#Interpersonal Competence, Loneliness, Fear of Negative Evaluation, and Reward and Punishment as Predictors of Social Media Addiction and Their Accuracy in Classifying Adolescent Social Media Users and Non-Users*

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Abstract

This research investigates whether or not interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, and reward and punishment predict social media addiction and the level of accuracy at which adolescent social media users and non-users are classified. For this general purpose, the research examines these variables’ impact on social media addiction in the first stage. The second stage examines the accuracy with which these variables classify adolescent social-media users and non-users. The first phase of the research has been performed over 282 adolescents (123 girls and 159 boys) who have at least one social media account and have used social media for the last year. The second stage of the research has been conducted over 144 adolescent social media non-users (64 girls and 80 boys) in addition to the 282 adolescents from the first phase. Data from the study has been collected using the Social Media Disorder Scale, Interpersonal Competence Scale, Social Anxiety for Adolescents Scale, UCLA Loneliness Scale-Short Form, Behavioral Inhibition System/Behavioral Activation System Scales, and a personal information form. According to the results from the first phase of the research, interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, and reward and punishment are found to predict social media addiction at a meaningful level. According to the results from the second phase of the research, interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, and reward and punishment correctly classified 74% of adolescent social media users and non-users. These results show interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, and reward and punishment to affect social media addiction and social media use/non-use.

Keywords

Social media addiction • Interpersonal competence • Loneliness • Fear of being negatively evaluated • Reward • Punishment

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As of 2017, more than half the world’s population has used the Internet. The use of internet derivatives like social media along with the widespread use of the Internet has increased. As a matter of fact, 2.7 billion people worldwide have been actively using social media since 2017. The values in Turkey related to Internet and social media usage is greater than world usage in general. Approximately 8 out of 10 individuals use the Internet in Turkey, and social media takes first place among the reasons for using the Internet. Since 2017, social media use in Turkey has exceeded half the population, and daily social media usage time is 3 hours 1 minute (Kemp, 2017; Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu [TÜİK, Turkish Statistical Institute], 2017; Worldometers, 2017). When Internet use and its derivatives reach a level that disrupts daily functionality, it causes addiction (Griffiths, 2013; Kuss & Griffiths, 2011a).

Internet addiction is not classified as a disorder in DSM-5 (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th ed., American Psychiatric Association (APA), 2013). However, 9-point diagnostic criteria have been proposed for Internet game-playing disorders in Chapter 3 of DSM-5. Although Internet addiction has not been formally classified as a disorder, internet addiction has been emphasized as a behavioral addiction in the literature (Griffiths, 1996; Young, 1998). Internet addiction, regardless of the type of application or activity that causes the addiction, offers a general and inclusive perspective. Therefore, Internet addiction forms the main framework of other Internet-related disorders. In this context, social media addiction is evaluated as the excessive use of social media, an increase over time in the desire to use social media, excessive social media use causing activities to be neglected and harming personal relationships, using social media to escape from daily life stress and negative emotions, experiencing problems in reducing or stopping social media use, becoming tense and irritable when social media cannot be used, and lying about the duration of social media use (Griffiths, 2013; Griffiths, Kuss, & Demetrovics, 2014; Kuss & Griffiths, 2011a, 2011b; van den Eijnden et al., 2016).
In studies, social media addiction has been determined related to factors like social connectedness (Savci & Aysan, 2017a), psychopathology (Demir & Kutlu, 2016; Hormes, Kearns, & Timko, 2014; Meena, Soni, Jain, & Paliwal, 2015; Pantic et al., 2012; Woods & Scott, 2016), personality characteristics (Andreassen, Pallesen, & Griffiths, 2016; Wang, Ho, Chan, & Tse, 2015), academic problems (Demir & Kutlu, 2017; Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010), anatomy of the brain (He et al., 2017), and sleep (Woods & Scott, 2016). Additionally, social media use has been related with interpersonal competence (Bonetti, Campbell, & Gilmore, 2010; Turel & Serenko, 2012), loneliness (Savci & Aysan, 2016a; Yu, Wu, & Pesigan, 2016), fear of negative evaluation (Bonetti et al., 2010; Yen et al., 2012), and reward and punishment (Fareri & Delgado, 2014; He et al., 2017; Meshi, Morawetz, & Heekeren, 2013). In this context, social media addiction can be said to have a broad etiological spectrum. However, some factors are more critical in the sense of social media addiction. This study evaluates social media addiction from the perspectives of interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, and reward and punishment. In fact, when social media addiction has been explained in the literature, these constructs are assessed as critical variables (Bonetti et al., 2010; Fareri & Delgado, 2014; Yen et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2016).

