



THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL MEDIA ADDICTION, FAMILY LIFE SATISFACTION AND LONELINESS

SOSYAL MEDYA BAĞIMLILIĞI, AİLE YAŞAM DOYUMU VE YALNIZLIK İLİŞKİSİ

Fatma ÖZTAT¹ ●



ORCID: F.Ö.0000-0002-6988-7389

Corresponding author/Sorumlu yazar:

¹ Fatma Öztat

Selçuk University, Türkiye

E-mail/E-posta: fatma.oztat@selcuk.edu.tr

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Abstract

In this study, which aims to explain social media addiction in relation to family life satisfaction and loneliness, a face-to-face survey was conducted with 429 individuals aged 18 and over in Konya. During the analysis process, levels of social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness, as well as the associations of these variables with socio-demographic characteristics and social media usage patterns were evaluated. The findings indicate that participants' levels of social media addiction and loneliness were low, whereas their level of family life satisfaction was high. The level of social media addiction differed significantly according to participants' education, occupation, and living arrangement; in particular, addiction levels were found to be higher among students, those living in dormitories, and those living with housemates. Correlation analyses showed that social media addiction was negatively associated with family life satisfaction and positively associated with loneliness. In addition, a significant negative association was found among family life satisfaction and loneliness. In terms of social media platforms, the duration of Instagram use was particularly noteworthy, as it was positively associated with social media addiction and loneliness, but negatively associated with family life satisfaction.

Keywords: Loneliness, Family Life Satisfaction, Instagram, Social Media Addiction.

Öz

Sosyal medya bağımlılığını, aile yaşam doyumunu ve yalnızlık açısından ele almayı amaçlayan bu çalışmada Konya'da 18 yaş ve üzeri 429 kişiyle yüz yüze anket çalışması gerçekleştirilmiştir. Analiz sürecinde; sosyal medya bağımlılığı, aile yaşam doyumunu ve yalnızlık düzeyleri ile bu değişkenlerin sosyo-demografik özellikler ve sosyal medya kullanım örüntüleriyle ilişkisi değerlendirilmiştir. Bulgular, katılımcıların sosyal medya bağımlılığı ve yalnızlık düzeylerinin düşük, aile yaşam doyumunu düzeylerinin ise yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir. Sosyal medya bağımlılığı düzeyi; katılımcıların eğitim, meslek ve yaşam biçimine göre anlamlı farklılık göstermiş; özellikle öğrenciler, yurtdışı kalanlar ve ev arkadaşıyla yaşayanlarda bağımlılık düzeyinin daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Korelasyon analizleri, sosyal medya bağımlılığı ile aile yaşam doyumunu arasında negatif, sosyal medya bağımlılığı ile yalnızlık arasında ise pozitif yönlü anlamlı ilişkiler olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca aile yaşam doyumunu ile yalnızlık arasında da negatif yönlü anlamlı ilişki ölçülmüştür. Sosyal medya platformları açısından özellikle Instagram kullanım süresinin sosyal medya bağımlılığı ve yalnızlıkla pozitif, aile yaşam doyumunuyla negatif ilişkili olması dikkat çekicidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yalnızlık, Aile Yaşam Doyumu, Instagram, Sosyal Medya Bağımlılığı.



INTRODUCTION

The association between social media use and indicators of individual wellbeing has become one of the key research axes in recent literature. Life satisfaction is frequently used as a variable in these studies as the individual's cognitive evaluation within subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1985; Balcı & Güler, 2021). Meta-analytic findings synthesizing the associations among problematic social media use and mental health indicators show that problematic use may be positively associated with indicators of psychological distress and negatively associated with life satisfaction (Huang, 2022). Experimental and longitudinal studies indicate that limiting social media use may be associated with changes in levels of loneliness and depression (Hunt et al., 2018), and that especially passive use may be associated with a decline in subjective well-being over time (Verduyn et al., 2015; Kross et al., 2013). Quantitative studies conducted in the Turkish sample have also reported negative relationships among social media addiction and life satisfaction (Doyaroğlu & Noyan, 2023; Aldemir, 2026).

However, the literature indicates that the associations among social media and life satisfaction do not exhibit a unidirectional structure. It is stated that subjective well-being is associated with socio-demographic variables such as income; therefore, life satisfaction cannot be evaluated independently of social and economic contexts (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Diener et al., 2003). In the social media literature, it is also suggested that the associations between intensity of use, problematic use, and well-being indicators may differ depending on variables such as gender and age (Andreassen et al., 2017). This situation necessitates that, in studies on social media, variables such as duration of use, platform preference, and purposes of use should be considered together with demographic indicators such as gender, income, education, occupation, and living arrangement.

