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Sex Differences in Human Mate Preferences Vary Across Sex Ratios

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Abstract

118 A wide range of literature connects sex ratio and mating behaviours in non-human animals. 119 However, research examining sex ratio and human mating is limited in scope. Prior work has 120 examined the relationship between sex ratio and desire for short-term, uncommitted mating as 121 well as outcomes such as marriage and divorce rates. Less empirical attention has been directed 122 towards the relationship between sex ratio and mate preferences, despite the importance of mate 123 preferences in the human mating literature. To address this gap, we examined sex ratio's 124 relationship to the variation in preferences for attractiveness, resources, kindness, intelligence, 125 and health in a long-term mate across 45 countries (N = 14,487). We predicted that mate 126 preferences would vary according to relative power of choice on the mating market, with 127 increased power derived from having relatively few competitors and numerous potential mates. 128 We found that each sex tended to report more demanding preferences for attractiveness and 129 resources where the opposite sex was abundant, compared to where the opposite sex was scarce. 130 This pattern dovetails with those found for mating strategies in humans and mate preferences 131 across species, highlighting the importance of sex ratio for understanding variation in human 132 mate preferences. 133 134 Key words: mate preferences, sex ratio, sex differences, cross-cultural, mating market

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Sex Differences in Human Mate Preferences Vary Across Sex Ratios

137 The varied relationship between sex ratio and reproductive processes has been studied 138 across species and mating behaviours (1,2). For example, shorebird mating systems tend to vary 139 across sex ratios: females tend to have multiple mates in species with typically male-biased sex 140 ratios, whereas males tend to have multiple mates in species with female-biased sex ratios (3). 141 Additionally, fluctuations in sex ratio within a single species can also be associated with variance 142 in mating behaviours. For instance, the male European bitterling, a freshwater fish, changes 143 mating tactics from defending territory to direct competition as the number of same sex rivals 144 increases (4); female honey locust beetles increase competitive mating effort as females become 145 more abundant than males (5); and female guppies display stronger preferences for orange 146 coloured males as males outnumber females (6).

147 Yet, despite the breadth of research on sex ratio and mating in non-human animals, 148 research on sex ratio and human mating is surprisingly narrow. Within this literature, most work 149 has examined sex ratio's relationship to "mating strategy" (7)—one's investment in long-term, 150 committed mating, as opposed to short-term, uncommitted mating—and its consequences (e.g. 151 for marriage rates (8)). Despite mate preferences being among the most important topics in the 152 human mating literature (9), comparatively little empirical attention has been given to the 153 relationship between sex ratio and mate preferences. Here, to address this gap in the literature, 154 we examined the relationship between sex ratio and mate preferences in a large cross-cultural 155 sample spanning 45 countries around the world, and find evidence that mate preferences vary 156 systematically with the ratio of potential mates to potential competitors.

Human males and females face a key challenge of finding and attracting long-term matesthat are both desirable and available. An imbalanced sex ratio, where the number of males and

159 the number females in a population are unequal, exacerbates this challenge by affecting the 160 supply and demand of mating opportunities (10, cf. 11). The more abundant sex has a reduced 161 probability of gaining access to potential partners, whereas the scarcer sex has access to a wider 162 array of potential partners. The consequences of sex ratio imbalance are made worse by the fact 163 that human mating systems tend to be marked by relative monogamy and mutual mate choice 164 (12,13). Therefore, power on the mating market—power to express and fulfil one's desires—lies 165 with the sex in demand: the scarcer sex. Throughout human evolutionary history, individuals 166 endowed with a mating psychology sensitive to these power differentials, able to upregulate the 167 expression of sex-typical desires when one's sex is scarce and downregulate these desires when 168 one's sex is numerous, would likely have had a competitive advantage over individuals with 169 desires that remained static in the face of shifting contexts.

