

THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF ATTACHMENT BEHAVIOR  
ON THE LINK BETWEEN PARTNER PHUBBING AND  
RELATIONSHIP SATISFACTION

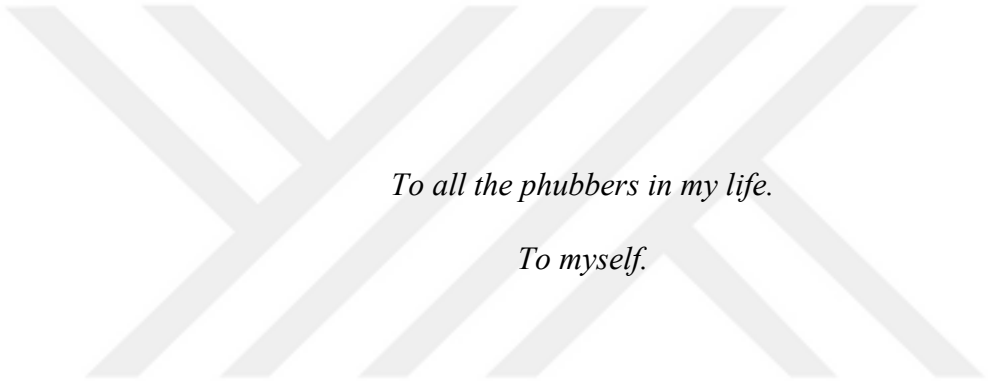
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*To all the phubbers in my life.*

*To myself.*

## ABSTRACT

As digital technologies have become an indispensable part of our everyday life and the consequences of excessive mobile phone usage have begun to be noticed, a relatively new phenomenon called phubbing (the word derived from two words “phone” and “snubbing”) has attracted great attention from researchers. In this respect, the purpose of the current study was to investigate the negative impacts of perceived partner phubbing (PPP) on relationship satisfaction. It aimed to bring the concept of attachment behavior as a protective factor by analyzing its mediating role in this relationship. Four research questions have been addressed in this study to investigate the relationship among the major study variables and the mediating role of attachment behavior on the link between PPP and relationship satisfaction. There were 396 participants who were recruited from Turkey, among adults who were older than 18 years old to be able to assess adult romantic relationships. The inclusion criteria were that the participants needed to own a smartphone, were not married or cohabiting, and were currently in a romantic relationship at least for 6 months. The results showed that the major study variables which were PPP, attachment behavior, and relationship satisfaction all significantly correlated with each other. In addition, attachment behavior partially mediated the link between PPP and relationship satisfaction. The findings of the study, strengths, limitations, clinical implications, and future directions were discussed considering the existing literature.

*Keywords:* phubbing, partner phubbing, attachment theory, attachment behavior, relationship satisfaction

## ÖZET

Dijital teknolojilerin günlük hayatımızın vazgeçilmez bir parçası haline gelmesi ve akıllı telefon kullanımının sonuçlarının fark edilmeye başlanmasıyla birlikte, nispeten yeni bir olgu olan phubbing (terim İngilizcede “phone” ve “snubbing” kelimelerinin birleştirilmesiyle türetilmiştir) büyük ilgi görmeye başlamıştır. Bu bağlamda, çalışmanın amacı algılanan partner phubbing davranışının ilişki doyumu üzerindeki olumsuz etkilerini araştırmak ve bağlanma davranışlarının bu ilişkideki aracı rolünü inceleyerek koruyucu bir faktör olarak ele almaktır. Bu çalışmada, ana değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi ve bağlanma davranışlarının algılanan partner phubbing ve ilişki doyumu arasındaki bağlantı üzerindeki aracı rolünü araştırmak için dört araştırma sorusu üzerinde durulmuştur. Örneklem, 396 katılımcıdan oluşmaktadır. Katılım için uygunluk kriterleri, katılımcıların bir akıllı telefona sahip olmasını, evli olmamasını veya birlikte yaşamamasını ve mevcut durumda en az 6 aydır romantik bir ilişki içinde bulunmasını içermektedir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, algılanan partner phubbing davranışı, bağlanma davranışları ve ilişki doyumu değişkenlerinin hepsinin birbiriyle istatistiksel olarak anlamlı ölçüde ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Ek olarak, bağlanma davranışlarının, algılanan partner phubbing davranışı ve ilişki doyumu arasındaki bağlantıda kısmi aracı rolü olduğu bulunmuştur. Çalışmanın bulguları, güçlü yönleri, sınırlılıkları, pratik çıkarımları ve ileriki yönleri mevcut literatür dikkate alınarak tartışılmıştır.

*Anahtar kelimeler:* phubbing, partner phubbing davranışı, bağlanma teorisi, bağlanma davranışları, ilişki doyumu

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 General Introduction

The Internet and digital technologies have become a part of our everyday life. By the beginning of 2022, unique mobile phone users reach 5.31 billion which is more than two-thirds (67.1%) of the world's population. Concurrently, internet users reach 4.95 billion which is 62.5%, on average they spend 7 hours a day and 92.1% of users access the internet via their mobile phones (DataReportal, 2022). The universality and presence of digital technology have a great influence on our interpersonal relationships. In addition to the many advantages it provides, it also appears as a barrier between relationships (Miller-Ott & Kelly, 2015; Przybylski & Weinstein, 2012).

Technoference is the term used when invasive technological use negatively interferes with an interaction (McDaniel & Coyne, 2016). A form of technoference that has recently attracted a great deal of attention for research is phubbing. Despite being a relatively new phenomenon since the word first appeared in 2012, academic interest in phubbing behavior has progressively grown (Capilla Garrido et al., 2021). Phubbing can be defined as an interruption of a conversation when someone attends to their mobile phone instead of attending to or communicating with the person (Roberts & David, 2016). The word phubbing is derived from two words “phone” and “snubbing”.

The phubbing behavior is intrinsically linked to its constituents; the phubber, the phubbee, and the social setting in which the phubbing behavior occurs (Nazir & Piskin, 2016). The person who engages in a phubbing behavior can be called the

phubber, while the recipient can be called the phubbee (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018). In order to classify a behavior as phubbing, there should be both the phubber and the phubbee in a social setting. When we expand on the dynamics of the social setting, we encounter a vicious cycle in which the phubbee becomes the phubber by engaging in similar behavior. Chotpitayasunondh and Douglas (2016) used the idea of reciprocity from social psychology to explain this cycle. When a person engages in phubbing behavior, the phubbee eventually reciprocates by doing the same behavior either on purpose or without deliberation. When the phubbee responds to phubber by using their mobile phones themselves, the vicious cycle has been initiated in which phubbing becomes a norm.

According to existing literature, there are multiple predictors of phubbing behavior. Overall, technological addictions such as smartphones, gaming, internet, and social media addictions, norms, fear of missing out (FoMO), boredom, lack of self-control, attachment anxiety, personality traits such as neuroticism and conscientiousness, reciprocity, the tendency for multitasking and fulfillment of an instant need or satisfaction all predicted phubbing behavior (Al-Saggaf et al., 2018; Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; Erzen et al., 2019; David & Roberts, 2021; Thabassum, 2021). Especially the ones which become more prominent are technological addictions, FoMO, and boredom. FoMO is the term for people's fear of missing out on situations that they cannot attend to which they believe others are enjoying in those environments (Gökler et al., 2016). High levels of FoMO lead to excessive usage of smartphones to access social media in order to keep up with what others are doing or prevent missing out on enjoyable opportunities (Przybylski et al., 2013). People tend to prioritize communicating on social media over face-to-face

interactions to decrease FoMO (Wang et al., 2021). On the other hand, boredom was found to predict both FoMO and the frequency of phubbing behavior (Al-Saggaf et al., 2018).

While previous research mostly focuses on the consequences of phubbing behavior, almost all of them agree on the detrimental effects of phubbing on phubbees (Schneider & Hitzfeld, 2019). Phubbing fosters an environment in which individuals perceive their interactions as being low in quality and their relationships as being less satisfying, leading to feelings of disappointment or dissatisfaction with the connection (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018; Vanden Abeele et al., 2016). Phubbing has been shown to have serious detrimental effects on trust, life and relationship satisfaction, jealousy, the effectiveness of conversation quality, negative emotionality, feeling of loneliness, hostility, anxiety, and depression (Cameron & Webster, 2011; Cizmeci, 2017; Krasanova et al., 2016; Dwyer et al., 2018; Karadağ et al., 2015; Lepp, et al., 2014; Park, 2005; Ergün et al., 2020).

The degree of intimacy one can develop frequently determines the quality of interactions (Novak et al., 2016). However, those who engage with their phones rather than conversation partners miss out on a variety of nonverbal cues that indicate closeness, which further decreases intimacy or affiliation (Thabassum, 2021; Greene et al, 2006; Misra et al., 2014; Przybylski & Weinstein, 2012; Vanden Abeele & Postma-Nilsenova, 2018). As a result, conversation partners may perceive phubbing as a rude behavior that goes against how they expect their partner to behave (Kelly et al., 2017; Miller-Ott & Kelly, 2015, 2017), and they may also perceive it as a form of exclusion that damages their needs by indicating that they are

not 'worthy' of the phubber's full attention (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018; David & Roberts, 2017).

## **1.2 Theories Used in Literature**

In literature, researchers have used several theoretical frameworks to understand and explain phubbing behavior. The most common one is the Expectation Violation Theory (EVT; Burgoon, 1978) which states that expectations are not always based on norms. In relationships, partners can form expectations specific to their partner and relationship based on their knowledge of their partner, relationship history, and observations (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). According to EVT, when communicating, people expect their partners to be involved in their interactions (Burgoon et al., 1989) and rely on each other to provide closeness and undivided attention in their relationships (White, 2008). Based on this theory, existing literature approaches phubbing as a violation of expectations in relationships. As people expect certain behaviors from each other when they are communicating, shifting the attention toward smartphones rather than the person considered as a violation which in return could result in conflict among partners (Al-Saggaf et al., 2018; Beukeboom & Pollmann, 2021; Bröning & Wartberg, 2022; David & Roberts, 2021; Miller-Ott & Kelly, 2015). On the other hand, if the person is aware of their partner's expectations and is sensitive to them, especially if they avoid using smartphones when undivided attention is expected, there would be less conflict among partners and negative effects on relationship satisfaction could be diminished (Miller-Ott & Kelly, 2015; Beukeboom & Pollmann, 2021).

