sexual pressure, victimization, and compliance could be explored. As for our measure of previous nonconsensual sexual experiences, a more nuanced scale and scoring system may be better at quantifying these experiences.

Clinical Implications

The clinical implications of my findings are notable. Compliant sex may be one way for individuals to approach sexual discrepancies in relationships (Day et al., 2015; Herbenick et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2018). Consequently, clinicians working with these themes need to be aware of both the positive and negative consequences of sexual compliance as well as factors contributing to these consequences. Particularly sexual pressure from a partner seems relevant to the perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance and should be a central focus when exploring compliance in a clinical context. Sexual compliance may involve implicit pressure stemming from relationship dynamics, earlier experiences, or social expectations, even without any explicit pressure from a partner (see Conroy et al., 2015; Pugh & Becker, 2018). Clinicians should work to identify sources of potential implicit pressure and individuals especially vulnerable to more negative consequences of sexual compliance. Sexual decision-making and resourcefulness in the relationship should be strengthened, and attention should be paid to the narratives behind sexual discrepancies, as well as the motives behind sexual compliance. Other suggested approaches for sexual discrepancies include

training open communication skills, normalizing and depathologizing sexual discrepancies, focusing on increasing pleasure versus sexual frequency, and promoting sexual intimacy without the expectation of intercourse (Dewitte et al., 2020).

Conclusions

There were several key findings of the present study. Both sexual pressure from the partner outside of sexually compliant events and more and/or more severe previous nonconsensual sexual experiences were associated with more perceived negative consequences of sexual compliance. Additionally, more sexual pressure from the partner outside of compliant events was associated with less perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance, but previous nonconsensual sexual experiences were not. Notably, sexual pressure from the partner was the strongest predictor in both models. These findings did not differ between cis men and cis women or casual and committed relationships, and there was no evidence of an interaction between sexual pressure from the partner and previous nonconsensual sexual experiences in their association with the perceived consequences of sexual compliance. Further, I found that the study variables explained a moderate to large portion of the variability in the perceived negative consequences but amounted to only a small portion of the variance in the perceived positive consequences of sexual compliance, indicating other factors likely play a bigger role in predicting the positive consequences of compliance. A longitudinal diary-based approach could provide a deeper understanding of the associations between sexual pressure, victimization, and compliance. Future research should also examine whether other factors, such as avoidance motives or impaired sexual decision-making, contribute to these patterns. Finally, as especially sexual pressure in an intimate relationship may increase vulnerability to more perceived negative consequences of compliance, clinicians should work on identifying these experiences and navigate discussions of sexual discrepancies or compliance accordingly.

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Appendix A

Key Concepts in Finnish

Seksuaalisella myöntyvyydellä tarkoitetaan seksiin suostumista ilman seksuaalista halua (ainakaan aluksi). Seksuaaliseksi myöntymiseksi katsotaan sellaiset tilanteet, joissa suostumus on annettu vapaaehtoisesti (joko sanallisesti tai epäsuorasti), eli ilman kumppanin painostusta, manipulaatiota tai pakottamista. Seksuaalinen myöntyvyys eroaa näin ollen seksuaalisesta väkivallasta. Seksillä tarkoitetaan monenlaista seksuaalista käyttäytymistä, joka voi sisältää mm. sukuelinten hyväilyä/kosketusta, suuseksiä tai penetroivaa seksiä. Seksuaalisella halulla tarkoitetaan omaa kiinnostusta ja motivaatiota seksin harrastamiseen. Seksuaaliseen haluun voi liittyä fyysisiä reaktioita (esim. erektio, kihelmöintiä, kostumista), mutta tämä ei ole edellytys.

Appendix B

Consequences of Sexual Compliance Scale

During the past 3 months, have you experienced the following as a result of complying to sex?

Never, some of the time, half of the time, most of the time, all of the time

1. You felt anxious
2. You noticed that your sexual desire increased after you started having sex
3. Your self-esteem decreased
4. The sex was less pleasurable than usual
5. Your sexual desire decreased
6. Your relationship improved
7. It made you trust your partner less
8. The sex was pleasurable
9. It made you happy
10. You felt emotionally closer to your partner
11. You felt pressured
12. You experienced a positive effect on your well-being
13. Your partner became satisfied
14. You enjoyed making your partner happy
15. Your partner was in a better mood afterward
16. You had more fights with your partner
17. It helped you maintain your sex life
18. You experienced physical discomfort during sex
19. The amount of tension in your relationship increased
20. You felt resentment towards your partner

Appendix C

Sexual Pressure from the Partner Scale

Please use the following scale to indicate how often in the past one month these acts have occurred in your current relationship