The effects of this sex differential in market power in humans have primarily been studied in the context of mating strategy attitudes and behaviours. Men, owing to their smaller obligatory investment in offspring, can potentially derive greater direct fitness benefits from acquiring multiple mates than can women (14). Consequently, across cultures, men on average report greater willingness to engage in sex without commitment—a higher "sociosexuality" than women (15,16).

However, this average sex difference is qualified by the finding that nation-level indices of sociosexuality are higher in countries where men are scarce, and therefore have more market power (15). This replicates outside of industrialized cultures: for instance, one study found that men's sociosexuality varied across communities within the indigenous Makushi as a function of the sex ratio of those communities (17). Behaviourally, marriage rates increase and divorce rates decrease when women are scarce (18–20).

182 The same market forces that shape sociosexuality should also have consequences for 183 mate preferences. Mate preferences, in general, have received extensive empirical attention. A 184 large body of literature has documented universal trends in long-term mate preferences, 185 including the importance of kindness, intelligence, and health, and universal sex differences in 186 preference for physical attractiveness, resources, and relative age (21,22). Importantly, these 187 preferences do predict real mate choices (23–26 cf. 27). While these on-average patterns of mate 188 preferences have been consistently documented across time and cultures, the effect sizes of sex 189 differences in mate preferences do vary across cultures. Sex ratio may be a source of the cross-190 cultural variation in mate preferences, just as it is for mating strategy. 191 The limited existing literature examining sex ratio and human mate preferences is marked 192 by inconsistencies. One large cross-cultural study found that both men and women placed greater 193 importance on good financial prospects, refinement and neatness, and other qualities in countries 194 where men were more numerous than women (28). This is unexpected from a market economic 195 perspective, where the change in men's and women's preferences should be inversely related due 196 to differing relative power on the mating market. Yet this cross-cultural study, while impressive 197 in sample size, had important methodological limitations, including analysing exclusively 198 aggregate country-level correlations and incorporating a measure of preferences that allowed 199 only limited variation (29). Another study found that in Canadian cities where women were 200 relatively scarce, they placed more emphasis on the physical attractiveness of potential mates in 201 newspaper ads (30); however, this study did not examine men's preferences. Lastly, 202 measurement of sex ratio is not consistent across prior studies examining the consequences of 203 sex ratio in humans, limiting generalizations across findings. For instance, studies vary in how 204 they define sex ratio, and whether operational sex ratio (only individuals able to reproduce) or

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adult sex ratio (all individuals considered adults, including elderly) is the key variable.

Therefore, studies vary in the age range for which sex ratio is estimated, with ranges including ages 15-49 (28); ages 18-45 (17); ages 20-50 (20); ages 16-39 (31); ages 15-64 (29). Addressing these limitations will be important for understanding how human mate preferences relate to the scarcity or abundance of potential mates in their environment and whether this relationship is consistent with prior psychological, anthropological, and biological literature.

211 In the present investigation, we examined the relationship between mate preferences and 212 sex ratio in a large, 45-country sample. First, we asked both men and women about their 213 preferences for five traits in an ideal long-term mate and examined how these preferences varied 214 across countries as a function of sex ratio. We analysed the data using multi-level models to 215 account for the nested nature of the data and to take advantage of the large sample size, rather 216 than relying on aggregate correlations. Furthermore, in an attempt to correct for issues in prior 217 work, we incorporated city-level sex ratio and multiple measures of sex ratio at the country-level. 218 Additionally, we measured preferences both in an absolute form (the trait value indicated as ideal 219 in a potential mate) and as a relative preference (ideal trait value relative to the trait distribution 220 available in each country) to allow for clearer comparisons across samples.

221 Overall, both men and women were predicted to have greater absolute and relative 222 preferences where they were the scarcer sex. Members of the more numerous sex were predicted 223 to have the opposite pattern and express less demanding mate preferences.