Other theories used to explain phubbing behavior are Equity Theory (Hatfield & Traupmann, 1981), Symbolic Interactionism Theory (Denzin, 1992;

Halpern & Katz, 2017; Stryker, 1999), Attentional Conflict Theory (Vanden Abeele, 2020) and Displacement Theory (Valkenburg & Peter, 2007). Equity theory assumes that relationships need equal investments from both partners to have positive outcomes. If one partner perceives an unequal investment, this situation may generally lead to conflict and distress. When the phubber starts phubbing, the phubbee perceives an unequal investment, exclusion, and lower responsiveness in their relationship, which could result in conflict (Beukeboom & Pollmann, 2021; Thomas et al., 2022). Symbolic Interactionism Theory posits that people use symbols, which are formed through interpretations, to make sense of themselves and their relationships. With those interpretations, people could more easily make meaning of the situations they encounter. In this case, when people interpret their partner's smartphone usage as phubbing and a disrespectful action, they associate this behavior with lower levels of relationship satisfaction (Wang et al., 2019).

Attentional Conflict Theory suggests that when a person's main focus of attention is on conflict with anything in their surroundings, this is known as an attentional conflict. According to the theory, when a person is engaging in phubbing behavior or sometimes even the presence of a smartphone arises an attentional conflict and the phubbee starts to feel excluded (David & Roberts 2021; Vanden Abeele, 2020). Lastly, the Displacement Theory proposes that when a person spends time on their smartphone, it displaces the meaningful interaction with their partner. As the smartphone distracts the phubber, the interaction and relationship become less satisfying among partners (Al-Saggaf et al., 2018; Roberts & David, 2016; Wang et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019).

In the existing literature, as mentioned above four theories are mainly used to explain the dynamics of phubbing behavior and its impacts on relationships. These theories mostly focus on how phubbees are affected as a result of phubbing behavior and the decrease in relationship satisfaction with this influence. In this context, the theoretical frameworks used mostly proceed through cause-effect relationships. In the presence of phubbing, why does this behavior have negative consequences? What happens during phubbing, how does phubbee feel, and what happens to relationship satisfaction because of these experiences? These theories answer these questions. Where this current study wants to focus on understanding the circular causality created by the dynamics of phubbing. Instead of just addressing the cause-and-effect relationships, the study wants to understand the circularities that occur in relationships with phubbing and determine the protective factors in the meantime. Therefore, in this study, two theories will be used to understand the dynamics of phubbing behavior, which are Cybernetic Systems Theory and Attachment Theory.

### **1.3 Theoretical Framework of the Current Study**

#### ***1.3.1 Cybernetic Systems Theory***

The origins of systems theory can be traced to the cross-disciplinary study that began at the Macy Conferences, where researchers from different disciplines attended. Von Bertalanffy (1968) developed general systems theory after these researchers discovered that systems operated using the same basic principles, regardless of whether they studied mechanical parts, social groups, or animals. Besides, it was Gregory Bateson's (1972) cybernetic systems theory, which has had a profound influence on family therapy due to its focus on social systems.

According to the cybernetic systems theory, social systems are self-correcting when compared with a computer or mechanical systems. To fulfill the self-correcting assumption, the social systems seek homeostasis (Bateson, 1972). In the context of families, homeostasis refers to the distinct set of interpersonal, emotional, and behavioral conventions that maintain stability within the family or other social groups. Contrary to what the term would indicate, homeostasis is dynamic rather than static. As there is always a change, the system needs to be moving to maintain homeostasis and stability. At this stage, self-correction, which needs feedback, is essential for ensuring stability (Gehart, 2014).

One of the assumptions of cybernetic systems theory is “One cannot not communicate”. The Bateson team discovered that a person is always sending a message even though they do not want to communicate. They believed that it is impossible to stop communicating since every action a person engages in is a form of communication and even if a person stops using words, they still engage in nonverbal communication (Bateson, 1972). In communication, there are two aspects: report and command. The report can be defined as the content of the communication, while the command can be defined as the interpretation of the communication which is called metacommunication. When we look closer at the relationships, the command is more crucial while identifying the relationships rather than the report. Whatever the content is, interpretations determine the course of conflicts or arguments (Gehart, 2014).

When we look from the systemic therapy perspective, they observe the interactional and communication patterns of people. While observing those patterns, it is important to trace the homeostatic cycle, which could be established by focusing

on metacommunication rather than the content. There are four phases of this homeostatic cycle, which are (1) the initial phase of the system being in homeostasis; (2) early positive feedback entering the system which rising the tension; (3) positive feedback creating a symptom in the system; (4) finally returning to homeostasis with self-correction (Boscolo et al., 1987; Watzlawick et al., 1974).

When phubbing behavior is conceptualized in the framework of cybernetic systems theory, the focus is on the homeostatic cycle. In the beginning, there is homeostasis in the system. When a person engages in phubbing by focusing on their mobile phone rather than their partner, the quality of communication decreases, and the tension rises. After this positive feedback is introduced in the system, a symptom emerges as the phubbee starts feeling snubbed and the system starts facing the negative consequences of phubbing. Later on, when the phubber stops phubbing or the phubbee also becomes a phubber, homeostasis is restored.

### ***1.3.2 Attachment Theory***

A strong emotional and lasting connection between two people is known as an attachment (Bowlby, 1969). Secure and insecure attachment styles or disorganized patterns in children's reactions to separation from their primary caregivers are indicators of attachment security, which is formed throughout infancy (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). It has been suggested that romantic relationships are the continuation of childhood attachment bonds into adulthood. Like the caregiver in a parent-child relationship, the significant other develops into a key source of psychological security as the length of the relationship increases (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Treboux et al., 2004).

Maternal sensitivity which is measured by how accessible and responsive the caregivers are, is one of the crucial elements that help infants feel safe (Bowlby, 1969). Likewise, to feel safe in a romantic relationship, attachment behaviors such as accessibility and responsiveness are very important (Johnson, 2008). Accessibility can be defined as the couple's ability to maintain emotional openness to one another despite insecurity. Responsiveness refers to accepting and embracing one another's feelings as partners. The third attachment behavior, according to Johnson (2008), is engagement, which refers to partners' reassuring and comforting expressions toward one another. Overall, attachment behaviors of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement in an intimate relationship procure a sense of safety that leads to more favorable expectations and affect regarding the partner and also improves emotion regulation and communication abilities (Cobb et al., 2001; Feeney, 2003).

When there is perceived partner phubbing (PPP) in the social context, the phubber is physically in the environment, however, they are not available to their partner. As PPP decreases perceived partner responsiveness and availability, the anxiety of the phubbee increases (Schokkenbroek et al., 2022). As mentioned before, when the anxiety of the phubbee increases, the homeostasis is already broken in the system and a change is needed to restore stability. Or another option could be that if the system perceives the phubbing behavior as negative feedback, then the homeostasis will not be broken. In this case, even if the phubber starts phubbing, if the phubbee could still feel that their partner is accessible, responsive, and engaging, then the consequences of phubbing could be eliminated since there will be still homeostasis.

## **1.4 Literature Review**

### ***1.4.1 Phubbing***

It's clear that smartphones have enriched modern society and have become an essential part of our lives. The pervasive usage of smartphones has evolved into a potentially detrimental element that threatens relationships. The easiest way to understand phubbing is to think of it as the perceived level of one's smartphone use or distraction when people are around them (Roberts & David, 2016). As mentioned above, phubbing has several predictors and consequences which need to be understood in order to clearly explain the concept.

#### **1.4.1.1 Predictors of Phubbing**

Technological addictions such as smartphone, social media, internet, and gaming addiction were found to be predicting phubbing behavior that phubbers appeared to have greater degrees of technology-related addictions (Al-Saggaf et al., 2018; Davey et al., 2018; Guazzini et al., 2019, 2021). It is supported by existing research that people with smartphone addiction have a higher rate of ignoring their environment and engaging in phubbing behavior as a result of excessive smartphone use (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; Isrofin & Munawaroh, 2021). Especially in smartphone addiction, phones are generally used as a subsidiary tool in situations where people feel lonely and anxious (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; Karadağ et al., 2015). However, when people engage in phubbing behavior to cope with those feelings, it seems that rather than becoming a solution, phubbing increases feelings of loneliness, anxiety, and social exclusion during smartphone use. On the other hand, people who are exposed to phubbing, begin to experience similar

feelings, so to cope with this exclusion they start using their smartphones, too (Ivanova et al., 2020; Karadağ et al., 2015).

According to research, it has been found that FoMO and boredom correlate with excessive smartphone usage and phubbing (Al-Saggaf, 2020; Wolniewicz et al., 2019). In a study conducted by Wolniewicz et al. (2019), FoMO had a mediating effect on the association between boredom proneness and excessive smartphone use. When people are more prone to boredom, they experience more FoMO which in turn is positively related to excessive smartphone usage. Another explanation of the relationship between FoMO and phubbing is discussed by Li et al., (2021) by approaching with social monitoring theory. According to the theory, people use their social monitoring systems to determine if they could be rejected by others. FoMO is involved in this process such that there is a need to always be aware of what other people are doing and whether it endangers their social relationships (Chai et al., 2018). Perceived social norms serve as a social monitoring tool for determining how others feel about using mobile phones in social situations. People who experience FoMO, fear that they may miss important updates or information on their social network when they feel that others are using their phones. The fear of missing out on pleasurable experiences is the root of FoMO, and individuals who suffer from it are curious about what other people are experiencing (Chai et al., 2018). Smartphone usage in social settings is viewed as more acceptable by an individual when their social standards are higher on the degree of perceived phubbing. They assume that everyone is focusing on their smartphones and that if they do not do the same, they will fall behind on what other people are doing (Przybylski et al., 2013). As a result,

they become more anxious, have more FoMO, and engage in phubbing behavior more often (Akat et al., 2022; Li et al., 2021; Schneider & Hitzfeld, 2019).