Loneliness, which can be positioned as another dimension that stands out in social media use, is defined as a subjective experience arising from the perceived discrepancy between the level of social relationships an individual desires and the level of associations they have (Peplau et al., 1982). With the widespread use of digital communication technologies, loneliness has begun to be re-discussed in the context of social media use, particularly among young and young adult samples. The "Internet paradox" approach (Kraut et al., 1998) emphasizes that the increase in opportunities for online interaction does not always strengthen social integration. In some cases, it is suggested that internet use may weaken face-to-face relationships and lead to a decrease in communication with family members, as well as an increase in depression and feelings of loneliness (Kraut et al., 1998). In parallel with this, Özdemir and Özyaydın (2025) also found a positive and significant relationship among social media addiction and loneliness. Within this framework, loneliness can be evaluated both because of social media use and as one of the motivations for its use, and it is positioned as a social indicator that cannot be ignored in studies on social media addiction and well-being.

It is known that social media may have a positive role in helping individuals who experience disadvantages in social life to hold on to life in certain respects (Kearns & Whitley, 2019; Öztat, 2023). Therefore, it should be considered that social media use may not always be positioned negatively in terms of life satisfaction. On the other hand, the decrease in face-to-face communication with the increase in social media use (Gülner & Öztat, 2020) and the transformation of social structure have become subjects of various discussions. In this process, the need has arisen to examine social media use from the perspective of the family, which is an important component of social structure, and to evaluate social media addiction in terms of family life satisfaction. However, both internationally and in Türkiye, the number of studies evaluating social media addiction in terms of family life satisfaction is quite limited. Based on this problem, this study reveals the associations between social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness through the results of field research conducted in Konya. Accordingly, the relationships between social media use, family life satisfaction, and loneliness are analyzed and discussed together with demographic variables and social media usage patterns. The results are considered important in terms of the family and are expected to contribute to the field in explaining the association between family life satisfaction and social media addiction.



LITERATURE REVIEW

The integration of internet technologies and social media platforms into the center of everyday life has led to significant changes in communication, self-presentation, relationship maintenance, and time-use practices. The constant accessibility and network-based structure of social media environments have made individuals' social interactions relatively independent of temporal and spatial limitations. The individual and societal effects of this transformation have been increasingly addressed through empirical research in recent years. Studies examining the association among social media usage and wellbeing across large samples indicate that there are significant relationships among social media usage and social indicators; however, these effects are sensitive to context and individual differences (Orben et al., 2019). These findings suggest that the impact of social media on social life cannot be addressed within a single-dimensional framework.

Forms of social media use characterized by increasing intensity and loss of control are discussed in the literature under the concepts of social media addiction. Social media addiction use is associated with addiction components such as withdrawal, conflict/impairment in functioning, and loss of control (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017). Systematic reviews on social media addiction indicate that the concept is positioned within the framework of behavioral addiction and is particularly examined in relation to mental health indicators among younger samples (Marino et al., 2018). It is stated that problematic social media use is significantly and positively associated with symptoms of depression and anxiety (Shannon et al., 2022).

Social media addiction is a multidimensional phenomenon that reflects not only the intensity of social media use but also the negative consequences of such use on individuals' daily lives. Recent research has shown that problematic social media use may have adverse effects on individuals' social relationships, academic performance, and overall well-being. In particular, the tendency for social media use to take precedence over offline responsibilities, contribute to the deterioration of social relationships, and negatively affect life satisfaction is considered among the key indicators of this phenomenon (Montag et al., 2024). However, it has also been suggested that the effects of social media use are not uniform across individuals and may vary depending on the purpose of use, patterns of use, and individual characteristics (Andersen et al., 2026). Therefore, social media addiction has emerged as an important area of research that should be evaluated not merely in terms of time spent using social media, but also about its effects on individuals' quality of life, social relationships, and subjective well-being.

The association among social media addiction and life satisfaction is one of the major areas of debate in social media literature. Various studies report that problematic social media usage is negatively associated with life satisfaction. In a study examining the relationship between Facebook addiction and life satisfaction, it was stated that as the level of addiction increases, life satisfaction decreases (Błachnio et al., 2016). Similarly, meta-analytic studies addressing the relationships among social media addiction and life satisfaction show that the general tendency is toward a negative correlation (Huang, 2022), and recent field studies support this finding (Chadha et al., 2025; Longstreet & Brooks, 2017). In contrast to many studies reporting a negative association among social media use and life satisfaction, Choi (2024) found that social media usage may indirectly affect life satisfaction positively through social support and social capital.

Life satisfaction is a general indicator of well-being that reflects individuals' overall evaluation of their lives; however, one of the most important domains shaping this evaluation is family life. The family serves a fundamental role in meeting individuals' emotional, social, and psychological needs; therefore, satisfaction with family life is considered an important component of overall quality of life. According to Zabriskie and Ward (2013), family life satisfaction is a subjective evaluation of the degree of satisfaction individuals derive from their relationships with family members and the overall functioning of family life. Family life satisfaction, which is known to be positively associated with family communication satisfaction, has been reported to be negatively correlated with social media use (Öztat, 2019). Family life satisfaction not only reflects the quality of intra-family relationships but is also closely associated with psychological well-being, life satisfaction, and social adjustment.



Therefore, family life satisfaction is regarded as an important variable that should be considered in understanding individuals' relationships with their social environment and their digital communication practices.

