

**Charles University**

**Faculty of Arts**

Department of Psychology  
Clinical and Health Psychology

**DISSERTATION**

**PORNOGRAPHY CONSUMPTION AND PARTNER**

**SEXUAL ACTIVITY**

*Konzumace pornografie a partnerská sexuální aktivita*

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## **Declaration**

I hereby declare that I have written this dissertation independently, using only the mentioned and duly cited sources and literature and that the work has not been used in another university study programme or to obtain the same or another academic title.

In Prague on 22. 7. 2024

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## Abstrakt

V současné době pornografie roste na popularitě a zároveň ji mnoho jedinců používá pravidelně nebo jsou ve vztahu s někým, kdo tak činí. Zatímco více výzkumů se zaměřilo na souvislosti mezi konzumací pornografie ve vztazích a partnerskou sexuální aktivitou, pouze několik studií zkoumalo kontext konzumace pornografie.

Prostřednictvím online dotazníku byla shromážděna data od 1 742 jednotlivců a zároveň od 100 partnerských vztahů. Jedinci se společnou konzumací pornografie, souhlasnou konzumací, nesouhlasnou konzumací a žádnou konzumací pornografie ve vztazích byli porovnáni na základě frekvence pohlavního styku, sexuální touhy, sexuální spokojenosti, sexuální komunikace a otevřenosti, intimity, závazku, nevěry a sexuálního experimentování. Do analýzy byly zahrnuty moderující faktory (např. pohlaví, stav vztahu, frekvence konzumace pornografie) a kovariáty (věk, délka vztahu). Data z partnerských vztahů jsou diskutována a porovnávána během celého projektu.

Výsledky naznačují, že společní konzumenti pornografie a nekonzumenti měli nejvyšší frekvenci pohlavního styku za měsíc ve srovnání se souhlasnými a nesouhlasnými konzumenty. Společní a nesouhlasní konzumenti měli zároveň nejvyšší sexuální touhu. Výsledek však s největší pravděpodobností ovlivnilo pohlaví. V případě sexuální spokojenosti byli společní konzumenti pornografie a nekonzumenti významně sexuálně spokojenější ve srovnání se souhlasnými a nesouhlasnými konzumenty. Pokud jde o moderující faktory, nejvýznamnější efekt byl pozorován u diskrepance v sexuální touze. Společní konzumenti pornografie a nekonzumenti se stejnou úrovní sexuální touhy ve vztahu měli nejvyšší úroveň sexuální spokojenosti. Partneři se společnou konzumací pornografie měli nejvyšší úroveň sexuální komunikace a otevřenosti v porovnání s ostatními skupinami konzumentů pornografie. Partneři s nesouhlasnou konzumací pornografie měli nejnižší úroveň sexuální komunikace a otevřenosti. Nekonzumenti měli nejvyšší úroveň intimity a závazku, zatímco společní konzumenti pornografie měli druhou nejvyšší úroveň intimity a závazku. Páry, které nekonzumují pornografii, měly nejmenší riziko, že zažijí nevěru. A konečně, společní konzumenti pornografie měli nejvyšší úroveň sexuálního experimentování. Nejvíce významným limitem disertačního projektu bylo použití online dotazníku a průřezového designu.

Implikace, význam a omezení získaných výsledků v této studii jsou také diskutovány vzhledem k moderujícím faktorům a zahrnutým kovariátům. Další studium souvislostí moderujících faktorů a kontext konzumace pornografie je doporučeno

a navrženo. S ohledem na současné výsledky je diskutováno několik navazujících směrů dalšího výzkumu.

**Klíčová slova:** Pornografie; Partnerský vztah; Sexuální spokojenost; Sexuální touha; Sexuální komunikace; Intimita; Sexuální experimentování

## **Abstract**

Currently, pornography is growing in popularity, and many individuals use it regularly or are in a relationship with someone who does so. While more research focused on associations between pornography consumption in relationships and partner sexual activity, only a few studies explored the context of pornography consumption.

Data from 1 742 individuals and 100 couples were collected through an online questionnaire. Individuals with shared pornography consumption, concordant solitary pornography consumption, discordant pornography consumption, and no consumption in relationships were compared on the frequency of intercourse, sexual desire, sexual satisfaction, sexual communication and openness, intimacy, commitment, infidelity, and sexual experimentation. Moderating factors (e.g. gender, relationship status, frequency of pornography consumption) and covariates (age, relationship length) were included in the analysis. A couple data are discussed and compared throughout the project.

Results suggest that shared pornography consumers and non-consumers had the highest frequency of intercourse per month compared to concordant and discordant pornography consumers. At the same time, shared and discordant consumers had the highest sexual desire. Nonetheless, the effect was most likely influenced by gender. In the case of sexual satisfaction, shared pornography consumers and non-consumers were significantly more sexually satisfied compared to concordant and discordant pornography consumers. Regarding moderating factors, the most significant effect was observed in sexual desire discrepancy. Shared pornography consumers and non-consumers with the same level of sexual desire had the highest level of sexual satisfaction. Partners with shared pornography consumption had the highest level of sexual communication and openness among other context of pornography consumption groups. Partners with discordant pornography consumption had the lowest level of sexual communication and openness. Interestingly, non-consumers had the highest level of intimacy and commitment, whereas shared pornography consumers had the second highest level of intimacy and commitment. Couples who do not consume pornography had the least risk of experiencing infidelity. Lastly, shared pornography consumers had the highest level of sexual experimentation. The most significant limitation of the dissertation project was the use of an online questionnaire and cross-sectional design.

Implications, significance, and limitations of obtained results in the present study are also discussed concerning moderating variables and covariates. It is suggested that the

associations between these moderating factors and the context of pornography consumption, in general, are investigated in future studies. Several directions for further research are discussed, considering these findings.

**Keywords:** Pornography; Relationship; Sexual Satisfaction; Sexual Desire; Sexual Communication; Intimacy; Sexual Experimentation

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## **Introduction**

Research on pornography consumption and sexuality has advanced over the past decade. Due to technological advancements (Fisher & Barak, 2001), pornography is becoming easier to use, growing in popularity, and more accessible. Different age groups commonly consume pornography (Ballester-Arnal et al., 2022).

Currently, many individuals consume pornography regularly or are in a relationship with someone who does so. Research on pornography and its impact on romantic relationships is not as frequent as on individuals in general, but its relevance is increasing, and so will its prevalence (Carroll et al., 2017). In the past, men predominantly consumed pornography solitarily (Carroll et al., 2008). In the last several decades, there has been an increase in women watching pornography (Price et al., 2016). It is still more common for men to report significantly higher pornography use than women (Albright, 2008; Carroll et al., 2017; Maddox et al., 2011; Petersen & Hyde, 2010; Poulsen et al., 2013), also women tend to watch pornography together in relationships as a part of partner sexual activity (e.g. Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Kohut et al., 2018). Kraus and Rosenberg (2016) also claim that only a minority of men watch pornography with their partners.

In recent years, shared pornography consumption in romantic relationships has become common (Carroll et al., 2017; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018). Watching pornography is still mainly a solitary activity. Still, due to the increasing number of individual consumers in committed relationships, it will be necessary for most couples to discuss expectations and establish rules for solitary and shared pornography consumption as well (Willoughby et al., 2020). Public (Luscombe, 2016) and academic (Carroll et al., 2017; Hald et al., 2014; Newstrom & Harris, 2016; Rasmussen, 2016) interest in solitary and shared pornography use and relational context is rising. Despite that some studies view pornography as a harmful activity with adverse outcomes for sexual satisfaction and romantic relationships (Maddox et al., 2011; Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Štulhofer et al., 2008; Wright et al., 2018), several recent studies suggest that pornography consumption can also be a positive activity with beneficial outcomes for partner sexual activity, especially shared pornography consumption (Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013; Kohut et al., 2017; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Carvalho et al., 2013; McKee, 2007). Throughout recent studies, we can observe inconsistent results.

## **Literature Review**

### **1 Pornography**

For current study purposes, it is necessary to define pornography. The reason is the vagueness and ambiguity of the concept, under which everyone can imagine something different. Pornography is a social construct that contains culturally bound meanings that change over time (Haavio-Mannila & Kontula, 2003).

However, despite the contradictions, most experts agree on the purpose of pornography. Pornography can be defined as "sexually explicit material whose primary purpose is to produce sexual arousal in viewers" (Zillmann & Bryant, 1986, p. 52). This definition highlights the explicit nature of pornography and its intended effect on the audience. Nevertheless, even this brings ambiguities. What is arousing to one may not be arousing to another. For some people, it is a naked body. For some people, it must be certain sexual practices. At the same time, it is necessary to consider cultural differences. Differences are visible, for example, in America and Brazil. Brazil is a highly eroticised society. On the other hand, America is the least tolerant society (Mathé, 2011), which is surprising considering the development and number of pornographic productions created in the city of Los Angeles.

It seems to us most appropriate here to mention mostly psychological definitions of pornography, which can best describe the given concept even regarding the subjectivity of the consumer. Warner (2000) talks about pornography consumption as a form of sexual expression that expands an individual's understanding of sexuality. Most researchers agree that pornography cannot simply be defined as sexually explicit material.

#### ***1.1 Current Trends***

As I have already mentioned, experts disagree on the definition of pornography. The porn industry, on the other hand, created precisely defined categories of pornography. Three categories have become the generally accepted way of dividing pornography. Pornography can thus be divided into soft pornography, hard pornography, and illegal pornography (Chochola, 2010).

It was divided by the porn industry in 1952 when the so-called Pornographic Manual (Manual of Pornography, 1979) was created, which precisely defines what can and

cannot be seen in soft pornography. Furthermore, scenes that were rated as illegal were described here. Here, we can list child pornography, animal pornography, sadomasochistic pornography, etc. This manual is recognised to this day, although it is unofficial and has never been published. However, the view is different in the company, as the manual is mainly created for business purposes. Internet sites with sexual content are visited by approximately one-third of all Internet users (Ayres & Haddock, 2009).

One of the most visited websites with pornographic material, PornHub, releases a comprehensive static overview of the traffic to their site every year. During the year 2019, PornHub had a total of 42 billion visits. Unfortunately, PornHub did not release traffic data for the previous year. The most searched terms of 2023 were “hentai”, “milf”, and “lesbian”. The most viewed categories of 2023 were “lesbian”, “Japanese”, and “ebony”. The average viewer age was 37, which is no different from recent years. However, the use of mobile phones for viewing pornography has increased significantly in recent years. From mobile devices comes 91.3 % of all traffic (PornHub, 2024). Trends in pornography keep shifting. Among these, we can include the increase in popularity of virtual reality pornography, the increase in interest in diversity, or female pornography. However, it is not the dissertation's focus, so we do not mention it in detail here.

## **2 Frequency of Intercourse**

One of the essential and important areas of sexuality is the frequency of intercourse, which is strongly connected to sexual satisfaction (Brezsnyak & Whisman, 2004; McNulty et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2011), which is at the same time associated with overall relationship satisfaction (Litzinger & Gordon, 2005; Sprecher & Cate, 2004; Impett et al., 2014). These factors influence each other (Grøntvedt et al., 2020). Consequently, it was crucial to examine the frequency of sexual activity in connection with the consumption of pornography within romantic relationships. Research indicated that the frequency of sexual activity and sexual satisfaction typically decrease as relationships progress (Call et al., 1995; Klusmann, 2002; McNulty & Fisher, 2008; Schmiedeberg & Schröder, 2016; Udry, 1980). For instance, Udry (1980) discovered that, on average, the frequency of sexual activity decreased by 25% over four years. In a recent study conducted by McNulty and colleagues (2016), there was a steady decline in the frequency of sexual activity observed over four years. The decline in this pattern should not be attributed solely to age-related factors such as declining physical abilities or heightened illness. A comparable trend was also noted among younger couples in the initial years of marriage. The main factor contributing to this decrease is a noticeable decline in interest in sexual activity. This decrease is linked to various factors, including enhanced accessibility to a sexual partner and the predictability of sex with them (Call et al., 1995).

In terms of gender differences, Grøntvedt and colleagues (2020) suggest that men have a higher desire for sexual activity compared to women and are more open to compromise on the frequency of sexual activity. Women with more liberal attitudes may emphasise the physical aspects of sex over the emotional connection. Furthermore, in committed relationships, women tend to have a higher sexual desire for sexual activity with their partner and to initiate sexual activity more frequently. With a more open attitude towards sex and satisfaction in their relationship, women may be more willing to compromise with the frequency of sexual activity. According to Grøntvedt et al. (2015), women initiate sex more often in longer relationships than men.

There is a belief among some individuals that watching pornography can reduce interest in a partner's sexual activity, potentially leading to a negative impact on the frequency of sexual intercourse (Kohut et al., 2017). It does not necessarily have to be that

way. Grov and colleagues (2010) asked individuals if they were engaging in shared pornography use with their partners. In such cases, watching pornography was linked to a higher frequency of sexual intercourse. Shared pornography consumption can have a positive effect on various aspects of a partner sexual activity, mainly if the pornography consumption frequency is not high. Partners in relationships with shared pornography use had a higher frequency of intercourse (Benjamin & Tlusten, 2010; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Willoughby et al., 2020; Huntington et al., 2020). Within previous research conducted for a master's thesis (Lexová, 2020), results showed that shared pornography consumers and non-consumers had the highest frequency of intercourse per month compared to concordant and discordant consumers.

### **3 Sexual Desire**

Sexual desire is the personal inclination or longing for sexual activities that includes physical arousal, emotional attraction, and sexual fantasies (Carvalheira et al., 2015). It is a complex aspect of sexuality affected by an extensive range of factors, including biological and psychological factors, hormones, psychosocial stressors, neurotransmitters, and past sexual experiences (Bancroft, 2015).

While sexual desire is crucial for maintaining healthy sexual functioning (Brotto & Smith, 2014), there is not enough research examining the association between pornography consumption and sexual desire within romantic relationships (Willoughby et al., 2020). Numerous studies have identified a notable and positive connection between pornography consumption and sexual desire (e.g. Chesli et al., 2023; Carvalho et al., 2013; Leonhardt et al., 2021; Prause & Pfaus, 2015; Steele et al., 2013).

The context of pornography consumption is receiving increasing attention. Research showed that solitary pornography use is rather harmful to relational and personal health as well, especially if pornography consumption is more frequent (Campbell & Kohut, 2016). On the other hand, shared pornography consumption seems to have positive effects on partner sexual activity, but sexual desire is the exception (e.g. Yucel & Gassanov, 2010; Maddox et al., 2011; Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013; Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Kohut et al., 2021).

In most cases, research does not indicate a decrease in sexual desire associated with pornography consumption. Instead, findings commonly suggest that either watching pornography increases sexual desire or that it has no substantial effect on sexual desire. A decrease in sexual desire was predicted only in cases when guilt was involved while watching pornography. Specifically, individuals who experienced more guilt about watching pornography reported lower levels of sexual desire for their partner (Bennett et al., 2019).

Some recent studies focused on the effect of various moderating factors that could explain this inconsistency in pornography consumption and partner sexual activity research. Men usually report a higher number of sexual fantasies and thoughts, higher desired frequency of intercourse, and higher sexual drive than women (Baumeister et al., 2001). Men tend to be more experienced with pornography compared to women, and they



watch it more frequently as well (Petersen & Hyde, 2010). On the contrary, McCarthy and McDonald (2009) pointed out that there are men who have lower sexual desire. Therefore, all men should not be generalised as having a higher sexual desire.

Women consuming pornography, compared to women who do not consume pornography, have been found to have a higher level of sexual desire. In the case of men, no significant difference was found. According to Poulsen et al. (2013), women watch pornography primarily with a partner. Therefore, we can assume that these women already have a higher sexual desire, probably not affected by pornography consumption. In a recent investigation conducted by Willoughby and Leonhardt (2018), it was discovered that the individual consumption of pornography by both men and women was linked to an increase in their sexual desire. However, in men, more frequent use of pornography was strongly connected to a decrease in sexual desire in women. The study suggests various explanations for this phenomenon, such as men using pornography as a coping mechanism when experiencing frustration or dissatisfaction in their relationships. Age can be regarded as a moderating factor, with older men and women frequently indicating lower levels of sexual desire. Additionally, besides age and gender, social factors like education have been considered as moderating influences on sexual desire. Women with a university education are notably less prone to experiencing low sexual desire compared to those who have not graduated from high school, even after accounting for other demographic characteristics (Laumann et al., 1999).

Regarding the relationship length, research by Impett and Peplau (2003) suggested that men initiate sexual activity more often compared to women in the initial phases of new relationships. Simultaneously, as relationships progress, men and women have different sexual desire experiences. Unlike men, women's sexual desire and relationship length were negatively associated, with this effect remaining significant even after controlling for age, relationship satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction, as indicated in a study by Murray and Milhausen (2012).

Other studies exploring relationships and pornography consumption have identified a connection between the frequency of men's pornography use and reduced levels of sexual satisfaction. Conversely, the frequency of women's pornography consumption has been associated with heightened levels of sexual satisfaction for both partners (Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Muuses et al., 2015; Poulsen et al., 2013). Does this pattern extend to sexual desire as well?

Research consistently indicated that more frequent pornography consumption was often associated with problematic outcomes in relationships, as demonstrated in studies such as the findings by Wright et al. (2017). Frequent pornography consumption may become uncontrollable, leading to relational consequences, as suggested by Vaillancourt-Morel et al. (2017). Additionally, Bennet et al. (2019) suggested in their study that individuals who engage in more frequent pornography consumption tend to report lower levels of guilt about it. Guilt related to pornography consumption was negatively associated with sexual desire for a partner in a relationship. Individuals experiencing higher levels of guilt due to pornography consumption had lower sexual desire in their relationships.

Attitudes toward pornography can be considered a moderating factor as well. Personal attitudes and beliefs are significant in making decisions within the relationship. Individual opinions and attitudes can impact how pornography influences their relationship, for instance, how individuals react to partner pornography usage (Grubbs et al., 2015; Perry, 2016).

Previous research has highlighted that some individuals perceive their partner's engagement with pornography as a violation of the boundaries within their relationship, as noted in the study by Zitzman and Butler (2009). This can lead to a scenario where pornography consumption is perceived as some form of infidelity, as described by Whitty (2003). Furthermore, individuals who hold moral objections about pornography and persist in its consumption are more inclined to experience and report a pornography addiction (Grubbs et al., 2019).

Another important moderating factor is relationship status. Relationships have slightly different processes and outcomes based on whether those partners are dating, cohabiting, or married (Moors et al., 2017), which may be related to different consequences and effects of pornography consumption (Willoughby et al., 2020). Studies have demonstrated variations in sexual behaviour, processes, and attitudes depending on the relationship status (Herbenick et al., 2010). In a recent McNulty et al. (2019) investigation, participants were administered multiple surveys shortly after entering marriage. These surveys were distributed seven times, at six to eight-month intervals. The findings reveal that recently married couples reported elevated to moderate levels of desire, with men indicating higher levels of sexual desire compared to women.

## **4 Sexual Satisfaction**

Sexual satisfaction is one of the most critical areas of sexuality closely related to overall relationship satisfaction (Litzinger & Gordon, 2005; Sprecher & Cate, 2004; Impett et al., 2014). Several studies showed that sexual satisfaction decreases as relationships progress (Call et al., 1995; Klusmann, 2002; McNulty & Fisher, 2008; Schmiedeberg & Schröder, 2016; Frederick et al., 2017). McNulty and colleagues (2016) showed that while marital and sexual satisfaction have decreased in relationships over time, they can affect one another. Therefore, higher levels of sexual satisfaction can mute the decrease in marital satisfaction conversely.

Authors Dwulit and Rzymiski (2019) showed in their review that there is evidence that pornography use is associated with lower sexual satisfaction. Nevertheless, several various factors influenced these results. One of them is solitary or shared pornography use. As already mentioned above, sexual satisfaction may not be influenced by pornography consumption in a relationship only in a negative way, especially shared pornography use (Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013; Kohut et al., 2017; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Carvalho et al., 2013; McKee, 2007). Yucel and Gassanov (2010) showed that partners watching pornography together were more sexually satisfied than partners watching alone. At the same time, other research said that shared consumers of pornography are also more sexually satisfied compared to concordant solitary consumers (Maddox et al., 2011). The findings of Willoughby and Leonhardt (2018) are consistent with the previous one. Shared pornography consumption is associated with higher sexual satisfaction. One of the most recent studies by Kohut and colleagues (2021) claims that currently, there is consistent evidence that partners who use pornography together report higher sexual satisfaction than partners who do not. They also found that discordant pornography consumption was negatively associated with sexual satisfaction. Our previous study (Lexová, 2020) showed that shared pornography consumers and non-consumers were the most sexually satisfied compared to concordant and discordant consumers.