As the usage of technological devices becomes more common, phubbing behavior is becoming normative (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; Thabassum, 2021). However, social and relationship norms are varying in many contexts since they are created by dyadic interactions, and they appeared to influence phubbing behavior (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; Guazzini et al., 2019). Existing research shows that partners have different norms on smartphone use and try to create their own relationship norms. Couples who fail to develop mutually satisfying expectations on mobile phone use begin to perceive the usage as an interfering factor instead of a socializing opportunity, and they are more likely to experience conflict and dissatisfaction with smartphone usage (Ling, 2012; Miller-Ott & Kelly, 2015). For example, Miller-Ott and Kelly (2015) noted that using smartphones on formal dates which people expect undivided attention creates more problems when compared to informal gatherings. On the other hand, a study conducted by Misra et al. (2014), has found that in some relationships, even the mere presence of a mobile phone can affect the quality of interaction and the perceptions of the partners towards each other. So, smartphone usage is not always considered as phubbing but differs in relationships and social contexts.

There are also several other predictors of phubbing that existing research has focused on such as self-control, gender, and personality. As the research suggested, self-control is negatively related to smartphone addiction and smartphone overuse. This means people who have lower levels of self-control are more prone to the instinct of checking their smartphones in social settings and more likely to engage in

phubbing behavior (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; Davey et al., 2018; Latifa et al., 2019). Gender also plays a role in predicting phubbing behavior. In a study conducted by Escalera-Chávez et al. (2020), men engage in phubbing behavior significantly higher than women. While Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas (2016) found that gender has a moderating effect, in which there is a greater effect on males between being phubbed and perceived norms on phubbing, Karadağ et al. (2015) pointed out that social media, SMS, and smartphone addictions in women had a greater impact, yet internet and gaming addiction in men had a greater impact on their phubbing behavior. When it comes to personality traits, several studies show that there is a link between phubbing and neuroticism, conscientiousness, and narcissism (Çikrikci et al., 2019; Erzen et al., 2019; Grieve et al., 2021).

#### **1.4.1.2 Consequences of Phubbing**

Along with the predictors, there are many negative consequences of phubbing behavior on individuals and relationships. The most prominent consequence of phubbing is a decrease in relationship satisfaction (David & Roberts, 2021; Halpern & Katz, 2017; Krasnova, et al., 2016; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016; McDaniel & Drouin, 2019; McDaniel et al., 2020; Roberts & David, 2016; Wang et al., 2017). Pphubbing reduces trust and meaningful interactions (Knausenberger et al., 2022; Roberts & David, 2017; Thabassum, 2021) while increasing jealousy, disappointment, and feelings of exclusion (Al-Saggaf et al., 2018; David & Roberts, 2021; Thomas et al., 2022). These variables are crucial in romantic relationships and closely related to relationship satisfaction.

According to existing research, phubbing is positively correlated with anxiety, depression, and personal well-being among people (Błachnio et al., 2021;

Roberts and David, 2016). When there is phubbing in a relationship, perceived partner responsiveness decreases which increases anxiety levels of phubbees. In a study conducted by Schokkenbroek et al. (2022), phubbing arises feelings of uncertainty resulting in provoking anxiety for phubbees. They found that in order to cope with uncertainty, phubbees are more likely to engage in active strategies like electronic partner surveillance to detect partner's smartphone activities. In another study conducted by Nuñez et al. (2020), even observing a phubbing behavior could result in an increase in anxiety and stress levels for some people. In addition, perceived phubbing leads to an increase in depressive symptoms of phubbees (McDaniel & Coyne, 2016; Wang et al., 2017). On the other hand, for the phubbers, excessive smartphone usage may result in experiencing stress, depression, loneliness, and separation anxiety from their smartphones (Lepp, et al., 2014; Park, 2005).

Another important outcome of phubbing behavior is the disruption of communication (Al-Saggaf et al., 2018; Vanden Abeele et al., 2019). For effective communication, both verbal and nonverbal cues play a crucial role, as well as the eye-contact (Nazir, 2020). However, since the phubbers are preoccupied with their smartphones, they could not receive the nonverbal cues in a conversation with their partners, which results in missing an extensive part of the message (Nazir & Piskin, 2016). Meanwhile, losing eye contact and not fully listening to the partner could be perceived as a rude behavior that is against social norms (Kelly et al., 2017; Karadağ et al., 2015). On the other hand, when phubbing is considered a form of multitasking, the phubber splits their attention towards two or more tasks in the presence of a partner. Although the person engaging in phubbing behavior is physically present in

that environment, they are mentally absent since their communication with their partner is interrupted because their interest is on the smartphone during the interaction. Thus, the phubbee becomes frustrated since the meaning and intimacy of the conversation are lost (Vanden Abeele et al., 2019). Besides, with the disruption of communication, smartphone-related conflicts increase among partners, which again leads to a decrease in life and relationship satisfaction (Halpern & Katz, 2017; Roberts & David, 2016).

#### ***1.4.2 Pphubbing and Relationship Satisfaction***

When the phubbing behavior manifests itself in romantic relationships in which a person snubs the romantic partner by using their mobile phone in the romantic partner's presence, it can be called partner phubbing (Pphubbing; Bröning & Wartberg, 2022). Even though there have been several studies on phubbing (Vanden Abeele, 2019), there have not been many studies specifically investigating phubbing in intimate relationships. However, the existing research provides consistent evidence that Pphubbing is negatively related to relationship satisfaction (Halpern & Katz, 2017; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016; McDaniel & Drouin, 2019; McDaniel et al., 2020; Roberts & David, 2016).

The extent to which a partner satisfies the needs and wants of their partner is the greatest way to define relationship satisfaction (Peleg, 2008). The quality of partner communication is crucial for relationship satisfaction and seems to matter more than the amount of time partners spend together (Guldner & Swensen, 1995). According to a Pew Report (Lenhart & Duggan, 2014), most romantic partners have been frustrated by their partner's smartphone use while spending time together. Hence, previous research suggests that Pphubbing, which results in disagreement

over cell phone use, feelings of exclusion, decrease in perceived partner intimacy, responsiveness, and accessibility has a negative impact on relationship satisfaction (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016). Other studies have similarly linked Pphubbing to a decrease in relationship quality (Halpern & Katz, 2017) and partner satisfaction (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018; Wang et al., 2017). While more recent studies have begun to define "feeling phubbed" to involve emotions like rage or jealousy as well as characteristics of one's own phubbing behavior (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018; Roberts and David, 2016).

The response given by the phubbee towards Pphubbing depends on how the affected partner perceives and interprets such behavior. It has been found that perceived relational denigration acts as a mediating factor in the link between Pphubbing and relationship satisfaction and Pphubbing is linked to higher levels of perceived relational denigration and negative relationship satisfaction when there is intentionality (Roberts & David, 2022). On the other hand, even unintentionally or for a brief period, allowing smartphones to interrupt conversations and the romantic time spent with the partner, the phubber may be sending messages about what they value most. In return, this situation can cause conflict and have unfavorable consequences like a decrease in relationship and life satisfaction and an increase in depressive symptoms (McDaniel & Coyne, 2016). In addition, existing research shows that people who are exposed to phubbing from their partners are more likely to experience frustration, anger, curiosity, and resentment. Since there are mixed emotions that the phubbee could experience, there could be several responses that the phubbee could give. As an outcome, the phubbee may express their frustration, or interest in their partner's smartphone, resent their partner for not attending to

them, ignore the situation, start an argument to express their feelings of unhappiness, or may also start phubbing their partner. As a result, those mixed feelings about the phubbee and outcomes of the phubbing behavior all generally lead to a decrease in relationship satisfaction as well as affecting the personal well-being of the partners (Thomas et al., 2022).

#### ***1.4.3 Attachment and Relationship Satisfaction***

Relationship satisfaction is influenced by the security of attachment. People who have a secure attachment orientation tend to feel emotionally intimate with their partners, they think that this closeness is shared and reciprocated, and trust that their partners will respond appropriately when there is a need for psychological security. The most common way to study insecure attachment is along two continuous dimensions: (a) attachment anxiety, which is defined as a general fear of separation and rejection; and (b) attachment avoidance, which is defined as an aversion to closeness and connectedness, so they prefer being independent (Sanford, 1997). Hence, people who have secure attachment styles show lower levels of tension and negativity when they react to conflict and tend to have more stable and long-lasting relationships (Simpson et al., 1996), while insecurely attached people show distressing patterns in closeness or fear of abandonment, experience conflicts, more frequent breakups, and intimate partner violence in their relationships, reporting low levels of relationship satisfaction (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

In research, attachment theory is mainly operationalized as attachment orientations which refer to individuals' working models on their beliefs and emotions about their relationships. This point of view classifies individuals with the categories of attachment styles and is considered to be insufficient in terms of

assessing and intervening in the therapy context (Feeney, 2002; Johnson, 2002; Treboux et al., 2004). On the other hand, unlike this categorical point of view, attachment behaviors are the specific actions that affect attachment security which is a more dynamic concept (Sandberg et al., 2017). According to Novak et al. (2016), a person's satisfaction with their relationship determined how they viewed their partner's attachment behaviors. Accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement are key elements for the partners to feel secure and satisfied in a relationship. Both in the general population (Sandberg et al., 2012) and clinical samples (Sandberg et al., 2016), these three attachment behaviors are found to be strongly related to relationship outcomes and how people communicate. Consequently, attachment behaviors have a stronger correlation with relationship satisfaction than attachment styles (Sandberg et al., 2017). While some studies support that regardless of gender, there is a correlation between attachment and relationship satisfaction for both women and men (Bröning & Wartberg, 2022), some studies suggest that there is a stronger link between women's relationship satisfaction and attachment behaviors (Novak et al., 2016).

