Problematic Internet and Facebook Use and Online Gaming among University Students: An Exploratory Study*

Paulo Dias¹, Irene Cadime¹,², José Antonio García del Castillo³, Juan Carlos Marzo³, Álvaro García del Castillo-López³, and Carmen López Sánchez⁴

¹ Catholic University of Portugal, Portugal
² Research Centre on Child Studies, Minho University, Portugal
³ University Miguel Hernández, Spain
⁴ University of Alicante, Spain

Advances in technology have introduced new challenges and issues for policymakers and researchers. There is some debate in the literature whether the Internet, Facebook, and online gaming addictions may be true addiction disorders or are all manifestations of a more general information technology addiction. The purpose of this study is to explore gender differences in problematic Internet and Facebook use and online gaming, and the independence of these phenomena. The study sample comprised 500 college students, who completed a sociodemographic questionnaire, the Internet Addiction Test, Bergen Facebook Addiction Scale, and Online Gaming Scale. Males had more problems related to online gaming, and more problematic Internet and Facebook use. A bifactor model with one general and three specific factors – problematic online gaming, problematic Internet use and problematic Facebook use – obtained the best fit to the data. However, the specific variance explained by the factors of problematic Internet and Facebook use was low, but high in the case of problematic online gaming. Therefore, problematic online gaming seems to have more distinctive characteristics than the other two types of behavioural addictions.

Key words: Problematic Internet use, Problematic Facebook use, Online gaming disorder, bifactor modelling, digital addictive behaviors

Corresponding author: pcdias@braga.ucp.pt

Acknowledgments. This work was supported by National Funds, provided through FCT (Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia) to the strategic projects FIL/UI0683/2019 and POCI-01-0145-FEDER-007562 and project UID/CED/00317/2019.

* Please cite as: Dias, P., Cadime, I., García del Castillo, J. A., Marzo, J. C., García del Castillo-López, A., & López Sánchez, C. (2020). Problematic Internet and Facebook Use and Online Gaming among University Students: An Exploratory Study. Psihologija, 53(4), 319–340. doi: https://doi.org/10.2298/PSI190129012D
Highlights:

- Males show more problematic Facebook and Internet use and online gaming than females.
- A bifactor model with a general factor and three specific factors had the best fit.
- Problematic online gaming has more distinctive features than the remaining addictions.

Over the past three decades, we have witnessed a significant increase in the use and popularity of the Internet, social networks and online gaming. The popularity and diversity of Web 2.0 tools have been accompanied by research on their problematic use, particularly among adolescents and young people (Boyd, 2008; Valkenburg & Peter, 2009). College students seem to be among the groups facing the greatest challenges in this area, given the developmental changes they undergo, while possessing high levels of freedom, autonomy, and ease of access to the Internet (Griffiths, 2014). Therefore, college students appear to have slightly higher rates of dependence on these tools compared to other populations (Brezing, Derevensky, & Potenza, 2010; Young, 2010). Although research on Internet addiction, as a behavioural addition, began in the 1990s (Griffiths, 1996; Young, 1998), research on its development in the years that followed was comparatively scarce. With the widespread use of social networks and Internet accessibility, empirical studies began multiplying only two decades after these first studies (Pontes & Patrão, 2014). Despite the potentialities of social networks and online gaming, such as the development of cognitive and motor skills and the improvement of socialization skills (e.g., Abreu, Karam, Goés, & Spritzer, 2008; Dias, Garcia del Castillo, & Castillo-López, 2017; Valkenburg & Peter, 2009), evidence of potential mental health risks for users has also started to emerge (Abreu, Karam, Goés, & Spritzer, 2008; Carras, Rooij, Mheen, Musci, Xue, & Mendelson, 2017; Hyun al., 2015; Irles & Gomis, 2015; Kruss & Griffiths, 2011; Lemos & Santana, 2012). However, research also suggests that the problematic use of these tools differs across groups, particularly across gender. Some studies suggest that young males present more problematic use of Internet and social networks (Dias, Cadime, Castillo-López, & García del Castillo, 2018; Durkee et al., 2012; Rehbein, Kleinmann, & Mößle, 2010), as well as of problematic gaming (Irles & Gomis, 2015; Mentzoni et al., 2011; Molde, Pallesen, Bartone, Hystad, & Johnsen, 2009) and problematic online gaming (Chen, Oliffe, & Kelly, 2018; Griffiths, 2014; Király, et al., 2014) than females. The comparison of addiction levels across different subgroups requires the use of measures that are invariant across these subgroups, so that the comparisons are meaningful and valid. Evidence of strong measurement
invariance (i.e., scalar invariance) across gender has been found in measures of Internet addiction (Chiu, Hong, & Chiu, 2013; Teo & Kam, 2014) and in measures of addiction to varied social networks (Lin, Broström, Nilsen, Griffiths, & Pakpour, 2017; Marino, Vieno, Altoè, & Spada, 2017). In particular, strong measurement invariance of the Bergen Facebook Addiction Scale (BFAS; Andreassen et al., 2012) has been found in Peruvian university students (Vallejos-Flores, Copez-Lonzoy, & Capa-Luque, 2018) and evidence of partial measurement invariance across gender for a unidimensional factor structure of the Internet Addiction Test (Young, 1998) has been found in Croatian high school students (Černja, Vejmelka, & Rajter, 2019). Regarding measures of online gaming addictions, some studies have provided evidence of strong measurement invariance (Király et al., 2019), whereas others have found only partial invariance across gender (Gaetan, Bonnet, Brejard, & Cury, 2014; de Palo et al., 2019).