Pornography consumption and sexual satisfaction are more complex, and various moderating factors have an impact on whether the outcomes will be positive or negative. As Willoughby et al. (2020) suggest, studying these factors is preferable.

Several studies identified pornography consumption as harmful to men. In men, pornography had a negative effect on sexual satisfaction, while in women, it was the opposite. Female pornography viewing had a slightly positive association with the quality of sexual activities. Conversely, pornography consumption only by men in relationships was associated with lower satisfaction with sexual activities (Ferron et al., 2016; Rasmussen, 2016; Sun et al., 2016; Willoughby et al., 2021; Wright et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2018; Sommet & Berent, 2022; Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013). According to the author's Bridges and Morokoff (2011), women mostly consumed pornography with a partner rather than alone. Men mainly used to watch pornography to masturbate. For women, the consumption of pornography was part of sexual practices with men.

Different results according to gender were also confirmed by another study (Stewart & Szymanski, 2012), whose sample consisted only of women. Their partners' pornography consumption was negatively associated with the quality of their sex lives. A meta-analysis (Wright & Tokunaga, 2018) examining different areas of individuals' lives concerning pornography came to the same result. According to the study, women who perceived their partners as pornography consumers were generally less sexually satisfied as well. Miller et al. (2019) in their research found that the consumption of pornography may not harm partners' sexual activities. Instead, the consumption of pornography itself promotes a variety of sexual activities. However, frequent masturbation was negatively associated with sexual satisfaction in partners. The results of the study suggest possible influences of various other processes in relationships that occur together with pornography consumption.

As for age, sexual satisfaction decreases over time, mainly because of not dealing with health problems (Eren et al., 2019). Some studies claim that in the case of women, sexual satisfaction increases with age. Many older individuals are satisfied with their sex life and are active in late life (Buczak-Stec et al., 2021; Trompeter et al., 2012). Higher sexual satisfaction. Starc and colleagues (2022) found in their study that the most sexually satisfied is the 18 to 23 age group. In contrast, Pedersen and Blekesaune (2003) suggested that sexual satisfaction increases with age. Since age may influence sexual satisfaction, this factor was controlled in data analysis for the current study.

Starc and colleagues (2022) in their study found that higher sexual satisfaction was associated with a higher level of sexual education. This is consistent with the study by Ji and Norling (2004), as they found a positive correlation between sexual satisfaction and

education as well. Education, in stable conditions and without sexual dysfunction, was the most effective predictor of sexual satisfaction in women (Bayat et al., 2022).

Relationship status is another critical moderating factor. Dating, cohabiting, married, and non-monogamous couples have slightly different outcomes and processes (Moors et al., 2017). Especially sexual behaviour, processes, and attitudes are different across relationship statuses (Herbenick et al., 2010). A longitudinal observational study focused on newlywed couples by Muusses et al. (2015) found that increased sexual satisfaction in men predicted a decline in their wife's pornography consumption. Research shows that married couples are more emotionally satisfied with sex compared to cohabiting couples (Waite & Gallagher, 2000; Christopher & Sprecher, 2000; Butzer & Campbell, 2008). There are several possible explanations for these findings. Cohabiting partners are less committed compared to married people, so they do not have the motivation to invest and take care of their relationship, and sexual satisfaction, therefore, decreases (Laumann et al., 1994; Treas & Giesen, 2000). Few studies revealed a negative association between sexual satisfaction and casual sex. Unmarried individuals are more likely to have more sexual partners, so they are less likely to be satisfied (Pedersen & Blekesaune, 2003). Simultaneously, married people could be more satisfied since they probably have less fear of possible abandonment and rejection (Adamczyk & Bookwala, 2013). Recent studies are not consistent with the finding that cohabiting people have less commitment and more infidelity in a relationship (Carter et al., 2016; Lyssens-Danneboom & Mortelmans, 2015). Results of a recent study showed that couples who were not married had higher sexual satisfaction (Starc et al., 2022). Due to findings of inconsistency, we cannot claim that married couples have higher sexual satisfaction. In addition, pornography use was negatively correlated with sexual satisfaction in newlywed couples (Muusses et al., 2015).

Similarly, the length of the relationship may influence couple dynamics (Ahmetoglu et al., 2010), creating a unique context through which relationships interact with pornography. Stewart and Szymanski (2012) revealed that relationship length moderated associations between problematic pornography use and sexual satisfaction. Significant sexual dissatisfaction was associated with longer relationships. Daspe and colleagues (2017) found that longer relationships were negatively related to pornography use in women. Thus, it reduced its effect on sexual satisfaction.

Nevertheless, pornography itself may not be the cause of adverse outcomes. Muusses et al. (2015) thought similarly and believed the situation could be the opposite.

Consumption of pornography may not cause lower sexual satisfaction, but on the contrary, lower sexual satisfaction may result from consumption of pornography. The results showed that the partners' sexual satisfaction predicted a decrease in the frequency of the partner's viewing of pornographic material. In contrast, the partner's viewing of pornography did not affect their partner's sexual satisfaction. The frequency of pornography consumption may also be an essential factor in association with sexual satisfaction. Wright et al. (2019) argue that regular pornography viewing was associated with lower satisfaction both in men and women. However, the negative association was more in men, as indicated by the already mentioned research. Although the study offers exciting results, they cannot be widely applied, as the research was conducted in a sample of university students. Bóthe et al. (2020) examined the frequency of pornography consumption. They did not find different results in the level of sexual satisfaction among the participants depending on the frequency of pornography consumption. In contrast, other studies revealed that a higher frequency of pornography consumption in men is associated with lower sexual satisfaction (Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Muusses et al., 2015; Poulsen et al., 2013; Yucel & Gassanov, 2010; Wright et al., 2017; Szymanski & Stewart-Richardson, 2014; Morgan, 2011). Several studies showed that higher pornography use is associated with lower sexual satisfaction with no gender differences (Wright et al., 2019; Cranney & Štulhofer, 2017; Muusses et al., 2015; Blais-Lecours et al., 2016). Wright and colleagues (2018) in their studies suggest that watching pornography less than once a month has little or no impact on sexual satisfaction.

Another moderating factor is sexual desire discrepancy, which can be defined as a difference between the desired frequency of sexual activities and the actual frequency of sexual activities in relationships (Willoughby & Vitas, 2012). Sexual desire discrepancy influences relational outcomes (e.g., Davies et al., 1999; Mark & Murray, 2012). Having sexual desire discrepancy in relationships is not uncommon (Byers & Lewis, 1988), mainly due to men, in general, having a higher sexual desire than women (Baumeister et al., 2001). Lower sexual satisfaction was predicted by high sexual desire discrepancy in women after controlling for various factors (Bridges & Horne, 2017; Mark & Murray, 2012).

## **5 Sexual Communication and Openness**

Sexual communication is essential for the development of healthy sexual function and its maintenance (Masters & Johnson, 1970). We most often think of sexual communication as a way for individuals to express their preferences about sex (Byers & Demmons, 1999). However, it is about expressing preferences and asking the partner to realise their desired practices. As such, sexual communication is an essential component of romantic relationships, which is closely related to sexual and overall satisfaction (Kislev, 2019). In general, women score higher on this construct than men, although with only a minor significance (Greene & Faulkner, 2005). Sexual communication in romantic relationships tends to be more threatening to the relationship than communication about common partner topics and can affect the relationship itself (e.g., Rehman et al., 2011; Byers, 2011). There is a certain amount of stress involved. Some people may fear that their partner will reject their sexual desires. They may also feel shame (Derlega et al., 2008) and fear their partner's reaction. A higher level of sexual communication also requires greater intimacy in a relationship.

Communication, in general, is, for both men and women, one of the crucial predictors of sexual satisfaction (Frederick et al., 2017). However, sexual communication has an essential role in women's facilitation of sexual desire. The reason could be that women are more likely to experience responsive desire than spontaneous desire, which is less connected with communication (Basson, 2002; Both & Everaerd, 2002). Research showed that men use sexual communication more instrumentally to have better sex, which improves sexual satisfaction. In contrast, women use sexual communication to increase relationship satisfaction, which improves sexual satisfaction indirectly (MacNeil & Byers, 2005).

Specifically, sexual communication is positively correlated with sexual satisfaction (Byers & Demmons, 1999; Bridges et al., 2004; Frederick et al., 2017; Blunt-Vinti et al., 2019; Mark & Jozkowski, 2013; Montesti et al., 2011), also with a higher frequency of sexual activity (Hurlbert, 1991), sexual desire (Mallory et al., 2019), and a more significant number of experienced orgasms (Ferroni & Taffe, 1997). This applies to both men and women (Haavio-Mannila & Kontula, 1997). The association between overall relationship satisfaction and sexual communication was stronger in married couples (Mallory, 2022).

Sexual communication can be a prevention of sexual dysfunctions as well (Reese et al., 2014). However, partners generally experience more anxiety in sexual communication than in non-sexual communication (Rehman et al., 2017). A lack of communication about a relationship can lead to uncertainty (Knobloch & Satterlee, 2012). Relationship uncertainty is associated with sexual communication discrepancies. A new study by Macchette (2022) also showed that sexual communication is significantly associated with relationship satisfaction, sexual intimacy, and sexual satisfaction.

The level of sexual communication varies based on relationship status. Married couples are less likely to communicate about sexuality compared to cohabiting or dating couples (Romano, 2008). Sexual communication in relationships leads to education about each other's preferences (Machette et al., 2021; MacNeil & Byers, 2005). In opposition to Romano's study (2008), with more commitment in a relationship, satisfaction with sexual communication increases. We can expect greater commitment in longer relationships or marriages. The association between overall sexual function and sexual communication is stronger for married couples compared to shorter relationships, e.g., dating couples (Mallory et al., 2019). Married couples have longer mean relationship lengths than other couples, as they are typically older (Brien et al., 2006). Sexual satisfaction declines over time in marriage (Schmiedeberg & Schröder, 2016). However, sexual communication seems to increase with relationship length because these couples may become more comfortable discussing their sexual preferences (e.g., Wheelless et al., 1984). The connection between sexual communication and sexual satisfaction is stronger for longer relationships (Montesi et al., 2012). Partners in couples often differ in their sexual preferences (McCarthy & Bodnar, 2005). Simultaneously, sexual preferences may evolve (Mallory et al., 2019). A greater level of sexual communication most likely explains why some relationships remain satisfied even though their desire is changing (Meston & Trapnell, 2005). Additionally, partners in committed relationships after sexual activity report more positive disclosures than dating partners (Denes, 2012). Considering age, we have evidence that sexual function decreases over time (Corona et al., 2013; Hayes & Dennerstein, 2005). Therefore, age could be a moderating factor as well.

In terms of pornography consumption itself, men generally consume more pornography than women (e.g., Albright, 2008; Carroll et al., 2017; Maddox et al., 2011). In romantic relationships, the consumption of pornography is associated with more open communication as well as a more tolerant erotic climate. In such cases, partners consume



pornography together to improve their sex lives by communicating their sexual preferences, desires, and fantasies. This effect was not found in partners who did not consume pornography. At the same time, no dysfunctions were discovered. In relationships in which only one of the partners watched pornography, more dysfunctions were revealed than in previous cases (Daneback et al., 2009). A study by Grov and colleagues (2010) showed similar results, as they found that shared pornography consumption is associated with improvements in sexual communication. In a study by Kohut et al. (2017), the participants stated that consuming pornography is closely related to open communication. We can observe more openness and honesty in the relationship. People themselves learn about their sexuality and preferences that can be further explored with their partner. Overall, couples experiencing communication problems have an additional partner and sexual problems than partners who can communicate together about all topics. Consumption of pornography tends to be associated with better sexual communication. According to respondents, being open to pornography can have the effect of removing jealousy from a relationship when partners without access to pornography can communicate and express their thoughts about sexuality. Benefits from pornography consumption and sexual communication are felt primarily by partners who have similar attitudes towards pornography in general (Willoughby et al., 2016). Honesty can also have a significant impact on whether pornography consumption will be a problem in a relationship. Women whose partners watched pornography but were honest with their partners about it had less anxiety and higher relationship quality (Resch & Alderson, 2014). Moreover, the consumption of pornography is more common for men than women (Carroll et al., 2017; Petersen & Hyde, 2010; Regnerus et al., 2016). On the other hand, women's pornography consumption is associated with less dysfunction in relationships (Kohut et al., 2018).

Kohut et al. (2018) innovatively extended one of the previous studies by Daneback et al. (2009). They divided relationships not only according to whether they consume pornography together or separately but also according to whether they communicate with each other about it. Couples who communicated about pornography together had more shared values than couples in which one partner consumed pornography while the other did not. Partners who shared watching pornography with their partner experienced greater closeness and more open sexual communication with each other than partners who did not share pornography consumption with their partner. In this study, women often reported

concordant solitary use. The frequency of pornography consumption is an important moderating factor as well. The study suggests that openness in sexual communication is lower in the case of moderate frequency of pornography consumption compared to higher frequency consumption and no consumption. Our previous research (Lexová, 2020) showed that shared pornography consumers had the highest level of sexual communication and openness compared to concordant and discordant consumers and non-consumers.

## **6 Intimacy, Commitment, and Infidelity**

The concept of intimacy has been extensively studied for the past forty years, exploring its various dimensions (Baumeister & Bratslavsky, 1999; Hook et al., 2003; Schaefer & Olson, 1981; Sternberg, 1986). Intimacy consists of love, affection, trust, self-disclosure, and personal validation (Hook et al., 2003). Studies indicated that engaging in intimacy behaviours is linked to enhanced psychological, sexual, and relational well-being for both individuals and couples, regardless of whether they are part of the general population or undergoing significant life transitions (e.g., transition to parenthood; Costa et al., 2020; Gagné et al., 2021). Emotional and sexual aspects of intimacy are crucial correlates of relationship satisfaction. At the same time, sexual satisfaction corresponds to emotional intimacy (Yoo et al., 2014). Together with commitment, this is an essential and often research-related area of investigating the quality of relationships. At the same time, attention is focused on infidelity, which is closely related to intimacy and commitment.

Commitment is a multidimensional and complex construct (Adams & Jones, 1997; Givertz & Segrin, 2005). In a shortcut, commitment is defined as the inclination to sustain a relationship driven by an internal attraction to one's partner or the relationship itself (Rusbult et al., 2006). Commitment in a relationship, indicating the intention to stay with one's partner, is a crucial predictor of stability in intimate relationships (Pope, 2013).

Infidelity is typically described as engaging in sexual activities with a person other than one's current significant other (Wilson et al., 2011). The emotional aspect of infidelity is essential as well. Therefore, the definition of infidelity has recently expanded (Kruger et al., 2013; Wilson et al., 2011). Emotional infidelity involves forming a close emotional connection with someone other than one's current partner (Wilson et al., 2011). In the case of the current study, we are mainly talking about the sexual aspect of infidelity. Regardless of the type of infidelity, most individuals of all ages believe that infidelity is unacceptable (Feldman & Cauffman, 1999; Sheppard et al., 1995). What one partner regards as an act of infidelity may be seen as a harmless gesture by the other. It is conceivable that understanding each other's perspectives on what constitutes infidelity could be crucial in preserving a relationship. Therefore, exploring the variations in perceptions of infidelity becomes a valuable research topic, given its potential implications for individuals in relationships facing challenges (Oberle et al., 2017). Men tend to experience more distress

from sexual infidelity compared to women, whereas women tend to experience more distress from emotional infidelity than men (e.g. Buss et al., 1992; Cramer et al., 2008; Edlund et al., 2006; Kruger et al., 2015; Sagarin et al., 2012). Based on an evolutionary hypothesis, men are concerned that a woman's sexual infidelity could lead to them supporting children who are not biologically theirs. In contrast, women fear that a man's emotional infidelity might result in him providing for another woman instead of her (Buss et al., 2012).

As highlighted in earlier research (Wilson et al., 2011), participants commonly identified sexual activities such as intercourse and unclothed interactions as consistently perceived as forms of infidelity. Nevertheless, it is essential to recognise that not all sexual behaviours are viewed equally, as some are more likely to be categorised as "always perceived as cheating" compared to others. Specifically, activities like sexual intercourse and oral sex are nearly universally regarded as "always cheating," with the perception extending to activities such as taking a shower together and dating to a somewhat lesser extent.

Can watching pornography affect these areas? According to some respondents, the consumption of pornography itself is considered a kind of infidelity. In an international study comparing American and Spanish respondents using a questionnaire, they noted that 73% of Americans and 77% of Spaniards think that the consumption of pornography should not be considered infidelity. At the same time, women and men did not differ from each other. People who do not consume pornography are more likely to see it as infidelity than those who consume it (Negy et al., 2018). Similar results were reported in their qualitative study by Olmstead and colleagues (2013). With the difference in their sample, only half of the women, but most of the men, said that pornography is acceptable in a relationship under certain conditions. It was mostly about controlling the frequency of pornography consumption so that, according to the respondents, "addiction" did not arise. Women mostly set such conditions. Overall, 22% of men and 26% of women in this study claimed that pornography consumption is not acceptable in a relationship at all. The results of a questionnaire study conducted on adolescents show that exposure to pornographic materials in adolescence is not related to partner intimacy in young adulthood (Štulhofer et al., 2012).

Some studies viewed pornography as harmful to relationship intimacy, as it was considered an escape from negative emotions and experiences in relationships (Brown,

2015). Women in serious relationships who find out that their partners are consuming pornography often express decreased trust and diminished levels of psychological and emotional closeness and intimacy (Bergner & Bridges, 2002; Schneider, 2000; Zitzman & Butler, 2009).

In general, solitary pornography users have lower relationship satisfaction, levels of intimacy, and commitment compared to non-pornography users. Partners consuming pornography together had higher levels of intimacy and commitment than solitary consumers in a relationship (Minarcik et al., 2016). A longitudinal dyadic daily diary study by Vaillancourt-Morel and colleagues (2023) showed that couples have lower same-day intimacy and relationship satisfaction in case of an individual's solitary pornography consumption unknown by their partner. On the other hand, when a partner knows about an individual's pornography consumption, a higher level of intimacy was reported over one year by that partner. At the same time, lower intimacy level over one year was reported by their partner.

In any case, during the research on pornography consumption and satisfaction in romantic relationships, the authors Veit and colleagues (2016) found that one more factor enters into the relationship between these two variables. They found that men with higher or average levels of emotional intimacy did not have negative consequences of pornography consumption on relationship satisfaction. If pornography is consumed relatively less often, both partners can benefit from this. In such relationships, there is an increase in the quality and frequency of sexual activities and, above all, an increase in intimacy between partners (Groß et al., 2010). An online study of women found that respondents who believed their partner was honest with them about pornography consumption had higher relationship satisfaction and less anxiety (Resch & Alderson, 2014).

It turns out that people who do not consume pornography have a greater level of commitment in a partner relationship than people who consume pornography together or in solitary. However, for people who exclusively watched pornography with a partner, commitment was greater. Differences could also be observed between partners consuming pornography exclusively together and those who do not consume pornography at all. Exclusive shared pornography consumers reported more infidelity than partners who did not consume pornography (Maddox et al., 2011). Using linear regression, it was found that with the frequency of pornography consumption, the level of commitment in relationships

decreases (Bekaroo et al., 2017). Other studies have also confirmed that pornography consumption among people in relationships is associated with a reduced level of commitment, which can subsequently lead to infidelity (Bridges et al., 2011; Lambert et al., 2012). Some researchers argue that pornography consumption itself increases the likelihood of infidelity (Gwinn et al., 2013). These are mostly very speculative results, as the research is mainly conducted on respondent samples consisting of university students. Therefore, it cannot be related to the adult population, whose relationships can be very different. One recent study examined whether viewing pornography was associated with a propensity for infidelity. The results showed no such thing for men or women (Borgogna et al., 2020).