224

Method

225 **Participants**

Data were collected in 2016, from n = 14,487 (7,961 female, 54.95%) participants in 45 countries. All participant data were collected in person because online samples tend to be less

228	representative of populations in developing countries (32). Each study site collected data from
229	both university populations and community samples. However, due to a lack of records from
230	about half of the sites, there is incomplete information about the percentage of each type of
231	sample. From the sites that did keep records ($n = 6,637$), 47.14% ($n = 3,129$) came from
232	community samples. Age of participants ranged from 18-91 years old ($Mdn = 25$, $M = 28.79$, SD
233	= 10.64). Of the total sample, most participants reported being in ongoing, committed
234	relationships ($n = 9,236, 63.75\%$). Overall, participants tended to be from large cities, to be well-
235	educated, and have average economic situations (detailed city and participant demographic
236	information is in the supplementary material).
237	Surveys were translated if necessary and distributed to participants through a
238	collaborative cross-cultural data collection project. For more details and a complete list of
239	countries and sample sizes, see the supplementary material.
240	The data from this cross-cultural data collection process have been used in other papers
241	published previously (22,33–35).
242	Measures
243	Mate Preferences and Participant Traits. Participants completed a 5-item
244	questionnaire on ideal mate preferences for a long-term romantic partner. Participants rated their
245	ideal romantic partner on five traits: kindness, intelligence, health, physical attractiveness, and
246	good financial prospects. All items were rated on bipolar adjective scales ranging from 1 (very
247	unintelligent; very unkind; very unhealthy; very physically unattractive; very poor financial
248	prospects) to 7 (very intelligent; very kind; very healthy, very physically attractive; very good
249	financial prospects). Using the same scales as for preferences, participants additionally rated

themselves on the same five traits: kindness, intelligence, health, physical attractiveness, and
good financial prospects. We also asked participants about their sex (male/female).

252 Sex Ratio. We used a variety of measures of sex ratio from publicly available databases. 253 As there is no literature standard measure of sex ratio in humans, we wanted to examine the 254 relationship between mate preferences and a variety of measures of sex ratio. We used country-255 level sex ratio at birth (36), adult sex ratio (ages 18+) (37), sex ratio for ages 15-49 (37), sex ratio 256 for ages 15-64 (37), and city-level overall sex ratio (38-42). For city-level sex ratio we cross-257 checked local sources of information about sex ratio when possible. We also confirmed that city-258 level sex ratio was correlated with country level-sex ratio measures (sex ratio at birth, r = 0.16; 259 adult sex ratio, r = 0.79; sex ratio ages 15-49, r = 0.33; sex ratio ages 15-64, r = 0.57). To 260 explore whether participant's mate preferences were influenced by the sex ratio of their own age 261 group, we also examined the relationship between mate preferences and sex ratio of narrower 262 age categories: sex ratio ages 15-24, sex ratio ages 25-49, and sex ratio 50+(37) (see 263 supplemental material). For every sex ratio measure, we attempted to collect the publicly 264 available data that were closest to 2016, which was the year we collected preferences and traits 265 from participants.

Control Variables. Each analysis was conducted twice; first without controls, and then
with all control variables simultaneously. Control variables include latitude (43), world region
(defined in (44)), country religion (45), GDP per capita (46), gender equality (a composite
measure of gender equality from a principal component analysis of three measures of gender
equality: the Global Gender Gap Index (47), the Gender Inequality Index (GII) (48), and the
Gender Development Index (49)), income inequality (the Gini Index (50)), and socioeconomic
development (socioeconomic development is defined (51) as the summed standardized scores for

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country's gross national income (GNI) (52), infant survival rate (53), life expectancy (54), and the percentage of population that is urban (55)). For all controls, we attempted to collect the publicly available data that was closest to 2016, which was the year we collected preferences and traits from participants (see supplementary material for more details and justification of the control variables).