For the healthy and sustainable continuation of the functions assumed by the family in social life, studies on family life satisfaction are considered important. Various dimensions of family functioning are known to be positively associated with life satisfaction, indicating the presence of family-based well-being (Szcześniak & Tułeczka, 2020). Although numerous studies have examined the relationship between life satisfaction and social media use, family life satisfaction has received relatively limited attention in relation to social media and social media addiction (Gülner & Öztat, 2021). Considering that increasing internet use may reduce face-to-face communication within the family and lead to various social problems (Gülner & Öztat, 2020), there is a growing need to examine family life satisfaction in the context of social media use and especially social media addiction.

Loneliness, which has emerged as one of the prominent variables in explaining social media addiction, is defined as a subjective and negative emotional experience arising from a perceived discrepancy between an individual's existing social relationships and the social relationships he or she desires to have (Ma et al., 2019). In this respect, loneliness differs from solitude, which refers to the state of being alone, and from social isolation, which refers to an objective lack of social contact. In literature, loneliness is generally conceptualized as a multidimensional construct consisting of social, emotional, and existential dimensions. Social loneliness results from the absence of a broader social environment or a satisfying social network, whereas emotional loneliness arises from the absence of a close relationship characterized by intimacy and emotional attachment (van Tilburg, 2021). In recent years, loneliness has been increasingly recognized not only as an individual experience but also as a multidimensional social phenomenon closely associated with social relationships, quality of life, psychological well-being, and social participation. Therefore, loneliness is considered an important variable for understanding individuals' online and offline social interactions.

On the other hand, social media addiction is a variable that has consistently been found to be positively associated with loneliness. In a study conducted by Öztat and Gülner (2024), loneliness was reported to be positively correlated with YouTube use. Similarly, an empirical study conducted among university students found a positive and significant relationship between total social media addiction scores and total loneliness scores (Uyaroğlu et al., 2022). This finding may be explained through bidirectional mechanisms, such as individuals attempting to compensate for their social interaction needs in online environments or the possibility that intensive online interaction replaces face-to-face relationships and reinforces feelings of loneliness. In parallel, a meta-analytic synthesis of longitudinal studies suggests that there may be a bidirectional relationship between loneliness and problematic media use; in other words, loneliness may increase problematic media use, while problematic media use may, in turn, increase loneliness over time (Fam & Männikkö, 2025). Furthermore, dissatisfaction with family functioning has been shown to increase the risk of loneliness, and psychosocial resources such as hope may play a mediating role in the relationship between family functioning and loneliness (Yun et al., 2021). Within this framework, loneliness can be considered both an explanatory mechanism and a moderating risk factor in the relationship between social media addiction and family life satisfaction.

In light of the reviewed literature, the following hypotheses were formulated for this study:

Hypothesis 1: Participants' levels of social media addiction differ significantly according to their gender.

Hypothesis 2: Participants' levels of social media addiction differ significantly according to their education level.

Hypothesis 3: Participants' levels of social media addiction differ significantly according to their occupation.

Hypothesis 4: Participants' levels of social media addiction differ significantly according to their living arrangement.

Hypothesis 5: Participants' levels of family life satisfaction differ significantly according to their gender.



Hypothesis 6: Participants' levels of family life satisfaction differ significantly according to their education level.

Hypothesis 7: Participants' levels of family life satisfaction differ significantly according to their occupation.

Hypothesis 8: Participants' levels of family life satisfaction differ significantly according to their living arrangement.

Hypothesis 9: Participants' levels of loneliness differ significantly according to their gender.

Hypothesis 10: Participants' levels of loneliness differ significantly according to their education level.

Hypothesis 11: Participants' levels of loneliness differ significantly according to their occupation.

Hypothesis 12: Participants' levels of loneliness differ significantly according to their living arrangement.

Hypothesis 13: As participants' time spent on social media platforms increases, their level of social media addiction increases significantly.

Hypothesis 14: As participants' time spent on social media platforms increases, their level of family life satisfaction decreases significantly.

Hypothesis 15: As participants' time spent on social media platforms increases, their level of loneliness increases significantly.

Hypothesis 16: There is a significant relationship between social media usage purposes and the level of social media addiction.

Hypothesis 17: There is a significant relationship between social media usage purposes and the level of family life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 18: There is a significant relationship between social media usage purposes and the level of loneliness.

Hypothesis 19: There is a significant negative relationship between the level of social media addiction and the level of family life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 20: There is a significant positive relationship between the level of social media addiction and the level of loneliness.

Hypothesis 21: There is a significant negative relationship between the level of family life satisfaction and the level of loneliness.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted a quantitative research design to explain the possible relationships among social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness levels. A face-to-face survey was conducted with 429 participants aged 18 and over residing in Konya. Ethical approval for the field study was obtained from the Scientific Ethics Evaluation Committee of the Faculty of Communication at Selçuk University (Decision No. 2025/15-4, dated 17 July 2025). The survey was administered between 1 October 2025 and 31 December 2025. The data collected were analyzed using SPSS 25 software.