Another study (Adamson et al., 2021) only in heterosexual women showed that partner pornography consumption was significantly negatively correlated with sexual and emotional intimacy. Attitudes toward pornography of these women did not mediate any of these associations. Only with a higher frequency of partner pornography consumption, the women's more negative attitudes toward pornography were associated with a lower level of emotional intimacy. Age and education were controlled in this study. At the same time, older women in the sample experienced less sexual and emotional intimacy. Similar findings were in the case of relationship length. Higher-educated women had more recreational intimacy. The moderation results suggest that a possible explanation is that women may struggle to establish intimacy with a partner engaging in behaviour they strongly disapprove of, perceiving it as a significant threat to relationship attachment, thereby adversely affecting genuine intimacy (Zitzman & Butler, 2009).

Research has also indicated that greater religiosity, particularly of a conservative nature, amplifies the extent of the adverse connection between individuals' self-reported frequency of pornography consumption and their sexual satisfaction (Perry & Whitehead, 2019; Wright & Bae, 2015). Studies also indicate that religiosity plays a significant role in the relationship and sexual dissatisfaction linked to the use of pornography among individual users of pornography (Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs et al., 2019).

Relationship status might be an essential mediation factor. Partners were more accepting of infidelity in case they were dating compared to married couples (Sheppard et al., 1995). Overall, women were less accepting of infidelity than men, regardless of the relationship status (Feldman & Cauffman, 1999; Sheppard et al., 1995). Ruffing and colleagues (2024) showed in their research experiences of women who are either married

to or living with men engaging in solitary pornography consumption. In their findings, the perceived frequency of partners' pornography use was linked to higher distress related to pornography and lower levels of relationship and sexual satisfaction among women reporting their partners' pornography use. The positive correlation between perceived frequency and pornography-related distress remained consistent regardless of attitude or religious commitment, but it was heightened by conservative religiosity. Specifically, for individuals not adhering to conservative religiosity, there was no notable association between perceived frequency and pornography-related distress.

## **7 Sexual Experimentation**

Exploring one's sexual preferences, desires, boundaries, and experiences is commonly referred to as sexual experimentation. This involves exploring new activities, engaging in diverse forms of sexual expression, and developing a deeper understanding of one's sexuality and desires. In a romantic relationship, sexual experimentation includes trying different sexual practices and open sexual communication with a partner (McCormack & Wignall, 2017). Many individuals or couples use pornography as an instrument for the improvement or development of their sexuality (Daneback et al., 2009; Rothman et al., 2021; Rausch et al., 2017). Through pornography consumption, they can explore new ideas and sexual activities that can be incorporated into sexual activities with their partner (Attwood et al., 2018). Some young people are gaining knowledge about specific sexual techniques from pornography materials. That includes, for example, how to perform cunnilingus or fellatio (Peter & Valkenburg, 2016). On the contrary, some researchers did not find consistent connections between greater experience with different sexual practices and pornography consumption (Doornwaard et al., 2015; Mattebo et al., 2014).

Following pornography consumption, specific individuals discovered an increased attraction to various sexual activities and felt motivated to experiment with new ones. The most mentioned aspect in this context was the exploration of oral-genital sexual behaviours (Weinberg et al., 2010). Research showed that, unlike men, women could be led by pornography consumption to broaden their sexual scripts and acquire knowledge of new sexual behaviours (Komlenac & Hochleitner, 2022).

According to the respondents in the qualitative research of Kohut and colleagues (2017), pornography consumption should expand the repertoire of partner sexual activities and should also encourage sexual experimentation. As such, pornography brings variety to a partner's sex life. The following qualitative research presents very similar results. For men and women in the sample, the consequences of pornography consumption were positive. Specifically, respondents mentioned strengthening the relationship or using pornography as a learning tool to help learn new sexual practices or sexual positions, which for the relationship represented stepping out of the stereotype (Olmstead et al., 2013). Across research, the theme of pornography as a source of education emerges, with



pornography viewing functioning to acquire knowledge in the field of sexuality, both partner-related and in the general sense of the word (Löfgren-Mårtenson & Månsson, 2009; Weinberg et al., 2010). Pornographic material can not only be educational, but it can also make people more open to different practices (Rausch et al., 2017).

Through the thematic analysis, a total of five key topics of sexual education within pornographic materials were identified. Topics include learning the mechanics of sexual intercourse, learning related to different sexual identities and orientations, inappropriate information in pornography, the wrong lessons from pornography, and the need for more relevant sex education. Many articles showed that attention needs to be paid to improving sex education, although young people know that pornography is not a reliable information source (Litsou et al., 2020).

Weinberg and colleagues (2010) showed in their research that more expansive sexuality and the frequency of pornography consumption are associated. This includes practices with the presence of a third party, for example, watching other people in person having sex and engaging with them in sexual activity. Some of the participant's pornography consumption was associated with the use of sex toys or engaging in anal and oral sex. Therefore, more frequent pornography consumption was associated with an increase in sexual activity repertoire and with feelings of empowerment. Results did not differ by gender. In general, these results aligned with theoretical expectations that pornography can influence an individual's sexual experiences by normalising certain behaviours. Other studies also found that increased consumption of pornography was linked to participation in behaviours or actions observed in pornographic content (Grubbs et al., 2019; Mattebo et al., 2016). A study by Martyniuk and Štulhofer (2018) is consistent with the abovementioned research. Researchers stated that watching pornography was associated with a greater repertoire of sexual practices. Additionally, pornography consumption was not associated with an increase in sexual risk-taking behaviour.

Furthermore, findings suggest that individuals who frequently use pornography tend to initiate sexual activity at younger ages, participate in a broader variety of sexual experiences, and are more prone to facing challenges related to sexual preoccupation and problematic pornography use (Donevan & Mattebo, 2017).

Above all, women use watching pornography to enrich and develop their sexuality with their partner, as their need for cohesion implies the need to support mutual passion (Benjamin & Tlusten, 2010). For many relationships, pornography was a certain guide for

trying out sexual practices that they had not used until then. Pornographic materials positively contributed to their sexual experimentation. Specifically, it was the use of new sexual positions, sexual practices (e.g. oral sex), or the use of sex toys (Kohut et al., 2017).

When comparing the repertoire of sexual practices among pornography consumers in relationships where pornography is consumed together, by each partner separately, only by one of the partners, or not at all, interesting results were found. Compared to the other groups, partners consuming pornography together used a larger repertoire of sexual practices and, at the same time, used them more often. We can assume that partners who watch pornography together communicate more about their preferences and try to inspire and enrich their sex lives more than partners who watch more alone or not at all (Lexová, 2020).

## **Empirical Part**

The literature review provided the background of this project and showed that within some areas of partner sexual activity, previous studies are consistent. In contrast, some studies provide conflicting results. It is still not sure whether consuming pornography is harmful. Alternatively, under what conditions can watching pornographic material even be a positive activity. The question then mainly arises in the context of relationships. Considering previous studies, we can state that the popularity of pornographic materials is increasing (Carroll et al., 2017). At the same time, many individuals regularly view or are in a relationship with someone who views pornography. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate these associations, which can be used primarily, but not only, in therapeutic practice.

Based on the literature review, the dissertation project focused on the association between the context of pornography consumption in romantic relationships and partner sexual activity, including frequency of intercourse, sexual desire, sexual satisfaction, sexual communication and openness, intimacy, commitment, infidelity, and sexual experimentation. The current project is a follow-up to our research in the master's thesis (Lexová, 2020).

By the context of pornography consumption, we meant how partners consume pornography. In general, we compared four groups. Specifically, we compared couples who consume pornography together, at least partly (shared pornography consumers), separately by both partners (concordant solitary pornography consumers), partially – only one of the partners consume pornography (discordant pornography consumers), and partners who do not consume pornography (non-consumers). Similar groups were used in Kohut and colleagues' (2018) study and the mentioned master's thesis (Lexová, 2020). Compared to the master's thesis, the current project is innovative in the breadth and complexity of the covered areas of partner sexual activity and the data collection and analysis method.

Considering recent research studies mentioned in the theoretical part, we included various moderating factors (e.g. gender, education, relationship status, sexual desire discrepancy, frequency of pornography consumption) to the elementary association between the context of pornography consumption and areas of partner sexual activity in the

data analysis procedure. Age and relationship length factors were included in the analysis as covariates so that they could be controlled.

## **8 Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The current study dealt with the association between the context of pornography consumption in romantic relationships and different areas of partner sexual activity. Based on the frequency of intercourse research (Benjamin & Tlusten, 2010; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Willoughby et al., 2020; Huntington et al., 2020), sexual desire and pornography consumption research (e.g. Chesli et al., 2023; Carvalho et al., 2013; Leonhardt et al., 2021; Prause & Pfaus, 2015; Steele et al., 2013), sexual satisfaction research (Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013; Kohut et al., 2017; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Carvalho et al., 2013; McKee, 2007; Yucel & Gassanov, 2010; Maddox et al., 2011; Kohut et al., 2021), sexual communication and openness research (Daneback et al., 2009; Grov et al., 2011; Kohut et al., 2018), intimacy, commitment, and infidelity research (Negy et al., 2018; Olmstead et al., 2013; Minarcik et al., 2016; Vaillancourt-Morel et al., 2023; Grov et al., 2010; Maddox et al., 2011; Bekaroo, et al., 2017; Bridges et al., 2011; Lambert et al., 2012), sexual experimentation research (Kohut et al., 2017; Olmstead et al., 2013; Weinberg et al., 2010; Martyniuk & Štulhofer, 2018), and research comparing shared and solitary pornography use (e.g. Yucel & Gassanov, 2010; Maddox et al., 2011; Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013; Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Kohut et al., 2021), we set hypotheses.

Based on previous research mentioned in the literature review, we included various moderating factors in the elementary association between the context of pornography consumption and areas of partner sexual activity that could influence the results of the main analysis. This included different factors for each area separately because of distinct outcomes in research. In every area of partner sexual activity, we included gender, education, relationship status, and frequency of pornography consumption as a moderating factor. In the case of frequency of intercourse and sexual desire, we also included attitudes towards pornography and guilt. In sexual satisfaction, there was sexual desire discrepancy as a moderating factor. Religion and attitudes towards pornography as moderating factors were included in the main analysis of intimacy and commitment. The analyses included age and relationship length as covariates so they could be controlled.

For some moderating factors, we had expectations regarding the influence on associations between pornography and partner sexual activity. For example, we considered

the frequency of pornography consumption as a moderating factor because research showed that if pornography is consumed relatively less often, both partners can benefit from it (Groves et al., 2010). Also, research showed that individuals with a higher frequency of pornography consumption and no use will score higher in sexual communication (Kohut et al., 2018). At the same time, the more guilt individuals felt about watching pornography, the less sexual desire they had for their partner (Bennett et al., 2019). As for gender differences, Grøntvedt and his colleagues (2019) suggest that men desire to have sex more frequently than women. Additionally, when women are in a committed relationship, they are more likely to have a higher desire for sex with their partner and to initiate sexual activity more frequently. Therefore, we expected that relationship status could also be a moderating factor. When we talk about sexual communication and openness, we expect that married couples will score higher (e.g., Mallory et al., 2019; Denes, 2012; Wheelless et al., 1984). Only with a higher frequency of partner pornography consumption, the women's more negative attitudes toward pornography were associated with a lower level of emotional intimacy. At the same time, older women in this study experienced less sexual and emotional intimacy (Zitzman & Butler, 2009). Greater religiosity was connected to the frequency of pornography consumption and sexual satisfaction (Perry & Whitehead, 2019; Wright & Bae, 2015).

Since previous research was often inconsistent about the relationship between these moderating factors and areas of partner sexual activity, we asked the research question only. Do these moderating factors affect the association between the context of pornography consumption and partner sexual activity?

### **8.1 Hypotheses**

H1: Individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption (separate consumption), discordant pornography consumption (only one of the partners consumes), or no consumption will display a significantly higher frequency of intercourse.

H2: Individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption (separate consumption), discordant pornography consumption (only one of the partners consumes), or no consumption will display a significantly higher sexual desire.

H3: Individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship and non-consumers compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption

(separate consumption) and discordant pornography consumption (only one of the partners consumes) will display significantly higher levels of sexual satisfaction.

H4: Individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption (separate consumption) and discordant pornography consumption (only one of the partners consumes pornography), and non-consumers will display significantly higher levels of sexual communication and openness.

H5: Individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship and non-consumers compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption (separate consumption) and discordant pornography consumption (only one of the partners consumes pornography) will display significantly higher values on the scales of intimacy and commitment.

H6: Individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption (separate consumption) and discordant pornography consumption (only one of the partners consumes pornography) compared to individuals with shared pornography consumption and non-consumers will display a significantly higher rate of infidelity.

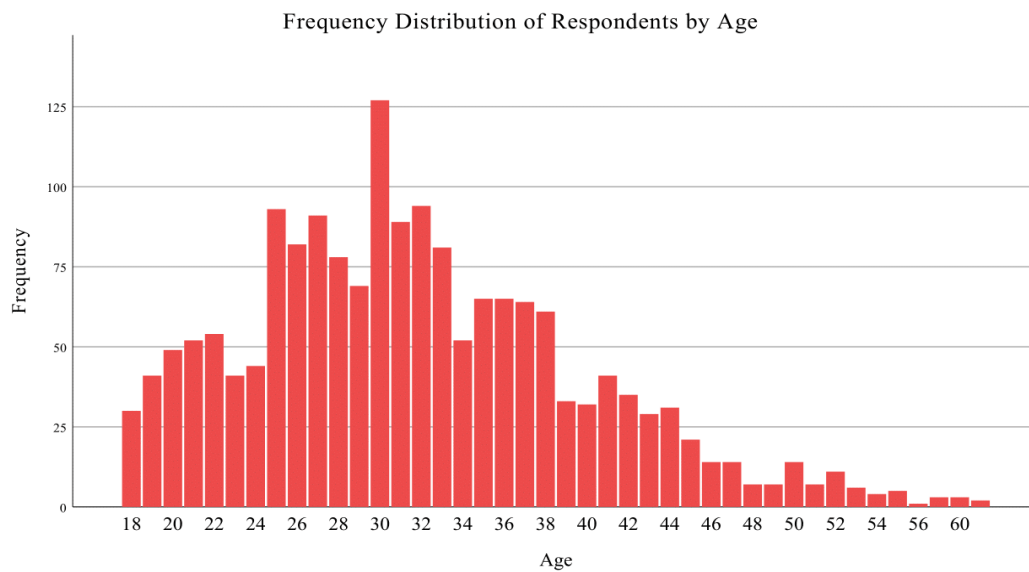
H7: Individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption (separate consumption), discordant pornography consumption (only one of the partners consumes), or no consumption will display significantly higher values on the scales of sexual experimentation.

## 9 Participants

The dissertation project sample consisted of 1,742 participants, of which 791 (45.4 %) were women and 951 (54.6 %) were men.

Participants ranged from 18 to 68 years old ( $M = 31.71$ ;  $SD = 8.08$ ). All the participants were in a romantic relationship. The average relationship length ranged from 6 to 540 months ( $M = 81.2$ ;  $SD = 72.2$ ). The sample consisted of 42.4 % couples cohabiting, 20.1 % dating, and 37.5 % married couples with the longest relationships, with a mean length of 132.2 months. Dating couples had a mean relationship length of 31.6 months, whereas cohabiting couples were together for 59.6 months on average.

Figure 1 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Age



As for the context of pornography consumption, the sample consisted of 25 % shared pornography consumers, 30.6 % concordant solitary pornography consumers, 36.1 % discordant pornography consumers, and 8.4 % no consumers.

Non-consumers had shorter relationship length ( $M = 56.6$ ) compared to couples with shared pornography consumption ( $p = <.001$ ,  $M = 90.4$ ), concordant solitary pornography consumption ( $p = .039$ ,  $M = 70.7$ ), and discordant pornography consumption ( $p = <.001$ ,  $M = 89.6$ ),  $F(3, 1737) = 14.09$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .024$ . Couples with concordant solitary pornography consumption (25.9 %) were more likely to be dating compared to



couples with shared pornography consumption (16.8 %) and couples with discordant pornography consumption (17 %),  $\chi^2(6, 1742) = 32.3, p = <.001$ .

Couples with shared pornography consumption (43.7 %) were more likely to be married compared to couples with concordant solitary pornography consumption (29.3 %) and no consumption (34.9 %),  $\chi^2(6, 1742) = 32.3, p = <.001$ . More men (95.2 %) than women (66 %) consumed pornography. Most of the men reported discordant pornography consumption (43.8 %), while most women reported concordant solitary pornography consumption (36.9 %),  $\chi^2(3, 1742) = 105, p = <.001$ . Shared pornography consumption was reported in 26.8 % of men and 22.8 % of women. Non-consumers were the youngest ( $M = 28.8$ .) compared to shared pornography consumers ( $p = <.001, M = 32.7$ ), concordant solitary pornography consumers ( $p = .020, M = 31.0$ ), and discordant pornography consumers ( $p = <.001, M = 32.6$ ),  $F(3, 1738) = 14.94, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .025$ .

The following characteristics of the participants were examined: gender, age, education, relationship status, sexual orientation, and relationship length. Characteristics of participants can be found in Table 1.

Table 1 Characteristics of the Sample

Gender (%)	Men	54.6%
	Women	45.4%
Age (years)	M	31.71
	SD	8.08
Education (%)	Primary education	3.5 %
	Vocational education	9.6 %
	Secondary education	44.8 %
	Higher professional education	4.5 %
	University education	37.6 %
Relationship Status (%)	Dating	20.1 %
	Cohabiting	42.4 %
	Married	37.5 %
Couples (%)	Heterosexual	96 %
	Homosexual	4 %
Relationship Length (months)	M	81.2
	SD	72.2
Sexual Orientation (%)	Heterosexual	85,5 %
	Bisexual	10,9 %
	Homosexual	3,6 %

Furthermore, within the individual data sample, we collected a couple data from 100 couples. The sample consisted of 106 men (53 %) and 94 women (47 %) with an average age of almost 29 years ( $M = 28.95$ ;  $SD = 7.4$ ) and average relationship length ranged from 6 months to 343 months ( $M = 60.1$ ;  $SD = 57.4$ ). There were a total of 6 homosexual couples. In the sample, 32 % of couples were married, 43 % cohabited, and 25 % were dating. Married couples had the longest relationship length ( $M = 112.9$ ;  $SD = 68.0$ ) compared to cohabiting couples ( $M = 42.8$ ;  $SD = 27.6$ ) and dating couples ( $M = 22.2$ ;  $SD = 22.3$ ). As for the context of pornography consumption, in this sample, 26 % were shared pornography consumers, 33 % were concordant (solitary) consumers, 35 % were discordant consumers, and 6 % were non-consumers.

Characteristics of this sample of couple data can be found in Table 2.

Table 2 Characteristics of the Couple Data Sample

Gender (%)	Men	53 %
	Women	47 %
Age (years)	M	28.95
	SD	7.4
Education (%)	Primary education	4 %
	Vocational education	7 %
	Secondary education	44.5 %
	Higher professional education	6 %
	University education	38.5 %
Relationship Status (%)	Dating	25 %
	Cohabiting	43 %
	Married	32 %
Couples (%)	Heterosexual	94 %
	Homosexual	6 %
Relationship Length (months)	M	60.1
	SD	57.4

## **10 Procedure**

The dissertation project used a quantitative research design. Specifically, it was an exploratory cross-sectional study of the correlational type. So, we cannot talk about causal relationships; we can only talk about associations. The discussion further elaborates on the design and study limits in general.

The goal was to get at least 1,000 respondents. It was necessary to calculate the sample size to test the planned hypotheses so that a sample that is too small would not lead to an increased risk of error II. kinds. Power analysis found that the sample size was more than sufficient and significantly exceeded the required size. Neither time nor financial costs were relevant, so getting more participants was possible. We aimed to obtain .95 power to detect a medium effect size of .25 at the standard .05 alpha error probability.

Due to the absence of a standardised questionnaire containing all the necessary areas of sexual activity, it was necessary to create our comprehensive questionnaire. The questionnaire was used and inspired mainly by foreign questionnaires, which were widely used for similar research purposes. Some items have been modified to suit research purposes better or to change the scale at which they are measured.

Before the actual data collection for the current study was started, a pilot version was also created, in which the questionnaire was handed over to people for viewing and filling to evaluate the comprehensibility of the items.