#### ***1.4.4 Phubbing and Attachment***

Previous research has found a link between attachment orientations and phubbing (Bröning & Wartberg, 2022; David & Roberts, 2016; David & Roberts, 2021; David & Roberts, 2022; Liu et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2019). As attachment orientations influence how the behaviors in relationships are perceived (Hudson et al., 2014), this also applies to interactions that include digital media. People may have a hard time understanding why their partners' using their phones instead of attending to them, thus they start filling this blank with their feelings and perceptions

about the certain behavior. Individuals having high attachment anxiety are worried more about loss and they are more fragile to such indications (Simpson et al., 2007). This could be the reason for the increased conflict observed in Pphubbing in individuals with high attachment anxiety (Roberts & David, 2016). On the other hand, individuals having high attachment avoidance experience stress when they encounter a conflict in their romantic relationships, which leads them to avoid intimacy and connection. Hence, they are more likely to engage in phubbing behavior or they start to phub when they feel phubbed to increase the distance with their partners. Consequently, Pphubbing was found to be negatively related to relationship satisfaction for people who have insecure attachment orientations. On the other hand, in some studies, gender appears to be a significant variable. While Pphubbing was linked to relationship satisfaction, attachment anxiety, and avoidance for males, Bröning and Wartberg (2022) did not find a significant association between Pphubbing and attachment avoidance for females.

From the perspective of attachment orientations, the outcome of phubbing may differ according to the attachment styles of phubbees. However, from the perspective of attachment behaviors, the dynamics between phubbing and attachment behaviors reach a different dimension. According to research, phubbing has been found to be linked to lower levels of perceived accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement in relationships (Schokkenbroek et al., 2022; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016). Considering this link between phubbing and these three key variables which are measuring attachment behaviors, then phubbing may predict a decrease in attachment behaviors.

To sum up, the evidence from existing literature shows that Pphubbing may have detrimental effects on intimate relationships in terms of decreasing relationship satisfaction. Even though there have been several studies on phubbing and Pphubbing, there have not been many studies specifically investigating phubbing in intimate relationships. In addition to the fact that the most prominent consequence of phubbing is decreased relationship satisfaction, research findings show that relationship satisfaction is highly influenced by the security of attachment. When attachment behaviors are considered, accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement are the main predictors of feeling secure in a relationship (Sandberg et al., 2015). Based on the literature, the link between phubbing and attachment orientations has been researched before, however, there is a gap in terms of understanding the effect of phubbing on attachment behaviors. Thereby, it was thought that understanding the links between PPP, relationship satisfaction, and attachment behaviors will pave the way through working with phubbing, which is a growing risk in romantic relationships, in the therapy context.

### **1.5 The Current Study**

In consideration of the theoretical framework and brief literature review on phubbing, the purpose of the current study is to investigate the negative impacts of PPP on relationship satisfaction from a systemic lens. It aims to bring the concept of attachment behavior as a protective factor in this negative impact on intimate relationships. Existing research demonstrates a link between Pphubbing and relationships satisfaction as well as a link between attachment behaviors and relationship satisfaction (Halpern & Katz, 2017; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016;

McDaniel & Drouin, 2019; McDaniel et al., 2020; Novak et al., 2016; Roberts & David, 2016; Sandberg et al., 2012, 2016).

It was expected that there might be a link between PPP and attachment behaviors since existing research indicates that phubbing is related to lower levels of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement in relationships (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016). Therefore, the current study quantitatively examined the mediator role of attachment behaviors on the link between PPP and relationship satisfaction. The dynamics of phubbing behavior are approached and analyzed under two theoretical frameworks: cybernetic systems theory and attachment theory. Attachment behavior was used as a mediator in the study. Accordingly, the research questions and hypotheses are as follows:

RQ1: To what extent do attachment behaviors mediate the association between PPP and relationship satisfaction?

H1: It was expected that when individuals have high levels of PPP, it may decrease their scores on the BARE scale, in turn, higher levels of PPP and lower levels of attachment behaviors together would have negative effects on relationship satisfaction.

RQ2: To what extent is PPP associated with relationship satisfaction?

H2: In line with the existing literature, it was expected that PPP would be negatively related to relationship satisfaction.

RQ3: To what extent are attachment behaviors associated with relationship satisfaction?

H3: It was expected that scores on the BARE scale will be positively related to relationship satisfaction, which means that high scores on the BARE scale will be

associated with high scores of relationship satisfaction since accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement predicts relationship stability, satisfaction, and positive communication among couples.

RQ4: To what extent is PPP associated with attachment behaviors?

H4: It was expected that PPP will be negatively related to attachment behaviors since existing research shows that PPP is linked to lower levels of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement.



## CHAPTER 2

### METHODOLOGY

#### 2.1 Participants

The participants were recruited from Turkey, among adults who were older than 18 years old to be able to assess adult romantic relationships. Participation in the research was completely voluntary. The inclusion criteria were that the participants needed to own a smartphone, were not married or cohabiting, and were currently in a romantic relationship at least for 6 months. The requirement for relationship length was based on previous research (Thomas et al., 2022; Beukeboom & Pollmann, 2021). After conducting a power analysis, the required sample size was found to be 395 participants. The initial sample was composed of 715 participants that were reached through social media platforms via snowball sampling and Özyeğin Research Participation System. After excluding 319 participants; 284 due to not meeting the inclusion criteria, 34 due to missing data, and 1 due to being an outlier, the final sample was composed of 396 participants (331 females, 64 males, and 1 other). The age range of the participants was between 18 to 48 ( $M = 23.20$ ,  $SD = 3.64$ ). When it comes to the income levels of the participants, 53.5% stated between 10k – 40k TL (Turkish liras; lower to middle class), 18.2% stated between 40k – 70k TL (middle class), 11.4% stated below 10k TL (lower class), 9.1% stated between 70k – 100k TL (middle to upper class) and 7.8% stated above 100k TL (upper class). Meanwhile, all participants were in a committed relationship, and the range of relationship length of the participants was between 6 months to 10 years ( $M = 2.17$ ,  $SD = 1.68$ ). The students constitute the majority of the sample with 68.7% while university students were 73.9%, graduate

school students were 16.5%, high school students were 8.5%, and doctoral degree students were 1.1%. Among the remaining 31.3% who were not students, 78.2% working in full-time jobs, 12.9% were unemployed and looking for a job, 8.1% working in part-time jobs and 0.8% were unemployed and not looking for a job. The participants reported that on average they spent 5.44 ( $SD = 2.55$ ) hours on their mobile phones, with 4.47 ( $SD = 2.93$ ) hours spent on the internet and 3.66 ( $SD = 2.50$ ) hours spent on social media, while they perceived that their partners spent on average 5.38 ( $SD = 2.58$ ) hours on their mobile phones, with 4.35 ( $SD = 2.72$ ) hours spent on the internet and 3.51 ( $SD = 2.55$ ) hours were spent on social media. Among 396 participants, 9.8% stated that they have met their partners through online dating platforms.

## **2.2 Measures**

### ***2.2.1 Demographic Questionnaire***

In the questionnaire, variables such as age, gender, educational level, employment status, marital status, relationship length mobile phone, internet, and social media usage are asked, in order to understand the sample characteristics and be able to control the gender variable and the participation requirements such as marital status and relationship length.

### ***2.2.2 Partner Phubbing Scale***

To measure the participants' perception of experiencing phubbing, the 6-item “Partner Sosyotelizmi Ölçeği” (Topal et al., 2021) is used. The scale was originally developed by Roberts and David (2016) to assess PPP and adapted into Turkish by Topal et al. (2021). It is a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never, 5 = always) which was rated by the participants by thinking about the moments with their partners. The

higher ratings imply higher PPP. On the scale, there are items like “My partner glances at their cell phone while talking to me” or “If there is a momentary silence during our conversation, my partner checks their cell phone”. The internal consistency of the original Partner Phubbing Scale is .93 (Roberts & David, 2016). Whereas the Turkish adaptation of the Partner Phubbing Scale has a .89 internal consistency score (Topal et al., 2021). In the current study, the average scores of all items were calculated and were used to compute the PPP scores of the participants. The internal consistency for the study’s sample was found to be Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .89$ .

### ***2.2.3 Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI-16)***

To measure the extent to which the participants were satisfied with their relationships, the Turkish adaptation of the 16-item Couple Satisfaction Index (Funk & Rogge, 2007) is used. The scale was originally developed by Funk and Rogge (2007) to assess the relationship satisfaction of couples and has three versions which are 32-item, 16-item, and 4-item scales. The Turkish version of the 16-item CSI was translated into Turkish by Gurmen and the translated version was reviewed by 2 bilingual professionals. It is a 6-point Likert scale (1 = never true, 6 = always true), except the first question which is a 7-point Likert scale (1 = extremely unhappy, 7 = extremely happy). The higher scores imply higher relationship satisfaction. On the scale, there are items like “We have a strong relationship” or “I feel like we are part of a team with my partner”. The internal consistency of the original CSI scales for 32-item, 16-item, and 4-item are respectively .98, .98, and .94 (Funk & Rogge, 2007). In the current study, the average scores of all items were calculated and were used to compute the relationship satisfaction scores of the participants. The internal consistency for the study’s sample was Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .94$ .

