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Bachelor's thesis

The Effect of Mate Value on Mate Preferences

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Declaration

I declare that I have done this thesis independently. All sources and literature used were properly cited. The thesis has not been used to obtain another or the same degree.

In Prague on June 23rd, 2023

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Abstrakt

Výběr partnera je nedílnou součástí psychologie a je nutné skutečně porozumět složitým procesům, které ji provázejí. Účastníci tohoto výzkumu (N = 1885, 42 % mužů) hodnotili sebe, své ideální partnery a současné partnery, na základě sedmi pozitivních a osmi negativních charakteristik. Mimo jiné také uváděli, jak jsou se svými partnery spokojeni a snažili odhadnout svou vlastní partnerskou hodnotu. Během výzkumu jsem aplikovala různé statistické metody, například deskriptivní statistiku, korelace a dvouvýběrové t-testy. Také jsem pomocí euklidovského algoritmu vypočítala míru naplnění partnerských preferencí a euklidovskou partnerskou hodnotu. Mým cílem bylo zjistit, jaký vliv má vlastní a euklidovská partnerská hodnota na partnerské preference, míru naplnění preferencí a celkovou spokojenost ve vztahu, přičemž jsem věnovala pozornost i rozdílům mezi pohlavími. Ukázalo se, že ženy jsou při výběru partnera náročnější. Kladou důraz na výdělečné schopnosti a dominanci svého partnera, zatímco muži preferují především atraktivitu. Korelační analýza hodnocení ideálního partnera, aktuálního partnera a sebe sama ukázala, že partneri, se kterými byli ve vztahu byli blízko jejich vlastním ideálům. Pojetí o vlastní partnerské hodnotě se zdálo být důležitější pro ženskou partnerskou hodnotu, zatímco euklidovská partnerská hodnota pro mužskou partnerskou hodnotu. Spokojenost se vztahem u žen silně závisela s mírou naplnění jejich preferencí. U mužů při naplnění jejich preferencí došlo ke zvýšení jejich vlastní partnerské hodnoty. Další zkoumání korelací ukázalo, že účastníci si vybírali partnery, kteří byli podobní jim samotným. Závěrem, tato práce odhaluje vliv vlastní a euklidovské partnerské hodnoty na partnerské preference, zaměřuje se na rozdíly mezi pohlavími, zkoumá kompatibilitu a spokojenost ve vztahu.

Klíčová slova: výběr partnera, partnerské preference, hodnota partnera, euklidovská hodnota partnera, naplnění preferencí, spokojenost ve vztahu.

Abstract

Human mate choice is an integral part of psychology, and it is necessary to truly understand the complex processes that follow it. I aimed to investigate the effect self-perceived mate value and Euclidean mate value have on mate preferences, preference fulfillment, and relationship satisfaction while also paying attention to sex differences. Participants of this research (N = 1885, 42 % men) evaluated themselves, their ideal partners, and the partners they were currently in a relationship with on seven dealmakers and eight dealbreakers. Among other things, they also reported on how satisfied they were with their partners and tried to provide an estimate of their self-perceived mate value. I used various methods on collected data, such as descriptive statistics, correlation analyses, independent samples t-tests, and calculation of Euclidean mate value and preference fulfillment. Women showed to be more demanding in their partner selection, placing emphasis on their partner's earning capacity and dominance, while men preferred their partners to be attractive above else. Correlation analysis of the ideal-, partner-, and self-evaluations showed, that the partners participants chose to start a relationship with were close to their own ideals. Self-perceived mate value seemed to be more important for women's preference fulfillment while Euclidean mate value for men's overall preference fulfillment. Relationship satisfaction for women was strongly associated with their level of preference fulfillment, while men's Euclidean mate value was strongly associated with their preferences fulfilled. Further examination of correlations suggested that participants chose partners who were similar to themselves. In conclusion, this thesis reveals the effect of self-perceived mate value and Euclidean mate value on mate preferences, with focus on sex differences, and explores compatibility and relationship satisfaction.

Keywords: mate choice, mate preferences, mate value, Euclidean mate value, preference fulfillment, relationship satisfaction

Introduction

Mate choice has been the focus of research dating back to 1871 when Darwin described the sexual selection as a distinctive choice for the opposite sex and competition of one sex for the members of the opposite sex. Choosing the right partner is one of the most important decisions every individual must make. Men and women have developed a specific set of individual preferences that help them to make this choice easier (Conroy-Beam, 2021). Apart from these preferences, mate choice is also guided by one's own mate value, which refers to how valuable a person would be as a reproductive partner (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). What drives people to choose the person they do? Do the sexes differ in their preferences? Do other factors play a part in the process of mate choice? How do people eventually decide whether to enter a relationship? Conroy-Beam (2017) tested his hypothesis, that people choose their partners according to the Euclidean algorithm. A calculation that can provide an estimate of how valuable a partner the person of interest would be.

These findings are just a mere overview of the topics discussed in this thesis. From the evolutionary perspective of mate choice, I go on to parental investment and the impact it has on the shaping of mate preferences. After an exploration of mate preferences, I briefly introduce the Ideal Standards Model (Fletcher et al., 1999) and name some of the traits people find either desirable or off-putting in a partner. I also tried to answer the question, of whether people seek out partners who are similar to themselves and if so, why. I am interested to see the effect of self-perceived mate value on partner selection, preference fulfillment, and relationship satisfaction. Does the Euclidean mate value hold the same effect? I believe that the results of this study can provide insight into the mechanisms of partner selection and the complexities involved in this process.

1. THEORETICAL PART

1.1. Evolutionary psychology of mate choice

To successfully reproduce is a goal of every sexually reproducing organism and finding a romantic partner is one of the most important decisions a person can make (Conroy-Beam, 2021). Human mating is a strategic process that aims to maximize, match or balance their investment (Buss & Schmitt, 1993), and taking on a bad partner can be a very costly mistake (Jonason et al., 2015). Consequently, individuals who fail to attract a mate can face problems with reproduction (Apostolou & Eleftheriou, 2022).

From an evolutionary point of view, people choose this partner based on the historically reoccurring “adaptive problems” our human ancestors had to face in order to try and solve them (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). The ability to conquer these adaptive problems is then reflected in one’s own reproductive success. It is not the same for everybody. Men and women, in general, have faced different pressures on their reproductive success throughout evolution. This reality led men and women to develop different mating strategies to acquire a mate and reproduce successfully (Buss, 1989). Human mating strategies are context-dependent and were defined by Buss and Schmitt (1993) as “evolved solutions to adaptive problems, with no consciousness or awareness on the part of the strategist implied.”

In terms of the long-term mating process, men’s reproductive success has always been limited by their access to fertile women (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). Consequently, in order to overcome this limitation, men have to successfully identify a woman of high reproductive value and good parenting skills, who would also be willing to enter a long-term reproductive relationship. Therefore, in the case of male mate choice, searching for attractivity and health can ensure their mate is fertile (Fletcher et al., 1999). Trivers (1972) posits, that another adaptive problem men have to face is paternal uncertainty, because, unlike fathers, assigning a child to their biological mother is fairly easy. Accordingly, men have to ensure that they care for their own children and not someone else’s (Buss, 1989). To ensure this, men preferer women who possess such traits as warmth or loyalty (Fletcher et al., 1999). Female reproductive success has been limited by their ability to produce eggs (Trivers, 1972), the quality of their mates’ genes, and the number of resources they can acquire for themselves and their children. Consequently, women value potential mates’ qualities that predict future earning ability, such as ambition, industriousness, and financial capacity (Buss, 1989). Additionally, both men and women value the possession of some factors, like warmth,

trustworthiness, or intelligence which are implicative of one's own parental abilities (Fletcher, 1999).

1.1.1. Parental investment

The problems men and women face are reflected in different levels of parental investment. Trivers (1972) defined parental investment as any investment made by a parent into their offspring, which increases its chance of survival and subsequent reproductive success. Investing into one offspring may result in decreased investment into another offspring. Producing and caring for offspring is costly and challenging – parents must invest their finite sources, especially time and energy. Such investments are not the same for all. In the majority of mammal species, females are the more investing sex (Trivers, 1972).

As an example of the minimal male investment, producing sex cells during copulation can result in pregnancy. This is an at least 9-month long investment by women, which is demanding in terms of time, resources, and energy women have to provide, in order for the offspring to survive (Buss, 1989). The sex whose parental investment is lower will compete for access to the members of the other sex, whose investment is greater. Consequently, the more investing sex can be pickier in their mate choice (Trivers, 1972). Male investment is not strictly limited to their supply of sex cells. As already mentioned, women seek out potential partners with the ability to acquire resources. These resources provided by men can secure their mates and offspring with material advantage and the chance for the offspring to gain reproductive advantage thanks to their better social and economic background. Also, a possible advantage for their mate and offspring, is their heritable physical qualities, such as height, good health, or physical attractiveness (Buss, 1989). Attentiveness to such qualities as warmth and trustworthiness may increase their chances for a committed mate who may also signal good parenting skills (Fletcher et al., 1999). Consequently, the level of investment or the ability and willingness to contribute to parental care by a man should be one of the factors that influence female choice (Trivers, 1972).

1.1.2. Mate preferences

But what do people want in a partner? On what basis do they decide to enter a relationship? Conroy-Beam (2021) posits that in order to successfully select a potential mate out of a pool of multiple available partners, everybody must establish a set of preferences for a partner, to make this choice easier. Fletcher et al. (1999) posit, that before entering a relationship, a certain amount of partner and relationship evaluations take place. In these

evaluations, ideal preferences serve as a sort of knowledge structure, which then can be used as a comparison between ideal standards and the potential partner. The balance or imbalance between ideals and partner characteristics determines whether the relationship will be stable (Gerlach et al., 2019). Even though some may be culturally biased (Confer, et al. 2010), several researchers say that there may be factors that are universally taken into consideration while evaluating potential partners (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). During their potential, ideal, or actual partner evaluations, people can take into account all different kinds of factors. The seven-factor model proposed by Csajbók and Berkics (2017) can be used as an example. It consists of such factors as Warmth, Stability, Physical Appearance, Passion, Status, Intellect, or Dominance. Another useful model is the three-factor Ideal Standards Model proposed by Fletcher et al. (1999), which will be discussed below. Among all the traits of a partner that are presented to us, ideals can help us choose those traits that are relevant enough to be evaluated (Conroy-Beam, 2021). A person can develop such ideal standards with the help of their own relationship experience, through observing relationships of others, or by consuming incoming information about dating via TV shows, movies, novels, etc. (Fletcher et al., 1999). Ideals serve in either the evaluation of a current partner in an already existing relationship, or in evaluating a potential partner with whom there is no involvement yet. Ideal preferences might also drive people to actively seek out environments that exhibit a higher number of potential partners that match their preferences (Eastwick et al., 2018). Further, men and women take into consideration different factors and characteristics before entering a relationship (Regan, 1998). These sex differences in these preferences are a consequence of the differential parental investment, as explained above (Trivers, 1972).

It is not always possible for people to get the ideal partner they want. Sometimes it is necessary for people to compromise and choose a mate who is not perfectly up to their ideal standards. Regan (1998) suggested several factors moderating ideal preferences and mate choice. Three factors play a role in moderating one's own ideal preferences: a) the sex (suggesting that women are less open to compromise their ideal standards), b) relationship context (whether we look for something casual or for a serious relationship), and c) self-perceived mate value (those who have high mate value may be less willing to change or lower their standards than those with low mate value). Meanwhile, not only ideal preferences, but mate choice is also limited by one's own mate value, the freedom to choose our own mate, and the number of actual mates that are available to us (Regan, 1998). Consequently, it is adaptive to bear such limitations in mind and either adjust to them or

come to terms with our own mating potential. Since the basis on which people choose their mates is not immutable, they can and do adjust them under numerous pressures. For example, previous research has found that people have certain minimum standards and that they know which characteristics they would prefer and which they would settle for in a potential partner (Li et al., 2002). People appear to be forming minimum standards for some characteristics, and then choosing one group of characteristics over the others (Regan, 1998). For example, while men prioritize physical attractiveness, kindness, and intelligence, women prioritize such traits as kindness, intelligence, and status (Li & Kenrick, 2006). Overall, in potential, ideal, or actual partner evaluations, the Ideal Standards Model has proved to be very effective.

1.1.3. Ideal Standards Model

Fletcher et al. (1999) found that the qualities of an ideal partner could be summarized into three different factors: warmth-trustworthiness, vitality-attractiveness, and status-resources. Furthermore, relationship ideals were formed by two elements: relationship intimacy-loyalty (how important was intimacy and stability), and relationship passion (how exciting and passionate the relationship was). Based on these findings they developed the so-called Ideal Standards Model, in order to understand the role and significance of partner and relationship ideals in intimate relationships (Fletcher & Simpson, 2000).