The final version of the questionnaire covered all areas of sexual activity. In total, the questionnaire contained 126 items. The questionnaire also contained demographic items and items about pornography consumption (frequency of pornography consumption, attitudes towards pornography, etc.) and items related to participants' current relationships. The specific questionnaires used are described in the "measures" section.

An online questionnaire in Google Forms advertised on social networks (Facebook, Instagram) was used as a suitable data collection method. It was a suitable method for multiple reasons. For participants, it was less stressful to fill out items about sexual topics in privacy without having to talk with a stranger during an interview. There was also a greater chance of obtaining a larger sample. Further reasoning regarding the online questionnaire is undertaken in a discussion. Data collection lasted approximately three months, starting in July 2021 and ending in September 2021. Participation was voluntary

and without a financial reward. The questionnaire contained an introduction with an informed consent procedure and conditions of participation. For participants, it was necessary to be at least 18 years old and be in a romantic relationship for at least six months because it was important for the study to have relatively stable dating relationships. The questionnaire included instructions on completing it alone and not discussing the items with their partner.

Due to data quality reasons, some of the filled-out questionnaires were removed from the study. For some responses, it was obvious that participants filled items at random. To prevent this, we had verification items like „Please mark the number 3 on the scale" designed to detect these practices. When participants filled these items incorrectly, we excluded them from the sample. Some participants filled in a random number in an item asking about age (e.g. 354). A total of 107 participants were excluded from the sample. This is a consequence of anonymity when filling out the online questionnaire, which is one of the disadvantages.

We obtained 1,742 respondents and 100 couple data (200 respondents) in this sample. Respondents could also forward the link to the questionnaire to their partner, with a reminder that they should be alone when filling it out. At the same time, it was determined that at the end of the questionnaire, they should write their joint password so that it would be possible to determine which respondents form a couple together.

## 11 Measures

The online questionnaire contained 126 items in total. The questionnaire first included several demographic items related to age, gender, education, religion, and sexual orientation. The questionnaire then included items about their relationship, e.g., relationship status and length. We asked several questions about pornography, like the frequency of pornography consumption, attitudes towards pornography, and if they feel guilt related to pornography consumption. Guilt about pornography consumption was measured by asking participants: “Do you feel guilty when you watch pornography?” using a 7-point Likert-like scale ranging from not at all to definitely yes. The item dealing with attitudes towards pornography was taken from national research on sexual behaviour in the Czech Republic by Zvěřina and Weiss (2001). We asked: “What is your attitude towards pornography?”. Participants could answer either that they would prohibit pornography, that pornography is harmful according to them, or that they hold no objections to it.

Frequency of pornography consumption was measured by an item that asked how often the participant currently consumes pornography, whether daily, once a week, once a month, once a year, or not at all. The participants answered according to what was closest to the current situation. We asked about the sexual desire discrepancy as well. Sexual desire discrepancy was measured by an item asking participants whether they perceived their level of sexual desire to be higher, lower, or at the same level as their partner's. The rest dealt with areas of partner sexual activity (sexual desire, sexual satisfaction, sexual communication, etc.). The participants answered according to what was closest to the current situation. Since the questionnaire was created from existing questionnaires created for the English-speaking population, it was necessary to first translate the questionnaire from English to Czech and then back again to check to ensure the question's meaning was preserved. Everything was consulted with the translators.

### 11.1 Frequency of Intercourse

We measured the frequency of intercourse by asking participants, „*How many times a month do you have sexual intercourse with your partner?*“. In the case of couple data, the average score of both partners was used to compare relationships.

## **11.2 Sexual Desire**

In the current study, we were only concerned with partner-focused dyadic sexual desire. Some of the items and modified items from The Partner-Specific Sexual Liking and Sexual Wanting Scale (Krishnamurti & Loewenstein, 2011) questionnaire were used to measure sexual desire. This variable was measured by nine items, such as, „I want to have more sexual activities with my partner“, using 7-point Likert-like scales ranging from strongly disagree to agree strongly. Because the sexual desire items use a 7-point Likert-like scale, scores for each measure were summed as an overall score (sexual desire score). Reverse coding was used where it was suitable. In the case of couple data, the average score of both partners was used to compare relationships.

## **11.3 Sexual Satisfaction**

We measured sexual satisfaction through thirty items of the questionnaire inspired or taken from The Quality of Sex Inventory (Shaw & Rogge, 2016), The Partner-Specific Sexual Liking and Sexual Wanting Scale (Krishnamurti & Loewenstein, 2011), and The New Sexual Satisfaction Scale (Štulhofer et al., 2011). The questionnaire included items such as, „My partner is very sensitive to my sexual needs and desires“, using 7-point Likert-like scales ranging from disagree strongly to agree strongly. The questionnaire also used items using 7-point Likert-like scales ranging from entirely dissatisfied to completely satisfied.

The sexual satisfaction part of the questionnaire contained 30 items on a 7-point Likert-like scale. Scores for each item were summed as an overall score (sexual satisfaction score). We used reverse coding where suitable. In the case of couple data, the average score of both partners was used to compare relationships.

## **11.4 Sexual Communication and Openness**

Parts of the questionnaire The Verbal and Nonverbal Sexual Communication Questionnaire (Santos-Iglesias & Byers, 2018), The Sexual Self-Disclosure Scale (Snell et al., 1989), and The Sexual Communication Self-Efficacy Scale (Quinn-Nilas et al., 2016) were used for measuring sexual communication. The questionnaire consisted of 22 items, such as, „I give sexual praise to my partner when he/she does things that I like.“. It used 7-point Likert-like scales ranging from disagree strongly to agree strongly. Items scores were summed as an overall score (sexual communication and openness score). When it

was indicated, reverse coding was used. In the case of couple data, the average score of both partners was used to compare relationships.

### ***11.5 Intimacy, Commitment, and Infidelity***

For this study, items related to intimacy and commitment were adjusted and used from the questionnaire The Triangular Love Scale (Lemieux & Hale, 2000). In total, the questionnaire contained 15 items with a scale from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly) is used. Items scores were summed as an overall score (intimacy and commitment score). In the case of couple data, the average score of both partners was used to compare relationships.

In the case of infidelity, the following items were used: „*Have you ever kissed anyone other than your partner during your current relationship?*“ „*Have you ever had any sexual activities (other than sexual intercourse) with anyone other than your partner during your current relationship?*“ and „*Have you ever had sexual intercourse during your current relationship?*“. Regarding couple data, if at least one of the partners answered positively to the previous questions, the entire relationship was classified as a relationship in which a certain form of infidelity takes place.

### ***11.6 Sexual Experimentation***

In this area, we asked participants how often they use the sexual practices listed in the questionnaire during sexual activity with their partner. We believed that the range and frequency of the use of different sexual practices indicated the level of sexual experimentation in a relationship. In this way, we could compare respondents with each other. We asked about the use of conventional sexual practices (e.g. oral sex) but also about aggressive sexual practices such as spanking, etc. In the case of couple data, the average score of both partners was used to compare relationships.

## **12 Data Analytic Strategy**

For data analysis, we used SPSS Statistics version 26.0. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality was used to test whether the data were normally distributed. The distribution of all areas of partner sexual activity was violated. Therefore, we used a Two-Step Transformation to Normality to reduce negative skewness. Although this was not necessarily due to the large sample size, we did it anyway.

Couples with shared pornography consumption, concordant solitary pornography consumption, discordant pornography consumption, and no consumption were compared in the frequency of intercourse, sexual desire, sexual satisfaction, sexual communication and openness, intimacy, commitment, infidelity, and sexual experimentation.

Based on the items related to pornography consumption, the participants were classified into mentioned groups regarding the context of pornography consumption. At the same time, they should have told whether they were aware of the consumption of pornography by their partners. If they were not sure whether their partner watched pornography, they were excluded from the study to reduce the limit of individual data in the study as much as possible. If the participants answered that neither they nor their partner watch pornography, they were classified as non-consumers. If the participant stated that he does not watch pornography and his partner does, they were classified in the discordant pornography consumption group. This also happened when the participant said that he watches pornography and his partner does not. If the participant reported that both partners in a relationship consume pornography but do not engage in this activity together, they were included in the concordant solitary pornography consumers group. The last group is shared pornography consumers, in which the participants were included if both in a relationship watch pornography and at least sometimes do so together.

With the couple data, we were able to get a more realistic picture of what their context of pornography consumption is. It may happen that even if a partner thinks he/she is sure about how his partner watches pornography, he/she may be wrong. In the case of couple data, it was easy to check how things were in the relationship. Moderating factors (gender, education, relationship status, relationship length, sexual desire discrepancy, etc.) and covariates (age, relationship length) were also included in the analysis.



For purposes of the current study, we used analysis of variance (ANOVA) to test whether there were significant effects between the context of pornography consumption in romantic relationships as an independent variable and areas of partner sexual activity as dependent variables. Subsequently, a post-hoc Tukey test was performed for pairwise comparisons. We used analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) when continuous variables were included as covariates. In the case of descriptive data, we used a Chi-square test of independence. We did the same in the case of infidelity. We had to use a non-parametric test (Kruskal-Wallis test) in case of frequency of intercourse because it was impossible to reduce the skewness of the data. A significance level of  $\alpha = 0.05$  was chosen for all tests.

### **13 Research Ethics**

While sexuality is an essential aspect of everyone's life, it remains a delicate and intimate topic. Despite considerable changes in societal attitudes towards sexuality, individuals still find discussing it uncomfortable. Consequently, conducting research in the realm of sexuality proves challenging, particularly concerning data collection and the chosen research methodology. These reasons likely discouraged a significant part of the respondents from filling in or completing the questionnaire. Due to the problematic situation described, the current research emphasised treating ethical issues.

If the respondents were interested in participating in the research, they first had to read the informed consent form, to which they agreed by confirming it and thus started filling out the questionnaire. The input contained basic information about the research, what it was about, what the respondents would be asked, and what the collected data would be used for.

However, the information was not very detailed, so the respondents did not know the exact intentions and research hypotheses, which could have caused a bias in the results. Respondents were initially informed about the conditions of participation (e.g., the length of time they had to fill out the questionnaire). The input information included an assurance of anonymity and the fact that the data were used for research purposes only. The researcher's contact details were included if the respondents wanted to ask anything about the research. After completing the questionnaire, respondents had the opportunity to read detailed information about the research objectives and hypotheses of the project.

Before the start of data collection, pre-registration of the research project was created so that it was impossible to influence the results, and the research is therefore more transparent. After the data collection was complete, the data were analysed. Data is stored as part of pre-registration on Open Science Framework, where journal reviewers had access via a link. The publicly available dataset for peer review can be found here: Open Science Framework.

[https://osf.io/ru2wk/?view\\_only=dc09a034b437452d92d3ba332d283d84](https://osf.io/ru2wk/?view_only=dc09a034b437452d92d3ba332d283d84)

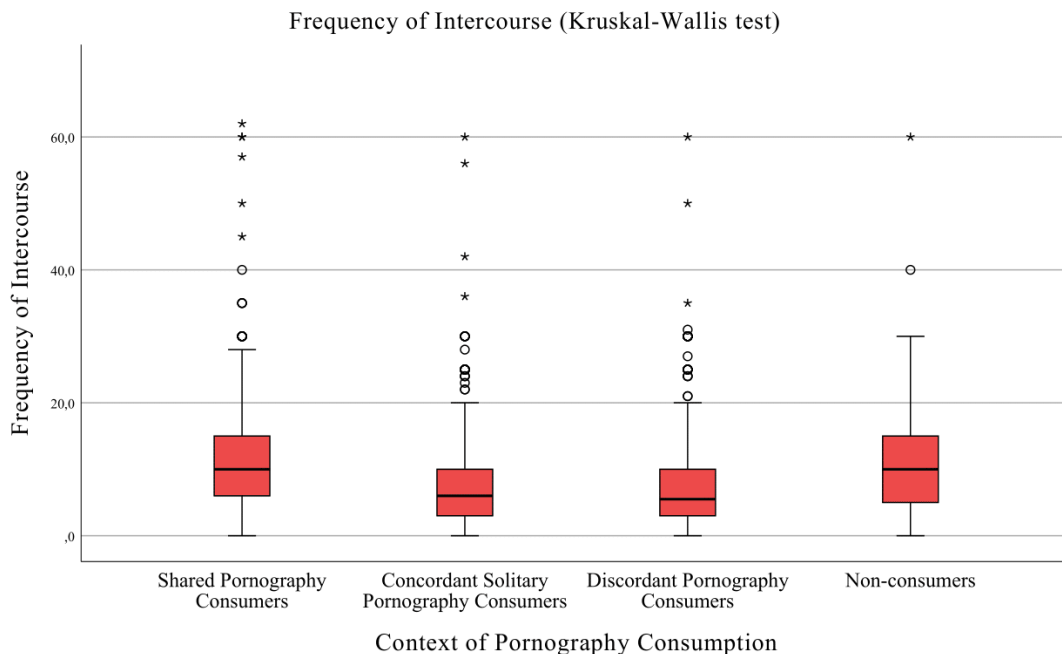
Before data collection began, the Faculty of Arts, Charles University ethics committee approved it. All human participants read and approved the informed consent form before completing the questionnaire. We did not receive support from any organisation for the dissertation project, and we have no competing interests to declare relevant to this thesis's content.

## 14 Results

### 14.1 Frequency of Intercourse

A Kruskal-Wallis test indicated a significant difference in the frequency of intercourse per month in the context of pornography consumption in romantic relationships,  $\chi^2(3) = 111$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\varepsilon^2 = .063$ . The DSCF pairwise comparisons post hoc test showed that shared pornography consumers were statistically significant differences compared to concordant solitary pornography consumers ( $W = 10.67$ ,  $p = <.001$ ) and discordant pornography consumers ( $W = 13.49$ ,  $p = <.001$ ). Relationships in which pornography was not consumed were different from concordant solitary pornography consumers ( $W = 6.19$ ,  $p = <.001$ ) and discordant pornography consumers ( $W = 7.89$ ,  $p = <.001$ ) as well. Shared pornography consumers and non-consumers did not differ ( $W = 0.62$ ,  $p = .972$ ). These relationships had the highest frequency of intercourse per month.

Figure 2 Frequency of Intercourse (Kruskal-Wallis test)



### 14.1.1 Couple Data

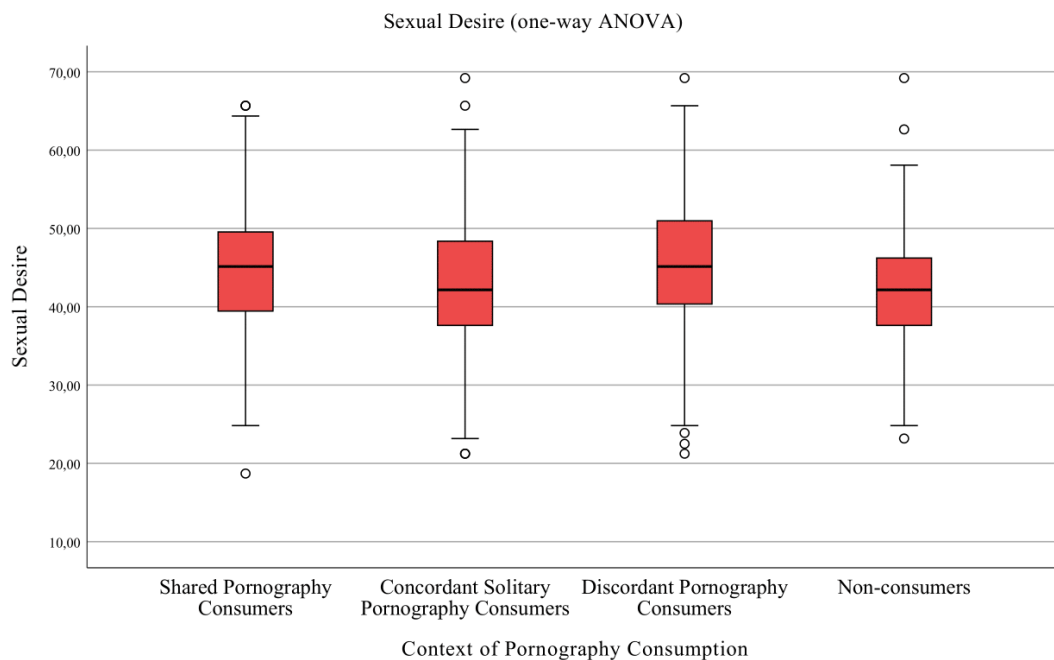
A Kruskal-Wallis test showed that there was not a significant difference between the frequency of intercourse per month and the context of pornography consumption in romantic relationships,  $\chi^2(3) = 0.92$ ,  $p = .822$ ,  $\varepsilon^2 = .009$ .

### 14.2 Sexual Desire

One-way ANOVA showed a statistically significant relationship between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire,  $F(3,1738) = 11.56$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .020$ .

Tukey post hoc test indicated that shared pornography consumers had higher sexual desire than concordant solitary pornography consumers ( $p = .004$ ) and non-consumers ( $p = .008$ ). Shared pornography consumers and discordant pornography consumers did not differ ( $p = .630$ ).

Figure 3 Sexual Desire (one-way ANOVA)



### 14.2.1 Gender

A one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant relationship between gender and sexual desire,  $F(1, 1740) = 105.34$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .057$ .

Two-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual desire,  $F(3,1734) = 4.65$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $\eta^2 = .008$ . Gender had a significant effect on sexual desire as well,  $F(1,1734) = 46.99$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .026$ . At the same time, no statistically significant effect was found between the context of pornography consumption and gender on the levels of sexual desire,  $F(3, 1734) = 0.49$ ,  $p = .688$ ,  $\eta^2 = .001$ .

Women had significantly lower sexual desire than men. Results may indicate that the context of pornography consumption does not affect men and women differently. It seems like gender has affected the interaction between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire.

#### 14.2.2 Education

A one-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the education level on sexual desire,  $F(4,1737) = 4.21$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $\eta^2 = .010$ .

A two-way ANOVA was performed to analyse the effect of the context of pornography consumption and education on sexual desire. Simple main effects analysis showed that the context of pornography consumption did have a statistically significant effect on sexual desire in relationships,  $F(3,1722) = 4.8$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $\eta^2 = .008$ . A significant effect of education on sexual desire was found,  $F(4,1722) = 2.6$ ,  $p = .035$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ . Finally, there was not a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and education on sexual desire,  $F(12, 1722) = 0.85$ ,  $p = .596$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ .

Tukey post hoc test showed that the highest sexual desire had individuals with vocational education and higher professional education. Individuals with university education had the lowest level of sexual desire.

#### 14.2.3 Relationship Status

A one-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of relationship status on sexual desire,  $F(2,1739) = 5.83$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $\eta^2 = .007$ .

Two-way ANOVA indicated a statistically significant relationship between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire,  $F(3,1730) = 7.98$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .014$ . A simple main analysis revealed that relationship status did not significantly affect sexual desire,  $F(2,1730) = 1.27$ ,  $p = .281$ ,  $\eta^2 = .001$ . No significant interaction effect was found between the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on the levels of sexual desire,  $F(6, 1730) = 1.91$ ,  $p = .075$ ,  $\eta^2 = .007$ .

Tukey post hoc test showed that married individuals from relationships in which only one of the partners watches pornography had the highest sexual desire compared to other groups.

#### 14.2.4 Attitudes Towards Pornography

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the attitudes towards pornography on sexual desire,  $F(2,1739) = 3.18, p = .042, \eta^2 = .004$ .

Two-way ANOVA indicated no significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual desire,  $F(3,1732) = 1.10, p = .350, \eta^2 = .002$ . No significant effect was observed between the attitudes towards pornography and sexual desire,  $F(2,1732) = 1.88, p = .153, \eta^2 = .002$ . Simultaneously, no significant interaction was observed between the context of pornography consumption and attitudes towards pornography on the levels of sexual desire,  $F(4, 1732) = 0.80, p = 0.524, \eta^2 = .002$ .

Sexual desire was not affected by attitudes towards pornography. Additionally, couples did not differ from each other.

#### 14.2.5 Guilt

One-way ANOVA indicated no statistically significant effect of guilt about pornography consumption on sexual desire,  $F(2, 1529) = .11, p = .896, \eta^2 = .000$ .

#### 14.2.6 Frequency of Pornography Consumption

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of frequency of pornography consumption on sexual desire,  $F(4,1737) = 11.42, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .026$ .