Discussion about the classification of behavioural addictions as mental disorders is a contemporary debate (Petry, Zajac, & Ginley, 2018). The inclusion of the Internet gaming disorder in the research appendix of the Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM–5; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013) is generating an intense debate (e.g., King & Potenza, 2019; Király & Demetrovics, 2017; Király, Griffiths, & Demetrovics, 2015; van Rooij et al., 2018; Rumpf et al., 2018) and requires additional research and clinical knowledge (Gentile et al., 2017; Müller et al., 2015; Petry & O’Brien, 2013; Petry, Zajac, & Ginley, 2018; Potenza, 2014).

Although these conditions refer to different concepts and nosological entities (e.g., Rehbein & Mößle, 2013), several studies have indicated a relationship between the problematic use of technologies, Internet and online gaming, among both adolescents (Király et al., 2014) and adults (Andreassen et al., 2016; Nam, 2017; Sigerson, Li, Cheung, & Cheng, 2017). A common factor underlying these addictions can account for the high correlations observed in these studies. Based on this idea and on Billieux’s model of cyber addictions (2012), Sigerson et al. (2017) tested the existence of a common factor – an information technology addiction – that explained the similar risk factors and symptoms among Internet addiction, Internet gaming disorder, Facebook addiction and smartphone addiction, although they have specific characteristics. Their results provided evidence that a common latent factor accounted for the variance observed in measures of these addictions and also suggested that this underlying factor is more associated to other behavioural addictions, such as problematic gambling, than to substance-related addictions. These claims seem to support the cognitive-behavioural model of Davies (2001), in which the author suggests a distinction between a specific and a generalized pathological Internet use. Specific symptoms are related to the use of the Internet for particular functions, such as the problematic use of online sexual materials,
online stock trading or gambling. The generalized use describes a broader and more global set of behaviours, such as the overuse of Internet, wasting time without purpose online, among other social aspects of the Internet. Despite some empirically support provided by Caplan (2010), this model did not gather much support in the literature. In another perspective, Billieux (2012) suggested a spectrum of related disorders, yet independent. These claims were reinforced in recent studies from Starcevic and Billieux (2017) that led authors to reject the idea of an umbrella term for “Internet addiction”, once it overlooks important differences among the various addictive online activities. These authors argue that, despite the relationships between entities, they should be acknowledged as distinct. A view that, in some way, reinforces the APA’s choice to include “Internet Gaming Disorder” as an independent disorder in DSM–5, instead of including it within a broader disorder of Internet addiction or similar (Griffiths, Kuss, Billieux, & Pontes, 2016).