As already mentioned, there are three main dimensions according to the Ideal Standards Model, against which partner or relationship ideals should be evaluated: a) warmth, commitment, and intimacy; b) health, passion, and attractiveness; and c) status and resources (Fletcher et al., 1999; Fletcher & Simpson, 2000). By being mindful of a potential partner's ability to exhibit warmth and to commit, one can secure a partner who will be cooperative, who can be trusted, and who will also likely be a good parent. Paying attention to their health and attractiveness might be an indicator of overall vitality – a possible sign that these good qualities may be inherited by their future offspring. Additionally, potential mates' ability to provide may not only mean future material support for the family but also a possibility that the partner could form alliances with other people who can acquire social status and resources (Fletcher & Simpson, 2000). The Ideal Standards Model also proposed that ideals have three functions: evaluation, explanation, and regulation (Fletcher & Simpson, 2000). Evaluations of a relationship can be based on the balance between ideal standards and perceptions of the current partner or relationship. These comparisons can be then used to evaluate the relationship and regulate it (Fletcher et al., 1999). For example, the

discrepancies between ideals and current partner or relationship perceptions could be used to a) determine the appropriateness (the quality) by evaluating either the partner or the relationship; b) provide an explanation or understanding of relationship events (e.g., relationship problems, conflicts, or satisfaction); c) regulate the relationship by making adjustments, to predict or even control either the partner or the relationship (Fletcher & Simpson, 2000).

Most couples are aware of the costs of relationship conflicts, which naturally leads them to try and see their partner in the best possible light in order to avoid them. Fletcher and Simpson (2000) use as an example the fact, that even though 50 % of marriages in Western countries end in divorce, people still go on and get married. Therefore, a certain level of confidence is needed to commit to a long-term relationship. Taking these factors into account, psychological pressures are in play in making judgments about one's partner. The relationship itself must be strong in order to neutralize these forces – this might explain the enhancement tendencies in relationships. When the need to enhance either a partner or a relationship occurs, people tend to reduce the discrepancy between the partner ideals and the actual partner. There are certain cognitive strategies available for the reduction of these discrepancies. For example, changing the importance of the characteristics, the evaluation of the partner, or justifying contradictions. People want to believe that the traits possessed by their partners are the ones they value. Their ideals may shift in response to the current partners' characteristics to match them better (Eastwick et al., 2018). The predictive power of ideal partner preferences can be summed in an A – B – C model. Meaning when A: one's ideal partner preferences, and B: of their current/potential partner predict C: evaluative outcomes, such as attraction or relationship satisfaction (Eastwick et al. 2018). Fletcher and Simpson (2000) suggest that such processes occur outside of our consciousness. But when important decisions must be made in a relationship (e.g., marriage, divorce), or when relationship problems occur, people are motivated to pay more careful attention to these ideal-perception discrepancies. Eastwick et al. (2018) suggest that an A – B model (i.e., a positive correlation between one's own ideals and their current partner's traits) should be used in understanding choices and evaluations within the relationship. Consequently, in order to reduce negative forces in the relationship, people often lean towards behavioral strategies, aiming to change their or their partners' behavior to make it work.

1.2. Context differences

It is generally assumed, that before settling down into a long-term relationship, people have to reject a lot of unsuitable partners (Joel & Charlot, 2020), and during the process of relationship formation potential partners are filtered and evaluated, as they present more and more information about themselves, which may lead to changes in romantic interest (Jonason et al., 2020). If people's minimal standards regarding physical attractiveness are met, they start to gather additional information about less visible characteristics, such as values, habits, or personality traits, and decide whether to stay in the relationship or move on to another potential partner (Li et al., 2002).

After finding out that the person of relationship interest possessed undesirable characteristics, people tend to lose interest in settling down in a relationship with that person. At the same time, after discovering favorable characteristics, the interest in forming a relationship arises (Jonason et al., 2020). Opinions or evaluations of presented traits may also differ in different relationship contexts, whether it would be casual or serious or whether the relationship would be short-term or long-term. This reality is linked to the adaptive problems people face in each context (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). When it comes to pursuing short-term relationships, both men and women face different costs and benefits of such encounters (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). Taking into account the different levels of parental investment from the sexes and the fact, that the successful reproduction of men depends on the number of sexually available women they can access – men are less selective in their choice of short-term mating partners. Additionally, men who intend to pursue short-term relationships tend to avoid women who demand large investments or commitment, because that might mean they want a long-term relationship. Despite the higher costs associated with short-term relationships, women still do pursue them. One of the reasons they do so is for the chance of immediate acquisition of resources from their short-term mates. Female reproductive success is not as limited by access to other sexually available individuals as male is, yet short-term copulations may bring easier reproduction success for women. But female reproductive costs are much higher, due to the physically demanding pregnancy and overall higher investment in their offspring (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). Additionally, women may also seek out short-term engagements in order to find a long-term relationship partner. Through several short-term mates, a woman can establish her own mate value and transfer that knowledge into demands, based on which she then evaluates potential partners with the intention of finding a long-term one. For women, one of the benefits of the persuasion of

long-term relationships is the constant access to their partners' resources and their parental investment. On the contrary, men might want to pursue long-term relationships in order to take advantage of the lifelong reproductive resources of their partners. Furthermore, long-term relationships might, for both men and women, increase the chances of survival of their offspring (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). In general, the process of choosing a mate was shaped by psychological mechanisms that aimed to ensure one's survival and reproduction (Jonason et al., 2015). But what are some of the traits that people find attractive or repulsive?

1.2.1. Dealmakers

A large body of mate choice research has been focused on dealmakers – traits that people desire in potential partners (Jonason et al., 2015). Researchers have been asking such questions, as what it is that people desire in a potential partner, and what causes their romantic interest? To begin at the very start of relationship formation, there stands the process of flirting. In today's society where people are free to choose the partner they want, the ability to flirt is essential. It serves as a "tool," or a process used to attract and obtain mates (Apostolou & Eleftheriou, 2022). During this process, it is important to show off one's good qualities and to present themselves as a great potential candidate for a relationship, but if it is overdone, it can cause a problem. Apostolou and Christoforou (2020) examined what are some of the dealmakers in flirting. Acts like intense gaze, smiling, or a gentle approach were seen as green flags in flirting. Passing through the flirting process, we proceed to the initial relationship formation, where there are other traits that make people want to get to stay in the relationship. As already mentioned, a large part of the mate choice research has been focused on dealmakers. Several researchers brought up different traits, habits, factors, or psychological characteristics, that people desire in their potential partner, or that can even make them want to proceed into building a relationship.

Focusing more on the long-term relationship context, women take characteristics related to resources and social status as necessities in a relationship, while men put more emphasis on a partner's physical attractiveness and overall health (Buss, 1989; Buss and Barnes, 1986; Li et al., 2002; Trivers, 1972). Other important factors such as warmth and trustworthiness signal that a person would be a good and considerate parent. It could show that they like children, and are kind, domestic, and artistic (Buss and Barnes, 1986). Consequently, a good partner should dispose of personal and parenting qualities, be attractive, socially visible, and have high status (Simon & Gangestad, 1992). Very similar to this are the dimensions proposed by Fletcher et al. (1999): warmth-trustworthiness, vitality-

attractiveness, and status-resources. Csajbók and Berkics (2017) presented seven dealmaker factors, each measuring several characteristics of dealmaker information about a partner. One's Warmth (loving, supporting); Stability (patient, calm); Physical Appearance (attractive, good body); Passion (sensual, good in bed); Status (good job, financial status); Intellect (intelligent, smart); and Dominance (self-confident, brave). Additional positive information, that might make a person want to start a relationship with an individual could be, that they are kind to strangers, tell great jokes, can cook well, or even that they own a puppy (Jonason et al., 2020). In general, people who are kind, compassionate, and caring will likely look out for the well-being of their partners, whilst those who are selfish and lack kindness or empathy will not make good partners, because they will probably treat their loved one terribly.

1.2.2. Dealbreakers

In the early stages of establishing relationships, Apostolou and Eleftheriou (2022) conducted their research not only on dealmakers but also on dealbreakers of flirting. Dealbreakers are negative traits that people avoid (Jonason et al., 2015) or find off-putting and therefore see the suitor be less appealing as a mate (Apostolou & Eleftheriou, 2022). During the flirting process, people find the most off-putting slimy approach, bad hygiene, and disinterest. Age may play a part in the recognition of flirting dealbreakers, as young people are less picky, which leads them to lower their ideal standards and thus are less sensitive to dealbreakers. This is probably because they are less interested yet in settling down in a long-term relationship. In contrast, older people seek out long-term relationships, and due to more relationship experience, they are more skilled when it comes to identifying dealbreakers (Apostolou and Eleftheriou, 2022).

In response to the already mentioned large part of mate choice research which focused mainly on dealmakers, Jonason et al. (2015) posit, that people may put more emphasis on dealbreakers than they do on dealmakers. That is, people weigh dealbreakers more negatively than they weigh dealmakers positively. Mistakenly identifying a bad relationship partner as a good one may be an even costlier error than passing up a good one. This may be a reason why people put more effort into avoiding dealbreakers than foregoing dealmakers, especially in the early stages of attraction and forming a relationship (Jonason et al., 2015). Joel and Charlot (2022) suggest that adapting a two-parallel mate choice strategy, meaning looking out for dealmakers just as avoiding dealbreakers, might help

people to be more successful in their partner selection and provide a faster and less exhausting way to reject unsuitable partners until an acceptable one is obtained.

Jonason et al. (2015) put dealbreakers in association with unhealthy behavior in friendship, romantic and sexual contexts. Poor health and bad personality characteristics are generally considered dealbreakers in all relationship contexts. Among other factors that are viewed as negative or unacceptable belong anger issues, promiscuity, untrustworthiness, health issues such as STDs, alcohol or drug problems, bad smell, or that the person is already in a relationship, married, or has children. Even difficulties with adopting things such as music, fashion, religion, or diet may be perceived as dealbreakers (Jonason et al., 2015, 2020). As previously done with dealmakers, Csajbók and Berkics (2022) put together seven dealbreaker factors, which measure several dealbreaker characteristics of a partner. Participants considered Unambitious (indecisive, dependent); Hostile (unfriendly, grumpy); Filthy (dirty, stinky); Arrogant (opinionated, egotistic); Unattractive (ugly, bad body type); Clingy (sentimental, insistent); and Abusive (aggressive, violent) to be dealbreakers.

People react differently when they are exposed to either dealmaker or dealbreaker information about the partner they were initially attracted to. When learning about dealmaker information, more narcissistic or extroverted people, or those who self-report bigger mating success may change their opinion more easily than introverted, non-narcissistic people. Neurotic or diligent individuals, who live cautiously may prefer order and cleanliness in both the partner and the relationship (Jonason et al., 2011). In their subsequent study, Jonason et al. (2020) examined individual differences in people's reactions to being exposed to either a dealbreaker or dealmaker information about the person to whom they were initially attracted to. When confronted with dealmakers, changes in interest were linked to extraversion, narcissism, higher self-perceived mating success (linked to Jonason et al., 2011), and sexual disgust. When confronted with dealbreakers, changes in interest were negatively correlated with psychopathy and sociosexuality but correlated positively with agreeableness or conscientiousness. That is, people who are more agreeable tolerated dealbreakers less, whereas people who have more psychopathy tolerated dealbreakers more. There are also sex differences in how both sexes react to presented information about a partner and what they consider to be dealbreakers. Men care more about the expected outcome of investing in the relationship – thus they mind more if their partner of interest has a low sex drive, has children, or lives too far away from them. Women perceive laziness, low self-confidence, and neediness as dealbreakers more than men do as these indicate low ability and willingness

to invest in their offspring (Jonason et al., 2015). But eventually, after these filtering processes, what kind of a partner do people start a relationship with? Even though people's partner preferences may differ, they all rely on similar mechanisms while choosing a mate.

1.3. Assortative mating

For a relationship to occur in the first place, mate selection requires mutual interest from both partners, and up to some point, that selection is guided by our ideal preferences. The fit of one's own ideal preferences and the characteristics of the actual relationship partner could determine whether the relationship will be stable. If there are inconsistencies between the two, the relationship is less likely to endure (Gerlach et al., 2019).

There have been various pieces of evidence supporting that men and women are drawn to similar partners. Luo (2017) posits that similarities between partners can arise at different times during the relationship. Either at the very beginning of the relationship (thus it is the result of partner selection) or later (as a result of partner interaction throughout the relationship). Assortative mating refers to that initial similarity evident at the beginning of the relationship and can be defined as an intentional pairing of individuals based on their shared resemblance in one or more characteristics. In plain words, it is the tendency of people to mate with those who resemble themselves (Buss & Barnes, 1986; Versluys et al., 2021). This similarity reflects either active or passive assortment in the relationship (Luo, 2017). Active assortment implies that people actively seek out partners who are similar to them on a certain level, which can lead to relationships or marriages showing a pattern of shared similarities. In contrast to that, social homogamy suggests that people get together in a relationship simply on the basis of their shared/similar social background, social environment, or socioeconomic status (Watson et al., 2004). Buss and Schmitt (1993) suggested that for example, social class may determine what potential mates one meets. Individuals in the same social circle may possess similar social skills and socioeconomic status and may even be on a similar level of intelligence. Li et al. (2002) followed up on this proposition and presented an example: a college-educated woman does not have to worry about the social status or the earning ability of the potential partners who are available to her, because in this sense they are all similar. To that end, Luo (2017) added that homogamy can also be the cause of social inequalities in the population.