Two-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant association between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire,  $F(3,1728) = 5.84, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .010$ . Additionally, a significant effect was observed between the frequency of pornography consumption and sexual desire,  $F(4,1728) = 18.50, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .041$ . Finally, no interaction effect was observed between the context of pornography consumption and frequency of pornography consumption on the levels of sexual desire,  $F(6, 1728) = 1.02, p = .412, \eta^2 = .004$ .

More frequent pornography consumers had a higher level of sexual desire, whereas non-consumers had the lowest level of sexual desire.

## 14.2.7 Age

An ANCOVA showed a statistically significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual desire after controlling for the effect of age,  $F(3, 1737) = 8.95$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .015$ . As a covariate, age had a statistically significant relationship with sexual desire,  $F(1, 1737) = 19.65$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .011$ .

## 14.2.8 Relationship Length

An ANCOVA indicated a statistically significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual desire after controlling for the effect of relationship length,  $F(3, 1737) = 9.53$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .016$ . As a covariate, the relationship length had a statistically significant relationship with sexual desire,  $F(1, 1737) = 10.32$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ .

Table 3 shows the results obtained from one-way and two-way ANOVA analysis for sexual desire.

Table 3 Sexual Desire

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b><math>\eta^2</math></b>
Context of Pornography Consumption (CPC) <sup>1</sup>	2042.9	3	681.0	11.56	<b>.001</b>	.020
Gender <sup>1</sup>	5963.0	1	5963.0	105.34	<b>.001</b>	.057
CPC	785.9	3	262.0	4.65	<b>.003</b>	.008
Gender	2645.5	1	2645.5	46.99	<b>.001</b>	.026
CPC * Gender	83.1	3	27.7	0.49	.688	.001
Education <sup>1</sup>	1001.9	4	250.5	4.21	<b>.002</b>	.010
CPC	842.9	3	281.0	4.80	<b>.002</b>	.008
Education	609.0	4	152.3	2.60	<b>.035</b>	.006
CPC * Education	599.3	12	49.9	.85	.596	.006
Relationship Status <sup>1</sup>	696.0	2	348.0	5.83	<b>.003</b>	.007
CPC	1401.3	3	467.1	7.98	<b>.001</b>	.014
Relationship Status	148.9	2	74.5	1.27	.281	.001
CPC * Relationship Status	672.3	6	112.0	1.91	.075	.007
Attitudes Towards Pornography <sup>1</sup>	381.1	2	190.6	3.18	<b>.042</b>	.004



	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	$\eta^2$
CPC	193.4	3	64.5	1.10	.350	.002
Attitudes Towards Pornography	221.1	2	110.5	1.88	.153	.002
CPC * Attitudes Towards Pornography	188.7	4	47.2	.80	.524	.002
Guilt <sup>1</sup>	13.2	2	6.6	.11	.896	.000
Frequency of Pornography Consumption <sup>1</sup>	40687.8	4	10171.9	11.419	.000	.026
CPC	984.4	3	328.1	5.84	.001	.010
Frequency of Pornography Consumption	4158.2	4	1039.6	18.50	.001	.041
CPC * Frequency of Pornography Consumption	343.0	6	57.2	1.02	.412	.004

<sup>1</sup>One-way ANOVA

#### 14.2.9 Couple Data

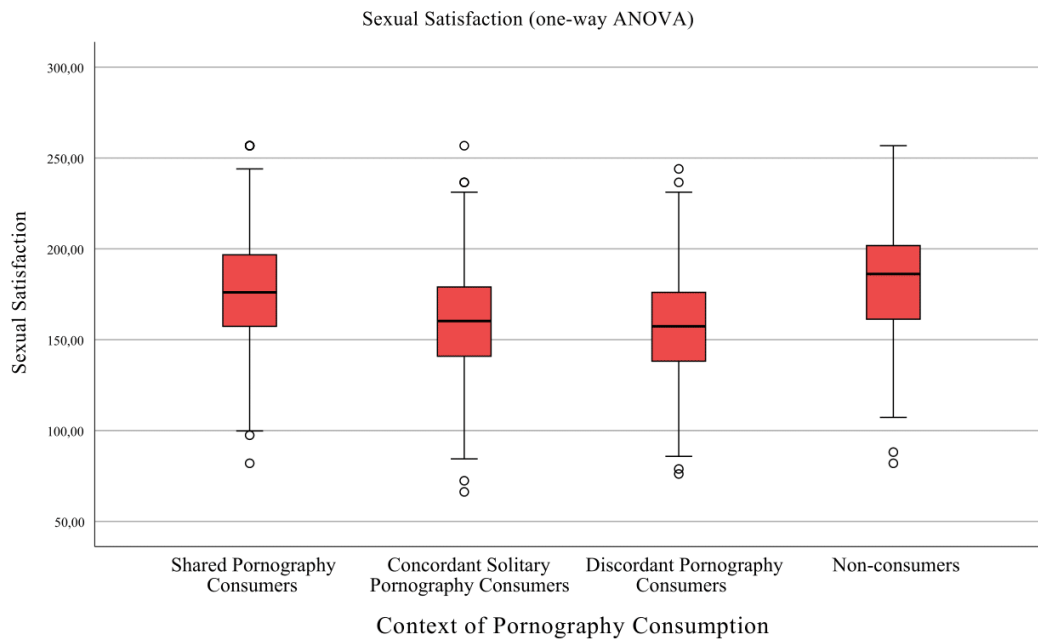
One-way ANOVA showed that there was not a statistically significant difference between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire,  $F(3,96) = 0.82$ ,  $p = .485$ ,  $\eta^2 = .025$ .

#### 14.3 Sexual Satisfaction

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption in relationships on sexual satisfaction,  $F(3,1738) = 65.18$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .101$ .

Pairwise comparisons showed that participants who consumed pornography together were more sexually satisfied than participants who consumed pornography separately ( $p = <.001$ ) or only by one of the partners in a relationship ( $p = <.001$ ). Simultaneously, non-consumers and shared consumers did not differ ( $p = .463$ ).

Figure 4 Sexual Satisfaction (one-way ANOVA)



### 14.3.1 Gender

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of gender on sexual satisfaction,  $F(1, 1740) = 6.73, p = .010, \eta^2 = .004$ .

Two-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual satisfaction,  $F(3,1734) = 57.3, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .090$ . Individuals in the shared pornography group and non-consumers group reported significantly higher sexual satisfaction than those in the concordant or discordant pornography consumers group, as in the previous one-way ANOVA analysis. No significant effect was found between gender and sexual satisfaction,  $F(1,1734) = .02, p = .882, \eta^2 = .000$ . Men and women did not differ in sexual satisfaction. Further, the analysis revealed a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption in a relationship and gender on sexual satisfaction,  $F(3, 1734) = 3.21, p = .022, \eta^2 = .006$ .

What this means, though, is that the effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual satisfaction was different for men and women. Post hoc analysis revealed that men were less sexually satisfied when it was only they who consumed pornography in a relationship.

### 14.3.2 Education

A one-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the education level on sexual satisfaction,  $F(1, 1737) = 4.38, p = .002, \eta^2 = .010$ .

A two-way ANOVA was performed to analyse the effect of the context of pornography consumption and education on sexual satisfaction. Simple main effects analysis showed that the context of pornography consumption did have a statistically significant effect on sexual satisfaction in relationships,  $F(3,1722) = 28.60, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .047$ . Also, a significant effect of education on sexual satisfaction was found,  $F(4,1722) = 4.16, p = .002, \eta^2 = .010$ . The post hoc test revealed that participants with secondary education were more sexually satisfied than participants with university education ( $p = .006$ ). Finally, there was not a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and education on sexual satisfaction,  $F(12, 1722) = 0.96, p = .488, \eta^2 = .007$ .

Participants with vocational and university education were the least sexually satisfied compared to participants with primary, secondary, and higher professional education.

### 14.3.3 Relationship Status

A one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant association between the relationship status and sexual satisfaction,  $F(2,1739) = 19.39, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .022$ .

Simple main effects analysis showed that the context of pornography consumption did have a statistically significant effect on sexual satisfaction,  $F(3,1730) = 58.41, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .092$ . At the same time, simple main effects analysis showed that relationship status did have a statistically significant effect on sexual satisfaction,  $F(2,1730) = 18.66, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .021$ . A two-way ANOVA revealed that there was not a statistically significant effect between the effects of the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on the levels of sexual satisfaction,  $F(6, 1730) = 0.34, p = .914, \eta^2 = .001$ .

Tukey post hoc analysis showed that participants who were dating were more sexually satisfied than cohabiting ( $p = <.001$ ) or married couples ( $p = <.001$ ).

### 14.3.4 Sexual Desire Discrepancy

A one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant effect between the sexual desire discrepancy and sexual satisfaction,  $F(2,1739) = 160.84, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .156$ .

A two-way ANOVA revealed that there was not a statistically significant effect between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire discrepancy on sexual satisfaction,  $F(6, 1730) = 1.43, p = .200, \eta^2 = .005$ . However, simple main effects analysis showed that the context of pornography consumption did have a statistically significant effect on sexual satisfaction,  $F(3,1730) = 37.49, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .061$ . At the same time, simple main effects analysis showed that sexual desire discrepancy did have a statistically significant effect on sexual satisfaction,  $F(2,1730) = 94.83, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .099$ .

Tukey post hoc analysis showed that participants who have the same level of sexual desire as their partner are more sexually satisfied than participants with lower ( $p = <.001$ ) or higher ( $p = <.001$ ) sexual desire compared to their partner.

#### 14.3.5 Frequency of Pornography Consumption

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the frequency of pornography consumption and sexual satisfaction,  $F(4,1737) = 11.42, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .026$ .

Two-way ANOVA showed a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual satisfaction,  $F(3,1728) = 37.55, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .061$ . Simultaneously, there was a significant effect of frequency of pornography consumption on sexual satisfaction,  $F(4,1728) = 6.89, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .016$ , and a significant interaction effect was found between the context of pornography consumption and frequency of pornography consumption on the levels of sexual satisfaction,  $F(6, 1728) = 3.05, p = .006, \eta^2 = .010$ .

The lower the frequency of pornography consumption, the higher the participants' sexual satisfaction.

#### 14.3.6 Age

An ANCOVA showed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of sexual satisfaction after controlling for the effect of age,  $F(3, 1737) = 65.05, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .101$ . The covariate, age, was significantly related to sexual satisfaction,  $F(1, 1737) = 23.56, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .013$ .

#### 14.3.7 Relationship Length

An ANCOVA revealed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of sexual satisfaction after controlling for the effect of relationship

length,  $F(3, 1737) = 66.44, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .103$ . The covariate, relationship length, was significantly related to sexual satisfaction,  $F(1, 1737) = 65.78, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .036$ .

Table 4 shows the results obtained from one-way and two-way ANOVA analysis for sexual satisfaction.

Table 4 Sexual Satisfaction

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b><math>\eta^2</math></b>
Context of Pornography Consumption (CPC) <sup>1</sup>	160588.8	3	53529.6	65.18	<b>.001</b>	.101
Gender <sup>1</sup>	6117.0	1	6117.0	6.73	<b>.010</b>	.004
CPC	140572.2	3	46857.4	57.30	<b>.001</b>	.090
Gender	17.9	1	17.9	.02	.882	.000
CPC * Gender	7867.8	3	2622.6	3.21	<b>.022</b>	.006
Education <sup>1</sup>	15855.8	4	3964.0	4.38	<b>.002</b>	.010
CPC	69928.1	3	23309.4	28.60	<b>.001</b>	.047
Education	13563.3	4	3390.8	4.16	<b>.002</b>	.010
CPC * Education	9363.8	12	780.3	.96	.488	.007
Relationship Status <sup>1</sup>	34633.0	2	17316.5	19.39	<b>.001</b>	.022
CPC	140392.2	3	46797.4	58.41	<b>.000</b>	.092
Relationship Status	29901.6	2	14950.8	18.66	<b>.000</b>	.021
CPC * Relationship Status	1651.9	6	275.3	.34	.914	.001
Sexual Desire Discrepancy <sup>1</sup>	247891.3	2	123945.6	160.84	<b>.001</b>	.156
CPC	80155.8	3	26718.6	37.49	<b>.001</b>	.061
Sexual Desire Discrepancy	135174.4	2	67587.2	94.83	<b>.001</b>	.099
CPC * Sexual Desire Discrepancy	6109.7	6	1018.3	1.43	.200	.005
Frequency of Pornography Consumption <sup>1</sup>	40687.8	4	10171.9	11.42	<b>.001</b>	.026
CPC	90683.6	3	30227.9	37.55	<b>.001</b>	.061
Frequency of Pornography Consumption	22189.0	4	5547.3	6.89	<b>.001</b>	.016
CPC * Frequency of Pornography Consumption	14751.1	6	2458.5	3.05	<b>.006</b>	.010

<sup>1</sup> One-way ANOVA

### 14.3.8 Couple Data

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption in relationships on sexual satisfaction,  $F(3,96) = 4.51$ ,  $p = .005$ ,  $\eta^2 = .123$ .

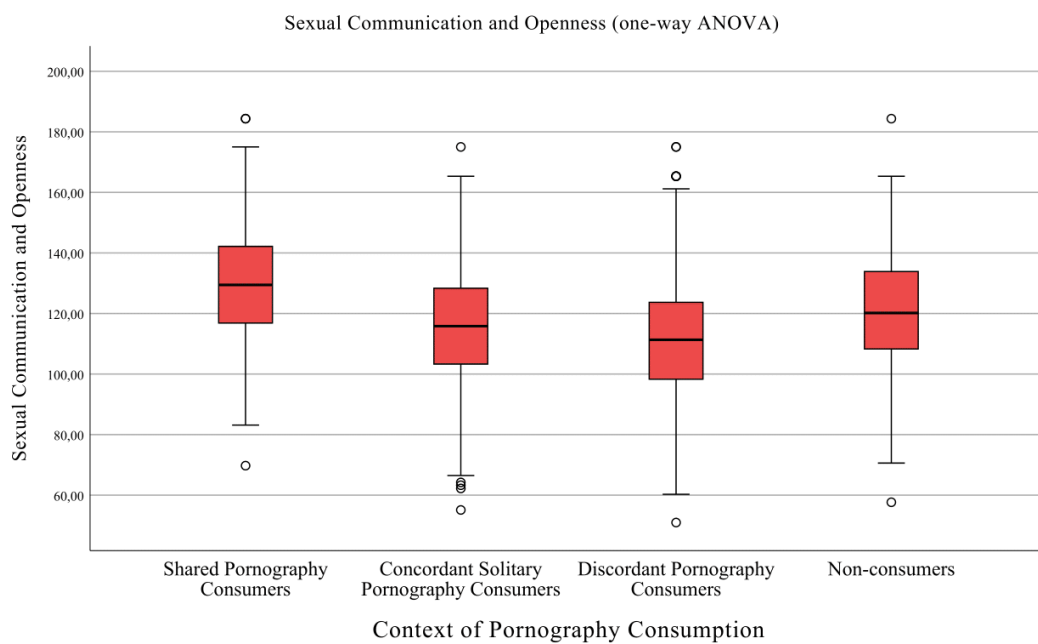
Pairwise comparisons showed that non-consumers were more sexually satisfied than participants who consumed pornography separately ( $p = .003$ ) or only by one of the partners in a relationship ( $p = .012$ ). Simultaneously, non-consumers and shared consumers did not differ ( $p = .157$ ).

### 14.4 Sexual Communication and Openness

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the way pornography was consumed in relationships on sexual communication and openness,  $F(3,1738) = 84.98$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .128$ .

Post hoc test showed that individuals from relationships with shared pornography consumption had higher scores of sexual communication and openness than individuals from relationships with separate pornography consumption ( $p < .001$ ), by only one of the partners ( $p < .001$ ) or not at all ( $p < .001$ ). Discordant pornography use had the lowest score on the scale of sexual communication and openness.

Figure 5 Sexual Communication and Openness (one-way ANOVA)



#### 14.4.1 Gender

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of gender on sexual communication and openness,  $F(1,1740) = 5.34$ ,  $p = .021$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ .

Two-way ANOVA showed that there was a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual communication and openness,  $F(3,1734) = 73.86$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .113$ . Further, there was not a significant effect of gender on sexual communication and openness,  $F(1,1734) = .004$ ,  $p = .952$ ,  $\eta^2 = .000$ . Nonetheless, there was a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and gender on sexual communication and openness,  $F(3, 1734) = 5.40$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .009$ .

According to the analysis, we can assume that gender did not play a role in sexual communication and openness. Men and women scored equally.

#### 14.4.2 Relationship Status

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the relationship status on sexual communication and openness,  $F(2,1739) = 8.26$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .009$ .

Two-way ANOVA was performed to analyse the effect of the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on sexual communication and openness. Simple main effects analysis indicated that the context of pornography consumption had a statistically significant effect on sexual communication in relationships,  $F(3,1730) = 74.22$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .114$ . Also, a significant effect of relationship status on sexual communication and openness was found,  $F(2,1730) = 6.54$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .008$ . Finally, there was not a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on sexual communication and openness,  $F(6, 1730) = 1.48$ ,  $p = .183$ ,  $\eta^2 = .005$ .

Further, we observed a very small effect on relationship status. However, dating partners had the highest score in sexual communication and openness.

#### 14.4.3 Frequency of Pornography Consumption

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant effect between the frequency of pornography consumption and sexual communication and openness,  $F(4,1737) = 2.73$ ,  $p = .028$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ .

Two-way ANOVA was performed to analyse the effect of the context of pornography consumption and the frequency of pornography consumption on sexual communication and openness. Simple main effects analysis indicated that the context of

pornography consumption had a statistically significant effect on sexual communication in relationships,  $F(3,1737) = 39.86$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .065$ . Correspondingly, a significant effect of the frequency of pornography consumption on sexual communication and openness was found,  $F(4,1737) = 3.05$ ,  $p = .016$ ,  $\eta^2 = .007$ . A significant interaction effect between the frequency of pornography consumption and the context of pornography consumption on sexual communication and openness was detected as well,  $F(6, 1737) = 3.55$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $\eta^2 = .012$ .

More frequent consumption of pornography was associated with lower rates of sexual communication. Individuals who consumed pornography almost every day had the lowest levels of sexual communication, most likely because they were mainly engaged in pornography and not partner sexual activities.

#### 14.4.4 Age

An ANCOVA revealed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of sexual communication and openness after controlling for the effect of age,  $F(3, 1737) = 85.79$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .129$ . The covariate, age, was significantly related to sexual communication and openness,  $F(1, 1737) = 9.75$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ .

#### 14.4.5 Relationship Length

An ANCOVA showed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of sexual communication and openness after controlling for the effect of relationship length,  $F(3, 1737) = 87.7$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .132$ . The covariate, relationship length, was significantly related to sexual communication and openness,  $F(1, 1737) = 30.05$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .017$ .

Table 5 shows the one-way and two-way ANOVA analysis results for sexual communication and openness.