Digital technologies in Turkey and the world have also increased addictions related with digital technologies. As a matter of fact, internet addiction was considered as an addiction at the conceptual level in the literature nearly 20 years ago (Young, 1998). Today, however, every innovation in digital technology is accompanied by an addicted group of people. These days a large number of addictions have been conceptualized, like social media addiction, Internet gaming disorder, smartphone addiction, online shopping addiction, online pornography addiction, and online sex addiction. Therefore, the relationship of new addiction research areas to digital technology is mainly on being addicted to social media. Research in this field is thought to contribute to understanding addiction and identifying the risk and prevention factors, as well as to intervention/prevention studies made on these addictions. In this context, the results of this research should be noted in technology addiction prevention and intervention studies that are mainly about being addicted to social media.

Method

Research Group

This research has been performed on 426 adolescents: 282 who have used social media for one year and have at least one social media account and 144 who do not use social media. The group using social media is formed of 43.6% girls and 56.4% boys, and the group not using social media is 44.4% girls and 55.6% boys. The ages of both the social media users and non-users vary from 14 to 19. Adolescents from each grade (9th thru 12th) participated in each of the two groups. The average daily Internet-
use duration was determined as 2.54 hours for the social media user group and as .20 hours (12 min) for the social media non-user group. For the social media users group, the average daily social media usage duration was determined as 2 hours; number of friends/followers, 349; number of social media accounts, 2.7; length of time using social media, 3.2 years; and daily number of times checking social media accounts, 4.4.

Data Collection Tools

#Social Media Disorder Scale (#SMDS). #SMDS, developed by van den Eijnden et al. (2016) and adapted to Turkish by Savci, Ercengiz, and Aysan (2017), is a Likert-type scale consisting of one dimension and 9 items. As a result of explanatory factor analysis (EFA), the #SMDS was found to have a single-factor structure explaining 47.88% of the total variance. This one-factor structure was tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on two separate samples. As a result of the analysis, the social media disorder model was seen to have good compliance values in each of the two samples (Sample 1: χ² = 39.237; df = 27; χ² / df = 1.453; RMSEA = .055; GFI = .95; AGFI = .91; CFI = .97; IFI = .97; TLI [NNFI] = .96; and Sample 2: χ² = 50.725; df = 26; χ² / df = 1.951; RMSEA = .072; GFI = .94; AGFI = .90; CFI = .94; IFI = .94; TLI [NNFI] = .92). According to the analysis results concerning the #SMDS’s criterion-related validity, social media usage duration, number of social media accounts, negative affect, and impulsivity are positively related, and self-discipline, social commitment, and positive affect are negatively related. #SMDS’s reliability was examined using the test-retest method and Cronbach’s alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient on three different samples. The #SMDS’s Cronbach alpha coefficients were determined to be .83, .86, and .86, and the three-week test-retest correlation to be .805. The scale has no reverse scoring, and high scores indicate an increased risk of social media disorder/addiction (Savci et al., 2017).

Interpersonal Competence Questionnaire-Short Form (ICQ). The ICQ, developed by Buhrmester, Furman, Wittenberg, and Reis (1988) and adapted to Turkish by Şahin and Gizir (2013), is scored as a 5-point Likert-type scale formed of 25 items. As a result of EFA, the Turkish form of the ICQ shows it to consist of 5 factors that explain a total variance of 57.15%. The ICQ’s 5-factor structure was tested using CFA. As a result of CFA, the ICQ model is seen to have acceptable compliance values (χ² (249) = 441.40; χ² / df = 1.77; RMSEA = .036; SRMR = .049; GFI = .94; AGFI = .93; CFI = .96).

Social Anxiety Scale for Adolescents (SAS-A). SAS-A, developed by La Greca and Lopez (1998) and adapted to Turkish by Aydin and Tekinsav-Sütçü (2007), consists of 22 items, four of which are filler items. The EFA results performed by Aydin and Tekinsav-Sütçü (2007) determined the SAS-A to consist of three factors that explain 48% of the total variance. SAS-A’s reliability was examined using the internal consistency and split testing methods. SAS-A’s Cronbach alpha internal
consistency coefficient was determined as .88 and the split-test reliability coefficient as .85 (Aydın & Tekinsav-Sütçü, 2007). In this study, the scale’s 7-item sub-scale of fear of being negatively evaluated has been used.