The similarity in couples can be ordered based on the strength of correlation in various characteristics. The strongest similarities were in attitudes and demographic variables, moderate similarities were found to be in well-being, interests, values, and

intelligence, thanks to the contribution of active choice and better visibility (meaning it is easier to spot them for potential suitors) of these traits. In contrast, because of the low visibility of physical and personality characteristics, these showed the weakest similarities in couples (Luo, 2017).

Watson et al. (2004) conducted research where they performed an analysis of assortative mating between newlywed couples. In this research, participants rated themselves and their spouses on various characteristics. This assortment could be either positive – established as positive correlations between the scores of both partners in the same characteristics, or negative (complementarity) when their scores correlated negatively. The results showed strong similarities among the characteristics of the newlyweds. Similarities were the highest in age (which was one of the most strongly correlated variables), political orientation, and religiousness. A moderate similarity was shown in the reached level of education. This suggests that positive assortment in basic values and attitudes plays a big part in the mating process.

In other research, the link between similarity and attraction has been attributed to projection. Morry (2005) concluded that attraction leads to the perception of similarity. Morry described the attraction hypothesis as continuing self-projection onto the other person which then results in attraction between the two people. Commenting on the early experiments regarding similarity-attraction between strangers, Morry (2005) suggested that once there is an actual relationship between two people, attraction should lead to the perception of similarity between partners on various traits, behaviors, and beliefs. But what would lead people to this kind of self-projection? Projecting themselves onto the other might make them believe that their partner is their soulmate (Murray et al., 2002). This belief might contribute to a more satisfying relationship (Murray et al., 1996). Does couple similarity change with time? Do couples become more alike throughout the relationship? People may become more alike over time, under the influence of increased familiarity between partners, mutual interactions, and synchronized routines. This process can be referred to as the convergence hypothesis. Luo (2017) considers convergence as a possible mechanism of the ongoing development of similarity throughout the relationship. It can be either movement towards the other, or mutual movement met halfway (Laubu et al., 2016). In contrast to the convergence hypothesis, Morry (2005) found that the length of the relationship did not predict the perception of similarity. People might not necessarily develop more similarities over a longer period of time. Watson et al. (2004) argue that substantial similarity in couples

is just a sign of initial assortment rather than convergence. In conclusion, assortative mating refers to a tendency to pursue potential partners who resemble themselves. Understanding this strategy can provide valuable insight into mate selection dynamics.

1.3.1. Predictive validity

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) proposed the so-called Interdependence Theory. This theory suggests, that while comparing their standards with an actual experience, people expect certain outcomes of that situation. Inadequate outcomes make them feel distressed and take action to correct the situation. The Interdependence Theory can be applied to mate choice if we put individuals' expectations about their future partner on the line.

Ideal partner preferences are functional, they led our ancestors to the mates they preferred, leading them to improve their own mating success (Eastwick et al., 2014). But recent research suggested that partner preferences may not play such a big part in mate choice, as it seems. This leads to questioning the predictive validity hypothesis of partner preferences. The assumption is that people should rate their partners until their traits and characteristics match their own ideals – meaning they should evaluate new potential partners until they find someone satisfactory (Eastwick et al., 2018). However, do partner preferences indeed predict the future partner's characteristics? Or instead, do people adjust their own preferences to match those of their partners'?

Eastwick et al. (2014) conducted a study while relying on Fletcher et al.'s (1999) Ideal Standards Model to explore the predictive validity of ideal partner preferences. They suggested that whether ideal partner preferences do or do not demonstrate predictive validity might depend on the context of the attraction evaluation settings. Corresponding with the previous research they also posit that, unlike in hypothetical situations, in actual face-to-face interactions participants' choices do not appear to be connected to their ideal partner preferences. Consistent with this notion is the research conducted by Wood and Brumbaugh (2009). They found that ideal partner preferences do carry predictive validity in situations, where individuals are evaluating descriptions of potential partners that they have not yet met. Through an online study, Gerlach et al. (2019) followed a large group of single individuals across possible transitions to romantic relationships over a five-month period. Gerlach et al. (2019) set a hypothesis that partner preferences are predictive of the future partner. This assumption was supported by modest effect sizes across all of the investigated dimensions (warmth-trustworthiness, vitality-attractiveness, and status-resources; obtained from Fletcher et al., 1999). Additionally, they found that the sexes did not differ, except for the

vitality-attractiveness dimension, where male preferences better predicted later partners than female preferences did. Gerlach et al. (2019) suggest, that even if one's own preferences could predict the kind of partner they pursued, the whole prediction would be dependent on the mutuality of the relationship and whether such partner was available. For example, even though some people would fit each other's preferences perfectly, they might not enter a relationship together, simply because of unavailability. They either lived far away from each other or were already engaged in a relationship with someone else.

1.3.2. Relationship satisfaction

Murray et al. (1996) conducted a study asking participants, both married and dating individuals, to rate themselves and their partners, their typical and ideal partners on certain attributes. These evaluations revealed that the perceptions of their partners were rather projections of their own self-images and ideals rather than the actual partners' self-reported attributes. Participants who saw themselves positively projected their self-images onto their partners. Those who had a more negative self-view did too, but not to the same extent. Participants saw their partners in a more idealized image than their partners saw themselves. Couples were happier and more satisfied when the idealization was mutual. This is why Murray et al. (1996) suggest a so-called reflected illusion hypothesis, implying that some level of idealization might be necessary for a satisfying relationship. In accordance to this, Gerlach et al (2019) also suggested that individuals who entered a relationship with partners who did not stand up to their preferences had to flexibly adjust their preferences or the view of their partners to match them better. Such idealization of one's own partner can be referred to as a "positive illusion" (Weinstein, 1980). But these idealizations should resemble their partner's self-perception to the level of their shared social reality. Murray et al. (1996) explain, that "in satisfying relationships, the pleasure principle may overwhelm the reality principle." Consequently, in order to maintain a satisfying relationship people should perceive their partner in a better light, but not overdo it.

But, despite these arguments, people were more satisfied in a relationship or even in marriage with somebody who saw them in the best light possible, not when their perception matched their own self-image (Swann et al., 1992). Idealized partners might be happier in their relationship because their partners treat them as somebody special. This reality could encourage them to live up to the idealized images of their significant other (Snyder & Swann, 1978). On the other hand, people satisfied with their partners tend to attribute their negative characteristics not to them, but rather to the unstable and unpredictable features of the given

situation (Bradbury & Fincham, 1990). So, in relationships, partners are often maximizing each other's virtues and minimizing faults (Murray et al., 1996).

The perception of similarity should correlate with relationship satisfaction. The attraction-similarity hypothesis suggests that the more satisfied a person is with their significant other, the more similarities they perceive in them (Morry, 2005). The level of satisfaction influenced among other things, the level of agreement in the relationship. This might suggest that the attraction-similarity hypothesis is linked to more general beliefs and not only to traits and behaviors (Morry, 2005). In contrast, Watson et al. (2004) suggest that similarity has very little effect on the whole relationship. In fact, it may pose the biggest influence just at the very beginning of the relationship, during the determination process of whether the relationship will lead to further commitment or not. Dryer and Horowitz (1997) took an alternative position in this matter. They posit that what makes two people appear more attractive to each other and the relationship more satisfying is objective complementarity. In their research, they paired two individuals, one of submissive interacting nature and one of dominant interacting nature. These couples had to complete a series of tasks. Complementary partnerships, where one person was of dominant and one of submissive nature reported high satisfaction with their partner. Couples that were similar to each other reported lower satisfaction. Overall interaction satisfaction strongly depends on whether partners correctly interpret the other's goal and behave accordingly to that interpretation. Dryer and Horowitz (1997) posit, that every interacting behavior sends an invitation for a particular response/reaction from the partner. Submissive wants dominant and dominant wants submissive, compliance leads to satisfaction, mismatch to dissatisfaction. They also suggest the possibility, that people might not realize the source of their satisfaction. When they are satisfied, they view their partner as similar to themselves. This led to the conclusion that liking might lead to perceived similarity and not the other way around (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997).

1.4. Mate value

As already mentioned, one of the factors that moderate the mate choice process is a person's mate value (Regan, 1998). Ellis and Kelley (1999) conducted an experiment in a class full of students called The Pairing Game. This experiment was the perfect imitation of the principles of the mating market and how it is affected by the mate value of individuals involved in this process. The whole experiment aimed to imitate the processes of the mating

market. How people can match with others of similar mate value while not knowing their own, and how they can find out this value through interacting with other individuals.

At first, students were given an index card with a numerical value which they then placed on their foreheads for others to see, without having seen their own assigned value. The task given to the students was to try and match with other students of the highest possible value while not knowing their own. Everybody had to choose only one partner. At the very beginning of the process, students with the highest values paired with others of high value “automatically”, simply by noticing the interest or disinterest in their own value and the highest value of others. Pairings of the “high value” students led to them being excluded from the process, and the remaining students of slightly lower values had to pair with each other. This process was repeated until students with the very lowest value were left to settle with each other. During the second version of the experiment, students were given a list of three adjectives ranging from positive to negative, and the whole matching process was repeated. It was revealed that the process was working best when the adjectives were more on the positive side rather than the negative. The results were similar to the results of the first version of the experiment, where students were paired with other students of similar numerical value. The numerical values used in the experiment symbolize the evaluations people do among each other and the adjective values the information we can get about a person. Though the outcomes were similar, the numerical value version led to quicker, mechanical pairings, while the adjective value version was slower and made students contemplate and negotiate for their matches. Overall, the results seen in this experiment are a true reflection of what we can see in real life on the mating market. Edlund and Sagarin (2014) defined mate value as the tendency of individuals to form relationships with others who possess a similar level of attractiveness or overall desirability as a potential mate.

Ellis and Kelley (1999) stated that during the experiment as well as in real-life situations, people could pursue two different strategies. The equalization strategy and the maximization strategy. They pointed out, that surprisingly, both of these strategies might bring the same outcome. That is, through both the equalization strategy and maximization strategy, individuals can end up with a partner who is matching to their own attractiveness. Through the equalization strategy, people look for partners who are on a similar level of attractiveness as themselves. If individuals pursue the maximization strategy, they look for the most attractive partner they can find. Thus, the maximization strategy can lead to pairings of similar partners thanks to the elimination process of the less suitable partners. Leaving

the most attractive individuals to pair with each other, the less attractive with each other, and so on. The use of both of these strategies was apparent during the experiment.

1.4.1. Self-perceived mate value

Mate value can be also defined as an individual's desirability, or an overall evaluation of one's own value (Buss & Schmitt, 2019) to others as a potential mate in a reproductive relationship (Brase & Guy, 2004). An equivalent of mate value has been shown in numerous animal species, for example, budgerigars (Moravec et al., 2006). It is important from the adaptive point of view to correctly perceive one's own mate value. This self-perceived mate value should reflect how easily a person can obtain a partner (Csajbók et al., 2023). Since self-perceived mate value is evaluated by individuals themselves and compared to the mate value of potential competition, our own self-perceived mate value is dependent on how we evaluate others (Fischer et al., 2008). We cannot be entirely sure, whether the stated qualities are just self-perceived, or actually possessed. Csajbók et al. (2019) agree with this statement by saying that one's own perception of their mate value may not be the same as others see them. In this regard, self-perceived mate value might resemble self-esteem rather than objective mate value. Still, correctly perceiving one's own mate value can help them to avoid wasting energy, time, and other resources while trying to compete for mates of too high mate value. At the same time, it prevents wasting them on a mate of too low mate value, who might compromise their chances of having viable offspring (Regan, 1998). A significant life period for this is adolescence, where people can practice mate choice on the mating market by experimenting within the dating field and experiencing mating offers and rejections. Based on those experiences they can set certain expectations about "how high they can aim" on the mating market (Miller & Todd, 1998).

1.4.2. On the dating market

Several factors have been said to influence self-perceived mate value and desirability. Traits such as warmth, trustworthiness, and intelligence implicate what kind of a parent would an individual be (Fletcher et al., 1999). Also, traits that are preferred by either men or women, such as physical attractiveness and access to resources, respectively (Buss, 1989). While indicating their mate value, women should consider their youth, attractiveness, and health (Goodwin, 1999). Men should consider their social status, dominance, and ability to acquire resources (Buss, 1988). People from different cultures put emphasis on different traits (Buss, 1989). For example, such characteristics as being humorous or cultured, or sociable may be considered particularly important in richer societies (Goodwin et al., 2012).

Also, other factors have been said to influence personal desirability, for example being in a committed relationship as well as marriage. Being a part of a relationship shows other people who would be interested in that person, that since they are wanted (thus have experienced mating success), they must be valuable as a partner (Brase & Guy, 2004; Csajbók et al., 2023; Regan, 1998).