#### **2.2.4 Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness, Engagement Scale (BARE)**

To measure the participants' attachment behaviors, the 12-item "BARE Ölçeği" (Zeytinoğlu Saydam et al., 2020) is used. The scale was originally developed by Sandberg et al. (2012) to assess attachment behaviors. Later adapted into Turkish by Zeytinoğlu Saydam et al. (2020). The scale is composed of three factors: engagement, responsiveness, and accessibility, and the participants are asked to score on these factors both for themselves and their partners. It is a 5-point Likert scale (1 = never true, 5 = always true), in which higher ratings imply higher attachment behaviors. On the scale, there are items like "It is easy for my partner to get my attention" or "My partner listens when I share my deepest feelings".

The internal consistency scores for the original scale range from .66 to .85 and test-retest reliability scores range from .60 to .75 for six Self and Partner subscales (Sandberg et al., 2012). Meanwhile, the Turkish adaptation of the BARE Scale has a .89 internal consistency score, and the Self and Partner subscales have respectively .79 and .86 test-retest reliability (Zeytinoğlu Saydam et al., 2020). In the current study, the average scores of all items were calculated and were used to compute the attachment behavior scores of the participants. The internal consistency for the study's sample was found to be Cronbach's  $\alpha = .89$ .

### **2.3 Procedure**

Participation in the research was completely voluntary. Information on this issue was given to the participants at the beginning of the study with a "Participation Consent Form". The data were collected anonymously during the study and participants' identification information was not used at any stage of the research. The data were collected via Qualtrics, and the collected data were downloaded to the

computer and stored in an encrypted file. The collected data will be archived for a maximum of ten years.

After recruiting the participants and collecting the consent forms, the participants filled out the demographics questionnaire for understanding the sample characteristics. “Partner Sosyotelizmi Ölçeği” (Topal et al., 2021) was used to measure PPP, “CSI-16” was used to measure relationship satisfaction, and “BARE Ölçeği” (Zeytinoğlu Saydam et al., 2020) was used to measure attachment behaviors of the participants. According to the responses on the scales, data were analyzed to understand the moderating role of attachment behaviors on the link between Pphubbing and relationship satisfaction.

#### **2.4 Data Analytical Approach**

Before analyzing the data via SPSS 27, all variables were checked for data entry accuracy, missing values, normality, outliers, multicollinearity assumptions, and multivariate analysis assumptions. According to descriptive statistics, the means and standard deviations were relatively normal for all items of the three scales: Partner Phubbing Scale (PHU), BARE Scale (BAR), and Couple Satisfaction Index (CSI). The data entry was found to be accurate by checking minimum and maximum scores for all items. Moreover, there were no missing values in the Partner Phubbing Scale and BARE Scale, however, there were 34 missing values in Couple Satisfaction Index that were removed from the dataset.

To detect the outliers, first univariate outliers were checked by calculating Z-Scores. In order for a score to be a potential outlier, it must exceed the limits of 3.29 ( $p < .001$ , two-tailed) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). There was one univariate outlier found in the dataset by visually checking for z-scores for all scales. To detect the

multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis distance scores were computed. Mahalanobis distance is based on the Chi-square distribution, thus the table was checked with 3 degrees of freedom because of having 3 variables and  $p < .001$  (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The Chi-square table showed the value of 16.27, and none of the participants were above this value. Therefore, there were no multivariate outliers in the dataset, but one univariate outlier was deleted.

To check for multicollinearity and singularity, a bivariate correlation was conducted for all three variables which showed no multicollinearity. In addition, to further test for multicollinearity in the regression context, Tolerance and VIF scores were used. Both VIF and Tolerance values for all variables were in the accepted range for multicollinearity (Tolerance  $> .10$  and VIF  $< 10$ ; Pallant, 2016). Thus, the multicollinearity assumptions are fully met (PPP, Tolerance = .50, VIF = 1.98; Attachment Behavior, Tolerance = .89, VIF = 1.12; Relationship Satisfaction, Tolerance = .91, VIF = 1.10).

To assess the normality assumption, skewness and kurtosis of the variables were tested. Skewness and kurtosis are the components of the assumptions of normality and their criteria are considered to be between +3 and -3 (Kline, 2010). According to the results of skewness and kurtosis, all variables were found to be normal. Skewness for PPP was .44, for Attachment Behavior was -.97, and for Relationship Satisfaction was -.74 ( $SE = .12$ ). Kurtosis for PPP was -.22, for Attachment Behavior was .85, and for Relationship Satisfaction was .01 ( $SE = .24$ ). According to the results, all values met the normality assumptions (See Table 1). The multivariate normality was examined through regression standardized residual histogram, P-Plot, and scatter plot. The histogram showed that the results were

normal but slightly skewed to the left. The normal P-P Plot showed that the variables were linear. The scatter plot showed that the results were homogeneous and homoscedastic. Finally, mediation analysis was conducted through PROCESS Macro in the SPSS for the mediation models (Hayes, 2012).

**Table 1.**

*Descriptive Statistics for Major Study Variables (N=396).*

| Scales | M    | SD   | Range (O)  |            | Range (T)  |            | Missing | Skewness | Kurtosis |
|--------|------|------|------------|------------|------------|------------|---------|----------|----------|
|        |      |      | <i>Min</i> | <i>Max</i> | <i>Min</i> | <i>Max</i> |         |          |          |
| PHU    | 2.61 | 0.84 | 1.00       | 5.00       | 1.00       | 5.00       | 0       | .44      | -.22     |
| BARE   | 4.40 | 0.49 | 2.33       | 5.00       | 1.00       | 5.00       | 0       | -.97     | .85      |
| CSI    | 4.46 | 0.87 | 2.00       | 5.69       | 1.00       | 7.00       | 0       | -.74     | -.07     |

*Note.* PHU = Partner Phubbing Scale, BARE = BARE Scale, CSI = Couple Satisfaction Index. Range (O) = observed range, Range (T) = theoretical range

## CHAPTER 3

### RESULTS

#### 3.1 The Effect of Demographic Variables

Preliminary analyses were conducted via SPSS 27. The Pearson bivariate correlations were conducted to test the associations between demographic variables and major study variables. Further, independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the gender differences for the major study variables.

Age was significantly and positively associated with PPP ( $r(396) = .102, p < .05$ ), significantly and negatively associated with attachment behavior ( $r(396) = -.149, p < .01$ ) and relationship satisfaction ( $r(396) = -.108, p < .05$ ). In addition, there was a significant and positive association between age and education level ( $r(396) = .434, p < .01$ ) and age and relationship length ( $r(396) = .133, p < .01$ ).

Among the remaining study variables, education level was significantly and positively related to PPP ( $r(396) = .114, p < .05$ ). Any other study variables were not significantly correlated with each other or major study variables (See Table 3).

Independent samples t-test was conducted to analyze if the major study variables differ for gender differences in terms of females and males (See Table 2). For this purpose, 1 participant was removed because of indicating their gender as “other”, leaving 395 participants. Results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between gender groups of females ( $M = 2.60, SD = .84$ ) vs. males ( $M = 2.62, SD = .87$ ) in terms of PPP ( $t(393) = -.13, p = .58$ ). Likewise, there was no statistically significant difference between gender groups of females ( $M = 4.42, SD = .47$ ) vs. males ( $M = 4.34, SD = .51$ ) in terms of attachment behavior ( $t(393) = 1.15, p = .14$ ). Lastly, there was no statistically significant difference

between gender groups of females ( $M = 4.47$ ,  $SD = .85$ ) vs. males ( $M = 4.47$ ,  $SD = .96$ ) in terms of relationship satisfaction ( $t(393) = .02$ ,  $p = .16$ ).

**Table 2.**

*Independent Samples T-Test Results for Comparison of Gender Groups (N=395).*

|      | Gender   |           |          |          |           |          | Mean<br>Difference | <i>t</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>p</i> |
|------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|--------------------|----------|-----------|----------|
|      | Female   |           |          | Male     |           |          |                    |          |           |          |
|      | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>N</i> |                    |          |           |          |
| PHU  | 2.602    | .839      | 331      | 2.617    | .871      | 64       | -.015              | -.130    | 393       | .584     |
| BARE | 4.416    | .468      | 331      | 4.341    | .515      | 64       | .075               | 1.146    | 393       | .144     |
| CSI  | 4.471    | .845      | 331      | 4.468    | .963      | 64       | .003               | .023     | 393       | .162     |

*Note.* PHU = Partner Phubbing Scale, BARE = BARE Scale, CSI = Couple Satisfaction Index.

### 3.2 Intercorrelations among Major Study Variables

The Pearson bivariate correlations were conducted among study variables to test Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4. Hypothesis 2 predicted that PPP would be negatively associated with relationship satisfaction. The results of the bivariate correlations show that there was a negative and significant relationship between PPP and relationship satisfaction,  $r(396) = -.329$ ,  $p < .01$ . Hypothesis 3 predicted that attachment behaviors would be positively associated with relationship satisfaction. The results of the bivariate correlations show that there was a positive and significant relationship between attachment behaviors and relationship satisfaction,  $r(396) = .704$ ,  $p < .01$ . Finally, Hypothesis 4 predicted that PPP would be negatively associated with attachment behaviors. The results of the bivariate correlations show that there was a negative and significant relationship between PPP and attachment behaviors,  $r(396) = -.306$ ,  $p < .01$  (See Table 3).