278 Analyses

279 We conducted all primary analyses using multilevel models. The general format of these 280 models predicted preference variables as the outcome variable using the interaction of sex and 281 sex ratio variables; participants were nested within countries or cities, as appropriate. The models 282 included random effects for both slopes and intercepts. Multilevel models provide advantages 283 over traditional approaches for analysing these kinds of cross-cultural data. For cross-cultural 284 comparisons, these models take advantage of the nested nature of the data, yielding more 285 statistical power relative to the traditional approach of calculating correlations based on 286 aggregated nation-level data (29).

Additionally, for all analyses, we report the results from a model with all of the controls included simultaneously in the main text, and the results from a base model with no controls in the supplementary materials. We note the pattern of results of the models without controls in the main text.

Data for this project was collected in 2016, and the analysis plan was pre-registered in 2019, prior to the data analysis for this project. The idea for the current project came from observing the overall pattern of variation in sex differences in mate preferences across countries in a prior study using the same mate preference data (22). To mitigate our own biases, we preregistered our analysis plan for the current project before examining sex ratio as a possible

source of variation. All data analysis was done in R. The pre-registered analysis plan, analysis

- script, and data can be found on the Open Science Framework:
- 298 https://osf.io/fpsm6/?view_only=b251a765273140b08099b20c249d693c.

Relative Mate Preferences. Relative preferences are calculated from absolute trait preferences but incorporate the trait distribution (mean and standard deviation) of each sex in each country, like a *z*-score. The reason for including relative preferences is to account for the fact that the same absolute preferred trait value may be more or less demanding depending on the availability of that trait in the local population. Therefore, relative mate preferences were calculated using the following formula:

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$$relative \ preference = \frac{preference - M_{opp. \ sex \ trait}}{SD_{opp. \ sex \ trait}}$$

Each participant has a relative preference value for each trait, which indicates how high or low their ideal preference is for each trait, relative to the average trait level found in the opposite sex in their country. In the pre-registration, relative mate preferences were originally referred to as standards. We changed the term later for clarity.

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Results

311 Absolute Mate Preferences and Sex Ratio

Table 1 shows the results of multilevel models predicting absolute ideal mate preferences from sex and sex ratio, with control variables. The interaction between sex and sex ratio predicted absolute preference for physical attractiveness for every measure of sex ratio. Additionally, the interaction between sex and sex ratio at birth predicted most absolute mate preferences, with the exception of kindness. Effect sizes for all significant models are in the supplementary materials. Removing control variables did not change the pattern of results (see supplementary material).

319	The number of models fitted may give cause for concern about alpha inflation. However,
320	the intention of our analyses was to reveal any overall patterns between sex ratio generally and
321	each preference, rather than detect individual significant effects. For this reason, multiple
322	comparison corrections may be overly conservative. Although not pre-registered, to remove any
323	such concerns we report both unadjusted <i>p</i> -values and <i>p</i> -values adjusted for multiple
324	comparisons using Holm-Bonferroni corrections. For the purposes of these corrections, we
325	corrected the <i>p</i> -values associated with the interactions and we considered the test families to be
326	all analyses using any one of the sex ratio measures (e.g. sex and sex ratio at birth predicting
327	good financial prospects, physical attractiveness, intelligence, kindness, and health). In Table 1
328	we report which models remained significant after the correction. For adjusted p-values see the
329	supplementary materials.