The whole idea of mate value is based on supply and demand dynamics (Noë & Hammerstein, 1995). The more you can offer the more you can get. According to Goodwin et al. (2012), people who believe they do not possess (or possess very low amounts) of desired characteristics feel less confident about their ability to attract a partner. If a person disposes of too many or too few desired characteristics, they will be excluded from the list of potential partners for many (Regan, 1998). While looking for the best possible mate, those with high mate value will pair with others of high mate value, same as those with low mate value will pair with those of low mate value. This whole process will lead to the coupling of people of equal or similar mate value (this can be observed also in the Ellis and Kelley, 1999 experiment). Across different cultures, high mate value individuals seem to experience bigger mate choice power on the mating market and pair with others of high mate value due to their high set standards and their ability to better fulfill their partner preferences (Conroy-Beam, 2019). These individuals are difficult to attract. Simultaneously, forming a relationship with high mate value individuals requires more resources in terms of overall investment in order to keep them in the relationship (Conroy-Beam et al., 2016). If a high mate value individual rejected or broke up with somebody of also high mate value, they would risk that they would have to settle for someone who would not fulfill their preferences that well. At the same time, rejecting someone who did not live up to one's standards allows the opportunity to find somebody better, somebody of higher mate value (Conroy-Beam et al., 2016). Regardless, it is rare to find a partner that would satisfy all of one's preferences and needs. For most people mate choice is a process involving lots of compromises and trade-offs. Having to sacrifice fulfillment of some preferences to have others fulfilled (Conroy-Beam et al., 2016).

Edlund and Sagarin (2010) conducted a study where they examined whether mate value affected the design of a mate among participants in budgeted (with limited resources) and unbudgeted (with unlimited resources for the mate design) settings. The mate designs in the budgeted task showed inconsistent patterns of results, whereas the unbudgeted task showed, that participants higher in mate value were more demanding and designed a mate

with higher levels of desirable and relevant traits. A possible explanation for this is that if an individual has a partner who has high levels of desirable traits, it might reflect on that individual's own mate value. Their results also pointed out that there were differences between the designs among the sexes. The designed mates displayed sex differences in creativity, attractiveness, yearly income, and friendliness. Concluding the results of this study, Edlund and Sagarin (2010) posit that mate value does indeed guide ideal mate design, thus affects the mate choice process.

1.4.3. The Euclidean Mate Value and Preference Fulfillment

There have been done many studies on mate preferences and mate choice. But regardless of this literature, we still do not know how people combine all the obtained information on multiple preferences into an overall evaluation of their potential partners (Conroy-Beam, 2017). During the mate choice process, every person meets a series of imperfect individuals that do not fulfill their mate preferences entirely. Selecting among these imperfect individuals requires psychology, that would be able to integrate the standing of that individual on each preference into their overall value as a mate (Conroy-Beam et al., 2019). Conroy-Beam (2017) raised a hypothesis saying that people merge their ideal partner preferences according to the Euclidean algorithm. Also, those perceived as more desirable based on the Euclidean calculations experience greater mate choice power on the mating market. Conroy-Beam (2017) additionally proposed that the Euclidean algorithm should be able to do more than just assess partners' mate value. It should also be able to predict other outcomes, such as courtship behaviors, emotions, thoughts, and behaviors surrounding the ending of a relationship (Conroy-Beam, 2017).

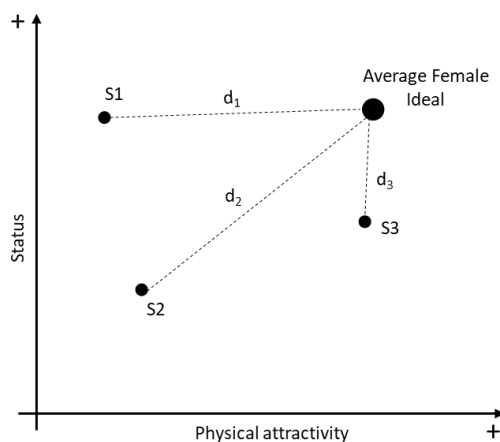


Figure 1. Male Euclidean mate value

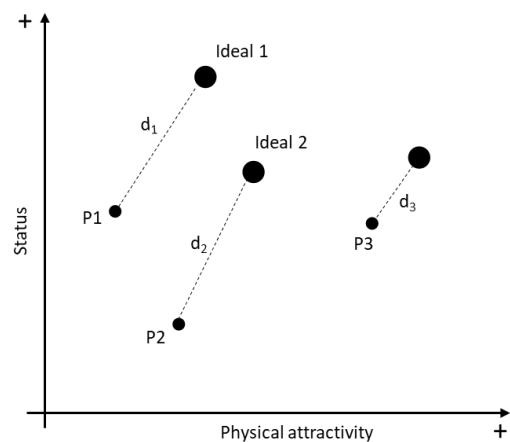


Figure 2. Preference Fulfillment

In this algorithm, mate value is proportional to the distance between two points – the ideal partner preference and the potential mate within the n-dimensional space (where n is the number of partner preference characteristics measured). Figure 1 shows the notional rankings of three potential partners on the status-physical attractiveness axes. The Euclidean mate value is the straight-line distance between the ideal partner of the opposite sex and the participants' self-ratings as potential partners (S1, S2, and S3). In this case, only male mate value is measured, so the "Average Female Ideal" is the average of just female ideal partner preferences. The shorter the distance between the participants' self-ratings (S1, S2, and S3) and the ideal partner, the higher the mate value is. Therefore, in this case, participant S3 has the highest mate value (since $d_3 < d_{1,2}$). Consequently, the mentioned distance is referred to as the Euclidean mate value. This calculation of the straight-line distance is performed as the square root of the summed squared differences between the opposite sex's average ideals and the participants' evaluation of themselves on each rated characteristic.

Apart from measuring the mate value, the Euclidean algorithm can be also used for the calculations of preference fulfillment (Conroy-Beam et al., 2016). In Figure 2, we see the status-physical attractiveness axes on which three participants rated their three actual partners (P1, P2, and P3) and their own ideal partners (Ideal 1, Ideal 2, and Ideal 3). Like in Figure 1, the smaller the linear distance between the actual partner's rating and the ideal partner, the more their personal preferences were met (i.e., the more preference fulfillment they experienced). Participant 3's partner was rated the closest to Participant 3's personal ideal partner preferences because $d_3 < d_{1,2}$, thus, Participant 3 had the strongest mate choice power and best preference fulfillment.

With such calculations, the Euclidean algorithm can consider countless ideal partner preferences and then integrate them into a mate value variable (Conroy-Beam, 2017). If there are large deviations on any of the dimensions in the n-dimensional space, it can significantly lower mate value, despite the attractiveness of other dimensions. The Euclidean algorithm favors those individuals who fulfill multiple preferences and disfavors those who do not (Conroy-Beam, 2017). People's actual partners appear at a short distance from their ideal partner preferences within the n-dimensional space (Conroy-Beam et al., 2019).

In comparison to other alternative models, the Euclidean model proved to perform better (Conroy-Beam & Buss, 2017). The overall predictive power of the Euclidean algorithm derives from its ability to approximate actual underlying processes of human mating psychology (Conroy-Beam et al., 2016). Regardless, it is rare to find a partner that

would satisfy all of one's preferences and needs. For most people mate choice is a process involving lots of compromises and trade-offs. People have to sacrifice fulfillment of some preferences to have others fulfilled (Conroy-Beam et al., 2016). However, they posit that through the careful consideration of multiple preferences, we can find a long-term partner that would stand up to our overall preferences, despite not meeting all individual preferences.

1.5 Research questions

In the present research, I explored four research questions. First (RQ1), was any sex more successful in fulfilling their partner preferences? Since all individuals have their own set of specific partner preferences (Fletcher et al., 1999) and apart from individual differences there are also differences between the sexes (Li & Kenrick, 2006), are there also differences in their preference fulfillment? Second (RQ2), how does Euclidean mate value compare to self-evaluated mate value? I was testing the relationship between Euclidean mate value and self-perceived mate value. Since self-perceived mate value is really perceived by individuals themselves, one might contemplate whether it is really what they are like, or how they perceive themselves (Csajbók et al., 2019), maybe even who they wish they were. I explored how this self-perceived mate value compares to a more mechanical and foremost, calculated approach of Euclidean mate value. Third (RQ3), do high mate value people experience greater mate choice power? Aware of the fact that this question has been already examined in research (Conroy-Beam, 2017; 2019), it has not been yet explored among Czech participants nor using dealbreakers. There is various research suggesting that individuals actively seek out self-similar potential partners. Some researchers posit that similarity can occur at any point in the relationship (Luo, 2017) and some claim it to be a result of self-projection (Morry, 2005). These findings led me to my fourth (RQ4) and final question, do people choose partners who are similar to themselves?

1.5.1. Hypotheses

- H1.1.: Women are more demanding than men in partner preferences except for physical attractiveness.
- H1.2.: Participants' partner preferences and their self-evaluation and their partner evaluation positively correlate with each other.
- H2.1.: Correlations in H 1.2. are moderated by self-evaluated mate value and by Euclidean mate value.
- H2.2.: Self-evaluated mate value and Euclidean mate value correlate with preference fulfillment and relationship satisfaction.

2. EMPIRICAL PART

2.1. Methods

2.1.1. Participants

This study was conducted on secondary data described in detail in Csajbók et al. (in prep). A total number of 2,682 Czech participants started the online questionnaire. After completion, 122 people had to be excluded from the sample because they did not give themselves or their partners any rating. Participants were of different sexual orientations. For this thesis, the focus of interest was only on heterosexual individuals who were in a relationship at the time. This was done because in heterosexual couples, the sex of the partner is clear and because single people did not evaluate their current partner. After excluding people who did not fit our chosen criteria the sample was reduced to the final number of 1,885 participants (42 % men) aged from 18-50 years (Mean age = 34,94; *SD* = 9,12; see in Table 1). The sample used in this paper was representative of the Czech Republic, but the frequencies deviated from the representative quota after the exclusion of non-heterosexual and single participants. In total, 67 % of participants lived in municipalities with up to 50 000 inhabitants (Table 2), and 63 % of participants earned less than 25 000 CZK a month. Participants have reached different levels of education (only 25 % attended the University; see in Table 3). Nearly 39 % of participants did not have children.

Table 1. Participants of the research

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Women	1091	57.9	57.9
Men	794	42.1	100.0
Total	1885	100.0	

Table 2. Size of residence of participants (presented as the number of inhabitants)

Size of Residence	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
up to 1 000	328	17.4	17.4
1 001 – 5 000	374	19.8	37.2
5 0001 – 2 000	328	17.4	54.6
20 001 – 50 000	234	12.4	67.1
50 001 – 100 000	192	10.2	77.2
over 100 000	429	22.8	100.0
Total	1885	100.0	

Table 3. The level of education reached by the participants

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Primary (even incomplete)	147	7.8	7.8
Highschool without a diploma	507	26.9	34.7
Graduated Highschool	717	38.8	72.2
Higher Vocational	49	2.6	75.3
University	465	24.7	100.0
Total	1885	100.0	

2.1.2. Measures

The participants rated themselves, their partner, and their ideal partner across 15 dimensions, seven positive (Warmth, Physical Appearance, Status, Intellect, Passion, Stability, Dominance; Csajbók and Berkics, 2017) and altogether eight negative (Unambitious, Hostile, Filthy, Arrogant, Unattractive, Clingy, Abusive; Csajbók & Berkics, 2022). Further, Depressiveness (pessimistic and depressed) was measured as the most common negative dimension that affects one’s well-being and relationship satisfaction (Lim et al., 2018; Li and Johnson, 2018). All 15 dimensions were identified by two characteristics matched with the factors in the original research e.g., “loving and caring” for Warmth: “calm and patient” for Stability (Csajbók and Berkics, 2017, 2022). In the questionnaire participants were asked, “To what extent do the following characteristics describe your ideal partner?”. Participants also rated themselves in self-perceived mate value – how attractive they are to others (see Table 4), and how satisfied they were with their relationships. Participants rated all these items on a Likert scale from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much) and their order in the questionnaire was randomized.

Table 4. Variables evaluated by the participants to measure positive and negative mate preferences, mate value, and satisfaction on a scale from 1 to 7

Warmth	Unambitious
loving, caring	indecisive, without ambition
Physical Appearance	Hostile
attractive, physically attractive	bad, rude
Status	Filthy
good social position and financial position	messy, careless of hygiene
Intellect	Arrogant
intelligent, educated	selfish, arrogant
Passion	Unattractive
passionate, good in bed	unattractive, physically unattractive
Stability	Clingy
calm, patient	emotionally dependent, demanding commitment
Dominance	Abusive
purposeful, confident	aggressive, violent
	Depressive
	pessimistic, depressed
Self-Perceived Mate Value	
How attractive do you think you are to others as a potential partner?	

Relationship Satisfaction
How satisfied are you with your relationship?

2.1.3. Procedure

Nationally representative data were collected through an online questionnaire thanks to the database of a Czech company National Panel. Only people who were over 18 years old were allowed to participate and all the participants gave their informed consent. The questionnaire was done through an online Qualtrics platform, and all participants received a reward for completing the questionnaire. Research and data collection was approved by the ethical board of the Second Faculty of Medicine, Charles University, Prague (Approval No. EK-291.1.8/21).

2.1.4. Data analysis

The empirical part is divided into three main parts. All statistics for this thesis were performed using the SPSS software (version 26). The first part is dedicated to partner preferences. Here I did descriptive statistics of the evaluation of self (the participant), current partner, and the ideal partner. I used independent samples t-tests to compare male and female ideals (evaluations of their ideal partners). Further, I conducted correlations between the evaluations of self x ideal, self x partner, and partner x ideal. Correlations were transformed into Fisher's z scores, averaged, and back-transformed into r coefficients. I compared these correlations between men and women with Fisher's z tests (<https://www.psychometrica.de/>).