**Table 3.***Pearson Bivariate Analyses of the Study Variables.*

| Variable               | 1       | 2     | 3     | 4    | 5       | 6      | 7 |
|------------------------|---------|-------|-------|------|---------|--------|---|
| 1. Age                 | -       |       |       |      |         |        |   |
| 2. Income              | .043    | -     |       |      |         |        |   |
| 3. Education           | .434**  | .036  | -     |      |         |        |   |
| 4. Relationship Length | .133**  | .012  | .078  | -    |         |        |   |
| 5. PHU                 | .102*   | -.061 | .114* | .028 | -       |        |   |
| 6. BARE                | -.149** | .037  | -.023 | .091 | -.306** | -      |   |
| 7. CSI                 | -.108*  | .051  | -.049 | .046 | -.329** | .704** | - |

Note. \* =  $p < .05$  (2-tailed), \*\* =  $p < .01$  (2-tailed). PHU = Partner Phubbing Scale, BARE = BARE Scale. CSI = Couple Satisfaction Index.

### 3.3 Multivariate Analyses

Initially, the hierarchical regression was conducted to examine the main effects of the variables on relationship satisfaction. The PPP variable was placed in the first block, meanwhile, the attachment behavior variable was placed in the second block. The hierarchical regression results indicated that PPP accounted for 10.8% of the variance in relationship satisfaction,  $F(1, 394) = 47.705, p < .001, R^2 = .108$ . The second block comprised of attachment behavior and PPP accounted for 40.2% of additional variance in relationship satisfaction,  $F(2, 393) = 204.645, p < .001, R^2 = .510$ . When analyzed in detail, in the second block PPP ( $B = -.128, \beta = -.125, t = -3.371, p < .001$ ) and attachment behavior ( $B = 1.209, \beta = .666, t = 17.962, p < .001$ ) were significantly related to relationship satisfaction (See Table 4).

**Table 4.***Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Study Variables (N = 395).*

| Variable                   | <i>Relationship Satisfaction</i> |             |          |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------|----------|
|                            | <i>B</i>                         | <i>SE B</i> | <i>β</i> |
| Block 1                    |                                  |             |          |
| PHU                        | -.337                            | .049        | -.329*** |
| <i>Total R<sup>2</sup></i> |                                  |             | .108     |
| <i>F</i>                   |                                  |             | 47.705   |
| Block 2                    |                                  |             |          |
| PHU                        | -.128                            | .038        | -.125*** |
| BARE                       | 1.209                            | .067        | .667***  |
| <i>Total R<sup>2</sup></i> |                                  |             | .510     |
| <i>R<sup>2</sup>Δ</i>      |                                  |             | .402     |
| <i>F</i>                   |                                  |             | 204.645  |

Note. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ . PHU = Partner Phubbing Scale, BARE = BARE Scale.

Further mediation analysis was conducted via PROCESS Macro in the SPSS

27. In the mediation model, age was controlled as a covariate for the current analysis. The mediation results showed that in line with the hierarchical regression analysis, participants with higher levels of PPP had lower levels of attachment behavior and, in turn, lower levels of relationship satisfaction. In the final model, the direct effect of PPP on attachment behavior was negative and significant ( $B = -.173$  ( $SE = .027$ ),  $\beta = -.306$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The direct effect of attachment behavior on relationship satisfaction was positive and significant ( $B = 1.209$  ( $SE = .067$ ),  $\beta = .666$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Finally, the direct effect of PPP on relationship satisfaction was negative and significant ( $B = -.337$  ( $SE = .049$ ),  $\beta = -.329$ ,  $p < .001$ ). In addition, the 95% confidence interval limits from bootstrapping analyses for indirect effect were [-.290, -.134], which showed there was a significant indirect effect. The results

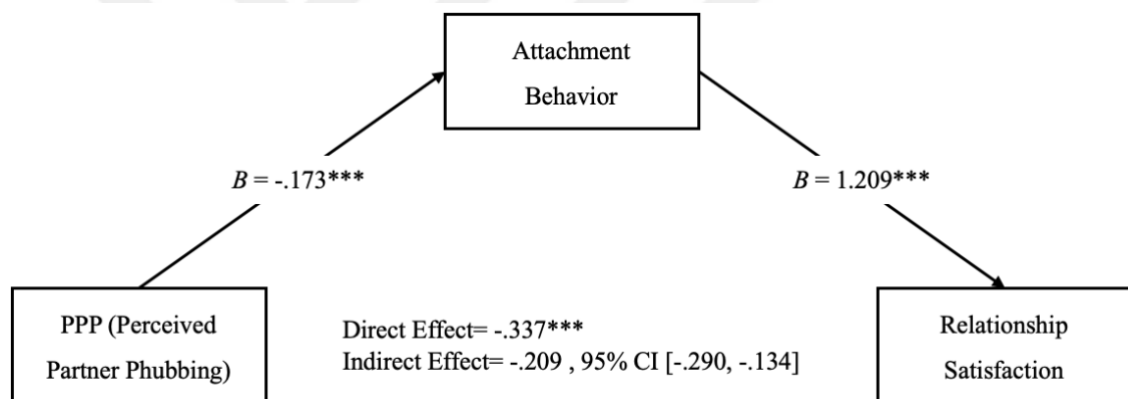
indicate that attachment behavior significantly mediated the relationship between PPP and relationship satisfaction,  $B = -.209$  ( $SE = .040$ ), [95% CI:  $-.290, -.134$ ].

Hypothesis 1 predicted that attachment behavior would mediate the association between PPP and relationship satisfaction, thereby it was supported by the results.

Please see Figure 1 for a depiction of the model.

**Figure 1**

*The Mediating Effect of Attachment Behavior between PPP and Relationship Satisfaction. Unstandardized coefficients were reported.*



Note.  $***p < .001$  (2-tailed).

## CHAPTER 4

### DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the negative impacts of Perceived Partner Phubbing (PPP) on relationship satisfaction. It aimed to bring the concept of attachment behavior as a protective factor by analyzing its mediating role in this relationship. In addition, it planned to analyze the dynamics of phubbing behavior. Four research questions have been addressed in this study to investigate the relationship between the major study variables and the mediating role of attachment behavior on the link between PPP and relationship satisfaction. The results of the current study will be discussed in this chapter by addressing the relevant literature.

The main research question aimed to examine if there was a mediation effect of attachment behavior on the link between PPP and relationship satisfaction. We hypothesized that there would be a mediator role of attachment behavior in this relationship. The results of both hierarchical regression and mediation analysis confirmed the main hypothesis of the current study. The results showed that participants with higher levels of PPP had lower levels of attachment behavior and, in turn, lower levels of relationship satisfaction. In addition, the results showed a partial mediation, which means there was also a direct effect from PPP on relationship satisfaction as well as the indirect path. These findings were in line with our predictions and the existing literature. According to previous studies, individuals who have higher PPP feel lower levels of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement from their partners. When the attention of the phubber is on their smartphone, they could not have enough ability to be responsive and available to

their partner's needs, which results in the phubbee feeling lonely, neglected, and disconnected (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016).

The literature indicates that there is a strong link between attachment behaviors and relationship satisfaction. Feeling accessible, responsive, and engaged are three main indicators of higher attachment behaviors, which are closely related to relationship satisfaction (Novak et al., 2016; Sandberg et al., 2012). Individuals need to feel secure in a relationship in order to be satisfied with their partners. The three variables of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement are crucial for people to feel secure and satisfied with their relationships (Sanford, 1997). So, in brief, PPP results in a decrease in attachment behaviors which then leads to a decrease in relationship satisfaction. Thereby, the literature supports the results of the current study by confirming the indirect effects.

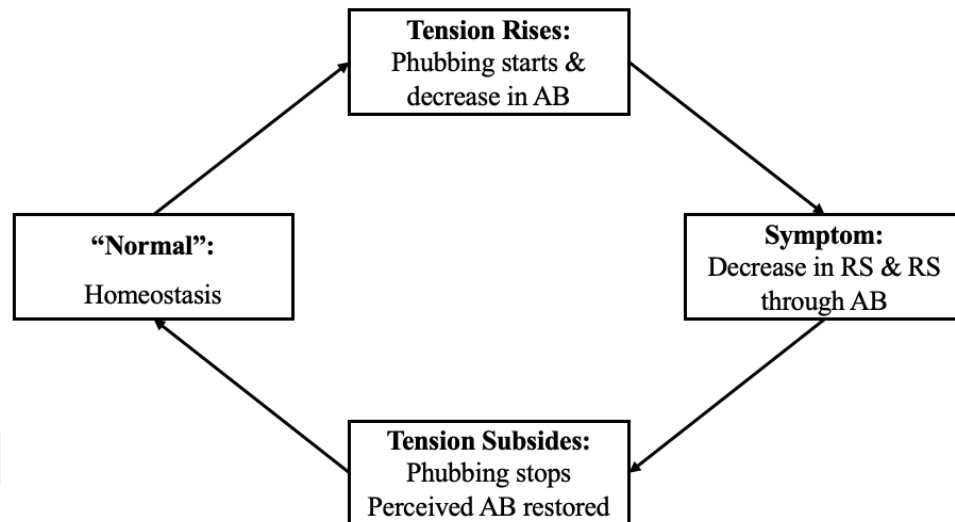
When we consider the findings based on the theoretical framework of the current study, we can explain the results under two theories. According to Cybernetic Systems Theory, social systems seek homeostasis; when it is broken, they create a reaction to restore it (Bateson, 1972). Before PPP is introduced in the relationship system, there was homeostasis. However, when a partner becomes a phubber by focusing on their smartphone rather than their partner, positive feedback enters the system. This feedback interferes with the interaction among partners and decreases the attachment behavior and relationship satisfaction of the phubbee. Due to the disruption of the interaction, the phubbee could not fully access, engage or get a response from the phubber. When we look from the perspective of the assumption "One cannot not communicate", the phubber sends a message to the phubbee which could again lead to the symptom of a decrease in attachment behavior and

relationship satisfaction. As the phubbee could interpret the behavior as not being worthy enough to receive the full attention of the phubber, they face the negative consequences of PPP. By this means, we can explain both the direct and indirect path from PPP to relationship satisfaction by looking from the perspective of Cybernetic Systems Theory.