Research Objectives

The purpose of this study is to determine the levels of social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness among individuals aged 18 and over living in Konya; to examine the relationships among these variables; and to investigate whether these variables differ according to gender, education level, occupation, living arrangement, and social media use. In addition, the study examines the relationships between the duration and purposes of social media use and the levels of social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness. Accordingly, the study aims to provide a multidimensional perspective on the relationship among social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness.

Research Rationale

As social media use has become an integral part of daily life, it has become necessary to examine its effects on individuals' psychological and social well-being in greater detail. Although numerous studies have investigated the relationships between social media addiction, life satisfaction, and loneliness, research addressing social media addiction and loneliness within the context of family life satisfaction remains limited. Therefore, this study aims to fill an important gap in literature by examining social



media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness together. Furthermore, the findings are expected to contribute to a better understanding of the relationships among family communication, social media use habits, loneliness, and subjective well-being, while also providing a foundation for future research in the fields of family, communication, and social media.

Data Collection Instruments

The survey included scales and question groups related to social media addiction, family life satisfaction, loneliness, duration of social media platform use, purposes of social media use, and individual characteristics. To measure social media addiction, the Internet Addiction Scale originally developed by Young (1998) and later adapted into Turkish by Kutlu et al. (2016) was modified for the social media context. Family life satisfaction was measured using the Family Life Satisfaction Scale developed by Zabriskie and Ward (2013) and translated into Turkish by Öztat (2019). Participants' loneliness levels were measured using the Turkish adaptation by Doğan et al. (2011) of the short loneliness scale originally developed by Hays and DiMatteo (1987).

Population and Sample

The population of the study consists of individuals aged 18 and over residing in the central districts of Konya (Karatay, Meram, and Selçuklu). Based on voter statistics from the most recent nationwide election in Türkiye (the 2024 Turkish Local Elections), the total number of registered voters in these districts was 975,148 (YSK, retrieved 04.11.2025). Assuming a population size of 1,000,000, a confidence level of 95%, and a heterogeneous population, the required sample size was calculated as 384 participants (Saruhan & Özdemirci, 2020). To account for potential nonresponse, the sample size was increased to 400. Efforts were made to achieve a balanced distribution across gender, age, occupation, and education groups. Participation was entirely voluntary, with no obligation or coercion imposed on participants.

Limitations

The study has several limitations. First, since the research was conducted only with individuals aged 18 and over living in Konya, the findings cannot be generalized to the entire population of Türkiye. Second, because the study employed a cross-sectional design, relationships among variables can be identified, but causal inferences cannot be made. In addition, the use of self-report measures may have led participants to evaluate their social media use habits, family life satisfaction, and loneliness levels differently from their actual experiences. Furthermore, social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness were measured through specific scales and therefore may not fully capture all aspects of individuals' experiences related to these constructs. Future studies conducted in different regions, with larger samples and longitudinal research designs, may provide more comprehensive findings on the subject.

FINDINGS

In the study, normality tests, factor analysis and reliability values related to the datasets were presented. In the remainder of the study, social media addiction has been abbreviated as “SMA”, and family life satisfaction has been abbreviated as “FLS”. For the normality analysis of the SMA dataset, the Skewness (.359) and Kurtosis (-.535) values were examined. Since both values were found to fall within the range of -1 to +1, the dataset was considered to be normally distributed (Cevahir, 2020). Factor loadings, explained variance, and alpha coefficient were measured for the Social Media Addiction dataset. In parallel with the study of Kutlu et al. (2016), the dataset was found to have a single-factor structure. The factor loadings of the items in the dataset are moderate to high (.30–.60 = moderate, >.60 = high) (Büyüköztürk, 2002). The explained variance was measured as 53.47%. The Cronbach's alpha value of the scale was .883, and the KMO value was .902. The Bartlett test was found to be significant at $\chi^2 = 1933.464$ ($p < .05$).

For the FLS dataset, the Skewness (-.501) and Kurtosis (-.270) values were also found to be within the range of -1 to +1, indicating that the dataset exhibited a normal distribution. The family life satisfaction dataset appears to be unidimensional, consistent with Öztat (2019). The scale items have high factor loadings. The explained variance is 62.61%. The Cronbach's alpha value of the scale was .845, and the



KMO value was .827. The Bartlett test value was found to be statistically significant with $\chi^2 = 888.577$ ($p < .05$).

When the Skewness (1.020) and Kurtosis (.911) values of the Loneliness dataset were examined, the dataset was accepted as normally distributed because the slight elevation in the skewness value was considered negligible. When the factor loadings, explained variance, and alpha coefficient of the loneliness dataset are examined, it is found that the dataset is unidimensional, consistent with Doğan et al. (2011). The factor loadings are high. The explained variance is 58.11%. The Cronbach alpha value is .810, and the KMO value is .786. The Bartlett test value $\chi^2 = 1160.515$ ($p < .05$) was found to be significant.

Individual Characteristics of Participants

In order to determine the individual characteristics of the participants, questions regarding gender, age, income, education, occupation, and living arrangement were directed to the participants, and the analyses created based on the responses are presented in Table 1. Accordingly, 53.6% of the participants are female and 46.4% are male. Of the participants, 18.6% have primary school education, 8.2% have middle school education, 12.1% have high school education, 45.5% have undergraduate education, 12.4% have graduate education, and 3.3% have other education levels.