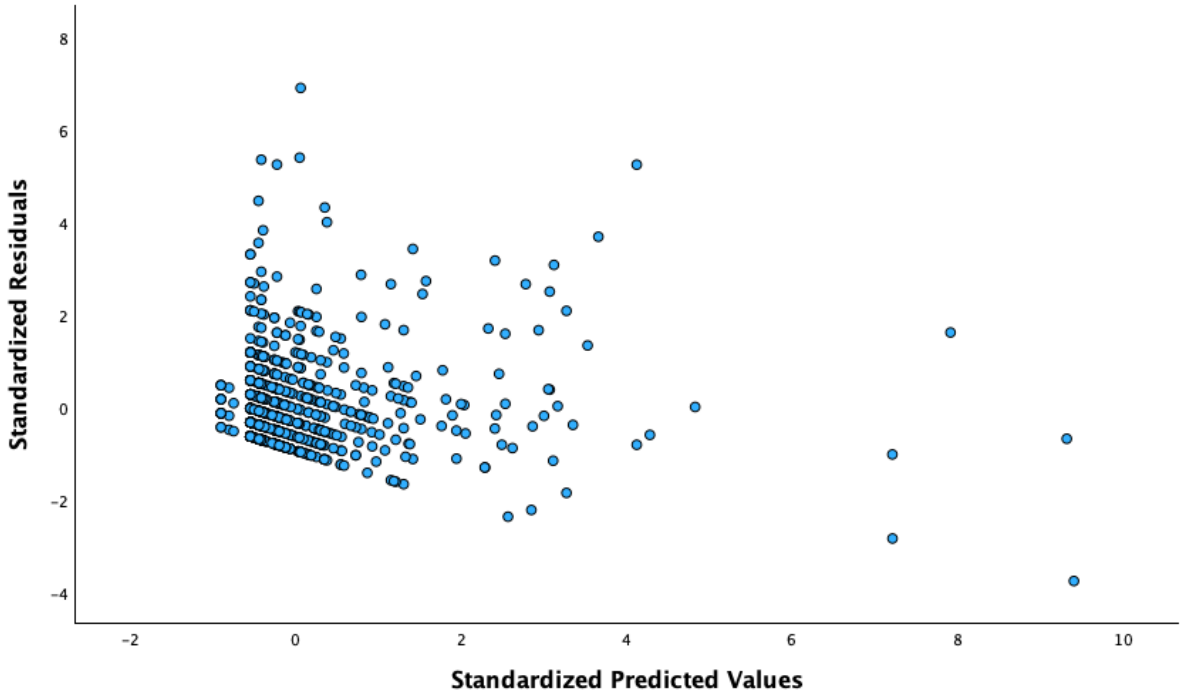
Did not occur in the past month, act occurred 1 time in the past month, act occurred 2 times in the past month, act occurred 3 to 5 times in the past month, act occurred 6 to 10 times in the past month, act occurred 11 or more times in the past month

1. My partner persisted in asking me to have sex with them, even though they knew that I did not want to.
2. My partner made me feel obligated to have sex with them.
3. My partner told me that other couples have sex more than we do, to make me feel like I should have sex with them.
4. My partner hinted that if I were truly committed to them I would have sex with them.
5. My partner hinted that it was my obligation or duty to have sex with them.

Appendix D

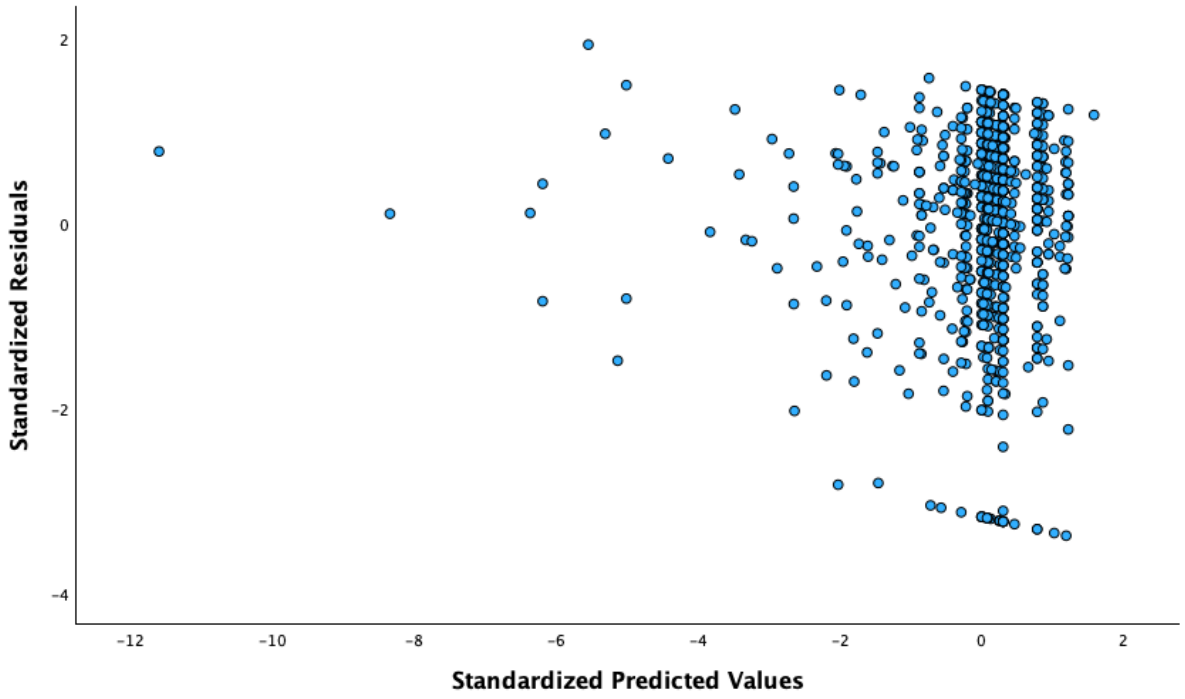
Picture 1

Distribution of Residuals in the Negative Consequences Regression Model



Picture 2

Distribution of Residuals in the Positive Consequences Regression Model



Appendix E

Correlation Coefficients Between Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Negative consequences	-				
2. Positive consequences	-.325**	-			
3. Sexual pressure	.465**	-.155**	-		
4. Nonconsensual sexual experiences	.175**	-.016	.091*	-	
5. Gender[a]	-.116**	.030	-.050	-.437**	-
6. Relationship type[b]	.011	.016	.048	.001	.032

Note. $N = 885$.

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$ (2-tailed).

[a] Gender is dummy coded as 0 = cis woman, 1 = cis man.

[b] Relationship type is dummy coded as 0 = committed, 1 = casual.