The second part deals with self-perceived mate value itself and the moderating impact it has on the process of choosing a partner. To investigate that I used partial correlations between the evaluations of self x ideal, self x partner, and partner x ideal, where the controlling variable was the self-perceived mate value.

The effect of Euclidean mate value and the extent to which it differs from self-perceived mate value is discussed in the third part. Here, I calculated the Euclidean mate value for men and women and calculated their preference fulfillment. The Euclidean mate value calculation was performed as the square root of the summed squared differences between the opposite sex's average ideal and the participants' evaluation of themselves. While calculating men's Euclidean mate value I used the difference between women's average ideal ratings along the 15 factors and men's self-evaluation of the same factors and vice versa for the women's Euclidean mate value. Single individuals were included in the calculation of average male and female ideals, so the results were more ecologically valid (Table S1 in suppl.). The calculation of preference fulfillment was performed in a similar way. The square root of the summed squared differences between the evaluation of the ideal partner and the current partner were calculated as preference fulfillment for each individual.

To see the moderating impact Euclidean mate value and self-perceived mate value had on the zero-order correlations, I converted the zero-order correlations between self × ideal, self × partner, and partner × ideal, and the partial correlations controlled for mate value and partial correlations controlled for Euclidean mate value into Fisher's z scores. Then I calculated the difference between each value from the zero-order correlations and from the partial correlations controlled for self-perceived mate value and the difference between each value from the zero-order correlations and from partial correlations controlled for Euclidean mate value. I converted the results back into r values to see the differences expressed in

correlations. After that, I inspected which correlations were moderated by Euclidean mate value or self-perceived mate value the most. In the end, I correlated preference fulfillment with self-perceived mate value, Euclidean mate value, and relationship satisfaction across sex.

2.2. Results

2.2.1. Testing sex differences in ideal preferences, partner evaluation, and self-evaluation

Participants rated their ideal partner, themselves, and their current partner across 15 different factors. Among the positive factors, women gave the highest rating to Warm, Status, and Dominance, while men rated Attractive the highest in their ideal partner (see Table 5). Focusing on only the significant sex differences in the factor evaluations, the biggest sex difference in Ideal partner preferences was in Status, where women gave their ideal partner significantly higher ratings than men with a small to medium effect size ($t(1883) = 7.46, p < 0.001, D = 0.35$). While evaluating negative factors, women wanted their ideal partner to be less Unambitious, Hostile, Clingy, Abusive, and Depressive than men with generally small or small to medium effect sizes. Sex differences between the ratings of the remaining factors were non-significant.

When evaluating themselves (see Table 6), men perceived themselves to be higher in Status and Dominance. Women saw themselves as more Attractive than men did, and the biggest disparity was in the self-evaluation of Warm where women rated themselves higher than men with a medium effect size ($t(1883) = 10.34, p < 0.001, D = 0.47$). In negative factors, women rated themselves as Clingier, while men rated themselves as more Filthy, Arrogant, Unattractive, and Abusive.

In current partner evaluations (Table 7), women rated their partners significantly higher than men in Status, Passion, Dominance, and Filth. Men saw their partners as Warmer and more Attractive than women did, and at the same time, men saw them as more Clingy, Abusive and Depressive. The largest (in effect size) significant sex difference in rating was in Unambitious where men rated their current partners significantly higher than women ($t(1871) = 4.99, p < 0.001, D = 0.28$).

Table 5. Testing sex differences in ideal partner preferences

Factor	Sex	Mean	N	SD	t(df)	Cohen's D																																																																																																																																																							
Warm	Women	6.18	1091	1.15	2.41(1883)*	0.11																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	6.05	794	1.15			Attractive	Women	5.44	1091	1.33	-3.67(1883)***	0.17	Men	5.66	794	1.26	Status	Women	4.96	1091	1.46	7.46(1883)***	0.35	Men	4.44	794	1.51	Intellect	Women	5.58	1091	1.23	0.07(1883)	0.01	Men	5.57	794	1.23	Passion	Women	5.65	1091	1.35	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	5.61	794	1.39	Stability	Women	5.46	1091	1.53	1.08(1883)	0.05	Men	5.39	794	1.47	Dominance	Women	5.35	1091	1.33	4.16(1883)***	0,19	Men	5.09	794	1.34	Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30	Men	2.44	794	1.49	Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men
Attractive	Women	5.44	1091	1.33	-3.67(1883)***	0.17																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	5.66	794	1.26			Status	Women	4.96	1091	1.46	7.46(1883)***	0.35	Men	4.44	794	1.51	Intellect	Women	5.58	1091	1.23	0.07(1883)	0.01	Men	5.57	794	1.23	Passion	Women	5.65	1091	1.35	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	5.61	794	1.39	Stability	Women	5.46	1091	1.53	1.08(1883)	0.05	Men	5.39	794	1.47	Dominance	Women	5.35	1091	1.33	4.16(1883)***	0,19	Men	5.09	794	1.34	Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30	Men	2.44	794	1.49	Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38								
Status	Women	4.96	1091	1.46	7.46(1883)***	0.35																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.44	794	1.51			Intellect	Women	5.58	1091	1.23	0.07(1883)	0.01	Men	5.57	794	1.23	Passion	Women	5.65	1091	1.35	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	5.61	794	1.39	Stability	Women	5.46	1091	1.53	1.08(1883)	0.05	Men	5.39	794	1.47	Dominance	Women	5.35	1091	1.33	4.16(1883)***	0,19	Men	5.09	794	1.34	Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30	Men	2.44	794	1.49	Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																			
Intellect	Women	5.58	1091	1.23	0.07(1883)	0.01																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	5.57	794	1.23			Passion	Women	5.65	1091	1.35	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	5.61	794	1.39	Stability	Women	5.46	1091	1.53	1.08(1883)	0.05	Men	5.39	794	1.47	Dominance	Women	5.35	1091	1.33	4.16(1883)***	0,19	Men	5.09	794	1.34	Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30	Men	2.44	794	1.49	Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																														
Passion	Women	5.65	1091	1.35	0.58(1883)	0.03																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	5.61	794	1.39			Stability	Women	5.46	1091	1.53	1.08(1883)	0.05	Men	5.39	794	1.47	Dominance	Women	5.35	1091	1.33	4.16(1883)***	0,19	Men	5.09	794	1.34	Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30	Men	2.44	794	1.49	Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																									
Stability	Women	5.46	1091	1.53	1.08(1883)	0.05																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	5.39	794	1.47			Dominance	Women	5.35	1091	1.33	4.16(1883)***	0,19	Men	5.09	794	1.34	Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30	Men	2.44	794	1.49	Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																				
Dominance	Women	5.35	1091	1.33	4.16(1883)***	0,19																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	5.09	794	1.34			Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30	Men	2.44	794	1.49	Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																															
Unambitious	Women	2.00	1091	1.43	-6.48(1883)***	0.30																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	2.44	794	1.49			Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17	Men	1.56	794	1.18	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																										
Hostile	Women	1.38	1091	0.99	-3.66(1883)***	0.17																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.56	794	1.18			Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03	Men	1.79	794	1.36	Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																																					
Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.48	0.58(1883)	0.03																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.79	794	1.36			Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08	Men	1.82	794	1.29	Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																																																
Arrogant	Women	1.72	1091	1.29	-1.65(1883)	0.08																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.82	794	1.29			Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01	Men	1.84	794	1.37	Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																																																											
Unattractive	Women	1.85	1091	1.40	0.14(1883)	0.01																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.84	794	1.37			Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.18	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																																																																						
Clingy	Women	3.97	1091	1.91	-2.49(1883)*	0.11																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.18	794	1.74			Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18	Men	1.58	794	1.01	Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																																																																																	
Abusive	Women	1.38	1091	1.17	-3.96(1883)***	0.18																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.58	794	1.01			Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																																																																																												
Depressive	Women	1.67	1091	1.21	-5.11(1883)***	0.24																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.98	794	1.38																																																																																																																																																									

Note. SD = standard deviation.

* $p < 0.05$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 6. Testing sex differences in self-evaluation

Factor	Sex	Mean	N	SD	t(df)	Cohen's D																																																																																																																																																							
Warm	Women	6.13	1091	1.18	10.34(1883)***	0.47																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	5.55	794	1.26			Attractive	Women	4.45	1091	1.42	2.35(1883)*	0.12	Men	4.29	794	1.36	Status	Women	3.85	1091	1.53	-7.52(1883)***	0.35	Men	4.37	794	1.41	Intellect	Women	5.11	1091	1.29	-1.31(1883)	0.05	Men	5.18	794	1.23	Passion	Women	4.98	1091	1.46	1.08(1883)	0.04	Men	4.91	794	1.41	Stability	Women	4.71	1091	1.59	-0.54(1883)	0.03	Men	4.75	794	1.52	Dominance	Women	4.56	1091	1.52	-2.40(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.72	794	1.43	Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06	Men	2.88	794	1.63	Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men
Attractive	Women	4.45	1091	1.42	2.35(1883)*	0.12																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.29	794	1.36			Status	Women	3.85	1091	1.53	-7.52(1883)***	0.35	Men	4.37	794	1.41	Intellect	Women	5.11	1091	1.29	-1.31(1883)	0.05	Men	5.18	794	1.23	Passion	Women	4.98	1091	1.46	1.08(1883)	0.04	Men	4.91	794	1.41	Stability	Women	4.71	1091	1.59	-0.54(1883)	0.03	Men	4.75	794	1.52	Dominance	Women	4.56	1091	1.52	-2.40(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.72	794	1.43	Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06	Men	2.88	794	1.63	Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52								
Status	Women	3.85	1091	1.53	-7.52(1883)***	0.35																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.37	794	1.41			Intellect	Women	5.11	1091	1.29	-1.31(1883)	0.05	Men	5.18	794	1.23	Passion	Women	4.98	1091	1.46	1.08(1883)	0.04	Men	4.91	794	1.41	Stability	Women	4.71	1091	1.59	-0.54(1883)	0.03	Men	4.75	794	1.52	Dominance	Women	4.56	1091	1.52	-2.40(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.72	794	1.43	Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06	Men	2.88	794	1.63	Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																			
Intellect	Women	5.11	1091	1.29	-1.31(1883)	0.05																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	5.18	794	1.23			Passion	Women	4.98	1091	1.46	1.08(1883)	0.04	Men	4.91	794	1.41	Stability	Women	4.71	1091	1.59	-0.54(1883)	0.03	Men	4.75	794	1.52	Dominance	Women	4.56	1091	1.52	-2.40(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.72	794	1.43	Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06	Men	2.88	794	1.63	Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																														
Passion	Women	4.98	1091	1.46	1.08(1883)	0.04																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.91	794	1.41			Stability	Women	4.71	1091	1.59	-0.54(1883)	0.03	Men	4.75	794	1.52	Dominance	Women	4.56	1091	1.52	-2.40(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.72	794	1.43	Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06	Men	2.88	794	1.63	Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																									
Stability	Women	4.71	1091	1.59	-0.54(1883)	0.03																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.75	794	1.52			Dominance	Women	4.56	1091	1.52	-2.40(1883)*	0.11	Men	4.72	794	1.43	Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06	Men	2.88	794	1.63	Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																				
Dominance	Women	4.56	1091	1.52	-2.40(1883)*	0.11																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.72	794	1.43			Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06	Men	2.88	794	1.63	Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																															
Unambitious	Women	2.99	1091	1.66	1.43(1883)	0.06																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	2.88	794	1.63			Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07	Men	1.84	794	1.17	Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																										
Hostile	Women	1.76	1091	1.18	-1.52(1883)	0.07																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.84	794	1.17			Filthy	Women	1.83	1091	1.42	-8.34(1883)***	0.38	Men	2.41	794	1.56	Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																																					
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	Men	2.41	794	1.56			Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33	Men	2.38	794	1.45	Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																																																
Arrogant	Women	1.93	1091	1.29	-7.06(1883)***	0.33																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	2.38	794	1.45			Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15	Men	2.86	794	1.52	Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																																																											
Unattractive	Women	2.63	1091	1.60	-3.17(1883)**	0.15																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	2.86	794	1.52			Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12	Men	4.09	794	1.74	Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																																																																						
Clingy	Women	4.31	1091	1.88	2.52(1883)**	0.12																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	4.09	794	1.74			Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16	Men	1.83	794	1.26	Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																																																																																	
Abusive	Women	1.64	1091	1.16	-3.48(1883)**	0.16																																																																																																																																																							
	Men	1.83	794	1.26			Depressive	Women	2.49	1091	1.56	0.63(1883)	0.03	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																																																																																												
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	Men	2.45	794	1.52																																																																																																																																																									

Note. SD = standard deviation.