The present study has as a general objective to study the phenomena of problematic online gaming and problematic Internet and Facebook use among Portuguese college students. As these students are one of the most at risk populations, the results of the study may improve the understanding of the phenomenon and provide clues to its prevention. The first specific objective was to explore differences in problematic Internet and Facebook use and online gaming as a function of gender. Considering the results of the previously indicated studies, it is expected that males exhibit the highest levels of problematic Internet and Facebook use and online gaming. In order to allow meaningful comparison between groups, the invariance of measures used to assess the constructs was explored. The second specific objective was to explore whether problematic Internet and Facebook use and online gaming were independent conditions or manifestations of a common, general, latent factor (e.g., Sigerson et al., 2017; Starcevic & Billieux, 2017).

**Method**

**Participants**

The participants were 500 college students attending undergraduate and master’s courses at universities in northern Portugal. Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the sample. Most students were female and the majority attended undergraduate courses. Their ages ranged between 18 and 38 years ($M = 21.93$ years, $SD = 3.37$ years). The students were distributed across 14 study areas (Table 1), and 161 of them failed to pass the grade at least once throughout their academic years. The mean academic grades obtained by participants in the immediately preceding semester was 14.86 ($SD = 1.67$) and ranged from 10.00 to 19.70 (on a scale ranging between 0 and 20).
Table 1
Characteristics of the participants

| Variable                  | N (%)     |
|---------------------------|-----------|
| Sex                       |           |
| Male                      | 186 (37.2) |
| Female                    | 314 (62.8) |
| Age                       |           |
| ≤ 20 years                | 176 (35.8) |
| Between 21 and 30         | 295 (60.1) |
| ≥ 31 years                | 19 (3.9)   |
| Level                     |           |
| Bachelor                  | 353 (70.6) |
| Master                    | 147 (29.4) |
| School failure            |           |
| No                        | 335 (67.5) |
| Yes                       | 161 (32.5) |
| Area of studies           |           |
| Nursing                   | 38 (7.6)  |
| Psychology                | 113 (22.6) |
| Biomedical engineering    | 15 (3.0)  |
| Material engineering      | 20 (4.0)  |
| Law                       | 19 (3.8)  |
| Communication Sciences    | 52 (10.4) |
| Theology                  | 35 (7.0)  |
| Tourism                   | 48 (9.6)  |
| Public administration     | 15 (3.0)  |
| Architecture              | 23 (4.6)  |
| Physiotherapy             | 21 (4.2)  |
| Economics                 | 53 (10.6) |
| Social Service            | 38 (7.6)  |
| Philosophy                | 10 (2.0)  |

Instruments

Sociodemographic Instrument. A sociodemographic instrument was used to collect data about age, gender, university, academic degree and year, academic course, grades, and the number of course failures.

Online Gaming Scale (Garcia-del-Castillo, 2016). Developed based on the Griffiths model of addictions (2011), this instrument has 14 items that evaluate the time dedicated to online gaming (e.g., “I spend too much time playing”), gaming interference in significant aspects of everyday life (e.g., “I have problems with my parents or friends because I am playing for a long time”), and the feeling of malaise when not playing (e.g., “If I want to play but I can’t at that moment, I get nervous and agitated”). The items are answered on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (never) to 7 (always). The higher the scores, the greater the levels of problematic online gaming are. In the present sample, the Cronbach’s alpha was .97.
Internet Addiction Test (IAT, Young, 1998). This instrument contains 20 items answered on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 (rarely) to 5 (always), to assess the degree of problematic Internet use (PIU). The IAT is one of the instruments most used in this field and has been adapted for the Portuguese population with robust evidence of validity and internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$; Pontes, Patrão, & Griffiths, 2014). In the present sample, the Cronbach’s alpha was .95. The degree of PIU is considered normal when the total score is between 0 and 30 points; mild when the score is between 31 and 49 points; moderate when the score is between 50 and 79 points; and severe when the score exceeds 80 points (Young, 1998).