Among the participants, the most common occupation type is the private sector (31%), while the least common occupation is the other category (7.7%), which also includes those who are not working. When the living arrangements of the participants are examined, the most common type is nuclear family (61%), while the least common is the category “my parents are divorced or living separately” (1.4%).

Table 1. Individual characteristics of participants

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	230	53.6
	Male	199	46.4
Education	Primary	80	18.6
	Middle School	35	8.2
	High School	52	12.1
	Undergraduate	195	45.5
	Graduate	53	12.4
	Other	14	3.3
Occupation	Student	97	22.6
	Housewife	61	14.2
	Civil Servant	51	11.9
	Private Sector	133	31.0
	Retired	54	12.6
	Other	33	7.7
Living Style	Living Alone	46	10.7
	With Roommate	23	5.4
	Dormitory	42	9.8
	Nuclear Family	264	61.5
	Extended Family	48	11.2
	Parents Divorced/Separated	6	1.4

The central tendency statistics regarding the age and income levels of the participants are presented in Table 2. Accordingly, the mean age of the participants was measured as $\bar{X} = 39.64$. On the other hand, it is observed that the mean income level of the participants is $\bar{X} = 36312.03$ Turkish Lira.

Table 2. Mean age and income levels of participants

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	429	18	86	39.64	15.752
Income	429	0	380000	36312.03	40340.273

Levels of SMA, FLS and Loneliness of Participants

The levels of SMA, FLS, and loneliness of the participants were examined, and the results are presented in Table 3. This classification was based on the five-point Likert scale used in the study. Considering that the lowest score corresponds to 1 and the highest score corresponds to 5, and since an index was created, the measurement was made in intervals of .80 starting from 1 (scores between 1.00 and 1.80 indicate a very low level; 1.81–2.60 indicate a low level; 2.61–3.40 indicate a moderate level; 3.41–4.20 indicate a high level; and 4.21–5.00 indicate a very high level).

Accordingly, the mean level of SMA of the participants was calculated as $\bar{X} = 2.07$. This result shows that the average level of SMA of the participants is low. The mean level of FLS of the participants is $\bar{X} = 3.49$. The level of FLS of the participants is high. It is observed that the level of loneliness of the participants is low ($\bar{X} = 1.85$).

Table 3. Means related to data set levels

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SMA	429	1.00	4.33	2.0695	.69730
FLS	429	1.00	5.00	3.4867	.89731
Loneliness	429	1.00	4.50	1.8500	.68515

Descriptive Findings on Participants' Social Media Usage Levels

The average daily time participants spend on social media platforms was examined, and the results are presented in Table 4. Accordingly, Instagram ($\bar{X} = 79.33$) was the most frequently used platform by the participants. Instagram is followed by WhatsApp ($\bar{X} = 71.16$) in terms of average daily usage time. Participants use Facebook ($\bar{X} = 15.03$) the least on average.

Table 4. Average daily social media usage time (minutes)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Facebook	429	0	420	15.03	36.546
YouTube	429	0	600	52.97	74.352
Instagram	429	0	720	79.33	84.858
X (Twitter)	429	0	300	22.22	49.446
WhatsApp	429	0	720	71.16	89.266
TikTok	429	0	480	23.87	65.275

Participants' Social Media Usage Purposes

The purposes of participants' social media use were examined with central tendency statistics, and the results are presented in Table 5. Accordingly, participants mostly use social media to "follow current events" ($\bar{X} = 3.71$). It is observed that participants use social media the least for "making friends" ($\bar{X} = 1.83$).



Table 5. Social media usage purposes of participants

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Making Friends	429	1	5	1.83	1.108
Following Current Events	429	1	5	3.71	1.236
Playing Games	429	1	5	2.00	1.265
Self-Presentation	429	1	5	2.06	1.267
Following Friends	429	1	5	3.26	1.351
Passing Time	429	1	5	3.04	1.436
Business / Online Shopping	429	1	5	2.99	1.486

T-Test Results Regarding Gender and Data Sets

The levels of SMA, FLS, and loneliness of the participants were examined in terms of gender, and the results are presented in Table 6. Accordingly, the levels of SMA ($t = 1.495$, $p > .05$), FLS ($t = -1.116$, $p > .05$), and loneliness ($t = .776$, $p > .05$) of the participants do not differ significantly according to gender. Based on the findings, Hypotheses 1, 5 and 9 were rejected.

Table 6. T-Test results regarding gender and datasets

Variable	Group	N	Mean	t	Sig.
SMA	Female	230	2.12	1.495	.136
	Male	199	2.02		
FLS	Female	230	3.44	-1.116	.265
	Male	199	3.54		
Loneliness	Female	230	1.87	.776	.438
	Male	199	1.82		

ANOVA Results According to Participants' Education Levels

The levels of SMA, FLS, and loneliness of the participants were examined by one-way ANOVA in terms of education levels, and the results are presented in Table 7. Accordingly, the level of SMA differs significantly according to the education levels of the participants ($F = 7.739$, $p < 0.05$).