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 7. Testing sex differences in partner evaluation

Factor	Sex	Mean	N	SD	t(df)	Cohen's D
Warm	Women	5.66	1083	1.48	-3.00(1871)**	0.14
	Men	5.85	790	1.29		
Attractive	Women	5.29	1083	1.42	-2.03(1871)*	0.09
	Men	5.43	790	1.42		
Status	Women	4.62	1083	1.55	4.75(1871)***	0.22
	Men	4.28	790	1.52		
Intellect	Women	5.38	1083	1.34	-1.61(1871)	0.07
	Men	5.48	790	1.34		
Passion	Women	5.40	1083	1.52	3.87(1871)***	0.18
	Men	5.12	790	1.59		
Stability	Women	4.63	1083	1.73	0.92(1871)	0.04
	Men	4.56	790	1.67		
Dominance	Women	5.05	1083	1.50	5.14(1871)***	0.24
	Men	4.69	790	1.55		
Unambitious	Women	2.44	1083	1.66	-6.01(1871)***	0.28
	Men	2.90	790	1.62		
Hostile	Women	1.64	1083	1.19	-1.29(1871)	0.06
	Men	1.71	790	1.18		
Filthy	Women	2.27	1083	1.61	4.99(1871)***	0.23
	Men	1.92	790	1.40		
Arrogant	Women	2.06	1083	1.48	1.75(1871)	0.07
	Men	1.95	790	1.34		
Unattractive	Women	1.99	1083	1.45	1.06(1871)	0.05
	Men	1.92	790	1.29		
Clingy	Women	3.96	1083	1.88	-5.02(1871)***	0.24
	Men	4.39	790	1.77		
Abusive	Women	1.64	1083	1.22	-2.04(1871)*	0.09
	Men	1.75	790	1.24		
Depressive	Women	2.17	1083	1.49	-4.86(1871)***	0.23
	Men	2.52	790	1.57		

Note. SD = standard deviation.

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

2.2.2. Comparing zero-order correlations between ideal partner, self, and partner across sex

Zero-order correlations between self × ideal, ideal × partner and self × partner in men and women can be found in Table 8. All correlations were positive. The strength of correlations ranged from $r = 0.09$ ($p < 0.01$) in Stability in self × partner correlation for both men and women, to $r = 0.65$ ($p < 0.001$) in Intellect in ideal × partner correlations for men. The widest range of correlations was in self × ideal for women (from $r = 0.11$, $p < 0.001$ to $r = 0.57$, $p < 0.001$) and the smallest range was in self × partner correlations for men (from $r = 0.24$, $p < 0.001$ to $r = 0.43$, $p < 0.001$). Ideal × partner correlations were on average the strongest in both sexes, with the range from $r = 0.36$ ($p < 0.001$) to $r = 0.58$ ($p < 0.001$) in women and from $r = 0.27$ ($p < 0.01$) to $r = 0.65$ ($p < 0.001$) in men. In contrast, the smallest correlations for both sexes were in self × partner correlations, from $r = 0.09$ ($p < 0.01$) to $r = 0.46$ ($p < 0.001$) in women and from $r = 0.24$ ($p < 0.001$) to $r = 0.43$ ($p < 0.001$) in men.

Fisher's z-tests for r-comparisons showed significant sex differences in the correlations between self × ideal, ideal × partner, and self × partner (also Table 8). Positive results of the sex differences meant women had a stronger correlation. In self × ideal correlations, significant sex differences were $z = 2.10$ ($p < 0.05$) in Passion and $z = 3.22$ ($p < 0.01$) in Clingy. Significant sex differences in ideal × partner correlations were all in negative factors: $z = 2.14$ ($p < 0.05$) in Unambitious and $z = 1.84$ ($p < 0.05$) in Clingy. Men had a stronger ideal × partner correlation in Arrogant, with a sex difference of $z = -2.20$ ($p < 0.05$), and in Abusive, with a sex difference of $z = -1.79$ ($p < 0.05$). In self × partner correlations, significant results were $z = 2.08$ ($p < 0.05$) in Passion, $z = 1.91$ ($p < 0.05$) in Filthy, and $z = 1.77$ ($p < 0.05$) in Clingy.

Table 8. Correlations between ideal × self, ideal × partner, and self × partner across sex

Factor	Women			Men			Sex Difference (Fisher's z test)		
	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner
Warm	0.39***	0.50***	0.37***	0.40***	0.51***	0.43***	-0.25	-0.28	-1.53
Attractive	0.29***	0.50***	0.31***	0.26***	0.48***	0.28***	0.70	0.56	0.70
Status	0.28***	0.51***	0.32***	0.21***	0.48***	0.34***	1.60	0.85	-0.48
Intellect	0.39***	0.57***	0.34***	0.39***	0.65***	0.30***	0.00	-2.74	0.95
Passion	0.47***	0.52***	0.46***	0.39***	0.49***	0.38***	2.10*	0.86	2.08*
Stability	0.11***	0.36***	0.09**	0.16***	0.35***	0.09**	-1.09	0.25	0.00
Dominance	0.31***	0.46***	0.19***	0.36***	0.43***	0.24***	-1.21	0.80	-1.12
Unambitious	0.20***	0.36***	0.24***	0.26***	0.27***	0.29***	-1.32	2.14*	-1.15
Hostile	0.41***	0.52***	0.42***	0.45***	0.56***	0.43***	-1.05	-1.21	-0.26
Filthy	0.36***	0.48***	0.36***	0.40***	0.45***	0.28***	-1.00	0.82	1.91*
Arrogant	0.36***	0.43***	0.35***	0.39***	0.51***	0.36***	-0.75	-2.20*	-0.25
Unattractive	0.26***	0.43***	0.26***	0.23***	0.44***	0.31***	0.68	-0.26	-1.17
Clingy	0.57***	0.58***	0.43***	0.46***	0.52***	0.36***	3.22	1.84*	1.77*
Abusive	0.42***	0.50***	0.42***	0.47***	0.56***	0.39***	-1.34	-1.79*	0.77
Depressive	0.39***	0.49***	0.29***	0.36***	0.49***	0.32***	0.75	0.00	-0.71
Average	0.35***	0.48***	0.33***	0.35***	0.48***	0.32***	0.00	0.00	0.25

* p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. *** p < 0.001.

2.2.3. Controlling for self-perceived mate value and Euclidean mate value

After performing zero-order correlations between self × ideal, ideal × partner and self × partner I ran partial correlations controlling for self-perceived mate value (see Table 9), to see the extent to which self-perceived mate value affected these zero-order correlations (see Table 10). Self × ideal, ideal × partner and self × partner correlations in men were not significantly affected by self-perceived mate value, unlike in women where the results were significantly affected in self × ideal correlations in Attractive, Passion, and Dominance, and in self × partner correlations in Attractive and Passion factors.

To see how Euclidean mate value affects the zero-order correlations I ran partial correlations controlling for Euclidean mate value (Table 11). It significantly affected self × ideal and self × partner correlations in both men and women in almost all negative factors, except for Clingy, where the impact was non-significant. In ideal × partner correlations, Euclidean mate value significantly moderated the correlations in Hostile and Abusive in women and Filthy and Abusive in men. Warm in self × partner correlations in men was the only positive factor affected by Euclidean mate value (see Table 12).

Table 9. Partial correlations between Ideal × Self, Ideal × Partner, and Self × Partner across sex controlled for self-perceived mate value

Factor	Women			Men		
	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner
Warm	0.38***	0.49***	0.35***	0.40***	0.51***	0.42***
Attractive	0.18***	0.46***	0.21***	0.22***	0.46***	0.25***
Status	0.25***	0.49***	0.29***	0.17***	0.46***	0.31***
Intellect	0.36***	0.55***	0.30***	0.39***	0.65***	0.29***
Passion	0.42***	0.49***	0.41***	0.39***	0.49***	0.34***
Stability	0.10***	0.36***	0.06*	0.16***	0.36***	0.07*
Dominance	0.25***	0.44***	0.14***	0.33***	0.41***	0.20***
Unambitious	0.20***	0.36***	0.24***	0.25***	0.27***	0.28***
Hostile	0.41***	0.53***	0.41***	0.46***	0.56***	0.43***
Filthy	0.36***	0.49***	0.36***	0.40***	0.45***	0.28***
Arrogant	0.36***	0.43***	0.36***	0.39***	0.52***	0.36***
Unattractive	0.25***	0.43***	0.24***	0.26***	0.44***	0.31***
Clingy	0.57***	0.58***	0.43***	0.46***	0.53***	0.36***
Abusive	0.42***	0.50***	0.42***	0.47***	0.56***	0.39***
Depressive	0.40***	0.49***	0.30***	0.37***	0.50***	0.30***

* p < 0.05. *** p < 0.001.

Table 10. Differences (Δr) between zero-order correlations and partial correlations between Ideal \times Self, Ideal \times Partner, and Self \times Partner across sex controlled for self-perceived mate value

Factor	Women			Men		
	Self \times Ideal	Ideal \times Partner	Self \times Partner	Self \times Ideal	Ideal \times Partner	Self \times Partner
Warm	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.01
Attractive	0.12***	0.05	0.11***	0.04	0.03	0.03
Status	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.03
Intellect	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.01
Passion	0.06*	0.04	0.06*	0.00	0.00	0.05
Stability	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.00	-0.01	0.02
Dominance	0.07*	0.03	0.05	0.03	0.02	0.04
Unambitious	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01
Hostile	0.00	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.00
Filthy	0.00	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Arrogant	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	0.00
Unattractive	0.01	0.00	0.02	-0.03	0.00	0.00
Clingy	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	-0.01	0.00
Abusive	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Depressive	-0.01	0.00	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	0.02

Note. Women's significant r-differences were identified at: $r = 0.06, p < 0.05$; $r = 0.08, p < 0.01$; $r = 0.10, p < 0.001$; Men's significant r-differences were identified at: $r = 0.07, p < 0.05$; $r = 0.10, p < 0.01$; $r = 0.12, p < 0.01$.

Table 11. Partial correlations between Ideal \times Self, Ideal \times Partner, and Self \times Partner across sex controlled for Euclidean mate value

Factor	Women			Men		
	Self \times Ideal	Ideal \times Partner	Self \times Partner	Self \times Ideal	Ideal \times Partner	Self \times Partner
Warm	0.36***	0.48***	0.34***	0.35***	0.48***	0.37***
Attractive	0.24***	0.48***	0.26***	0.20***	0.45***	0.22***
Status	0.26***	0.50***	0.30***	0.17***	0.47***	0.30***
Intellect	0.36***	0.55***	0.31***	0.35***	0.64***	0.25***
Passion	0.44***	0.50***	0.43***	0.35***	0.47***	0.34***
Stability	0.09**	0.36***	0.08*	0.13***	0.34***	0.06
Dominance	0.29***	0.45***	0.17***	0.31***	0.40***	0.18***
Unambitious	0.14***	0.34***	0.18***	0.15***	0.23***	0.21***
Hostile	0.30***	0.47***	0.31***	0.34***	0.51***	0.31***
Filthy	0.28***	0.44***	0.28***	0.26***	0.39***	0.18***
Arrogant	0.30***	0.39***	0.29***	0.30***	0.47***	0.27***
Unattractive	0.14***	0.38***	0.14***	0.11**	0.39***	0.20***
Clingy	0.57***	0.58***	0.43***	0.46***	0.52***	0.36***
Abusive	0.32***	0.44***	0.32***	0.35***	0.50***	0.27***
Depressive	0.31***	0.46***	0.23***	0.25***	0.44***	0.18***

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 12. Differences (Δr) between zero-order correlations and partial correlations between ideal \times self, ideal \times partner, and self \times partner across sex controlled for Euclidean mate value

Factor	Women			Men		
	Self \times Ideal	Ideal \times Partner	Self \times Partner	Self \times Ideal	Ideal \times Partner	Self \times Partner
Warm	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.06	0.04	0.07*
Attractive	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.06
Status	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.04
Intellect	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.05
Passion	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.05
Stability	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.03
Dominance	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.06	0.04	0.06
Unambitious	0.06*	0.02	0.06*	0.11**	0.04	0.09*
Hostile	0.13***	0.07*	0.13***	0.13***	0.07	0.14***
Filthy	0.09**	0.05	0.09**	0.16***	0.07*	0.11**
Arrogant	0.07*	0.05	0.07*	0.10**	0.05	0.10**
Unattractive	0.12***	0.06	0.12***	0.12***	0.06	0.12***
Clingy	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Abusive	0.12***	0.08**	0.12***	0.14***	0.08*	0.13***
Depressive	0.09**	0.04	0.06*	0.12***	0.06	0.15***

Note. Women's significant r-differences were identified at: $r = 0.06, p < 0.05$; $r = 0.08, p < 0.01$; $r = 0.10, p < 0.001$; Men's significant r-differences were identified at: $r = 0.07, p < 0.05$; $r = 0.10, p < 0.01$; $r = 0.12, p < 0.01$.

2.2.4. Impact of positive Euclidean mate value on dealmakers and negative Euclidean mate value on dealbreakers

To see the extent to which positive Euclidean mate value affected zero-order correlations, I ran partial correlations between self \times ideal, ideal \times partner, and self \times partner across sex controlling for positive Euclidean mate value in dealmakers (Table 13). Results showed that the strongest correlations were in ideal \times partner correlations in both sexes, but in women slightly stronger, ranging from $r = 0.35$ ($p < 0.001$) in Stability to $r = 0.54$ ($p < 0.001$) in Intellect. The weakest correlations were in self \times partner correlations in men, ranging from nonsignificant $r = 0.03$ in Stability to $r = 0.37$ ($p < 0.001$) in Warmth.