 330
 Table 1

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 The Intel

Preference	Sex Ratio Measure	b (sex ratio x sex)	SE	р
Good	Birth	-0.088 (-0.099)	0.025 (0.043)	.001**†(.027*)
Financial	Adult	-0.040 (-0.092)	0.029 (0.043)	.174 (.037*)
Prospects	15-49	-0.061 (-0.114)	0.026 (0.037)	.025* (.004**†)
	15-64	-0.048 (-0.103)	0.028 (0.040)	.087 (.013*)
	City	-0.044 (-0.084)	0.027 (0.037)	.108 (.028*)
Physical	Birth	-0.095 (-0.082)	0.025 (0.040)	<.001***† (.049*)
Attractiveness	Adult	-0.084 (-0.118)	0.027 (0.038)	.004**†(.003**†)
	15-49	-0.115 (-0.131)	0.023 (0.033)	<.001***† (<.001***
	15-64	-0.108 (-0.122)	0.024 (0.035)	<.001***†(.001**†)
	City	-0.083 (-0.123)	0.026 (0.033)	.002**† (<.001***†)
Intelligence	Birth	-0.076 (-0.025)	0.023 (0.043)	.002**† (.568)
	Adult	-0.014 (-0.011)	0.026 (0.042)	.604 (.789)
	15-49	-0.031 (-0.033)	0.025 (0.038)	.212 (.383)
	15-64	-0.018 (-0.011)	0.025 (0.039)	.486 (.784)
	City	-0.004 (-0.006)	0.026 (0.039)	.885 (.870)
Kindness	Birth	-0.011 (-0.002)	0.024 (0.038)	.668 (.965)
	Adult	-0.013 (-0.021)	0.025 (0.037)	.598 (.578)
	15-49	-0.004 (-0.032)	0.024 (0.033)	.856 (.330)
	15-64	-0.016 (-0.036)	0.024 (0.034)	.497 (.295)
	City	-0.021 (-0.037)	0.023 (0.034)	.362 (.288)
Health	Birth	-0.085 (-0.081)	0.023 (0.039)	<.001***†(.044*)

Adult	-0.023 (-0.048)	0.027 (0.039)	.401 (.226)
15-49	-0.038 (-0.069)	0.025 (0.034)	.134 (.051)
15-64	-0.034 (-0.074)	0.025 (0.036)	.183 (.045*)
City	-0.021 (-0.056)	0.024 (0.036)	.391 (.123)

332 333 334	<i>Note</i> : $* = p < .05$; $** = p < .01$; $*** = p < .001$. Results for relative mate preferences shown in parentheses. $\dagger =$ remained significant after Holm-Bonferroni correction.
335	Physical Attractiveness. In general, as men became more numerous, women, relative to
336	men, tended to increase their preference for physical attractiveness, whereas men, relative to
337	women, decreased their preference for physical attractiveness (Figure 1). The magnitude of these
338	simple slopes varied depending on the specific measure of sex ratio used; men had significantly
339	negative slopes for adult sex ratio and city sex ratio, whereas women had significantly positive
340	slopes for sex ratio ages 15-49 and sex ratio ages 15-64. All other simple slopes were not
341	significantly different from zero (all ps greater than .05), however the relative differences still
342	moved in the predicted direction. Overall, regardless of the sex ratio measure, the sex difference
343	in absolute preference for physical attractiveness narrowed as the number of men, relative to
344	women, increased.
345	Absolute Mate Preferences and Sex Ratio at Birth. The interaction between sex ratio
346	at birth and sex additionally predicted absolute preference for physical attractiveness, good
347	financial prospects, intelligence, and health. Generally, as sex ratio at birth skewed toward
348	female scarcity, women's preferences tended to increase while men's preferences decreased (see

349 supplementary material for figure). Specifically, simple slopes did not significantly differ from

350 zero for physical attractiveness and health, however the relative slopes were in the predicted

351 direction. Additionally, while women's absolute preference for good financial prospects

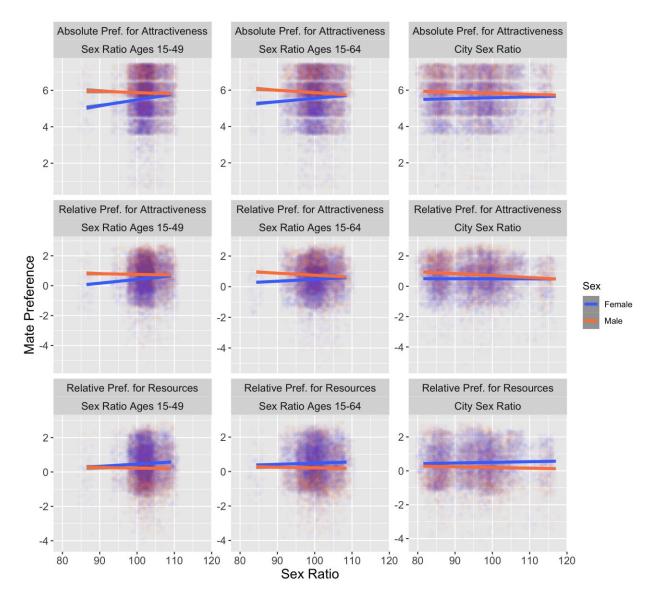
increased, b = 0.09, SE = 0.04, p = .023, men's slope did not significantly differ from zero.