To determine between which education levels the difference occurs, a multiple comparison test was conducted, and it was found that the SMA level of undergraduate graduates ($\bar{X} = 2.25$) is significantly higher than that of primary school graduates ($\bar{X} = 1.72$). On the other hand, the FLS levels ($F = 1.254$, $p > 0.05$) and loneliness levels ($F = .761$, $p > 0.05$) of the participants do not differ significantly according to education levels. Based on the findings, Hypothesis 2 was supported, whereas Hypotheses 6 and 10 were rejected.



Table 7. ANOVA results according to education levels

	Group	N	Mean	F	Sig.
SMA	Primary	80	1.7156	7.739	.000*
	Middle School	35	1.9381		
	High School	52	2.0064		
	Undergraduate	195	2.2509		
	Graduate	53	2.0550		
	Other	14	2.1845		
FLS	Primary	80	3.4825	1.254	.283
	Middle School	35	3.6286		
	High School	52	3.6462		
	Undergraduate	195	3.3887		
	Graduate	53	3.5321		
	Other	14	3.7571		
Loneliness	Primary	80	1.8567	.761	.579
	Middle School	35	1.7821		
	High School	52	1.9014		
	Undergraduate	195	1.8859		
	Graduate	53	1.7689		
	Other	14	1.5982		

Note: * $p < .05$

ANOVA Results According to Participants' Occupations

The levels of SMA, FLS, and loneliness of the participants were examined by one-way ANOVA in terms of occupations, and the results are presented in Table 8. Accordingly, the level of SMA differs significantly according to the occupations of the participants ($F = 14.902$, $p < 0.05$).

To determine between which occupational groups the difference occurs, a multiple comparison test was conducted, and it was found that the SMA level of students ($\bar{X} = 2.50$) is significantly higher than that of housewives ($\bar{X} = 1.87$), civil servants ($\bar{X} = 1.99$), private sector employees ($\bar{X} = 2.00$), and retirees ($\bar{X} = 1.67$).

On the other hand, the SMA level of the “other” occupational group ($\bar{X} = 2.24$), which also includes non-working individuals, is significantly higher than that of retirees ($\bar{X} = 1.67$). The FLS levels of the participants do not differ significantly according to occupations ($F = 2.063$, $p > 0.05$). Although loneliness levels differ significantly across occupational groups ($F = 2.620$, $p < 0.05$), no significant difference among groups was found in the Tukey HSD multiple comparison test conducted afterwards. Based on the findings, Hypothesis 3 was accepted, Hypothesis 7 was rejected, and Hypothesis 11 was not supported by the post-hoc test.



Table 8. ANOVA results according to occupation

	Group	N	Mean	F	Sig.
SMA	Student	97	2.5009	14.902	.000*
	Housewife	61	1.8716		
	Civil Servant	51	1.9935		
	Private Sector	133	1.9962		
	Retired	54	1.6667		
	Other	33	2.2399		
FLS	Student	97	3.2577	2.063	.069
	Housewife	61	3.4328		
	Civil Servant	51	3.5176		
	Private Sector	133	3.6120		
	Retired	54	3.6074		
	Other	33	3.5091		
Loneliness	Student	97	2.0374	2.620	.024*
	Housewife	61	1.9119		
	Civil Servant	51	1.7132		
	Private Sector	133	1.7885		
	Retired	54	1.7183		
	Other	33	1.8598		

Note: *p < .05

ANOVA Results According to Participants' Living Arrangements

The levels of SMA, FLS, and loneliness of the participants were examined by one-way ANOVA according to living arrangements, and the results are presented in Table 9. Accordingly, the level of SMA differs significantly according to the living arrangements of the participants ($F = 7.350$, $p < 0.05$).

When the differences between groups were examined through multiple comparison analysis, it was found that individuals living with roommates ($\bar{X} = 2.41$) have significantly higher levels of SMA than those living in nuclear families ($\bar{X} = 1.97$). Similarly, participants staying in dormitories ($\bar{X} = 2.55$) have significantly higher levels of SMA than those living in nuclear families ($\bar{X} = 1.97$) and extended families ($= 1.93$).

Participants' FLS levels also differ significantly according to living arrangements ($F = 7.878$, $p < 0.05$). According to the multiple comparison test, individuals living alone ($\bar{X} = 2.98$), those staying in dormitories ($\bar{X} = 3.19$), and those whose parents are separated ($\bar{X} = 2.50$) have significantly lower levels of FLS compared to those living in nuclear families ($\bar{X} = 3.66$). On the other hand, the loneliness levels of the participants do not differ significantly according to living arrangements ($F = 1.675$, $p > 0.05$). Based on the findings in this section, Hypotheses 4 and 8 were accepted, whereas Hypothesis 12 was rejected.