According to the Attachment Theory, romantic relationships are the continuation of childhood attachment bonds into adulthood. As the significant other develops into a key source of psychological security in relationships, the need of feeling secure arises (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Treboux et al., 2004). As the PPP is introduced in the system, the phubbee could feel that the phubber is not willing to attend to their emotional cues or needs, or be responsive to their needs of closeness, intimacy, or attention. During phubbing, the phubber is physically in the environment, however, they are not available to their partner. Thus, PPP decreases perceived partner responsiveness and availability, which means the feeling of security is disrupted, and the anxiety of the phubbee increases (Schokkenbroek et al., 2022), which disrupts the homeostasis in the homeostatic cycle. Since the existing literature supports the link between attachment behaviors and relationship satisfaction, a decrease in attachment behavior would result in a decrease in relationship satisfaction. Thereby, we can explain the indirect path from PPP to relationship satisfaction by focusing on the assumptions of the Attachment Theory and combining it with Cybernetic Systems Theory.

**Figure 2**

*The Homeostatic Cycle Combined with Attachment Theory.*



*Note.* AB = Attachment Behavior

The remaining three research questions aimed to understand the relationships among major study variables. It was hypothesized that PPP would be negatively related to relationship satisfaction. In the current study, the results supported the hypothesis that there was a negative and significant relationship between PPP and relationship satisfaction. The existing literature is in line with the findings of the current study. Several studies have found that there was a negative link between PPP and relationship satisfaction since PPP results in feelings of exclusion, disagreements over smartphone use, negative emotions like rage or jealousy, and a decrease in perceived intimacy or accessibility which cumulatively result in a decrease of relationship satisfaction (Halpern & Katz, 2017; Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016; Roberts & David, 2016).

The next hypothesis expected that attachment behaviors would be positively associated with relationship satisfaction. The results supported the hypothesis that

there was a significant positive link found between attachment behavior and relationship satisfaction scores of the participants. The previous research also confirms the results of the current study. Novak et al. (2016) stated that individuals' relationship satisfaction is strongly related to their perceptions of attachment behaviors. As the views of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement increase, people feel more satisfied with their relationships, since they feel more secure with their partners (Sandberg et al., 2015).

Finally, the last hypothesis predicted that PPP would be negatively associated with attachment behaviors. The results of the current study confirmed the hypothesis and found a significant negative link between PPP and attachment behaviors. The existing literature indicates a negative relationship between attachment behaviors and PPP. There are findings supporting lower levels of perceived accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement in relationships as there are high levels of PPP (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; McDaniel & Coyne, 2016). In the current study, BARE Scale was used to measure total scores of attachment behaviors based on measuring accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement scores of the participants. As the literature supports the decline in those three variables with the higher levels of PPP, the results of the study were in the same direction as the previous findings.

#### **4.1 The Effect of Demographic Variables on the Major Study Variables**

The majority of the sample consisted of university students and the mean age of the participants was 23.20. Age was significantly correlated with all the major study variables. It was positively correlated with PPP, while negatively correlated with attachment behavior and relationship satisfaction. These findings indicated that

when the age of the participants increased, the PPP also increased. On the other hand, when the age of the participants increased, the reported attachment behavior and relationship satisfaction of the participants decreased. When we consider the relationship between age and PPP, the existing literature is contrary to the findings of the current study. According to Bröning and Wartberg (2022), PPP was related to younger ages in both women and men. In addition, Beukeboom and Pollmann (2021) found that even though it's a weak correlation, the PPP of older participants was lower when compared to younger participants. As the majority of the participants consist of Generation Z university students, they might be perceiving phubbing as just phone usage or a kind of multitasking rather than being snubbed via phones as they start to normalize using smartphones in social contexts. Another option could be the uneven distribution of age among participants. If the age of the participants would be evenly distributed, there might be a chance for the results to be in line with the literature. These could be the reasons why the study findings show lower levels of PPP among younger participants. In addition, the results showed that there was a positive correlation between PPP and education level. For the current study's sample, the education level increases as the age of the participants increase and this link can explain the positive relationship among the variables. When we look at the relationship between age and attachment behavior, Zeytinoğlu-Saydam et al. (2020) found significantly lower attachment behavior scores of the participants who were older than 26 years old when compared to younger adults. Other studies mostly focused on the difference between attachment behaviors of anxiety and avoidance which was not in the scope of this current study (Mikulincer et al., 2002; Collins & Read, 1990). The existing literature also supports the negative link between age and

relationship satisfaction. Relationship satisfaction decreases as the age of the participants increases (Beukeboom & Pollmann, 2021).

In the current study, the major study variables did not differ for gender differences. Especially when focused on phubbing, several studies have found significant gender differences. According to a study conducted with university students by Escalera-Chávez et al. (2020), male students had higher rates of engaging in phubbing behavior when compared to female students. On the other hand, existing literature supports that gender significantly affects numerous smartphone-related behaviors as well as the social norms on smartphone use and perceived phubbing. It was found that after being phubbed themselves, especially males were more inclined to adopt phubbing as a societal norm and report higher levels of perceived phubbing (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016; Thabassum, 2021). Even though there were some findings on gender differences in literature, the current study has not found any link between gender and major study variables. This might be because of the huge difference between female and male participants in the current study's sample. If there could be an even distribution in terms of gender, there might be a difference between groups as stated in the existing literature.

#### **4.2 Limitations, Strengths, and Future Directions**

There were several limitations of the current study that needs to be addressed while interpreting the findings. First, snowball sampling was used while collecting the data which indicates that the results may not be nationally representative. The majority of the sample consists of university students and female participants. The characteristics of the participants create a generalizability issue which is most probably the consequence of the sampling technique used in the current study. In

addition, in line with the inclusion criteria, the findings only apply to non-married and non-cohabiting adults. In the future, the researchers could examine the relationship among the major study variables with a more representative sample by recruiting evenly distributed participants based on their demographic characteristics. Likewise, replications of the study can be conducted with married or cohabiting adults in the future. Furthermore, the data were only collected from individuals having romantic relationships, but not from their partners. We cannot gain a full understanding from a couple's point of view. In the future, dyadic data could be collected in order to understand both perspectives of the partners.

On the other hand, participants were not recruited from a clinical population, so the norms and standards of the scales may differ when it comes to discussing the clinical implications according to the findings. Second, the design of the current study was cross-sectional which was a limitation for us to make certain causal implications. It would be better if future studies could test the hypotheses with a longitudinal research design to make causal inferences. Third, all measures used in the current study were self-report measures, which could be resulted in social desirability bias in the responses. Finally, we used total scores for the BARE Scale which was measuring attachment behavior. There were two subscales of BARE, the Self and Partner subscales. Even though the BARE scale included both scores of own and perceived attachment behaviors, we could only measure the perceived score of Pphubbing by using the Partner Phubbing Scale. Future research could test the hypotheses either by using the subscales of BARE rather than the total scores or by adapting the Partner Phubbing Scale to measure the own scores of phubbing.

Despite its limitations, the current study contributes to the literature in several ways. First and foremost, although there is a growing body of research on phubbing and Pphubbing, there is still a huge gap in the literature. It lights the way for a continuously growing risk in romantic relationships. Combining the concepts of PPP, attachment behavior, and relationship satisfaction at once is a new aspect of this research area. To our knowledge, this current study is the first that examines the link among these three major study variables. Even the phubbing and attachment styles have taken part in research together, investigating the impact of attachment behavior will be a new aspect. Analyzing the direct and indirect paths under the two theories of Cybernetic Systems Theory and Attachment Theory gives a chance to approach and understand PPP behavior from a new point of view. Combining these two theories prepares a stage for clinical implications in the therapy context, especially in family therapy.

### **4.3 Clinical Implications**

Besides presenting strong theoretical implications, the current study contributes to the field of psychology in terms of clinical implications. After analyzing the findings, the partial mediation effect of attachment behavior was found in the link between PPP and relationship satisfaction. This indicated that besides focusing on the problem, the findings presented system-oriented results and pave the way through enhancing the attachment needs in the therapy context while dealing with the consequences of PPP. As a symptom arises when the homeostasis was broken, either the phubber needs to stop phubbing or the Pphubbing should be perceived as a negative feedback that would not interfere with the homeostatic cycle anymore. In this case, to decrease the occurrence of Pphubbing, the partners and also

people in general, could be psycho-educated on the concept of phubbing and its negative consequences. Since phubbing is a relatively new concept, people might not know how phubbing negatively affects their relationships. In addition, it is known that feeling rejected could activate similar regions of the brain as physical pain (Kross et al., 2011). As experiencing PPP disrupts feeling accessible, responsive, and engaging and increases the feeling of being excluded in relationships, it would be beneficial to psycho-educate people on how PPP could lead to a feeling of rejection and affect the phubbees. On the other hand, the phubbee could tolerate the Pphubbing if they could still feel their partner being accessible, responsive, and engaging even when they were using their smartphones, since this action could be perceived as a negative feedback and protect the homeostatic cycle.