I also ran partial correlations in dealbreakers, except controlling for negative Euclidean mate value (Table 14). Results showed similar strength in correlations as it did with dealmakers, with the strongest correlations between ideal \times partner in both sexes, but in women, it was stronger. The range was from $r = 0.32$ ($p < 0.001$) in Unambitious to $r = 0.57$ in Clingy. The weakest correlations were in self \times partner in men, ranging from $r = 0.13$ ($p < 0.001$) in Filthy to $r = 0.35$ ($p < 0.001$) in Clingy.

Table 13. Partial correlations between self × ideal, ideal × partner, and self × partner across sex controlled for positive Euclidean mate value in dealmakers

Factor	Women			Men		
	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner
Warm	0.36***	0.48***	0.33***	0.36***	0.49***	0.37***
Attractive	0.22***	0.47***	0.22***	0.19***	0.45***	0.19***
Status	0.25***	0.49***	0.27***	0.14***	0.46***	0.26***
Intellect	0.34***	0.54***	0.27***	0.34***	0.64***	0.24***
Passion	0.43***	0.49***	0.41***	0.36***	0.47***	0.33***
Stability	0.07*	0.35***	0.04	0.13***	0.34***	0.03
Dominance	0.28***	0.45***	0.14***	0.29***	0.40***	0.14***

*p < 0.05. ***p < 0.001.

Table 14. Partial correlations between self × ideal, ideal × partner, and self × partner across sex controlled for negative Euclidean mate value in dealbreakers

Factor	Women			Men		
	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner	Self × Ideal	Ideal × Partner	Self × Partner
Unambitious	0.10**	0.32***	0.15***	0.11***	0.20***	0.17***
Hostile	0.27***	0.46***	0.30***	0.30***	0.48***	0.26***
Filthy	0.25***	0.44***	0.25***	0.23***	0.37***	0.13***
Arrogant	0.26***	0.38***	0.26***	0.24***	0.44***	0.22***
Unattractive	0.12***	0.37***	0.12***	0.09*	0.38***	0.18***
Clingy	0.57***	0.57***	0.43***	0.46***	0.52***	0.35***
Abusive	0.29***	0.43***	0.29***	0.29***	0.48***	0.22***
Depressive	0.27***	0.45***	0.20***	0.21***	0.43***	0.14***

*p < 0.05. ** p < 0.01. ***p < 0.001.

2.2.5. Association between preference fulfillment, Euclidean mate value, self-perceived mate value, and relationship satisfaction across sex

In the next part, I correlated Euclidean mate value and self-perceived mate value with preference fulfillment and relationship satisfaction in each sex (Table 15). The strongest correlations in both sexes were between relationship satisfaction and preference fulfillment, with $r = -0.36$ ($p < 0.001$) in women and $r = -0.26$ ($p < 0.001$) in men, with women having a significantly stronger correlation than men ($z = -2.46$, $p < 0.01$). Preference fulfillment correlated with Euclidean mate value in men more strongly, with $r = 0.29$ ($p < 0.001$) than in women, $r = 0.19$ ($p < 0.001$) with a significant correlation difference of $z = -2.26$ ($p < 0.05$). The smallest sex disparity was in the correlations between preference fulfillment

and self-perceived mate value, where both men and women had a correlation of $r = -0.13$ ($p < 0.001$) with non-significant sex difference ($z = 0.08$, $p > 0.05$)

Table 15. Correlations between Preference fulfillment, Euclidean mate value, Self-perceived mate value, and Relationship Satisfaction across sex

	Women				Men			
	Fulfillment	Eucl. MV	SP MV	Satisfaction	Fulfillment	Eucl. MV	SP MV	Satisfaction
Fulfillment		0.19***	-0.13***	-0.36***		0.29***	-0.13***	-0.26***
Eucl. MV	0.19***		-0.27***	-0.18***	0.29***		-0.28***	-0.23***
SP MV	-0.13***	-0.27***		0.27***	-0.13***	-0.28***		-0.22***
Satisfaction	-0.36***	-0.18***	0.27***		-0.26***	-0.23***	-0.22***	

Note. Fulfillment = Preference fulfillment. Eucl. MV = Euclidean mate value. SP MV = self-perceived mate value. *** $p < 0.001$.

2.2.6. Correlations between self-perceived mate value, relationship satisfaction, positive, negative, and mixed Euclidean mate value, and positive, negative, and mixed preference fulfillment

In the last part, I correlated self-perceived mate value, relationship satisfaction, positive, negative, and mixed (i.e., positive and negative together) Euclidean mate value, and positive, negative, and mixed preference fulfillment (Table 16). In women, positive Euclidean mate value correlated more strongly with self-perceived mate value ($r = -0.36$, $p < 0.001$) than negative Euclidean mate value ($r = -0.12$, $p < 0.001$). In men this discrepancy was similar, positive Euclidean mate value more strongly correlated with self-perceived mate value ($r = -0.34$, $p < 0.001$) than with negative Euclidean mate value ($r = -0.17$, $p < 0.001$). Correlation between mixed Euclidean mate value and self-perceived mate value was similar in both women ($r = -0.27$, $p < 0.001$) and men ($r = -0.28$, $p < 0.001$). Positive Euclidean mate value correlated more strongly with relationship satisfaction in men ($r = -0.23$, $p < 0.001$) than in women ($r = -0.20$, $p < 0.001$). The correlation was also stronger in negative Euclidean mate value in men ($r = -0.18$, $p < 0.001$) than in women ($r = -0.12$, $p < 0.001$). Correlation between mixed Euclidean mate value and relationship satisfaction was stronger in men with ($r = -0.23$, $p < 0.001$) than in women ($r = -0.18$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 16. Correlations between self-perceived mate value, relationship satisfaction, positive, negative and mixed Euclidean mate value, and positive, negative and mixed preference fulfillment

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. Self-perceived mate value		0.22***	-0.34***	-0.17***	-0.28***	-0.13***	-0.11***	-0.13***
2. Relationship satisfaction	0.27***		-0.23***	-0.18***	-0.23***	-0.25***	-0.23***	-0.26***
3. Positive Euclidean mate value	-0.36***	-0.20***		0.37***	0.77***	0.27***	0.20***	0.27***
4. Negative Euclidean mate value	-0.12***	-0.12***	0.35***		0.87***	0.16***	0.22***	0.22***
5. Mixed Euclidean mate value	-0.27***	-0.18***	0.78***	0.85***		0.24***	0.25***	0.29***
6. Positive preference fulfillment	-0.15***	-0.35***	0.18***	0.08**	0.16***		0.55***	0.87***
7. Negative preference fulfillment	-0.09***	-0.32***	0.11***	0.16***	0.17***	0.57***		0.88***
8. Mixed preference fulfillment	-0.13***	-0.36***	0.16***	0.14***	0.19***	0.87***	0.89***	

Note. Correlation coefficients below the diagonal belong to women, and above the diagonal belong to men.

** $p < 0.01$. *** $p < 0.001$

2.3. Discussion

Jonason et al. (2015) said, that forming a relationship with a bad partner may be an even costlier mistake than passing up a good partner. This is why it is so important to find a partner that would stand up to at least some of the set preferences. In the first part of the study, I set a goal to compare and examine evaluations of the participants themselves, their ideal partners, and partners they were currently in a relationship with. I divided these evaluations by sex to see, whether there were any sex differences. In the ideal partner evaluations, women showed the highest preference for Warmth, Status, and Dominance, while men preferred Attractiveness. These findings are corresponding with previous research, that highlighted the importance of these factors in the process of forming mate preferences (Buss, 1989). The biggest sex difference in these evaluations showed to be in the rating of Status, where women gave significantly higher ratings to their ideal partners. Other significant sex differences were found in the evaluations of negative traits, where women wanted their partner to be less Filthy, Clingy, or Abusive. High female preference for Status, along with Warmth, implies that women want a partner, who will be a compassionate and kind parent and will be able to provide resources for their offspring (Fletcher et al., 1999; Trivers, 1972). Male preference for Attractiveness is linked to their own reproductive success. A healthy and attractive mate may provide a better chance of successful reproduction (Buss, 1989; Fletcher et al., 1999). These findings confirmed my first hypothesis (H1.1), that women are more demanding than men in their choice of a mate,

except for their attractiveness, where men have set a higher preference. Significant sex differences in the self-evaluations of participants seem to go hand in hand with the ideal partner preferences mentioned above. Notably, men rated themselves higher in Dominance and Status, while women perceived themselves as Warmer and more Attractive. So, women rated themselves higher in traits that men perceive as desirable and vice versa. One might argue that these self-evaluations occur as a result of societal norms, or the need to correctly assess one's own value as a mate in order to attract a partner (Csajbók et al., 2023).

It is not always possible to obtain the perfect mate and many times people have to pick among imperfect individuals (Conroy-Beam, 2017; Regan, 1998). Thus, the partner people choose to start a relationship with does not always stand up to their ideals (Gerlach et al., 2019). This notion would explain the subtle differences between participants' evaluation of their ideal partner and their actual partner. But regardless, though with some deviations, the patterns of their partner evaluations matched their ideal preferences similarly to previous research (Conroy-Beam et al., 2019). That is, men rated their partners as more Attractive and Warmer than women did, while women perceived their partners as more Dominant, Passionate, Filthy, and higher in Status than men did. Notably, the focus of this section was not a comparison of the actual evaluations, but rather the sex differences among these evaluations. Mentioned findings were in line with previous literature. Men showed high preferences for traits linked to the fertility of their partners and women valued traits that signal the ability to acquire resources and high status. Both sexes valued traits that signal good parenting skills (Buss, 1989; Fletcher et al., 1999; Trivers, 1972).

For a further understanding of partner preferences, I extended this study by correlations between ideal, partner, and self-evaluations across sex. Even though all the correlations were positive, the strength varied across all the evaluated factors. It is important to point out, that the strongest correlations were in the current partner and ideal partner evaluations, the strongest correlation was in Clingy for both sexes. This means that both men and women want and start relationships with partners who display high levels of emotional attachment, while possibly wanting closeness and reassurance in the relationship. This might be to prevent possible infidelity from their partners. Strong correlations between ideal and partner evaluations suggest, that participants wanted somebody similar and ended up in a relationship with someone who was fairly similar to their ideal partner (Conroy-Beam et al., 2019) either as a result of their actual choice or because of the possible alteration of their own preferences to match their partner better (Gerlach et al., 2019). The presented results

support all these claims to some extent. Compared to the previous results, correlations between self and partner are not as strong. Still, they suggest that in some traits participants do perceive a similarity with their partners, the strongest ones being Passion for women and Warmth for men. So, to answer my own research question (RQ4), though with not clear enough evidence, people do choose partners who are similar to themselves. The most sex differences in these correlations were in the current partner and ideal partner and only in negative evaluations. Couples tend to see each other in the best light possible, in order to avoid possible conflict (Fletcher & Simpson, 2000). I assume, that the awareness of a partner's negative traits, thus evaluation of such traits, positively correlates with time. The longer the relationship is, the more information, positive or negative, couples acquire about each other. And just as couples tend to exaggerate their partner's good qualities (Fletcher & Simpson, 2000; Murray et al., 1996), they become more aware of each other's bad traits. The findings of my research lead me to an assumption, that the awareness of a partner's negative traits, thus evaluation of such traits, positively correlates with time. Additionally, such revelations might lead to different relationship outcomes (e.g., conflicts, infidelity, breakup). I think that this notion might be an interesting point to explore in future research, whether time affects one's own perception of their partner's bad qualities.

The next part of the research aimed to examine whether and to what extent self-perceived mate value and the Euclidean mate value affected the correlations between self-, ideal-, and partner evaluations. Self-perceived mate value strongly influenced the correlations between the self- and ideal and self- and partner evaluations, but only in women. Significant results (i.e., changes when controlling for mate value) in Attractiveness and Passion in both self-ideal and self-partner correlations might suggest that women who see themselves as more desirable not only set higher preferences for these factors but also end up in a relationship with partners who stood up to these preferences. This means that general desirability has a strengthening effect on the correlation. Surprisingly, self-perceived mate value did not affect significantly the zero-order correlations in men. It might raise a suggestion that the asked self-perceived mate value may not be as relevant for overall mate value for men as it is for women. Or perhaps the results would be different with the use of different approaches in measure. While examining the impact of Euclidean mate value, interesting results occurred. In positive dimensions, the Euclidean mate value had a significant impact on only the self-partner correlations in Warm, and only in men. After comparing with results from the previous paragraph, I suggest that maybe self-perceived

mate value is more relevant for women's and Euclidean mate value for men's mate choice power. Importantly, the Euclidean mate value showed to have the biggest effect in only negative dimensions for both sexes, but mostly in the ideal-self and self-partner correlations. The Euclidean mate value controls what the other sex wants in a partner, unlike self-perceived mate value which focuses mostly on self-perceived characteristics. I suspect that the significant impact in negative dimensions is related to the notion proposed by Jonason et al. (2015), that it is in the person's interest to avoid people who possess lots of negative traits in order to avoid costs and not waste their resources (Regan, 1998). By inspecting the not-always-significant, but consistent results in the ideal-self and self-partner correlations, I believe two of my hypotheses were confirmed. Participants' partner preferences, hence ideal partner evaluations, their self-evaluations, and evaluations of their current partners do correlate with each other (H1.2), and these correlations were moderated by either self-perceived mate value or the Euclidean mate value (H2.1). I also explored the impact of positive Euclidean mate value on dealmakers and negative Euclidean mate value on dealbreakers, to see whether there were any differences from controlling for mixed Euclidean mate value. In dealmakers, the strongest correlations were found between ideal- and partner evaluations, which suggests that participants' preferences were in play while choosing their partners. Women wanted and eventually got in a relationship with somebody who was high in Status, for men it was Attractivity. This notion is in line with previous literature (Buss, 1989; Fletcher et al., 1999). Both men and women desire and eventually seek out partners who are Warm and high in Intellect.