**UCLA Loneliness Scale-Short Form (ULS-8).** Developed by Hays and DiMatteo (1987) and adapted to Turkish by Yildiz and Duy (2014), the ULS-8 consists of one dimension and 7 items. As a result of the EFA, the scale items are seen to be gathered under a single dimension. Afterwards, this one-dimensional structure was tested using CFA. As a result of CFA, the ULS-8 has been seen to provide good adaptation into Turkish culture ($\chi^2 = 27.12; df = 14; \chi^2 / df = 1.94; RMSEA = .06; RMR = .03; SRMR = .04; GFI = .97; AGFI = .95; CFI = .98; NFI = .96; NNFI = .97$). Receiving a high score on the scale indicates a high level of loneliness (Yildiz & Duy, 2014).

**Behavioral Inhibition System/Behavioral Activation System Scales (BIS/BAS Scales).** Reward and punishment have been measured in this study using the BIS/BAS Scales. Developed by Carver and White (1994) and adapted to Turkish by Şişman (2012), the BIS/BAS Scales consist of 24 items, four of which are filler items. As a result of EFA, the BIS/BAS Scales are seen to consist of four sub-dimensions: behavioral inhibition, fun seeking, reward responsiveness, and drive. The BIS/BAS Scales’ Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients have been determined as .69 for behavioral inhibition, .57 for reward responsiveness, .63 for fun seeking, and .69 for drive. The BIS/BAS Scales’ criterion validity was examined through the search for entertainment and impulse. As a result of the analysis, the BIS/BAS Scale was seen related in the expected direction through these structures.

**Data Analysis**

Statistical analyses in this research have been carried out in two stages. The first stage investigates the relationship of social media addiction in adolescents who have used social media for a year and who have at least one social media account with interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of being negatively evaluated, and rewards and punishments using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis. The second stage investigates the level of accuracy with which interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, and reward and punishment classify adolescent social media users and non-users through logistic regression analysis.

**Findings**

**To What Measure Do Interpersonal Competence, Loneliness, Fear of Negative Evaluation, and Reward and Punishment Predict Social Media Addiction?**

This section first examines the relationship of the variables regarding social media use with social media addiction. The variables related to social media use were seen to
not show normal distribution, and the Spearman correlation analysis, a non-parametric statistical test, was used for relating the variables regarding social media use with social media addiction. In the analysis results, social media addiction is seen related with duration of daily social media use ($r = .47$), number of friends/followers ($r = .42$), and frequency of daily checks ($r = .38$) at a moderate level in a meaningful positive direction, and with number of daily checks ($r = .29$), number of social media accounts ($r = .26$), and duration of social media use (in years; $r = .25$) at a low level in a meaningful and positive direction. The regression model formed for the purpose of predicting social media addiction has not been included as the variables related to social media use do not show normal distribution and have a high level of inter-correlation.

In the analyses related to whether or not interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, and reward and punishment, firstly the relationship of these variables to social media addiction was investigated. Likewise, correlational analysis has been regarded as a prerequisite for regression analysis. Pearson’s product-moment correlation analysis was performed on the relationship of social media addiction with these variables. In the analysis results, social media addiction was determined to be related in a positive and meaningful direction with interpersonal competence ($r = .17$), loneliness ($r = .38$), fear of negative evaluation ($r = .44$), behavioral inhibition, ($r = .26$), and reward responsiveness ($r = .29$). Additionally, the relationships of drive ($r = .05$) and fun seeking ($r = .03$) with social media addiction were not determined to be at a meaningful level. The variables that were at a meaningful level with social media addiction in the results of the correlational analysis were included in the multiple regression analysis. Variables that were not significant at a meaningful level with social media addiction were not included in the multiple regression analysis. In other words, interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, behavioral inhibition, and reward responsiveness have each been included as predictive variables in the multiple regression analysis performed for predicting social media addiction. Likewise, when analyzing the correlation values related to these variables, they were seen appropriate for multiple regression analysis because they did not cause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicted Variable</th>
<th>Predictor Variables</th>
<th>$B$</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Media Addiction</td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.088</td>
<td>2.105</td>
<td>-0.517</td>
<td>0.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal Competence</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>3.585</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loneliness</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>3.939</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear of Negative Evaluation</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>5.616</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behavioral Inhibition</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>2.345</td>
<td>0.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reward Responsiveness</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>2.213</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$R^2 = .57$, $R_{adj}^2 = .33$

$R^2 = .32, F(5, 276) = 26.911, p < .001$. 