Moreover, the current study could guide couple and family therapists on approaching phubbing behavior while assessing and intervening with their clients. Especially while working with couples, therapists generally can overlook assessing the technology use. Thus, assessing the use of technology and its place in their lives can provide them with easier access to the sources of some of the clients' needs and conflicts. In addition, when a couple brings PPP as a problem in the therapy context, they could also focus on assessing the accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement dimensions in their relationship and how each partner perceives those attachment behaviors. After the assessment, several techniques can be used to strengthen the attachment behaviors as a protective factor such as communicating about the phubbee's feelings and smartphone usage, creating alternative ways to feel connected as touching, signaling, setting a timer, or externalizing the phubbing behavior and putting the blame on the phubbing cycle rather than the partner. For

example, in Emotionally Focused Therapy (EFT), the ultimate goal is to create a secure bond with and among the couple by accessing and reprocessing their emotional responses. Thus, therapists identify, reflect, and intervene in the negative interaction cycles of the couples. While identifying the cycle, they mainly focus on the roles of pursuer and withdrawer (Johnson, 2004). In this case, EFT therapists can work with PPP by focusing on the attachment needs of the couple while assessing and intervening in Pphubbing as a withdrawing behavior. In addition, besides focusing only on the negative interaction cycles of the couples, therapists could combine it with the homeostatic cycle according to the findings of the current study. Thus, they can approach and intervene in the cycles more comprehensively. Even though it would be unrealistic to solve the problem completely by removing the Pphubbing behavior in this growing digitalization era, they could try to minimize the occurrence of phubbing but most importantly, they could work by supporting the perceived security in their relationships.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### *Informed Consent (Turkish)*

**Projenin Adı:** Partner Telefon Kullanımı ve İlişki Tatmini Arasındaki Bağlantıda Bağlanma Davranışının Aracı Etkisi

**Proje yürütücüsünün adı ve iletişim bilgileri:** Selen Sevinç

& Dr. Selenga Gürmen

**Proje bütçesine katkı ile ve/veya diğer şekillerde projeyi destekleyen kuruluşlar:** Herhangi bütçe ve/veya kaynak desteği alınmayacaktır.

**Projenin amacı:** Bu çalışma bilimsel amaçla yapılmaktadır. Romantik ilişkilerde partnerin akıllı telefon ile ilgilenmesi sonucu yaşanan hisler ile ilişki tatmini arasındaki bağlantıyı ve bu bağlantıda bağlanma davranışlarının etkisini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap bulunmamaktadır.

**Süreç:** Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde, sizden toplam 10 dakika sürecek olan anketi doldurmanız istenecektir. Ankette, kimlik bilgilerinin yer almadığı demografik formun ardından partnerinizin akıllı telefonu ile ilgilenmesi sonucu yaşadığınız hisleri, ilişki tatmininizi ve ilişki içerisinde sizin ve partnerinizin bağlanma davranışlarını araştıran kapalı uçlu sorular sorulacaktır.

**Gizlilik:** Çalışma süresince toplanan veriler anonim olarak toplanacak olup, araştırmanın herhangi bir aşamasında katılımcı kimlik bilgileri kullanılmayacaktır. Toplanan anket verileri şifrelenmiş harici bellekte araştırma yürütücüsü tarafından saklanacaktır ve en fazla on yıl süreyle arşivlenecektir.

**Gönüllü Katılım:** Katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Bu formu imzalamayıp çalışmaya katılmama hakkınız her zaman geçerlidir. Formu imzalamış olsanız dahi istediğiniz an görüşmeyi sonlandırıp çalışmayı bırakma hakkına sahipsiniz. Katılımı reddetmek herhangi bir zarara yol açmayacaktır.

Bu formda anlatılan araştırmanın etik yönleriyle ilgili soru veya görüşleriniz varsa lütfen Özyeğin Üniversitesi Etik Kurulu ile (216) 564 9846 numaralı telefondan temasa geçiniz.

Yukarıda sözü geçen “Partner Telefon Kullanımı ve İlişki Tatmini Arasındaki Bağlantıda Bağlanma Davranışının Düzenleyici Etkisi” isimli araştırma projesinin detaylarını okudum ve bu proje ile ilgili sorularım cevaplandı. Bu çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

**APPENDIX B***Demographic Information Form (Turkish)*

1. Yaşınız:
2. Cinsiyetiniz:
  - Kadın
  - Erkek
  - Diğer
3. Cinsel eğiliminiz:
  - Homoseksüel
  - Heteroseksüel
  - Diğer
4. Ailenizin aylık geliri:
  - 10.000 TL'den az
  - 10.000 – 39.999 TL
  - 40.000 – 69.999 TL
  - 70.000 – 99.999 TL
  - 100.000 TL'den fazla
5. Eğitim durumunuz:
  - Okur yazar değil
  - Okur yazar
  - İlkokul mezunu
  - Ortaokul mezunu
  - Lise mezunu
  - Üniversite mezunu
  - Yüksek lisans – doktora mezunu
  - Diğer
6. Öğrenci misiniz?
7. Öğrenci iseniz, şu anki öğrenim seviyeniz:
  - Lise
  - Lisans
  - Yüksek Lisans
  - Doktora
  - Doktora sonrası
8. Öğrenci iseniz, okuduğunuz bölüm?
9. Öğrenci değilseniz, en son hangi okulu bitirdiniz?
  - İlkokul
  - Ortaokul
  - Lise
  - Üniversite
  - Yüksek Lisans
  - Doktora
  - Diğer

10. Öğrenci değilseniz, çalışma durumunuz:
  - İşsiz, iş aramıyor (emekli, özürlü vs.)
  - İşsiz, iş arıyor
  - Çalışıyor, yarı zamanlı
  - Çalışıyor, tam zamanlı
11. Öğrenci değilseniz, mesleğinizin adı ve/ veya işteki ünvanınız:
12. Öğrenci değilseniz, çalıştığınız işteki görevleriniz nedir veya ne idi?
13. Evlilik durumunuz:
  - Evliyim ve eşimle birlikte yaşıyorum.
  - Evliyim ama başka biriyle yaşıyorum
  - Evli değilim ama biriyle yaşıyorum
  - Evliyim ama eşimle ayrı yaşıyoruz
  - Boşandım
  - Eşim vefat etti
  - Hiç evlenmedim
14. Kaç yıldır romantik ilişki içerisindesiniz?
15. Günde kaç saat telefon kullanıyorsunuz?
16. Partneriniz günde kaç saat telefon kullanıyor?
17. Günde kaç saat internette geziyorsunuz?
18. Partneriniz günde kaç saat internette geziyor?
19. Günde kaç saat sosyal medya platformlarını kullanıyorsunuz?
20. Partneriniz günde kaç saat sosyal medya platformlarını kullanıyor?
21. Partneriniz ile “online flört” uygulaması üzerinden mi tanıştınız?

## APPENDIX C

### *Turkish Adaptation of the Partner Phubbing Scale*

1. Birlikte geçirdiğimiz sıradan bir yemek saati boyunca, partnerim cep telefonunu çıkarır ve kontrol eder.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

4. Partnerim, birlikte geçirebileceğimiz boş zamanlarda cep telefonunu kullanır.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

6. Eğer konuşmamız sırasında geçici bir sessizlik olursa, partnerim cep telefonunu kontrol eder.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

## APPENDIX D

### *Turkish Adaptation of the BARE Scale*

#### Ulaşılabilirlik

1. Eşime/sevgilime vakit ayırıyorum.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

#### Duyarlılık

3. Eşim/sevgilim benimle duygularını paylaştığında onu dinlerim.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

#### Yakınlık

6. Eşime/sevgilime kendimi yakın ve bağlı hissediyorum

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

#### Eşimin/Sevgilimin Ulaşılabilirliği

8. Eşimin/sevgilimin ilgisini çekebilirim.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

#### Eşimin/Sevgilimin Duyarlılığı

10. Eşimin/sevgilimin benimle iyi iletişim kurabildiğine inanıyorum.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

#### Eşimin/Sevgilimin Yakınlığı

12. Eşim/sevgilim bana kendini yakın ve bağlı hisseder.

| Hiçbir zaman | Nadiren | Bazen | Genellikle | Her zaman |
|--------------|---------|-------|------------|-----------|
| 1            | 2       | 3     | 4          | 5         |

## APPENDIX E

### *Turkish Adaptation of the CSI-16 Scale*

1. Lütfen her şeyi göz önünde bulundurarak ilişkinizdeki mutluluk seviyesini belirleyiniz.

| Son derece mutsuz | Oldukça mutsuz | Biraz mutsuz | Mutlu | Çok mutlu | Oldukça mutlu | Son derece mutlu |
|-------------------|----------------|--------------|-------|-----------|---------------|------------------|
| 0                 | 1              | 2            | 3     | 4         | 5             | 6                |

Çoğu insan ilişkilerinde anlaşmazlık yaşar. Lütfen, aşağıdaki maddelere göre partnerinizle ne derece anlaşır anlaşmadığınızı belirtiniz.

3. İlişkimiz güçlü bir ilişkidir.

| Hiç doğru değil | Biraz doğru | Oldukça doğru | Çoğunlukla doğru | Neredeyse tamamen doğru | Tamamen doğru |
|-----------------|-------------|---------------|------------------|-------------------------|---------------|
| 0               | 1           | 2             | 3                | 4                       | 5             |

5. Partnerimle sıcak ve rahat bir ilişkim var.

| Hiç doğru değil | Azıcık doğru | Bir miktar doğru | Çoğunlukla doğru | Neredeyse tamamen doğru | Tamamen doğru |
|-----------------|--------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------------|---------------|
| 0               | 1            | 2                | 3                | 4                       | 5             |

8. Partneriniz ihtiyaçlarınızı karşılamada ne kadar iyi?

| Hiç | Biraz | Oldukça | Çoğunlukla | Neredeyse tamamen | Tamamen |
|-----|-------|---------|------------|-------------------|---------|
| 0   | 1     | 2       | 3          | 4                 | 5       |

Aşağıdaki kavramlardan ilişkiniz hakkında nasıl hissettiğinize dair uygun olanını seçin. Kavramlar hakkındaki ilk izlenim ve anlık duygularınızı baz alarak cevaplayın.

11.

| İLGİNÇ |   |   |   |   | SIKICI |
|--------|---|---|---|---|--------|
| 5      | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0      |

12.

| KÖTÜ |   |   |   |   | İYİ |
|------|---|---|---|---|-----|
| 0    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5   |

16.

| EĞLENCELİ |   |   |   |   | MUTSUZ/<br>ACINASI |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|--------------------|
| 5         | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0                  |

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