An alternative methodical approach used during this research requires a description of the positive or negative direction of the associations between preference fulfillment and self-perceived mate value, the Euclidean mate value, and relationship satisfaction. Figure 3 shows a positive association between the Euclidean mate value on the x-axis and preference fulfillment on the y-axis. If there is a large distance between the ideal partner and the current partner within the multidimensional space, it implies smaller preference fulfillment (this being the same for Figures 3, 4, and 5). Same for the Euclidean mate value; a large distance is proportionate to a smaller Euclidean mate value. Consequently, the high level of preference fulfillment on the y-axis is associated with a high level of Euclidean mate value on the x-axis (Figure 3). Therefore, the direction of the association is positive. Figure 4 shows a negative association between self-perceived mate value on the x-axis and preference fulfillment on the y-axis. A high level of self-perceived mate value (overall desirability) on

the x-axis implicates a lower (and therefore better) level of preference fulfillment on the y-axis. Finally, Figure 5 presents a negative association between relationship satisfaction on the x-axis and preference fulfillment on the y-axis. Similarly with Figure 4, a high level of relationship satisfaction predicts a lower, thus better level of preference fulfillment. The results of this study were in line with the schematic figures (3, 4, and 5).

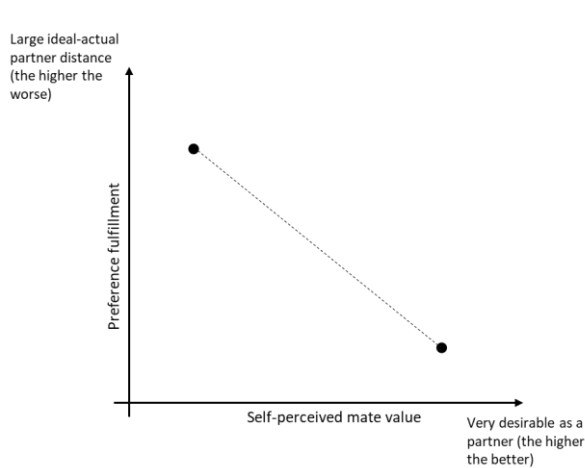


Figure 3. The direction of association between self-perceived value and preference fulfillment

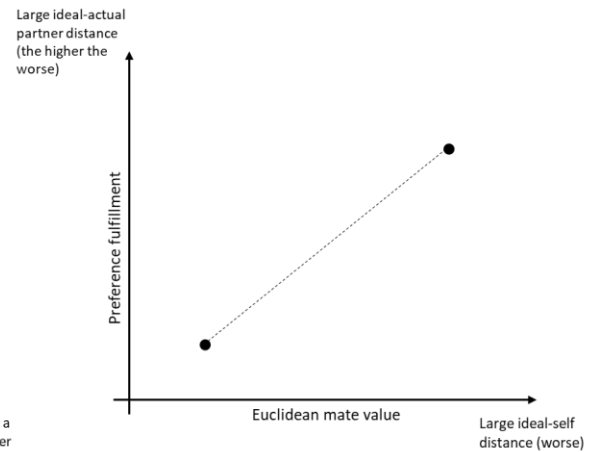


Figure 4. The direction of association between Euclidean mate value and preference fulfillment

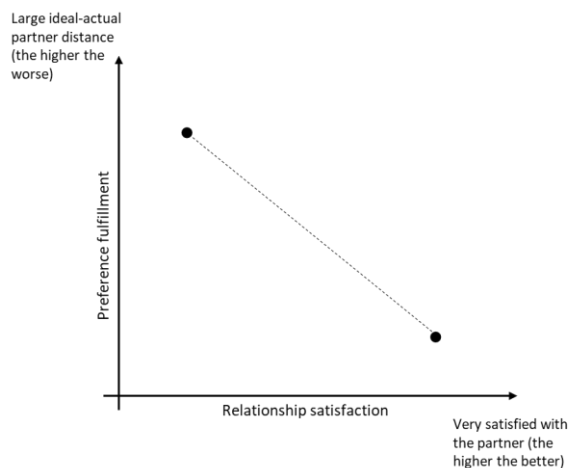


Figure 5. The direction of association between relationship satisfaction and preference fulfillment

The next part of my research brought out other interesting outcomes. For both sexes, the correlation between self-perceived mate value and preference fulfillment was equal (see the association in Figure 3). This implies that both men and women place the same importance to the alignment between their self-perceived mate value and preference fulfillment. On the other hand, a strong correlation was found in men between Euclidean mate value and preference fulfillment (see the association in Figure 4). Compared to the previous notion, this suggests that desirable men are more likely to obtain the kind of partner they want which eventually lead to feelings of satisfaction with the relationship. Consequently, a correlation between self-perceived mate value and Euclidean mate value answers my research question (RQ2), regarding the association between self-perceived mate value and Euclidean mate value. This indicates that when their partner possesses their desired characteristics, it reflects on their own self-perceived mate value. I found strong correlations between preference fulfillment and relationship satisfaction in both sexes, but the association was significantly stronger in women. This suggests that for women, having their own preferences fulfilled highly contributed to their overall satisfaction in the relationship (see the association in Figure 5). Examination of the results led me to confirm my final hypothesis (H2.2), that self-perceived mate value, as well as Euclidean mate value, do correlate with preference fulfillment and relationship satisfaction. Additionally, I believe that an answer to my research question (RQ1), whether any gender was more successful in fulfilling their partner preferences, depends on how it is measured. This holds important future implications in mate choice research – it matters how we operationalize mate value. But taking the mentioned “success” as being more satisfied with your choice of partner, thus the overall relationship, then I would say women were more successful in fulfilling their partner preferences.

As the very last step of my research, I replicated the previous examination of correlations and expanded it with positive, negative, and mixed Euclidean mate value and positive, negative, and mixed preference fulfillment. Strong correlation between self-perceived mate value and positive Euclidean mate value in both sexes suggest, that men and women emphasize their positive characteristics more than the negative characteristics while assessing their own mate value. On the other hand, strong correlation between self-perceived mate value and mixed Euclidean mate value suggests that both sexes take into account positive and negative characteristics in shaping their own self-perceived mate value. This confirmed the need to correctly perceive own mate value (Csajbók et al., 2023); and the

overall necessity to be satisfied in order to stay in a relationship. Stronger correlations between relationship satisfaction with either positive or negative Euclidean mate value in men imply, that overall male relationship satisfaction with the relationship relies more on the presence or absence of desired characteristics. Slightly weaker correlations in women might indicate that female relationship satisfaction might depend on a broader scale of factors than male relationship satisfaction. Results also suggest that mixed Euclidean mate value plays bigger part in relationship satisfaction for men than for women. To circle back to my remaining research question (RQ3) – regardless of the various research saying that people high in mate value do indeed experience higher mate choice power (Conroy-Beam, 2017; 2019), I believe that further analyses would be needed in order to provide a clear answer with the data presented.

2.3.1. Limitations

This research has limitations that could be removed in future research. Even though the sample used in this research is representative, it is still a sample collected from a WEIRD country (Henrich et al., 2010). Data collection made outside these societies may bring more diverse results. The questionnaire used for the data collection among Czech participants was originally made for the Hungarian population. Despite the professional and careful translation, some of the meanings may have been subtly different due to the differences between Czech and Hungarian cultures. Thus, Hungarian and Czech versions of the questionnaire may carry different external validity. Some of the questions may have caused discomfort so participants might have given untrue or even no answers. Additionally, since the questionnaire was held online, not everyone could participate, for example, people without an internet connection.

2.3.2. Future directions

In moving forward, there are steps future research might take, both of which involve taking a different approach to data collection. A longitudinal approach to data collection would ensure more solid results. I suggest the acquisition of an extensive sample of couples that had just begun their relationship, performing data collection, and then replicating it in a couple of years. Regarding the thesis itself, results have shown that self-perceived mate value and Euclidean mate value function differently. Future research should consider these nuances and make informed decisions when using either. Additionally, to the mentioned limitation, data collection performed outside of the WEIRD countries would bring different,

more varied results that might be more in line with the evolutionary mechanisms of mate choice psychology.

2.4. Conclusion

Participants evaluated themselves, their current partners, and their ideal partners on seven dealmaker and eight dealbreaker characteristics. With the use of various methods, such as correlation analyses, descriptive statistics, or independent sample t-tests I explored the effect self-perceived mate value had on their homogamy and overall satisfaction with their relationships. I explored the same things with Euclidean mate value after its calculation with the help of the Euclidean algorithm, which I then also used to calculate the preference fulfillment of participants. All these examinations were divided by sex in order to perceive possible sex differences.

I set three research questions and raised four hypotheses during the process, most of which were confirmed, but providing possible gaps for future research. Examination of mate preferences was supported by previous research, with such findings that were also a confirmation of one of my hypotheses. Considering the costs of long-term relationships associated with uneven levels of parental investments, women were more demanding in their partner preferences. Women put emphasis especially on Status and Dominance while men on the Attractiveness of their partners. Whether was any gender more successful in fulfilling their preferences could not be said based on my results, but an additional independent samples t test might provide us with an answer. But considering “success” as being more satisfied with the relationship, I would say that women, since having higher correlation with preference fulfillment, were the more successful sex.

I examined the correlations between ideal-, partner-, and self-evaluations. The strongest correlations were between the current and ideal partners, which supports the claim made by Conroy-Beam et al. (2019) saying that the kind of partner people wish for is very similar to the partner they eventually start a relationship with. With regard to the correlations between self-evaluations and partner evaluations, I assume that people do seek out partners who are similar to themselves, but the correlation between their actual and ideal partner is stronger than between themselves and their partner. The study of the effect of self-perceived and Euclidean mate value led to the confirmation of two of my hypotheses. Interestingly, self-perceived mate value seemed to have an effect on only women’s preference fulfillment and Euclidean mate value on mainly men’s preference fulfillment. Overall, participants’ partner preferences, self-evaluations, and evaluations of their current partners do correlate

with each other, and these correlations were moderated by either self-perceived or Euclidean mate value.

A study of correlations between self-perceived, Euclidean mate value, preference fulfillment, and relationship satisfaction also brought surprising outcomes. A strong correlation between relationship satisfaction and preference fulfillment in women suggests, that women need to have their preferences met to some extent to feel happy and satisfied in a relationship. In men, preference fulfillment correlated strongly with Euclidean mate value. This suggests that high mate value men are more able to fulfil their preferences than lower mate value men. Various research (Conroy-Beam, 2017; 2019), stated that people high in mate value experience greater power of choice on the dating market. Since this fact has not been yet examined in the Czech population, with dealbreaker factors, I decided to include it in my research. However, I believe that further analyses would be needed to provide a clear answer to support this claim. In conclusion, I believe that this research provided insight into the complex process of mate choice, accompanying sex differences, and the role of self-perceived mate value and Euclidean mate value. I believe further analyses and exploration of these factors would lead to an even deeper understanding of these issues.

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Supplements

Supplementary Table S1: Self-evaluations and Ideal Partner evaluations used in the calculation of Euclidean mate value; single participants were included for the higher ecological validity of the results ($N=2,434$)

Traits	Women ($N = 1,292$)				Men ($N = 1,142$)			
	Ideal		Self		Ideal		Self	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Warm	6.13	1.21	6.10	1.20	5.96	1.20	5.48	1.29
Attractive	5.40	1.35	4.41	1.42	5.56	1.28	4.15	1.41
Status	4.91	1.47	3.85	1.53	4.34	1.50	4.24	1.42
Intellect	5.56	1.26	5.12	1.28	5.50	1.25	5.14	1.23
Passion	5.59	1.39	4.90	1.48	5.46	1.43	4.70	1.48
Stability	5.46	1.52	4.73	1.59	5.39	1.44	4.82	1.52
Dominance	5.32	1.35	4.55	1.52	5.03	1.34	4.60	1.45
Unambitious	2.02	1.45	2.98	1.65	2.49	1.48	3.04	1.65
Hostile	1.40	1.04	1.74	1.17	1.63	1.25	1.87	1.22
Filthy	1.81	1.47	1.82	1.41	1.86	1.40	2.47	1.54
Arrogant	1.74	1.32	1.92	1.29	1.89	1.35	2.42	1.49
Unattractive	1.87	1.39	2.65	1.60	1.96	1.42	3.05	1.59
Clingy	3.90	1.91	4.18	1.92	4.18	1.70	4.04	1.73
Abusive	1.40	1.05	1.62	1.14	1.65	1.23	1.86	1.30
Depressive	1.70	1.24	2.50	1.57	2.06	1.40	2.65	1.62

Note. SD = standard deviation.