Table 5 Sexual Communication and Openness

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	$\eta^2$
Context of Pornography Consumption (CPC) <sup>1</sup>	93509.8	3	31169.9	84.98	<b>.001</b>	.128
Gender <sup>1</sup>	2237.3	1	2237.3	5.34	<b>.021</b>	.003
CPC	80551.7	3	26850.6	73.86	<b>.001</b>	.113



	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	$\eta^2$
Gender	1.33	1	1.33	.004	.952	.000
CPC * gender	5885.1	3	1961.7	5.40	<b>.001</b>	.009
Relationship Status <sup>1</sup>	6878.7	2	3439.4	8.26	<b>.001</b>	.009
CPC	80455.3	3	26818.4	74.22	<b>.001</b>	.114
Relationship Status	4727.3	2	2363.7	6.54	<b>.001</b>	.008
CPC * relationship status	3196.9	6	532.8	1.48	.183	.005
Frequency of pornography consumption <sup>1</sup>	4564.4	4	1141.1	2.73	<b>.028</b>	.006
CPC	43153.8	3	14384.6	39.86	<b>.001</b>	.065
Frequency of pornography consumption	4398.4	4	1099.6	3.05	<b>.016</b>	.007
CPC * frequency of porn. consumption	7691.9	6	1282.0	3.55	<b>.002</b>	.012

<sup>1</sup> One-way ANOVA

#### 14.4.6 Couple Data

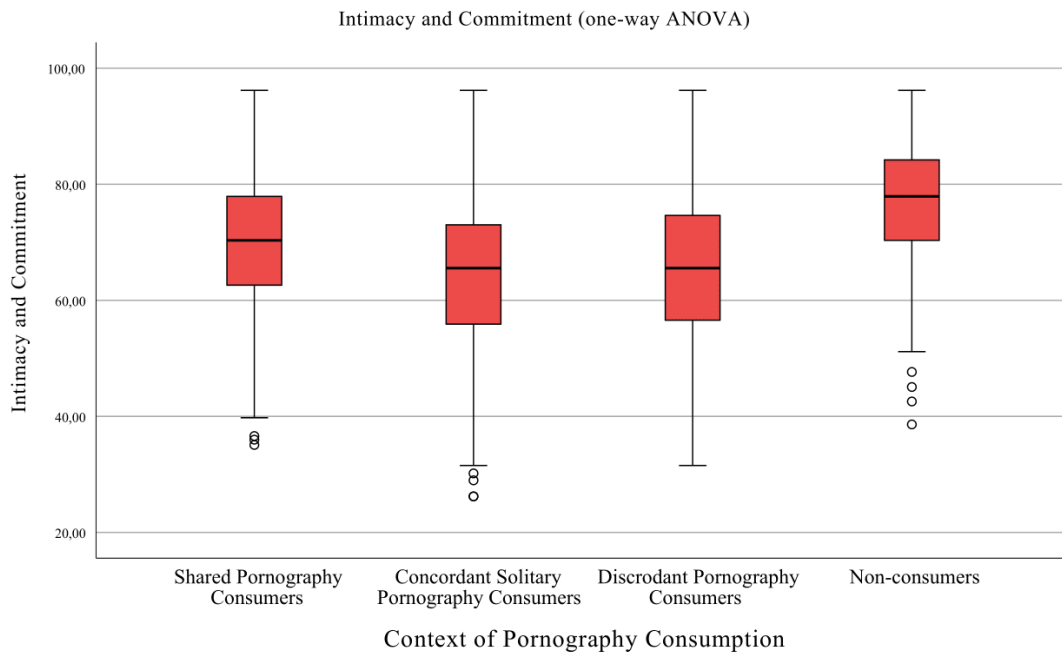
One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the way pornography was consumed in relationships on sexual communication and openness,  $F(3,96) = 6.03$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .159$ .

The post hoc test showed that shared pornography consumers had higher scores of sexual communication and openness than couples with solitary pornography consumption ( $p = <.001$ ) and couples with discordant pornography consumption ( $p = <.001$ ). Shared pornography consumers and non-consumers did not differ ( $p = .424$ ).

#### 14.5 Intimacy, Commitment, and Infidelity

One-way ANOVA showed a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption in relationships on intimacy and commitment,  $F(3,1738) = 45.97$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .074$ . The post hoc test indicated that non-consumers had the highest level of intimacy and commitment compared to shared pornography consumers ( $p = <.001$ ), concordant pornography consumers ( $p = <.001$ ), and discordant pornography consumers ( $p = <.001$ ). Shared pornography consumers had the second highest level of intimacy and commitment. Concordant and discordant pornography consumers ( $p = .960$ ) did not differ from each other.

Figure 6 Intimacy and Commitment (one-way ANOVA)



#### 14.5.1 Gender

One-way ANOVA showed a significant main effect of gender on intimacy and commitment,  $F(1,1740) = 31.95$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .018$ . Women, in general, had a higher level of intimacy and commitment in a romantic relationship than men ( $p = <.001$ ).

Two-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant effect between the context of pornography consumption on intimacy and commitment,  $F(3,1734) = 40.47$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .065$ . Also, there was a significant effect of gender on intimacy and commitment,  $F(1,1734) = 5.94$ ,  $p = .015$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ , and a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and gender on intimacy and commitment,  $F(3, 1734) = 4.33$ ,  $p = .005$ ,  $\eta^2 = .007$ .

The effect size in the association between gender and intimacy and commitment was negligible, so it did not affect the overall results.

#### 14.5.2 Education

One-way ANOVA revealed no significant effect of education on intimacy and commitment in a romantic relationship,  $F(4,1737) = 1.61$ ,  $p = .169$ ,  $\eta^2 = .004$ .

### 14.5.3 Religion

One-way ANOVA revealed no significant main effect of religion on intimacy and commitment in a romantic relationship,  $F(1,1740) = 0.36$ ,  $p = .550$ ,  $\eta^2 = .000$ .

### 14.5.4 Relationship Status

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of the relationship status on intimacy and commitment,  $F(2,1739) = 4.79$ ,  $p = .008$ ,  $\eta^2 = .005$ . The post hoc test showed that married participants had the highest level of intimacy and commitment. There was no significant difference between cohabiting and dating participants ( $p = .956$ ).

Two-way ANOVA was performed to analyse the effect of the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on intimacy and commitment. Simple main effects analysis indicated that the context of pornography consumption did have a statistically significant effect on intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships,  $F(3,1730) = 41.07$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .066$ . However, there was not a significant effect of relationship status on intimacy and commitment,  $F(2,1730) = 2.25$ ,  $p = .106$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ . Also, there was not a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on the level of intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships,  $F(6, 1730) = 0.57$ ,  $p = .758$ ,  $\eta^2 = .002$ .

The main analysis was not affected because of the small effect size in the association between relationship status on intimacy and commitment.

### 14.5.5 Attitudes Towards Pornography

One-way ANOVA did not show a significant main effect of the attitudes towards pornography on intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships,  $F(2,1739) = 2.32$ ,  $p = .099$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ .

### 14.5.6 Frequency of Pornography Consumption

One-way ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant effect between the frequency of pornography consumption and intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships,  $F(4,1737) = 23.63$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .052$

Two-way ANOVA revealed a significant effect between the context of pornography consumption and the intimacy and commitment level,  $F(3,1728) = 22.68$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .038$ . Likewise, there was a significant effect of the frequency of pornography consumption on intimacy and commitment,  $F(4,1728) = 12.32$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,

$\eta^2 = .028$ . However, no significant interaction was found between the context of pornography consumption and the frequency of pornography consumption on intimacy and commitment,  $F(6, 1728) = 1.70, p = .118, \eta^2 = .006$ .

#### 14.5.7 Age

An ANCOVA revealed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships after controlling for the effect of age,  $F(3, 1737) = 44.89, p < .001, \eta^2 = .072$ . The covariate, age, was significantly related to intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships,  $F(1, 1737) = 24.7, p < .001, \eta^2 = .014$ .

#### 14.5.8 Relationship Length

An ANCOVA showed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships after controlling for the effect of relationship length,  $F(3, 1737) = 45.30, p < .001, \eta^2 = .073$ . The covariate, relationship length, was significantly related to intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships,  $F(1, 1737) = 11.69, p < .001, \eta^2 = .007$ .

Table 6 shows the results obtained from one-way and two-way ANOVA analysis for intimacy and commitment.

Table 6 Intimacy and Commitment

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	$\eta^2$
Context of Pornography Consumption (CPC) <sup>1</sup>	21850.5	3	7283.5	45.97	<b>.001</b>	.074
Gender <sup>1</sup>	5359.0	1	5359.0	31.95	<b>.001</b>	.018
CPC	18901.6	3	6300.5	40.47	<b>.001</b>	.065
Gender	924.0	1	924.0	5.94	<b>.015</b>	.003
CPC * Gender	2022.6	3	674.2	4.33	<b>.005</b>	.007
Education <sup>1</sup>	1099.0	4	274.7	1.61	.169	.004
Religion <sup>1</sup>	61.2	1	61.2	.36	.550	.000
Relationship Status <sup>1</sup>	1629.6	2	814.8	4.79	<b>.008</b>	.005
CPC	19488.2	3	6496.1	41.07	<b>.001</b>	.066
Relationship Status	712.1	2	356.0	2.25	.106	.003

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	$\eta^2$
CPC * relationship status	536.9	6	89.5	.57	.758	.002
Attitudes Towards Pornography <sup>1</sup>	791.1	2	395.5	2.32	.099	.003
Frequency of Pornography Consumption <sup>1</sup>	15340.0	4	3835.0	23.63	.001	.052
CPC	10488.9	3	3496.3	22.68	.001	.038
Frequency of pornography consumption	7597.1	4	1899.3	12.32	.001	.028
CPC * frequency of porn. consumption	1568.8	6	261.5	1.70	.118	.006

<sup>1</sup> One-way ANOVA

#### 14.5.9 Infidelity

There was a significant association between the context of pornography consumption and whether infidelity in the form of kissing is happening,  $\chi^2(3) = 35.95$ ,  $p = <.001$ , Cramér's  $\phi = .144$ . Non-consumers had the least risk of experiencing infidelity in the form of kissing in their relationship.

There was a significant association between the context of pornography consumption and whether infidelity in the form of sexual activities (except sexual intercourse) is happening,  $\chi^2(3) = 36.66$ ,  $p = <.001$ , Cramér's  $\phi = .145$ . Non-consumers had the least risk of experiencing infidelity in the form of sexual activities (except sexual intercourse) in their relationship.

There was a significant association between the context of pornography consumption and whether infidelity in the form of sexual intercourse is happening,  $\chi^2(3) = 23.99$ ,  $p = <.001$ , Cramér's  $\phi = .117$ . Non-consumers had the least risk of experiencing infidelity in the form of sexual intercourse in their relationship.

#### 14.5.10 Couple Data

One-way ANOVA showed that there was not a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption in relationships on intimacy and commitment,  $F(3,96) = 2.47$ ,  $p = .067$ ,  $\eta^2 = .072$ .

Regarding couple data, there was not a significant association between the context of pornography consumption and whether infidelity in the form of kissing is happening,  $\chi^2(3) = 1.56$ ,  $p = .668$ , Cramér's  $\phi = .125$ .

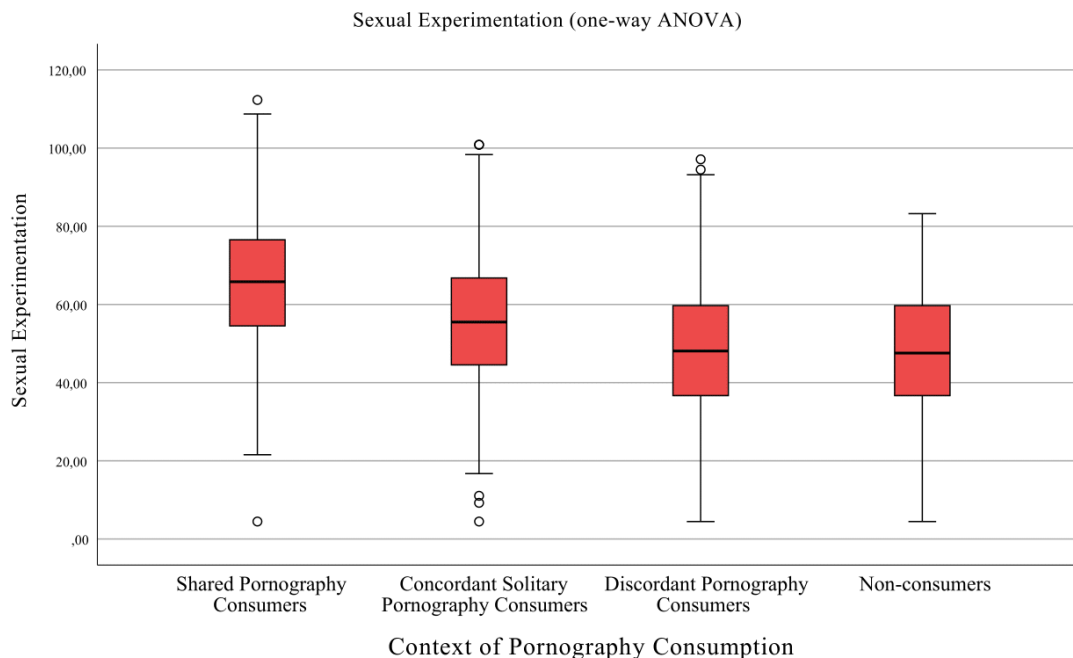
Regarding couple data, there was not a significant association between the context of pornography consumption and whether infidelity in the form of sexual activities (except sexual intercourse) is happening,  $\chi^2(3) = 2.79$ ,  $p = .425$ , Cramér's  $\phi = .167$ .

Regarding couple data, there was not a significant association between the context of pornography consumption and whether infidelity in the form of sexual intercourse is happening,  $\chi^2(3) = 2.85$ ,  $p = .415$ , Cramér's  $\phi = .169$ .

### 14.6 Sexual Experimentation

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the context of pornography consumption in relationships on sexual experimentation,  $F(3,1737) = 109.35$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .159$ . Tukey post hoc test showed that shared pornography consumers had the highest level of sexual experimentation compared to concordant pornography consumers ( $p < .001$ ), discordant pornography consumers ( $p < .001$ ), and non-consumers ( $p < .001$ ). Non-consumers and discordant pornography consumers had the lowest level of sexual experimentation.

Figure 7 Sexual Experimentation (one-way ANOVA)



#### 14.6.1 Gender

One-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of gender on sexual experimentation,  $F(1, 1739) = 9.93$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ .

Two-way ANOVA showed that there was a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual experimentation,  $F(3,1733) = 93.14$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .139$ . There was a significant effect of gender on sexual experimentation as well,  $F(1,1733) = 4.44$ ,  $p = .035$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ . Women had a higher level of sexual experimentation compared to men. In addition, there was a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and gender on the levels of sexual experimentation,  $F(3, 1733) = 3.51$ ,  $p = .015$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ .

#### 14.6.2 Education

A one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant relationship between the effects of education level and sexual experimentation,  $F(4,1736) = 10.89$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .024$ .

Simple main effects analysis showed that there was a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual experimentation,  $F(3,1734) = 29.35$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .049$ . There was also a significant effect of education on sexual experimentation,  $F(4,1734) = 9.16$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .021$ . A two-way ANOVA revealed there was a statistically significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and education on the levels of sexual experimentation,  $F(12, 1734) = 2.25$ ,  $p = .008$ ,  $\eta^2 = .015$ .

Individuals who had primary education had the highest level of sexual experimentation. Participants with university education had the lowest level of sexual experimentation.

#### 14.6.3 Relationship Status

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant effect between the relationship status and sexual experimentation,  $F(2,1738) = 5.66$ ,  $p = .004$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ .

A two-way ANOVA was performed to analyse the effect of the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on sexual experimentation. Simple main effects analysis showed that the context of pornography consumption did have a statistically significant effect on sexual experimentation,  $F(3,1729) = 97.03$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,

$\eta^2 = .144$ . Further, there was a significant effect of relationship status on sexual experimentation,  $F(2,1729) = 4.61$ ,  $p = .010$ ,  $\eta^2 = .005$ . There was not a significant interaction effect between the context of pornography consumption and relationship status on the levels of sexual experimentation,  $F(6, 1729) = 0.94$ ,  $p = .466$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ .

Married couples had the lowest level of sexual experimentation compared to dating ( $p = .026$ ) and cohabiting couples ( $p = .007$ ). At the same time, dating and cohabiting couples did not differ ( $p = .991$ ).

#### 14.6.4 Frequency of Pornography Consumption

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant effect between the frequency of pornography consumption and sexual experimentation,  $F(4,1736) = 4.87$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .011$ .

Two-way ANOVA showed a significant main effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual experimentation,  $F(3,1727) = 38.2$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .062$ . Simultaneously, there was a significant effect of frequency of pornography consumption on sexual experimentation,  $F(4,1727) = 2.57$ ,  $p = .036$ ,  $\eta^2 = .006$ , and a significant interaction effect was found between the context of pornography consumption and frequency of pornography consumption on the levels of sexual experimentation,  $F(6, 1727) = 2.58$ ,  $p = .017$ ,  $\eta^2 = .009$ .

Participants who consumed pornography more often demonstrated a greater level of sexual experimentation, while those who did not consume pornography had the lowest level of sexual experimentation.

#### 14.6.5 Age

An ANCOVA revealed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of sexual experimentation after controlling for the effect of age,  $F(3, 1736) = 110.75$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .161$ . The covariate, age, was significantly related to sexual experimentation,  $F(1, 1736) = 8.71$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $\eta^2 = .005$ .

#### 14.6.6 Relationship Length

An ANCOVA showed a significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on levels of sexual experimentation after controlling for the effect of relationship length,  $F(3, 1736) = 113.74$ ,  $p = <.001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .164$ . The covariate, relationship



length, was significantly related to sexual experimentation,  $F(1, 1736) = 36.07, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .020$ .

Table 7 shows the results obtained from one-way and two-way ANOVA analysis for sexual experimentation.

Table 7 Sexual Experimentation

	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b><math>\eta^2</math></b>
Context of Pornography Consumption (CPC) <sup>1</sup>	85997.5	3	28665.8	109.35	<b>.001</b>	.159
Gender <sup>1</sup>	3073.3	1	3073.3	9.93	<b>.002</b>	.006
CPC	72542.3	3	24180.8	93.14	<b>.001</b>	.139
Gender	1152.2	1	1152.2	4.44	<b>.035</b>	.003
CPC * Gender	2734.7	3	911.6	3.51	<b>.015</b>	.006
Education <sup>1</sup>	13253.8	4	3313.5	10.89	<b>.001</b>	.024
CPC	22361.0	3	7453.7	29.35	<b>.001</b>	.049
Education	9306.7	4	2326.7	9.16	<b>.001</b>	.021
CPC * Education	6840.2	12	570.0	2.25	<b>.008</b>	.015
Relationship Status <sup>1</sup>	3500.9	2	1750.4	5.66	<b>.004</b>	.006
CPC	75697.8	3	25232.6	97.03	<b>.001</b>	.144
Relationship Status	2395.6	2	1197.8	4.61	<b>.010</b>	.005
CPC * Relationship Status	1463.8	6	244.0	.94	.466	.003
Frequency of Pornography Consumption <sup>1</sup>	6008.5	4	1502.1	4.87	<b>.001</b>	.011
CPC	29631.5	3	9877.2	38.20	<b>.001</b>	.062
Frequency of Pornography Consumption	2659.3	4	664.8	2.57	<b>.036</b>	.006
CPC * Frequency of Porn. Consumption	4000.4	6	666.7	2.58	<b>.017</b>	.009

<sup>1</sup>One-way ANOVA

#### 14.6.7 Couple Data

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the context of pornography consumption in relationships on sexual experimentation,  $F(3,96) = 8.24, p = <.001, \eta^2 = .205$ .

Tukey post hoc test showed that shared pornography consumers had the highest level of sexual experimentation compared to concordant pornography consumers ( $p = .002$ ), discordant pornography consumers ( $p = <.001$ ), and non-consumers ( $p = .023$ ). Non-consumers, concordant and discordant pornography consumers had the lowest level of sexual experimentation and did not differ from each other.

## **15 Discussion**

The popularity of pornography is constantly growing. At the same time, it is becoming more and more accessible. Technological advances help the popularity of pornography in a significant way as well. The question of the role of pornography in romantic relationships is still being asked, especially in the field of couple therapy. Therefore, the current study focused on pornography consumption and diverse areas of partner sexual activity. Is pornography really that harmful to relationships?

Very few studies were interested in the context of pornography consumption in relationships; therefore, whether shared pornography consumption in a relationship might make pornography less harmful to the relationship and their sexual activity compared to solitary consumption. A set of interesting results had already been discussed in the introduction emerged. However, the cause of the results is not yet certain. For that reason, moderating factors and covariates that could influence the results mentioned were also included in this study.

Before discussing how pornography consumption in different contexts was associated with critical dimensions of partner sexual activity in romantic relationships, we discuss the findings from our descriptive analyses. The average relationship length of the sample was almost seven years, and the average age was almost 32 years. Along with the fact that the sample in the study was large, these were major advantages of this study.

Our descriptive results support the frequently reported finding that men watch pornography more than women (Albright, 2008; Carroll et al., 2017; Maddox et al., 2011; Petersen & Hyde, 2010; Poulsen et al., 2013). Conversely, our results do not support other studies (e.g. Bridges & Morokoff, 2011), saying that women tend to watch pornography together with their partner as a part of sexual activity in a relationship. The current study suggested that women are more likely to report concordant solitary pornography consumption. In this case, women watched pornography and were aware that their partner watched pornography, but it was not their shared activity. The current study also does not support Kraus and Rosenberg (2016) suggestion that only a minority of men watch pornography with their partner. In our sample, it was 26.8 % of men reported shared pornography consumption.