Table 1

*Findings Related to Predicting Social Media Addiction*
multicollinearity problem. Only drive and fun seeking have not been included in the analysis. The ENTER method was used in the multiple regression analysis. The analysis results related to predicting social media addiction are given in Table 1.

According to the multiple regression analysis results given in Table 1, interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, behavioral inhibition, and reward responsiveness predict social media addiction at a 33% level of significance ($R^2 = .33, p < .001$; $F_{(5, 276)} = 26.911, p < .001$). When analyzing social media addiction, the strongest contribution is seen from fear of negative evaluation. Respectively following fear of negative evaluation are loneliness, interpersonal competence, behavioral inhibition, and reward responsiveness. All of these predictive variables positively predict social media addiction.

**With Which Degree of Accuracy Do Interpersonal Competence, Loneliness, Fear of Negative Evaluation, Reward, and Punishment Classify Adolescent Social-Media Users and Non-Users?**

The degree of accuracy with which the variables of addiction classify adolescent social-media users/non-users has been analyzed using logistic regression analysis. Firstly, adolescent social-media users were coded as “1” and non-users as “0”. Afterwards, analysis was performed using the ENTER method. The $-2\text{log likelihood}$ ($-2\text{LL}$) was examined first. The $-2\text{LL}$ value is an index of model fit, and the maximum likelihood estimation shows how well it complies. A $-2\text{LL}$ value of “0” indicates perfect fit. In other words, the probability is “1” in such a case. Two values are calculated related to $-2\text{LL}$ in logistic regression analysis. The first of these values belongs to the baseline model. This value relates to the model that contains only constants. The second value of $-2\text{LL}$ belongs to the result model (the one formed by modeling the predictive variables). By comparing these two $-2\text{LL}$ values, progress in the source model can be evaluated from the predictive variables (Çokluk et al., 2012). The $-2\text{LL}$ value in the initial model in this research has been calculated as 545.041.

In logistic regression analysis, all tested subjects are classified in whichever category has more test subjects. In this situation, analysis classifies the test subjects using an arbitrary classification (Çokluk et al., 2012; Field, 2005). In the basic model of this research, all participants have been classified in the social media user group using a classification percentage of 66.2%. This percentage is recalculated by entering the predictor variables into the model and provides information related to the extent to which the predictor variables classify the predicted variable. The variables included in the initial model have been presented in Table 2.
The Exp(β) has been included in the initial model together with the constant term, its standard error, and the Wald statistic, its degree of freedom, and level of significance. Whether or not the variables included in the initial model provide a significant contribution to it can be investigated using the chi-square statistic ($c^2_{bo}$). The predictor variables that will be added to the calculated chi-square model ($c^2_{bo}$) in the initial model of logistic regression analysis explains the variables’ effect on the model’s predictive power. The significance of the calculated chi-square ($p < .05$) shows that adding the predictive variables to the model increases their predictive strength (Çokluk et al., 2012). In this research, the chi-square ($c^2_{bo}$) was determined as 77.983 ($p = .000$). This finding shows the predictive variables will improve the model’s predictive strength by being added to the model. Variables included in the initial model’s equation have been presented in Table 3.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables Included in the Initial Model’s Equation</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Exp (β)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>43.059</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The score values given in Table 3 and the $p$ values related to this value show whether or not the predictive variables provide a significant contribution to the model. In the case of the $c^2_{bo}$ statistic being significant, $c^2_{bo}$ shows all the variables included in the model that provide a contribution (Çokluk et al., 2012; Field, 2005). When analyzing the $p$ values belonging to the $c^2_{bo}$ statistic, the variables of interpersonal competence, loneliness, fear of negative evaluation, behavioral inhibition, drive, fun seeking, and reward responsiveness are seen to contribute significantly to the model ($p = .000$). The score values provide information about the predictor variables’ contribution to the model. According to this, the greatest contributor to the model is loneliness, followed respectively by fear of negative evaluation, interpersonal competence, behavioral inhibition, reward responsiveness, and drive.