Table 9. ANOVA Results According to Living Arrangement

	Group	N	Mean	F	Sig.
SMA	Living Alone	46	2.1594	7.350	.000*
	With Roommate	23	2.4094		
	Dormitory	42	2.5496		
	Nuclear Family	264	1.9675		
	Extended Family	48	1.9340		
	Parents Divorced/Separated	6	2.2917		
FLS	Living Alone	46	2.9783	7.878	.000*
	With Roommate	23	3.3739		
	Dormitory	42	3.1905		
	Nuclear Family	264	3.6568		
	Extended Family	48	3.4750		
	Parents Divorced/Separated	6	2.5000		
Loneliness	Living Alone	46	1.9647	1.675	.139
	With Roommate	23	1.8859		
	Dormitory	42	2.0268		
	Nuclear Family	264	1.8330		
	Extended Family	48	1.6536		
	Parents Divorced/Separated	6	1.9167		

Note: *p < .05

Relationship Between SMA, FLS, Loneliness Levels and Age and Income Levels

The relationships between participants’ SMA, FLS, and loneliness levels and their age and income levels were examined through correlation analysis, and the results are presented in Table 10. Accordingly, there is a significant negative relationship among participants’ SMA level and their age ($r = -.45^{**}$, $p < .01$). This moderate negative correlation is noteworthy, indicating that as the age of the participants increases, their level of SMA decreases.

On the other hand, no significant relationship was found between SMA and income level. Similarly, no significant relationship was found between FLS and age or income levels. When loneliness level is examined, it is seen that it has a negative correlation with age ($r = -.11^*$, $p < .05$). There is no significant relationship between loneliness level and income level.

Table 10. Correlation between data sets and age and income levels

	Age	Income
SMA	-.45**	-.08
FLS	.09	.08
Loneliness	-.11*	-.08

Note: *p < .05, **p < .01

Relationship Between Social Media Usage Levels and Data Set Levels

The relationships between participants’ SMA, FLS, and loneliness levels and their social media platform usage levels were examined through correlation analysis, and the results are presented in Table 11.

Accordingly, there are significant positive relationships between participants’ SMA levels and their use of YouTube ($r = .18^{**}$, $p < .01$), Instagram ($r = .41^{**}$, $p < .01$), X (Twitter) ($r = .15^{**}$, $p < .01$), and WhatsApp ($r = .24^{**}$, $p < .01$). The increase in the use of these platforms increases the level of SMA.



In particular, the moderate positive relationship between Instagram usage level and SMA is noteworthy. On the other hand, no significant relationship was found between Facebook use and SMA ($r = .06, p > .05$).

A significant negative relationship was found between FLS and Instagram usage ($r = -.10^*, p < .05$). No significant relationship was found between FLS and Facebook, X, and WhatsApp usage.

Similarly, there is a significant positive relationship between loneliness level and Instagram usage ($r = .11^*, p < .05$). The fact that Instagram use is negatively related to FLS and positively related to loneliness contributes to the consistency of the study. No significant relationship was found between loneliness and Facebook, YouTube, X, and WhatsApp usage. Based on these findings, Hypotheses 13, 14, and 15 were partially supported.

Table 11. Correlation between social media platform use and datasets

	Facebook	YouTube	Instagram	X	WhatsApp
SMA	.06	.18**	.41**	.15**	.24**
FLS	.03	-.04	-.10*	-.05	-.01
Loneliness	-.03	.06	.11*	-.02	.03

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Relationship Between Social Media Usage Purposes and Data Set Levels

The relationships between participants’ SMA, FLS, and loneliness levels and their purposes of social media use were examined through correlation analysis, and the results are presented in Table 12.

Accordingly, there are significant positive relationships between SMA level and using social media for making friends ($r = .24^{**}, p < .01$), following current events ($r = .18^{**}, p < .01$), playing games ($r = .31^{**}, p < .01$), self-presentation ($r = .28^{**}, p < .01$), following friends ($r = .26^{**}, p < .01$), passing time ($r = .36^{**}, p < .01$), and business/online shopping ($r = .35^{**}, p < .01$). It was observed that all purposes driving social media use may create a basis for SMA.

A significant negative correlation was found between FLS and using social media for playing games ($r = -.12^*, p < .01$), self-presentation ($r = -.13^{**}, p < .01$), and business/online shopping ($r = -.13^{**}, p < .01$). A significant negative relationship was found between loneliness and using social media for following current events ($r = -.11^*, p < .05$) and following friends ($r = -.10^*, p < .05$). Based on these findings, Hypothesis 16 was accepted, while Hypotheses 17 and 18 were partially supported.

Table 12. Correlation between social media usage purposes and data sets

	SMA	FLS	Loneliness
Making Friends	.24**	.06	.03
Following Current Events	.18**	.02	-.11*
Playing Games	.31**	-.12*	.04
Self-Presentation	.28**	-.13**	-.04
Following Friends	.26**	.02	-.10*
Passing Time	.36**	.01	-.08
Business / Online Shopping	.35**	-.13**	.09

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$



Relationship Between SMA, FLS, and Loneliness

The relationships between participants' SMA, FLS, and loneliness levels were examined through correlation analysis, and the results are presented in Table 13.

Accordingly, a significant negative relationship was found between SMA and FLS ($r = -.200^{**}$, $p < .01$). While an increase in FLS reduces SMA, an increase in SMA reduces FLS. On the other hand, a significant positive correlation was found between SMA and loneliness ($r = .254^{**}$, $p < .01$). An increase in loneliness increases SMA.