Interestingly, in this sample, non-consumers were the youngest and had the shortest relationship length. This may also explain the observed results, as Starc et al. (2022) in their study suggested that the most sexually satisfied is the 18 to 23 age group. Besides, according to Stewart and Szymanski (2012), sexual dissatisfaction is associated with longer relationships. Married couples were more likely to share their pornography consumption. Most of the sample were married or cohabiting. Additionally, we did not find any statistically significant differences in participants' education regarding the context of pornography consumption.

Different studies discovered a significant and positive correlation between the consumption of pornography and sexual desire (e.g. Chesli et al., 2023; Carvalho et al., 2013; Leonhardt et al., 2021; Prause & Pfaus, 2015; Steele et al., 2013). Nevertheless, no study has explored the connection between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire. We implemented different moderating variables within this elementary association that could affect results. Previous research focused on moderating factors, but in another area of partner sexual activity, such as sexual satisfaction, where they found some positive outcomes related to pornography consumption (e.g. Grov et al., 2010; Benjamin & Tlusten, 2010; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Willoughby et al., 2020; Huntington et al., 2020; Yucel & Gassanov, 2010; Maddox et al., 2011; Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013; Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Kohut et al., 2021).

Our results indicated that shared pornography consumers and non-consumers had the highest frequency of intercourse per month. Thus, our hypothesis that shared pornography consumers, compared to concordant solitary pornography consumers, discordant pornography consumers, and non-consumers, will display a significantly higher frequency of intercourse was only partially supported. Results are not consistent with previous studies stated that shared pornography consumers only had the highest frequency of intercourse (Grov et al., 2010; Benjamin & Tlusten, 2010; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Willoughby et al., 2020; Huntington et al., 2020), according to these studies the hypothesis was formed. We observed a medium effect size for the frequency of intercourse. At the same time, no significant difference was found between men and women in the frequency of sexual intercourse, which contrasts with previous findings (Grøntvedt et al., 2019). As suggested in previous studies (e.g. Yucel & Gassanov, 2010; Maddox et al., 2011; Daneback et al., 2009; Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Kohut et al.,

2021), we could think about concordant and discordant pornography consumption as a negative activity that could be harmful to a relationship. This is further discussed below.

In contrast to individual data results, there was not a significant difference between the context of pornography consumption and frequency of intercourse among couple data.

As for sexual desire, our hypothesis that individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship, compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption, discordant pornography consumption, or no consumption, will display a significantly higher sexual desire was not supported to the full extent. Results indicated that shared pornography consumers and discordant pornography consumers had higher sexual desire compared to concordant pornography consumers and non-consumers. We can not compare these results with previous research since no study has looked at whether there is an association between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire. Only in our previous master's thesis was this area investigated (Lexová, 2020). Current results are not consistent with those in the master's thesis, where results showed that shared pornography consumers had the highest sexual desire compared to other groups. We controlled age and relationship length in the current study due to a decrease in sexual desire with older age (Laumann et al., 1999). In the case of women, sexual desire was negatively affected by relationship length (Impett & Peplau, 2003). A significant effect of the context of pornography consumption on sexual desire was found, although the age and relationship length were controlled.

Why are the results in contrast to previous research? First, the effect size observed was very small. At the same time, other moderating factors, in this case, gender, influenced the association more than the context of pornography itself. The discordant pornography consumers group belonged to individuals from relationships in which only one of the partners watched pornography, and it is usually the man in the relationship. Men had higher sexual desire than women in this sample, which influenced the obtained results. Gender differences were consistent with a study by Baumeister et al. (2001). Compared to women, men showed more significant variations among themselves regarding the context of pornography consumption.

Our results are not consistent regarding the frequency of pornography consumption (Bridges & Morokoff, 2011; Muuses et al., 2015; Poulsen et al., 2013; Wright et al., 2017; Vaillancourt-Morel et al., 2017) as a moderating factor, which in these studies was a factor having a negative outcome for relationships. A current study suggested that with more

frequent pornography consumption, sexual desire levels are also higher. Non-consumers had the lowest sexual desire.

Interestingly, regarding the relationship status, married couples had higher sexual desire than cohabiting or dating couples. Married couples with discordant pornography consumption had the highest sexual desire in terms of the context of pornography consumption. This could have an impact on the results as well. In another recent study (McNulty et al., 2019), it was found that newlyweds have, on average, moderate to high levels of sexual desire, which could explain the currently obtained results. Married men with higher sexual desire could watch pornography more often alone, as mentioned above, and overall, with their partner, have a higher sexual desire compared to dating, cohabiting, and people married who are not newlyweds.

Regarding education, individuals with higher professional education and vocational education had the highest sexual desire. The lowest sexual desire had people with a university education. Again, this finding contrasts with previous research by Laumann and colleagues (1999). Since the effect size was negligible, it seems like it does not affect the main analysis significantly.

Surprisingly, our results do not support that attitudes towards pornography influence sexual desire in relationships, although personal beliefs could moderate the impact of pornography consumption, as previous research suggested (Grubbs et al., 2015; Perry, 2016).

Guilt about pornography consumption was the moderating factor regarding sexual desire. We did not find any association between guilt about pornography use and sexual desire. Interestingly, current results are not consistent with previous studies that suggested a reduced sexual desire in case individuals were feeling guilty that they are watching pornography (Bennet et al., 2019).

In contrast to individual data results, there was not a significant difference between the context of pornography consumption and sexual desire among couple data.

As stated in the introduction, sexual satisfaction is one of the essential areas of sexuality related to overall relationship satisfaction (Litzinger & Gordon, 2005; Sprecher & Cate, 2004; Impett et al., 2014). Therefore, much attention was paid to the association between the context of pornography consumption and sexual satisfaction (e.g. (Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013; Kohut et al., 2017; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Carvalho et al., 2013; McKee, 2007; Yucel & Gassanov, 2010). Willoughby et al. (2020)

also suggested moderating factors in their study. Nevertheless, no study has yet addressed moderating factors in exploring associations between sexual satisfaction in romantic relationships and the context of pornography consumption. The current study included age, gender, relationship length, education, relationship status, sexual desire discrepancy, and frequency of pornography consumption as moderating factors based on previous studies suggesting that these factors are connected with sexual satisfaction (e.g. Ferron et al., 2016; Rasmussen, 2016; Sun et al., 2016; Willoughby et al., 2021; Starc et al., 2022; Pedersen & Blekesaune, 2003; Muusses et al., 2015; Ahmetoglu et al., 2010; Wright et al., 2019; Bridges & Horne, 2017).

Our hypothesis that participants with shared pornography consumption in relationships and non-consumers, compared to participants with concordant solitary pornography consumption and discordant pornography consumption, will display significantly higher levels of sexual satisfaction was fully supported. Shared pornography consumers and non-consumers had the highest level of sexual satisfaction with an effect size that ranges somewhere between medium and large effect size. Sexual satisfaction results are consistent with our previous study (Lexová, 2020) and, at the same time, with a study by Maddox et al. (2011), which said that shared pornography consumers and non-consumers have no differences in sexual satisfaction. Following the current study, there are also other mentioned studies (Yucel & Gassanov, 2010; Willoughby & Leonhardt, 2018; Daneback et al., 2009; Kohut et al., 2021) that said that shared pornography consumption has more positive consequences than concordant solitary and discordant pornography consumption in terms of sexual satisfaction.

Men in the sample had higher sexual satisfaction than women. Simultaneously, one-way ANOVA showed a significant effect of gender on sexual satisfaction but with a very low effect size. Post hoc test revealed that men were less sexually satisfied when they were the only ones who consumed pornography (discordant pornography consumption), which is consistent with studies suggesting that pornography consumption only by men in relationships is associated with lower satisfaction with sexual activities (Ferron et al., 2016; Rasmussen, 2016; Sun et al., 2016; Willoughby et al., 2021; Wright et al., 2017; Wright et al., 2018; Sommet & Berent, 2022; Daneback et al., 2009; Poulsen et al., 2013).

Compared to the main analysis, education seemed not to have a significant connection to the association between the context of pornography consumption and sexual

satisfaction. In contrast to previously mentioned studies (Starc et al., 2022; Ji & Norling, 2004), participants with vocational and university education were the least sexually satisfied compared to participants with primary, secondary, and higher professional education. Generally said, education had no significant influence on the overall results due to lower effect size as well.

Relationship status did not affect the overall results, as participants with shared and no consumption still had the highest sexual satisfaction. However, analysis showed that participants who were dating were more sexually satisfied than cohabiting or married couples. These findings do support previous research by Starc and colleagues (2022). Married people should be more emotionally satisfied (e.g., Butzer & Campbell, 2008), but that is not the aim of the current study.

Of all the moderating factors in the association between sexual satisfaction and the context of pornography consumption, the most significant effect could be observed in sexual desire discrepancy. Partners who had the same sexual desire had the highest sexual satisfaction. Overall, partners consuming pornography together and non-consumers who had the same sexual desire were the most sexually satisfied. These results are consistent with those of Mark and Murray (2012), who stated that higher sexual discrepancy is a crucial factor predicting lower sexual satisfaction in women and lower relationship satisfaction in men.

The association between the frequency of pornography consumption is noteworthy as well. The lower the frequency of pornography consumption, the higher the participants' sexual satisfaction. This finding agrees with the previously mentioned study's findings (Wright et al., 2019; Cranney & Štulhofer, 2017; Muusses et al., 2015; Blais-Lecours et al., 2016), which showed that higher pornography use relates to lower sexual satisfaction. In general, we cannot say that it interferes with the relationship between the context of pornography consumption and sexual satisfaction, as shared and no pornography consumption is connected with the highest sexual satisfaction.

Since age and relationship length may influence the connection between the context of pornography consumption and sexual satisfaction, for purposes of the current study, these factors were controlled in data analysis. The current study revealed a significant association between the context of pornography consumption and sexual satisfaction in relationships, even after controlling for the effect of age and relationship length.

In sexual satisfaction, the results of individual and couple data were consistent.



Another area explored is sexual communication and openness. The findings in our study indicated that partners from relationships in which pornography is consumed at least partly together had the highest levels of sexual communication and openness among all. Relationships in which only one of the partners watches pornography had the lowest level of sexual communication and openness. These findings are consistent with those mentioned in the introduction (Daneback et al., 2009; Willoughby et al., 2016; Kohut et al., 2018; Lexová, 2020). At the same time, the effect size observed was almost close to the large size. Thus, our hypothesis that individuals with shared pornography consumption in a relationship compared to individuals with concordant solitary pornography consumption, discordant pornography consumption, and non-consumers will display significantly higher levels of sexual communication and openness was fully supported. Another interesting fact is that no other moderating variable entered the main interaction between the context of pornography consumption and sexual communication fundamentally. Moreover, the results have undergone a control for the effect of age as well as the length of the relationship.

Gender as a moderating factor did not affect the results, as men and women scored equally in sexual communication. At the same time, we observed a negligible effect size. However, the findings of the current study do not support the previous research by Greene and Faulkner (2005), saying that women score higher in sexual communication construct. Similar results can be observed with relationship status and frequency of pornography consumption. Relationship status did not seem to influence the context of pornography consumption. Only with a very small effect size, the highest score of sexual communication had dating partners compared to cohabiting or married partners. Results support previous research by Romano (2008), saying that married couples are less likely to communicate about sexual topics compared to dating and cohabiting couples. Results do not support our expectation that married couples will score higher in sexual communication (e.g., Mallory et al., 2019; Denes, 2012; Wheelless et al., 1984). Again, with a very low effect size, more frequent pornography consumption was associated with lower levels of sexual communication in relationships. Individuals who watched pornography nearly daily were probably more engaged in masturbation and not in partner sexual activities, which resulted in very low sexual communication in a relationship. Our finding only partially supports a previous study by Kohut and colleagues (2018) suggesting that individuals with a higher frequency of pornography consumption and no consumption will score higher in sexual communication. Even though the effect of age and relationship

length was controlled, we can still state that the effect between the context of pornography consumption and sexual communication was significant, with a slightly larger effect size.

Couple data results and individual data results were similar in the case of sexual communication and openness. A couple data showed that together with shared pornography consumers, non-consumers had the highest sexual communication and openness score as well.

Many studies have looked at intimacy, commitment, and infidelity in romantic relationships. However, a minority examined the connection with the consumption of pornography, which tends to be perceived in society as problematic to relationship intimacy (Brown, 2015). People generally believe that watching pornography causes infidelity (Bridges et al., 2011; Lambert et al., 2012; Gwinn et al., 2013). Some even perceived it as infidelity (Negy et al., 2018; Olmstead et al., 2013).

With an observed medium effect size, the findings in our study indicated that non-consumers of pornography have the highest level of intimacy and commitment. Shared consumers had a higher level of intimacy and commitment as well. On the other hand, concordant and discordant pornography consumers had the lowest level of intimacy and commitment. The obtained results fully supported our hypothesis. Current study results are consistent with previous study (Minarcik et al., 2016) claiming that shared pornography consumers have higher levels of intimacy and commitment compared to solitary consumers. At the same time, results are consistent with Maddox and colleagues' (2011) study.

We also observed with a moderate effect size that partners in which relationships pornography is not consumed have the least risk of experiencing infidelity in the form of kissing, other sexual activities, and intercourse in their romantic relationship. Therefore, our hypothesis was fully supported, and results are consistent with previous research (Maddox et al., 2011) stating that pornography consumers reported more infidelity than non-consumers. As for infidelity, there are no other studies dealing with the context of pornography consumption.

In the case of intimacy, commitment and infidelity, couple data results contrast with individual data results. There were no differences between couples with different context of pornography consumption in this area.

Results of the present study showed that women experience a higher level of intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships. This is most likely because men and

women perceive intimacy differently. Men are more likely to experience relationship intimacy and closeness through joint leisure time and engaging in sexual activities as well. Conversely, women perceive intimacy as a matter of communication, emotional closeness, and affection. Simultaneously, women understand and listen more to their partner's needs (Constant et al., 2016). Since intimacy-related questionnaires are designed more according to women's perceptions, we can usually observe a higher level of intimacy with them. The effect size, in this case, was very small. Despite this, gender differences did not interfere with the main analysis; thus, they did not influence the level of intimacy and commitment in association with the context of pornography consumption.

Education as a moderating factor had no significant effect on the association context of pornography consumption, intimacy, and commitment. However, previous study suggested that people with different education levels differ (Zitzman & Butler, 2009). No research considered religion as a moderating factor in a relationship between the context of pornography consumption, intimacy, and commitment. However, studies related to sexual satisfaction considered religion as an important factor (Perry & Whitehead, 2019; Wright & Bae, 2015; Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs et al., 2019). Our results did not demonstrate any significance of religion as a moderating factor. The same applies to attitudes towards pornography. Relationship status as a moderating factor was significant, but it did not seem to influence the context of pornography consumption. Although married couples had the highest level of intimacy and commitment, the difference was negligible.

Interestingly, the more often someone consumed pornography, the less intimacy and commitment they experienced in a relationship, which is consistent with previous findings (Bekaroo et al., 2017). Moreover, the results have undergone a control for the effect of age and the relationship length.

The final area of partner sexual activity examined in the current study was sexual experimentation, which refers to trying different sexual practices in a romantic relationship (McCormack & Wignall, 2017). Very few studies have looked at the association between sexual experimentation and pornography consumption. In the case of the context of pornography consumption, there is no study now that deals with this, except for our previous master's study (Lexová, 2020).

Our hypothesis that shared pornography consumers, compared to concordant pornography consumers, discordant pornography consumers, and no consumers, will display significantly higher values on the scale of sexual experimentation was fully

supported. The observed effect size was large. Results are consistent with previous study (Lexová, 2020). Discordant pornography consumers and non-consumers had the lowest level of sexual experimentation. As in the previous studies (Daneback et al., 2009; Kohut et al., 2017; Rausch et al., 2017; Olmstead et al., 2013; Martyniuk & Štulhofer, 2018), we can assume that pornography consumption in general is associated with learning new sexual practices and sexual experimentation.

Regarding gender differences, consistent with Komlenac and Hochleitner's study (2022), women had higher levels of sexual experimentation compared to men. The previous research did not deal with the relationship between sexual experimentation and education. However, regarding inclusion in previous areas of sexual activity, we decided to investigate education as a moderating factor in the relationship between the context of pornography consumption and sexual experimentation. Results showed that individuals with primary education had the highest level of sexual experimentation, whereas university-educated individuals had the lowest level. Results showed that married couples had the lowest level of sexual experimentation, which was not a surprise. Dating and cohabiting couples did not differ. At the same time, with the more frequent pornography consumption, individuals had a greater level of sexual experimentation. This is consistent with previous research (Weinberg et al., 2010; Donevan & Mattebo, 2017). All moderating effects had negligible effect size and most likely did not affect the overall results of the main analysis. Moreover, the results have undergone a control for the effect of age and the relationship length.

In sexual experimentation, individual data results and couple data results were consistent.

There are several possible explanations for these results. Most of society questions whether pornography is positive or rather harmful. For a long time, it was assumed that pornography corrupts the morals of society and is harmful to interpersonal relationships. In reality, we often meet partners who say that pornography enters their relationship negatively. Therefore, is pornography harmful, or is it caused by something else? The results of the current study show that in the case of shared consumption of pornography, the consequences may not be harmful. On the contrary, they may even be beneficial. It may not be the consequences of watching pornography but rather the consequences of the relationship itself. As mentioned in the introduction, talking openly about your sexuality can be complicated for partners. Nevertheless, it shows quality and satisfaction in romantic

relationships. Thus, for such relationships, we might expect that pornography consumption would not be harmful but rather beneficial. They will not use it as a substitute for sexuality in a relationship or as an escape from reality. To some extent, they will use it as an inspiration for exploring their sexual fantasies. Such partners are more likely to share their sexuality. Throughout different studies, we can notice an association between the quality of a romantic relationship and the quality of sexual activity in a relationship is strong and consistent (Byers, 2005; Byers et al., 1998; Haavio-Mannila & Kontula, 1997; Lawrance & Byers, 1995; Purnine & Carey, 1997). Consequently, partners who watch pornography together and communicate with each other have a better relationship as well. Thus, the way pornography is consumed may reflect the quality of the relationship and the level of communication and sharing. Sexual communication is perceived as threatening when relationships are uncertain (Theiss & Estlein, 2014), as sexual communication is negatively associated with relational uncertainty (Brown & Weigel, 2018).

Interestingly, couple data showed slightly different results in the areas of frequency of intercourse, sexual desire, infidelity, intimacy, and commitment. It is complicated to determine the reason. It is possible that the couple data was a smaller sample, so the differences did not appear. On the contrary, it is also possible that the sample of individual data was large. Therefore, it was too easy to show differences that would generally be insignificant. As mentioned during the project, future research must focus exclusively on couple data.

Overall, shared pornography consumers had higher levels of frequency of pornography consumption, sexual desire, sexual satisfaction, sexual communication and openness, and sexual experimentation. However, in the opposite case, when partners do not consume pornography at all, we also observed a higher frequency of pornography consumption, sexual satisfaction, intimacy, and commitment. At the same time, they had the least risk of experiencing infidelity. We can, therefore, conclude that couples who do not need or do not want to consume pornography also have higher levels of some areas of partner sexual activity and, therefore, can also have a quality relationship.

The findings of this study have several important implications for future practice. In couples counselling, excessive pornography consumption should not be viewed as a problem itself but rather as an indicator of other problems in the romantic relationship. Future research should focus on other moderating factors in romantic relationships that can clarify the results. Simultaneously, it is preferable to focus on couple data only.