Up to this stage, analyses have been addressed related only to the fixed terms that have been included in the initial model. In the subsequent analyses, findings
have been provided from the resulting model formed from the predictive variables included in the model. Firstly, conclusions from the omnibus test are examined in the result model. The omnibus test calculates the chi-square value in terms of the model, step, and block. The chi-square calculated for the model provides information about the difference between the result model and initial model, and the significance of the chi-square shows the effect of the predictor variables in the result model on classifying the predicted variables. The chi-square values for the model, step, and block in this research have been determined as 86.060 \((p = .000)\).

The \(-2LL\) value, calculated as 545.041 in the initial model, has been calculated as 458.980 in the result model. The \(-2LL\) difference between the initial model and the result model has been calculated as 545.041 – 458.980 = 86.061. The difference being significant shows the predictor variables included in the result model increase the model’s predictive strength. The Cox and Snell \(R^2\) value related to the result model has been calculated as .18. This finding shows that when the predictor variables are included in the model, 18% of the predicted variable (social media addiction) is explained.

The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (which assesses the consistency of the logistic regression model as a whole) being insignificant \((p > .05)\) shows the model has acceptable consistency. Cases where the test result is significant \((p < .05)\) signify the model to not show consistency through the research data. The chi-square value related to the Hosmer and Lemeshow test in this research was identified as 15.340 \((p > .05)\). The model has good compliance according to this. Findings related to the classification obtained in the results of the logistic regression model have been presented in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed Situation</th>
<th>Social Media Usage Status</th>
<th>Percentage of Correct Classification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Social Media Non-Users</td>
<td>Expected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Media Users</td>
<td>Expected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percentage of Correct Classifications</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 4, 67 of the 144 adolescent social media non-users were correctly classified and 77 incorrectly. Adolescents who do not use social media were correctly classified at a percentage of 46.5%. Of the 282 adolescent social media users, 250 were correctly classified and 32 were misclassified. Adolescents who use social media were correctly classified at a percentage of 88.3%. In the result model, adolescent social media users and non-users were classified correctly at a percentage of 74.4%.

One of the analyses that test the significance of logistic regression models is the Wald statistic, similar to the \(t\)-test in linear regression. In the Wald statistic, the Beta coefficient
is calculated for each predictor variable, and $p$ values are calculated related to whether or not this coefficient is significant (Çokluk et al., 2012). The Wald statistic and findings related to coefficient estimates for the result model are presented in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>Exp($\beta$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Competence</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>9.490</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>1.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loneliness</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>16.044</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of Negative Evaluation</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.062</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.804</td>
<td>.995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral Inhibition</td>
<td>-.220</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>23.395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive</td>
<td>-.138</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>8.372</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun Seeking</td>
<td>-.080</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>2.329</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward Responsiveness</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>26.192</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>.397</td>
<td>.888</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.655</td>
<td>1.487</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 6, a unit increase in the predictive variable of reward responsiveness causes a 29.2% increase ($|1-1.292|\times100$) in the odds of using social media (social media users have been coded as “1”), a unit increase in the variable of loneliness causes a 15.3% increase ($|1-1.153|\times100$) in the odds of using social media, a unit increase in the predictive variable of interpersonal competence causes a 2.1% increase ($|1-1.021|\times100$) in the odds of using social media, a unit increase in the predictive variable of drive causes a 12.9% increase ($|1-0.871|\times100$), and a unit increase in the predictive variable of behavioral inhibition causes a 19.8% increase in the odds of using social media ($|1-0.802|\times100$). These findings show the predictive variables of reward responsiveness, loneliness, interpersonal competence, drive, and behavioral inhibition to contribute significantly in classifying adolescent social media users and non-users.

**Results, Discussion, and Suggestions**

Social media addiction is positively related to all the variables on social media usage (social media usage time [daily], internet usage time [daily], number of social media friends/followers, frequency of checking social media accounts [daily], number of shares on social media [daily], number of social media accounts, and duration of social media use [years], respectively). When analyzing the criteria used in evaluating social media addiction, the overuse of social media appears as an important factor (Griffiths, 2013; van den Eijnden et al., 2016). Therefore, these variables related to social media usage can be associated with the amount of usage.