A significant negative relationship was also found between FLS and loneliness ($r = -.264^{**}$, $p < .01$). An increase in FLS reduces loneliness. The presence of a positive correlation between SMA and loneliness and a negative relationship between these variables and FLS contributes to the consistency of the study. Based on these findings, Hypotheses 19, 20, and 21 were accepted.

Tablo 13. Correlation between SMA, FLS and loneliness

	SMA	FLS	Loneliness
SMA	1		
FLS	-.200**	1	
Loneliness	.254**	-.264**	1

** $p < .01$

CONCLUSION

In this study, which focuses on the structure of social media usage that transforms social dynamics, the associations among social media addiction, family life satisfaction, and loneliness were examined. Within the scope of the study, in line with the data obtained from 429 participants aged 18 and over who participated in the face to face survey conducted in Konya, the levels of SMA, FLS, and loneliness, as well as the relationships of these variables with socio-demographic characteristics and social media usage patterns, were analyzed. The findings show that the participants have low levels of SMA and loneliness, but high levels of FLS. Participants mostly use Instagram and WhatsApp, and the purposes of following current events and following friends stand out in social media use.

The fact that the level of SMA was found to be low in this research is positioned in parallel with the views in the literature suggesting that increasing usage intensity may not always be associated with SMA. Especially in today's digitalized daily life, the widespread use of social media shows that not every use can be evaluated as problematic. Kardefelt-Winther (2014) emphasizes that in evaluating behavioral addictions, individuals' usage motivations and contextual conditions should be taken into account and states that motivations such as escapism play an important role in understanding problematic use. In this research, although the level of addiction is low, the presence of significant relationships between variables also supports this approach.

The differentiation of SMA according to participants' education and occupational levels, and the finding that addiction is higher especially among undergraduate graduates and students, is consistent with studies indicating that young and student groups are among the risk groups. Studies examining differences in problematic social media use by age show that adolescents and young adults are at higher risk (Stănculescu & Griffiths, 2022). Andreassen et al. (2017) demonstrated that social media addiction is more prevalent among younger age groups and tends to decrease as age increases. Similarly, in the large-scale study conducted by Bányai et al. (2017), it was found that a significant proportion of adolescents are at risk of problematic social media use, and younger users were emphasized as being more vulnerable to addiction. Within this framework, the finding of higher levels of social media addiction among students in the present study can be explained by younger individuals being more integrated into digital environments and by the central role of social media in their daily lives.



The findings regarding social media addiction and participants' living arrangements are noteworthy. The higher levels of social media addiction observed among individuals living with roommates or residing in dormitories point to a relationship between the nature of social support structures and digital orientation. The literature frequently emphasizes that social isolation or weak social ties may increase individuals' tendency to turn to digital environments. Primack et al. (2017) demonstrated that increased levels of social media use significantly raise the likelihood of perceived social isolation. In this context, individuals living outside the family environment may be inclined to use social media as a compensatory social space.

The variation in family life satisfaction according to living arrangements, with higher levels observed among individuals living in nuclear families, highlights the protective role of the family context. It is well established that intra-family interaction, emotional support, and a sense of belonging are key determinants of an individual's subjective well-being. Studies examining the relationship between family functioning and life satisfaction indicate that as the level of communication and support within the family increases, individuals' life satisfaction also rises. Botha and Booysen (2014) revealed that family functioning has a significant and positive effect on individuals' subjective well-being and life satisfaction. Within this framework, it is not surprising that individuals living in nuclear families in the present study exhibit higher levels of family life satisfaction.

The positive relationship between SMA and loneliness largely overlaps with the literature. Findings suggesting that social media may deepen loneliness rather than reduce it in some cases (Yang, 2016; Bonsaksen et al., 2023) are also supported in this study. The negative relationship between SMA and loneliness levels and FLS is one of the important and consistent results of the study. The increase in SMA as FLS decreases, or a reverse interaction, shows the relationship between family satisfaction and digital behaviors. The weakening of intra-family communication and the decrease in face-to-face interaction may increase individuals' orientation toward digital environments (Gülner & Öztat, 2020). The results regarding the negative significant relationship between SMA and FLS in this part of the study are consistent with similar studies (Taş, 2023; Topino et al., 2023).

When social platforms are examined in terms of SMA, it is seen that Instagram stands out in particular. In this study, although the duration of Instagram use and WhatsApp use are close to each other, SMA shows a higher level of positive correlation with Instagram use. This suggests that SMA cannot be evaluated solely in terms of platform preference, and that usage purposes and other factors should also be taken into account (Kırcaburun & Griffiths, 2019).

This study, which examines SMA in terms of FLS, loneliness levels, and socio-demographic variables, has certain limitations due to being cross-sectional and being conducted in the province of Konya. In future studies on SMA, it is recommended to focus on usage motivations rather than the duration of platform use. On the other hand, considering the variable of FLS as a more central variable in social media studies may broaden perspectives on SMA.



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