353 Lastly, men's absolute preference for intelligence significantly decreased as men became more

numerous, b = -0.14, SE = 0.03, p < .001. Contrary to prediction, women's intelligence

preferences decreased as well, b = -0.07, SE = 0.03, p = .039, however to a lesser degree than did

356 men's.



357

Figure 1. Participant mate preferences across sex ratios. Data are jittered to reduce overplotting.
Regression lines, separated by sex, shown with shaded areas indicating 95% confidence
intervals. The specific preference (absolute preference for physical attractiveness; relative
preference for physical attractiveness; relative preference for good financial prospects) and

specific sex ratio (sex ratio ages 15-49; sex ratio ages 15-64; city sex ratio) can be identified in
each plot label. Sex ratio is the number of males per 100 females.

364 Relative Mate Preferences and Sex Ratio

365 Table 1 shows the results of multilevel models predicting relative ideal mate preferences 366 from sex and sex ratio, with control variables; results from models with relative preferences as 367 the dependent variable are shown in parentheses. The interaction between sex and sex ratio 368 predicted relative preference for good financial prospects and relative preference for physical 369 attractiveness for every measure of sex ratio. Additionally, sex ratio at birth and sex ratio ages 370 15-64 predicted relative preference for health. However, because this result is not consistent 371 across different measures of sex ratio, we do not focus on these analyses. Removing control 372 variables did not change the overall pattern of results (see supplementary material).

Good Financial Prospects. In general, as men became more numerous, men, compared
to women, decreased their relative preferences for good financial prospects, whereas women,
compared to men, tended to increase their relative preferences for good financial prospects
(Figure 1). All simple slopes were not significantly different from zero (all *ps* greater than .05),
however the relative differences still moved in the predicted direction. Overall, the sex difference
in relative preference for good financial prospects widened as sex ratio increased.

379 Physical Attractiveness. In general, as with absolute preference, as men became more 380 numerous, men decreased their relative preference for physical attractiveness whereas women 381 tended to increase their relative preference for physical attractiveness (Figure 1). The magnitude 382 of these simple slopes varied depending on the specific measure of sex ratio used; men had 383 significantly negative slopes for adult sex ratio and city sex ratio whereas women had 384 significantly positive slopes for sex ratio ages 15-49 and sex ratio ages 15-64. All other simple

385	slopes were not significantly different from zero (all ps greater than .05), however the relative
386	differences still moved in the predicted direction. Overall, regardless of the sex ratio measure,
387	the sex difference in relative preference for physical attractiveness narrowed as the number of
388	men, relative to women, increased.
389	Additional Analyses. Though not in the preregistration, in order to address concerns
390	about non-independence between countries and cities, we further examined the effect of
391	including controls for both country and city level proximity (56) and language (57).
392	Additionally, we examined we examined the effect of nesting countries by language. Including
393	these controls or changes in model structure did not change the pattern of results (see the
394	supplementary material).
395	We included a covariation summary table in the supplementary material that includes the
396	dependent variables and continuous control variables. Due to concerns about preferences not
397	being independent (correlations between preferences range from $r=0.22$ to $r=0.39$), we also
398	conducted a principal components analysis, and used the principal components as dependent
399	variables to test if the results had a similar pattern when preferences were no longer independent.
400	Overall, the pattern of results remained consistent with the main analyses results (see
401	supplementary material).