Fear of negative evaluation has been assessable as a significant risk factor in terms of social media addiction. Likewise, Casale, Fioravanti, Flett, and Hewitt (2014) have emphasized that being scared of being negatively evaluated causes individuals to turn to online environments as opposed to face-to-face communication. Similarly, Huan,
Ang, & Chye (2014) indicated that individuals with social anxiety have insufficient communication skills in terms of creating a positive impression. According to Huan et al. (2014), socially anxious individuals are oriented towards online environments where disclosing one’s real identity is not necessary, where the environment is less risky in terms of being negatively evaluated. Additionally, online environments provide socially anxious individuals with the opportunity to “be who they want” without disclosing their true identity. This situation causes individuals to spend more time in virtual environments (Savcı, 2017). The strongest effect on predicting social media addiction comes from the fear of negative evaluation. However, the fear of negative evaluation does not contribute to identifying adolescent social media users and non-users. This research finding has been assessable as an interesting result. Although fear of negative evaluation is a risk factor in terms of social media addiction, it does not classify social media using and non-using individuals. One cannot expect all adolescents who use social media to have a high degree of fear of negative evaluation. In other words, being a social media user cannot be explained through the fear of negative evaluation. In this context, the fear of negative evaluation being at a similar level in both the social media user group and the non-user group does not contribute to classifying individuals in the two groups. Consequently, considering the relationship of fear of negative evaluation with social media addiction rather than social media user/non-users may be more meaningful. In fact, the fear of negative evaluation increases technology addictions, which is a disorder (Savcı, 2017; Savci & Aysan 2017b).

The second most important variable affecting social media addiction in this study is loneliness. In this context, loneliness can be said to be an important risk factor in terms of social media addiction. The relationship of social media addiction with loneliness has been discussed multi-dimensionally in the literature. Some researchers have highlighted loneliness to be a risk factor in terms of social media addiction (Yu et al., 2016), some researchers have highlighted social media addiction as a risk factor in terms of loneliness (Savci & Aysan, 2017a), some researchers have emphasized social media addiction to not be related with loneliness (Baker & Oswald, 2010), and some researchers have emphasized social media usage to lessen loneliness (Jin & Park, 2013). Social media is seen to function as an alternative social environment to real ones. From feeling lonely in real social situations, individuals are guided toward online environments for the purpose of dealing with this (Teppers et al., 2014). Using online environments at a level that disrupts daily functionality causes addiction (Griffiths, 2013).

This research has determined interpersonal competence to significantly contribute to both social media addiction and foreseeing adolescent social media use and non-use. Interpersonal competence positively affects social media addiction and provides a contribution in favor of adolescents using social media when classifying adolescent social media use and non-use. Interpersonal competence, which is a desired state,
causes social media addiction, which is undesirable. Therefore this finding can be interpreted as an interesting result. When investigating the social skills profiles of adolescents who use social media, adolescents with low level social skills are emphasized as using social media as a means of coping and a tool for learning social skills (Mills, 2016; Tsitsika et al., 2014). Similarly, Caplan (2005) identified that students with low-level self-presentation skills prefer online social interactions to real social interactions. According to Caplan (2005), insufficiency in self-presentation skills can cause online environments to be used as a remedy.

In this research, reward and punishment are seen to provide critical contributions to predicting social media addiction and to classifying adolescent social media users and non-users. Accordingly, behavioral inhibition and reward responsiveness increase social media addiction, and in classifying adolescent social media use and non-use, reward responsiveness, behavioral inhibition, and drive provide contributions that favor adolescents who use social media. Social rewards provided directly and indirectly by social media cause individuals to develop sensitivity towards awards. Just as social awards in social media can be the positive feedback that comes directly to an individual, so too can the positive feedback an individual observes coming from others (Meshi et al., 2013). In this context, Ryan and Xenos (2011) emphasized that individuals who are sensitive social rewards are more likely to use social media.

Impulsiveness has been evaluated as a risk factor in terms of social media addiction (Wu, Cheung, Ku, & Hung, 2013; Savcı et al., 2017). This study did not seen drive affecting social media addiction. In classifying adolescent social media users and non-users, however, drive contributes favorably to social media use. When evaluated together with the second result of the research, drive can be said to cause social media use, yet cannot be said to effect addiction’s occurrence. Drive makes individuals more vulnerable to using the Internet and its derivatives (Meerkerk, van den Eijnden, Franken, & Garretsen, 2010). Similarly, Savci and Aysan (2016a) found that impulsiveness increases social media use.

This research, being developed on a non-clinical sample and using the convenient sampling method, has certain limitations in terms of the self-reporting type scales that were used. The results arrived at in this research can be supported though longitudinal, qualitative, and meta-analytical research. Furthermore, this study can be performed on a clinical sample.
Kaynakça/References


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