### **15.1 Limitations and Future Research**

The most distinctive limitation of the current study was the cross-sectional nature of the data and its collection through an online questionnaire. A major disadvantage was that verifying whether the person who filled out the questionnaire was honest and did not lie was impossible. It was also important that the participant filled out the questionnaire alone, without his partner, which was also impossible to check. Although we could not verify these situations, we could at least verify whether the participants read the items correctly and then answer them accordingly. The questionnaire contained several control items that read, for example, "Mark the number five on the scale". We also ensured everyone could understand the items, so a pilot version of the questionnaire was carried out. Individual data could also be a disadvantage. For these reasons, we collected couple data as well. Although one hundred couples is not a large sample, we could examine both partners in a romantic relationship to obtain more detailed information. In some relationships, partners are often not aware of their partner's pornography consumption. Regarding individual data, they could have provided distorted information. Therefore, the couple data sample offered a more reliable look into pornography use in couples. Although the online questionnaire had many limitations, we chose it as a data collection method because the study was about an intimate topic that most people have problems discussing. We also wanted to get more participants in a shorter period. For these purposes, the online questionnaire was a suitable method.

However, research had significant advantages as well. The most important one is that we had a large sample of individuals. Notably, the research focused on the general population rather than exclusively on students, featuring individuals with an average relationship length of nearly seven years and an average age of nearly thirty-two years. Likewise, detailed statistical analysis was an advantage. Compared to our previous research, the questionnaire was more detailed and contained more areas of partner sexual activity. The study also incorporated a greater number of moderating factors, enhancing our understanding of the association between the context of pornography consumption and areas of partner sexual activity. In addition, we made efforts to pre-register our analytic plan before conducting the data collection and analyses. Future research should continue to explore moderating factors to understand the effects of pornography consumption in romantic relationships, specifically with couple data samples.

## **Conclusion**

The current dissertation project offered a different look into the association between pornography consumption and partner sexual activity since not much research focused on the context of pornography consumption together additionally with moderating factors. Practically, a better understanding can provide and guide therapeutic interventions.

The research, based on the literature review, focused on the frequency of intercourse, sexual desire, sexual satisfaction, sexual communication and openness, intimacy, commitment, infidelity, and sexual experimentation, as these are the most critical areas of partner sexual activity. Romantic relationships were compared according to different contexts of pornography use and, specifically, shared pornography consumers, concordant (solitary) pornography consumers, discordant pornography consumers, and non-consumers.

Shared pornography consumers had the highest level of sexual experimentation and sexual communication. Together with non-consumers, shared pornography consumers had the highest frequency of intercourse, sexual satisfaction, intimacy, and commitment. Non-consumers had the least risk of experiencing infidelity in their relationship. Lastly, shared pornography consumers and discordant pornography consumers had the highest sexual desire. Nonetheless, the effect was most likely influenced by gender. Moderating factors were discussed throughout the analysis. However, the effect of most of them was negligible and did not have any influence on the main analysis. Based on the obtained results, the thesis presents a possible explanation that the consumption of pornography itself is not a source of difficulties in romantic relationships but can instead be an indicator of overall relationship quality and satisfaction. Couple data were also explored and discussed throughout the project.

The dissertation project fulfilled its goals outlined in the introduction. The research findings offered essential implications for future practice, mainly in couples counselling. The findings allow a different perspective on the issue of pornography consumption in relationships. Every relationship is unique, and excessive pornography consumption can point to certain problems that have arisen. It is necessary to investigate the reasons behind excessive pornography consumption in relationships.

Future research should further investigate the context of pornography consumption and moderating factors using different methods. It is preferable to focus on couple data only and incorporate, for example, diary studies and experiments in general to obtain more reliable and applicable results.



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## Supplementary Materials 1

### Questionnaire „Sexualita a pornografie“

Dobrý den,

dovolte, abychom Vás informovali o výzkumném projektu, kterého se můžete zúčastnit. Výzkumný projekt se zabývá tématem sexuálního chování, pornografie a partnerských vztahů. Výsledky výzkumu by měly přispět k lepšímu pochopení lidské sexuality a k aplikaci poznatků do párového poradenství. Součástí výzkumu je vyplnění dotazníku.

**Podmínky účasti:** Dotazník je určen pro ženy i muže ve věku nad 18 let, kteří mají momentálně partnerský vztah alespoň 6 měsíců. Vyplnění dotazníku by nemělo zabrat více než 25 minut.

Nejsou známa žádná rizika spojená s účastí ve výzkumu, pokud však budete cítit jakékoli pochybnosti, neváhejte se na nás s nimi obrátit. Vámi vyplněný dotazník je zcela anonymní. Vaše údaje nebudou v žádném případě použity k jiným než odborným účelům. Současně Vás tímto žádám o maximální možnou upřímnost při odpovědích na otázky, které jsou vesměs velmi intimního charakteru.

V případě potřeby doplňujících informací kontaktujte, prosím, hlavního řešitele:

Mgr. Eliška Lexová

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Filozofická fakulta Univerzity Karlovy

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#### Prohlášení:

Zahájením vyplňování dotazníku potvrzují, že

- a) jsem se seznámil/-a s informacemi o cílech a průběhu výše popsaného výzkumu (dále též jen „výzkum“);
- b) dobrovolně souhlasím s účastí své osoby v tomto výzkumu;
- c) rozumím tomu, že se mohu kdykoli rozhodnout ve své účasti na výzkumu nepokračovat;

d) jsem srozuměn s tím, že jakékoliv užití a zveřejnění dat a výstupů vzešlých z výzkumu nezakládá můj nárok na jakoukoliv odměnu či náhradu, tzn. že veškerá oprávnění k užití a zveřejnění dat a výstupů vzešlých z výzkumu poskytuji bezúplatně.

Zároveň prohlašuji, že

a) souhlasím se zveřejněním anonymizovaných dat a výstupů vzešlých z výzkumu a s jejich dalším využitím;

b) souhlasím se zpracováním a uchováním osobních a citlivých údajů v rozsahu v tomto informovaném souhlasu uvedených ze strany Univerzity Karlovy, Filozofické fakulty, IČ: 00216208, se sídlem: nám. Jana Palacha 2, 116 38 Praha 1, a to pro účely zpracování dat vzešlých z výzkumu, pro účely případného kontaktování z důvodu zpracování dat vzešlých z výzkumu či z důvodu nabídky účasti na obdobných akcích a pro účely evidence a archivace; a s tím, že tyto osobní údaje mohou být poskytnuty subjektům oprávněným k výkonu kontroly projektu, v jehož rámci výzkum realizován;

c) jsem seznámen/-a se svými právy týkajícími se přístupu k informacím a jejich ochraně podle zákona č. 110/2019 Sb., o ochraně osobních údajů a o změně některých zákonů, ve znění pozdějších předpisů, tedy že mohu požádat Univerzitu Karlovu v Praze o informaci o zpracování mých osobních a citlivých údajů a jsem oprávněn/-a ji dostat a že mohu požádat Univerzitu Karlovu v Praze o opravu nepřesných osobních údajů, doplnění osobních údajů, jejich blokaci a likvidaci.

Výše uvedená svolení a souhlasy poskytuji dobrovolně na dobu neurčitou až do odvolání a zavazuji se je neodvolat bez závažného důvodu spočívajícího v podstatné změně okolností. Vše výše uvedené se řídí zákony České republiky, s výjimkou tzv. kolizních norem, a bude v souladu s nimi vykládáno, přičemž případné spory budou řešeny příslušnými soudy v České republice.

- 1. Jste:**
  - Muž
  - Žena
- 2. Kolik je Vám let? .....**
- 3. Jste věřící? ano/ne**
- 4. Jaké je Vaše nejvyšší dokončené vzdělání?**
  - Základní
  - Vyučení
  - Střední s maturitou
  - Vyšší odborné
  - Vysokoškolské
- 5. Jaká je Vaše sexuální orientace?**
  - Heterosexuální
  - Bisexuální
  - Homosexuální
- 6. Jste v současné době v partnerském vztahu? ano/ne**
- 7. Momentálně máte partnerský vztah:**
  - Homosexuální
  - Heterosexuální
- 8. Kolik měsíců Váš vztah trvá? (napište, prosím, pouze číslo)**
- 9. Upřesněte, prosím, svůj partnerský vztah:**
  - Mám partnera/partnerku, ale žijeme odděleně
  - S partnerkou/partnerem žiji ve společné domácnosti
  - Jsem ženatý/vdaná
- 10. Nakolik jste ve svém partnerství celkově spokojený/á?**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
velmi nespokojený/á						zcela spokojený/á
- 11. Kolikrát měsíčně máte se svou partnerkou/svým partnerem pohlavní styk? \_\_\_\_\_**
- 12. Ve srovnání se svou partnerkou/svým partnerem máte:**
  - Vyšší potřebu partnerského sexu
  - Nižší potřebu partnerského sexu
  - Oba máme stejnou potřebu partnerského sexu
- 13. Kolikrát měsíčně byste potřeboval/a pohlavní vybití? \_\_\_\_\_**
- 14. Kolikrát měsíčně v průměru masturbujete? \_\_\_\_\_**

**15. Jaký máte názor na pornografii?**

- Je třeba ji zakázat
- Považuji ji za škodlivou
- Nemám k ní výhrady

**16. Pornografii v současné době sleduji průměrně:**

- Nesleduji
- Jednou ročně
- Jednou měsíčně
- Jednou týdně
- Jednou denně

**17. Myslíte si, že Vaše partnerka/Váš partner sleduje pornografii?**

- Jsem si jistý/á, že ano
- Jsem si jistý/á, že ne
- Domnívám se, že ano
- Domnívám se, že ne

**18. Jak často se díváte se svou partnerkou/svým partnerem na pornografii?**

- Vždy
- Většinou
- Občas
- Téměř nikdy
- Nikdy

**19. Dívání se na pornografii s partnerkou/partnerem iniciujete spíše vy, nebo Vaše partnerka/Váš partner?**

- Spíše já
- Spíše partner/ka
- Oba

**20. Z jakého důvodu nejčastěji v poslední době vyhledáváte pornografii?**

- Z nudy
- Na rozptýlení
- Pro odbourání stresu
- Vzrušují mě
- Při masturbaci
- Předehra s partnerkou/partnerem
- Chci se něco nového naučit



- Incestní tematika

**24.Kdo si myslíte, že se z vás dívá častěji na pornografické materiály?**

- Spíše já
- Spíše partnerka/partner
- Oba stejně často

**25.Jak je pro Vás důležitá sexualita v partnerském vztahu?**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nedůležitá			velmi důležitá			

**26.Jak moc žárlíte na svého partnera/svou partnerku?**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne			velmi			

**27.S kolika muži/ženami jste za celý život souložil/a? \_\_**

**28.Byl/a jste někdy ve svém dětství (do 15 let) sexuálně zneužit/a dospělou osobou? ano/ne**

**29.Byl/a jste někdy přinucen/a násilím nebo hrozbami k pohlavnímu styku? ano/ne**

**30.Chci mít se svým partnerem/svou partnerkou více sexuálních aktivit.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne			určitě ano			

**31.Přeji si, aby můj/moje partner/partnerka inicioval/a sex častěji.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne			určitě ano			

**32.Můj partner/moje partnerka nechce sex, když chci já.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne			určitě ano			

**33.Cítím, že bych měl/a mít sex častěji.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne			určitě ano			

**34.Jsem spokojený/á s četostí sexuálních styků.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne			určitě ano			

**35.Když přemýšlíte o posledním měsíci, jak často jste měli sexuální myšlenky na svého partnera/svou partnerku, když jste spolu neměli sex?**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy			velmi často			

**36. Když máte sexuální myšlenky o svém partnerovi/své partnerce, jak byste ohodnotil/a intenzitu těchto myšlenek?**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
žádná						velice intenzivní

**37. Jak často cítíte sexuální vzrušení při pohledu na svého/svou sexuální/ho partnera/partnerku?**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						velmi často

**38. Jak často cítíte sexuální vzrušení při fyzickém kontaktu (objímání, držení za ruce, dotýkání) se svým partnerem/svou partnerkou?**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						velmi často

V následujících bodech, prosím, zaznamenejte míru souhlasu s těmito výroky:

**39. Moje partnerka/můj partner mě fyzicky přitahuje.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**40. Moje partnerka/můj partner mě dokáže přivést k orgasmu.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**41. Se svou partnerkou/svým partnerem mám dostatečné pohlavní vybití.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**42. Moje partnerka/můj partner ví, co se mi v sexu líbí.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**43. Můj partner/moje partnerka je sexuálně velmi vzrušující.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**44. Sex je pro mě a mého partnera/mou partnerku zábavný.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**45. Náš sexuální vztah postrádá kvalitu.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano



**46. Ztrácím pojem o čase, když mám sex se svým partnerem/svou partnerkou.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**47. V mých sexuálních fantaziích hraje roli můj partner/moje partnerka.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**48. Náš sexuální život je monotónní.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**49. Když mám sex se svým partnerem/svou partnerkou, tak si představuji sex s někým jiným.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**50. Při sexu se nechávám rozptylovat dalšími myšlenkami.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**51. Můj sexuální život je naplňující.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**52. Sexuální aktivity s mým partnerem/mojí partnerkou nestojí za strávený čas nebo vynaložené úsilí.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**53. Jsem velice zklamaný/á ze svého sexuálního života s mým partnerem/mojí partnerkou.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

Prosím, posuďte, jak moc jste spokojený s následujícími aspekty svého sexuálního života v posledních šesti měsících.

**54. Intenzita (míra) mého sexuálního vzrušení**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á						Úplně spokojený/á

**55. Kvalita mých orgasmů**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á						Úplně spokojený/á

**56. Moje uvolněnost a odevzdání se sexuálnímu potěšení při sexu**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**57. Moje soustředění při sexuálních aktivitách**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**58. Sexuální fungování mého těla**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**59. Moje nálada po sexu**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**60. Častost mých orgasmů**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**61. Rozkoš, kterou poskytují své partnerce/svému partnerovi**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**62. Rovnováha mezi tím, co v sexu dávám a co dostávám**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**63. Partnerčina/partnerova sexuální iniciativa**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**64. Schopnost mé partnerky/mého partnera dosáhnout orgasmu**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**65. Partnerčina/partnerova uvolněnost a odevzdání se sexuálnímu potěšení**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**66. Partnerčina/partnerova sexuální nápaditost**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**67. Sexuální přístupnost mé partnerky/mého partnera**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á					Úplně spokojený/á	

**68. Rozmanitost mého sexuálního života**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Úplně nespokojený/á						Úplně spokojený/á

Určete nakolik souhlasíte s těmito výroky:

**69. Svě partnerce/svému partnerovi říkám, co se mi v sexu líbí.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**70. S partnerem/partnerkou spolu mluvíme o pornografii.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**71. Když se bavíme s partnerem/partnerkou o sexu, tak jsem upřímný/á.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**72. Přeji si, aby můj partner/moje partnerka mohl/a komunikovat více otevřeně o jeho/jejích potřebách v našem sexuálním životě.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**73. Svěho partnera/svou partnerku chválím, když při sexu dělá věci, které se mi líbí.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**74. Je pro mě jednoduché sdílet se svým partnerem/svou partnerkou co se mi v sexu líbí a co ne.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**75. Žádám svého partnera/svou partnerku, aby dělal/a věci, které mě v sexu uspokojí.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**76. Říkám svému partnerovi/své partnerce, když nechci mít sex.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**77. Partner/partnerka mi říká, co se mu/jí v sexu líbí.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**78. V našem sexuálním životě jsou problémy, o kterých jsme spolu nikdy nemluvili.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím						zcela souhlasím

**79. Cítil/a bych se příjemně, když bych žádal/a svého partnera/svou partnerku, abychom vyzkoušeli nové sexuální praktiky, které jsme nikdy předtím nedělali.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**80. Je pro mě těžké požádat partnera/partnerku o sex, když ho chci.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**81. Cítím se příjemně, když s partnerem/partnerkou mluvíme o sexu.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**82. Používám oční kontakt, dotyky nebo líbání se svým partnerem/svou partnerkou, když chci, abychom měli sex.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**83. Mám menší potíže s tím, abych partnerovi/partnerce řekl/a, co chci v sexu dělat, nebo nedělat.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**84. Používám neverbální narážky při sexu (úsměv, pohlazení atd.), abych partnerovi/partnerce dal/a najevo, že mě sexuálně uspokojuje.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**85. Zastavím svého partnera/svou partnerku, když při sexu dělá něco, co se mi nelíbí.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**86. Můj partner/moje partnerka zřídka reaguje, když chci mluvit o našem sexuálním životě.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**87. Kdybych měl/a sexuální problémy, dokázal/a bych o tom s partnerem/partnerkou mluvit.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**88. S partnerem/partnerkou spolu mluvíme o našich minulých sexuálních zkušenostech.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**89. S partnerem/partnerkou spolu mluvíme o sexuálních situacích, o kterých sníme.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

**90. S partnerem/partnerkou spolu mluvíme o tom, co považujeme za vhodné (přípustné) sexuální chování.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec nesouhlasím					zcela souhlasím	

Určete nakolik souhlasíte s těmito výroky

**91.S partnerem/partnerkou sdílíme intimní informace o tom druhém.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**92.Svému partnerovi/své partnerce můžu říct cokoliv.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**93.Některé věci mohou říct pouze svému partnerovi/své partnerce a nikomu jinému.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**94.Můj partner/moje partnerka rozumí tomu, jak se cítím.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**95.Většinu času cítím velikou blízkost ke svému partnerovi/své partnerce.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**96.Jsem připravený/á s partnerem/partnerkou sdílet svůj život i majetek.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**97.Mám pocit, že partnerovi/partnerce mohu skutečně věřit.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**98.Přitahuje mě svobodný životní styl.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**99.Přitahují mě další možní partneři/možné partnerky.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne					určitě ano	

**100. Nejspíš budu mít další partnerský vztah později v mém životě.\***

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**101. Myslím si, že můj současný vztah s partnerem/partnerkou bude trvat navždy.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**102. Raději bych byl/a se svým partnerem/svou partnerkou než s kýmkoliv jiným.**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
vůbec ne						určitě ano

**103. Líbal/a jste se někdy s někým jiným, než byl Váš partner/Vaše partnerka během Vašeho současného partnerského vztahu? ano/ne**

**104. Dělal/a jste někdy s někým sexuální aktivity (mimo pohlavní styk) s někým jiným, než byl Váš partner/Vaše partnerka během Vašeho současného partnerského vztahu? ano/ne**

**105. Měl/a jste někdy mimopartnerský pohlavní styk během Vašeho současného partnerského vztahu? ano/ne**

Jak často používáte níže vypsané sexuální praktiky s partnerkou/partnerem při sexu?

**106. Orální sex**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

**107. Anální sex**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

**108. Společná masturbace**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

**109. Ejakulace do pochvy**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

**110. Ejakulace do konečníku**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

**111. Ejakulace do úst**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

<b>112. Sex na veřejnosti</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>113. Používání močení a výkalů při sexu</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>114. Používání sexuálních pomůcek</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>115. Naplácání, výprask (spanking)</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>116. Tahání za vlasy partnera/partnerky během sexu</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>117. Hraní rolí při sexu</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>118. Fackování obličeje při sexu</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>119. Škracení partnera/partnerky rukama během sexu</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>120. Svázání partnera/partnerky</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>121. Orální sex, při kterém partner stojí a partnerka klečí</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>122. Ejakulace na obličej partnerky</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy
<b>123. Dvojitá penetrace (dva muži, jedna žena)</b>							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
nikdy							vždy

**124. Lízání análního otvoru (rimming)**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

**125. Používání vulgárních oslovení**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy

**126. Skupinový sex**

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nikdy						vždy



## Supplementary Materials 2

### Research Ethics Committee approval



FILOZOFICKÁ FAKULTA  
Univerzita Karlova

Komise pro etiku ve výzkumu

V Praze dne 28. června 2021

Č. j.: UKFF/300097/2021

#### POSUDEK PŘEDLOŽENÉHO NÁVRHU PROJEKTU

Komise pro etiku ve výzkumu FF UK posoudila etickou přípustnost předloženého návrhu projektu *Konzumace pornografie a partnerská sexuální aktivita* a to z hlediska jeho celkového zaměření, plánovaných postupů a nástrojů výzkumu, dostatečnosti předpokládané informovanosti účastníků výzkumu a opatření pro ochranu jejich práv a

**neshledala žádné rozpory ani nedostatky**

vzhledem k požadavkům vyplývajícím z právních předpisů České republiky, vnitřních a dalších předpisů univerzity a fakulty a specifických požadavků poskytovatele finančních prostředků a dalších orgánů a institucí, které provedení tohoto posudku nárokuje.

předseda komise  
PhDr. David Čáp, Ph.D.

člen komise

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