402

Discussion

The consequences of sex ratio skew have long been of interest to scientists of evolution and behaviour, and particularly of interest to those who study mating (18,58). Additionally, more recent work has examined the complex role of mate scarcity or abundance in patterns of sex differentiated reproductive behaviour, such as mate competition and parental care across species (59). Despite these important advances, empirical work connecting human mate preferences to

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408 sex ratio remains scarce (for review, see (60)). Here, we attempted to address this literature gap 409 with a large, cross-cultural investigation of human mate preferences. Overall, we found that sex 410 differences in mate preferences vary across sex ratios. Where men are numerous, compared to 411 where they are scarce, men tended to have lower absolute preferences for physical attractiveness 412 whereas women tended to have higher preferences. This inverse relationship also held for 413 relative preferences for both physical attractiveness and good financial prospects. In sum, each 414 sex tended to report more demanding preferences for attractiveness and resources where they had 415 more power of choice on the mating market, compared to where they had less mating market 416 power.

These findings are important for several reasons. First, the pattern whereby the scarcer sex sets more demanding preferences falls parsimoniously in line with patterns found for mating strategies in humans (15,17), and for mating systems, mate competition, and mate preferences in non-humans (3,5,6). While this study is correlational in nature and cannot speak to causality, the pattern of results is what would be expected if preferences for attractiveness and resources were calibrated to mate availability, and thus plastic in response to mating market demand.

Second, as we show that men's and women's preferences vary across sex ratios inversely, the magnitude of average sex differences in preferences also varies. Much research has examined the universality of sex differences in human mate preferences (21,61). Less research has examined the variation in sex differences across cultures. The fact that sex ratio has the power to predict cross-cultural variation in mate preferences attains special importance as two previously reported sources of variation, pathogen prevalence and gender equality, have recently failed to replicate as predictors of cross-cultural variation in human mate preferences (22,44,62,63).

430 Third, that sex ratio more clearly predicts variation in relative preferences than in 431 absolute preferences has implications for the measurement and analysis of mate preference 432 variables. While absolute preferences reflect the trait values that people desire in potential mates, 433 they do not as directly indicate how demanding that preference is within a particular 434 environment. For instance, a strong preference for kindness (7 on a 7-point scale) may 435 correspond to an extremely demanding preference in an environment where the average kindness 436 is 4 on the same scale, or a somewhat demanding preference if the average kindness is 6 on the 437 same scale. Given that scarcity on the mating market is hypothesized to afford power to express 438 more stringent demands, measuring preferences in absolute terms might miss out on a critical 439 dimension of variation relevant to sex ratio. Relative preferences, which incorporate information 440 about the distribution of local trait values, may provide a more relevant measure of preferences 441 in this context by virtue of providing a more direct measure of how demanding a given 442 preference value is given participants' local contexts.

443 Despite these important findings, the study does have some limitations and leaves open 444 some important questions. First, the relationship between sex ratio and mate preferences was not 445 as robust for some mate preference dimensions: kindness, health, and intelligence. One 446 possibility for why the same pattern did not emerge for these preferences is because they are so 447 highly desired, and therefore more invariant. Indeed, the mean preference for kindness across all 448 countries was, on a 7-point scale, M = 6.23, 95% CI [6.21, 6.26], Mdn = 6, for women, and M =449 6.12, 95% CI [6.10, 6.15], Mdn = 6, for men. These universal near-ceiling effects leave limited 450 room for variation. Furthermore, kindness, health, and intelligence are also qualities considered 451 very important for both men and women, and therefore these preferences may be less likely to 452 shift downward, even when market power is low (21,64). Future research could examine the

relationship between sex ratio and a wider range of mate preferences—crucially, including those
that exhibit more variation—to determine the extent of the relationship between mate preferences
and sex ratio.

456 Second, our finding that mate preferences vary according to current sex ratio at birth 457 could be considered somewhat surprising. Theoretically, sex ratio at birth, the number of males 458 born for every 100 females born, does not appear to typify the conceptual variable of interest: the 459 number of mates available to members of each sex. However, sex ratio at birth is moderately 460 correlated with the other measures of sex ratio (r = 0.35, adult sex ratio; r = 0.39, sex ratio 15-49; 461 r = 0.38, sex ratio 15-65; r = 0.16, city sex ratio), so it may be capturing sex ratio variation 462 similar to adult sex ratio measures. Additionally, sex ratio at birth is an important variable to 463 consider because it may be the origin of some skewed adult sex ratios, particularly in countries 464 with an abundance of men. In particular, sex ratio at birth may reflect aspects of gender relations. 465 Though skewed sex ratios can occur because of migration, violence, and unbalanced death rates, 466 sex ratio can also vary due to cultural practices such as sex selective abortions based on 467 preferences for sons (65). Some prior work has hypothesized that in places where women are 468 scarce, women may have less structural power overall, and may be unable to fulfil their mate 469 preferences even when they hold mating market power (18). Although we did not find evidence 470 consistent with this hypothesis-women's preferences tended to increase (not decrease) as they 471 became scarcer—future work should continue to explore the source of sex ratio at birth's 472 predictive power, including its potential relationship to gender equality. 473 Relatedly, our data do not speak to how the relationship between sex ratio and mate

preferences emerges. One possibility is that the effects of sex ratio reflect evoked culture, and
mating psychology reacts facultatively to local sex ratio to calibrate mate preferences.

Alternatively, this relationship could reflect transmitted culture if, for example, people with less strict preferences tend to experience greater mating success when their own sex is abundant, and others mimic their preferences via prestige-based learning (66). These possibilities are each equally consistent with the data we have here. Future research should explore further the particular ontogenetic mechanisms responsible for cross-cultural variation in preferences.

481 Furthermore, sex ratio measurement is made complicated by the fact that previous 482 research has varied in the way sex ratio is defined. In particular, prior studies vary with respect to 483 the age ranges used to estimate sex ratio, and whether operational sex ratio (only individuals able 484 to reproduce) or adult sex ratio (all individuals considered adults, including elderly), is the key 485 measure of sex ratio. Some of the inconsistent results in the prior literature may be due to 486 researchers' use of only a single measure of sex ratio, which at times may fail to accurately 487 capture the conceptual variable of interest: the availability of potential mates. Here we attempted 488 to address this limitation by operationalizing country-level sex ratio measures in a variety of 489 ways, and including city-level sex ratio and sex ratio at birth. By taking a broad approach to 490 measuring sex ratio, we showed that results tended to remain robust across measures, though 491 there were exceptions. However, a limitation of this broad approach is that it remains unclear 492 what precisely is the best way to operationalize sex ratio for human mating research—a question 493 future research must explore.

494 Part of the lack of clarity about how to operationalize sex ratio comes from the lack of 495 clarity about how humans actually track mate availability. Country-level measures, or even city-496 level measures of sex ratio, may not accurately represent the sex ratios experienced and tracked 497 by individual participants. More precise sex ratio measurements may produce different results 498 than those found here.

499 Overall, the consequences of sex ratio have been well studied across mating behaviour in 500 the non-human literature, from intrasexual competition, to preferences, to mating system (3,5,6). 501 The consequences of sex ratio have also been examined in the human literature in areas spanning 502 from violence, to financial behaviour, to mating strategy (15,67,68). However, the question of 503 how sex ratio relates to human mate preferences has received limited attention and prior findings 504 have lacked clarity. Here we provided evidence that sex ratio is related to mate preferences 505 across cultures, such that where each sex is scarce, that sex tends to have higher preference 506 demands for attractiveness and resources. These findings further elucidate the nature of human 507 mating psychology, in particular its universal structure and systematic variation.

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