Bergen Facebook Addiction Scale (BFAS; Andraessen et al., 2012). The BFAS was used to evaluate problematic Facebook use. This scale has 6 items that evaluate the components of salience (i.e., “You spend a lot of time thinking about Facebook or planning how to use it”), tolerance (i.e., “You feel an urge to use Facebook more and more”), mood modification (i.e., “You use Facebook in order to forget about personal problems”), relapse (i.e., “You have tried to cut down on the use of Facebook without success”), withdrawal (i.e., “You become restless or troubled if you are prohibited from using Facebook”), and conflict (i.e., “You use Facebook so much that it has had a negative impact on your job/studies”) that derive from Griffith’s addiction model (2011). The higher the scores, the greater the levels of problematic Facebook use are. This instrument was adapted for the Portuguese population by Pontes, Andreassen, and Griffiths (2016) and presented with robust evidence of validity and a high internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$). In the present sample, the Cronbach’s alpha was .90.

Procedure

Authorization was obtained from the authors to use the instruments and from the directors of high education institutions units for data collection. The sampling process was non-probabilistic, by convenience, particularly because of geographical proximity, and it was performed in institutions in northern Portugal. The collection was completed during normal school hours in a classroom context at a time agreed upon with professors of the courses. The objectives of the study were presented, and the anonymity and confidentiality of the data were ensured. Participants were only allowed to participate in the study after signing informed consent.

Data Analysis

Univariate and multivariate normality of items were inspected using the MVN package for R (Korkmaz, Goksuluk, & Zararsiz, 2014). For univariate normality, skewness and kurtosis for each item were computed. Skewness values below |2| and kurtosis values below |7| are considered acceptable (West, Finch, & Curran, 1995). Multivariate normality was assessed by computing Mardia’s multivariate skewness and kurtosis statistics. The items’ skewness ranged between -0.201 and 2.257, but only five items of the online gaming measure exceeded the reference value of 2. Kurtosis was below 7 for all items, thus suggesting no violation of univariate normality. However, Mardia’s tests suggested violations to the multivariate normality ($p < .001$). Analyses were conducted with Mplus, version 7 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012). The maximum likelihood estimation with robust standard errors (MLR; Yuan & Bentler, 2000) was used, as it accounts for deviations from normality (Li, 2016). To account for missing data, the full information maximum likelihood (FIML) method was used. FIML uses all the data available to estimate the model, without imputing data or removing cases from the analysis (Peeters, Zondervan-Zwijnenburg, Vink, & van de Schoot, 2015).
Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to test the invariance of the factor structure across males and females, following the guidelines indicated by Byrne (2012). A one-factor structure was tested for each measure, given that this factor structure has been consistently found in previous studies (Garcia-del-Castillo, 2016; Pontes, Andreassen, & Griffiths, 2016; Pontes, Patrão, & Griffiths, 2014). To assess the global fit of the tested models, the following criteria were used: the chi-square ($\chi^2$) values, the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Model fit was considered acceptable if CFI and TLI values were higher than .90, RMSEA lower than .05 and SRMR lower than .10 (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003). 

First, each measurement model was fitted separately for males and females. In case of poor fit, the modification indices (Lagrange multiplier tests) were examined and changes in the models were introduced to achieve an acceptable fit. Configural, metric and scalar invariance were then tested in three successive models. In the configural model, all factor loadings and intercepts were freely estimated in both groups. In a second model metric invariance was assessed, where the factor loadings were constrained but the intercepts were freely estimated in each group. Finally, in a third model, scalar invariance was tested, where loadings and intercepts were constrained. For purposes of model identification, factor means were constrained to zero and factor variances were constrained to one, given that the factor loadings were all estimated. Evidence for the invariance of the model across samples is achieved when the constraint of parameters performed in testing the subsequent models does not worsen the fit indices. To perform this comparison, the Satorra–Bentler scaled chi-square difference test ($\Delta \chi^2$), the difference in CFI ($\Delta$CFI) and the difference in RMSEA ($\Delta$RMSEA) were calculated. Values of $\Delta$CFI equal to or lower than .01 and values of $\Delta$RMSEA equal to or lower than .015 indicate that the hypothesis of invariance should not be rejected (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002) intercepts, and residual variances. Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) was also used. The model with the lowest BIC value is considered the most adequate. After we established the invariance of the factor structure, differences in the latent means between males and females were calculated. For purposes of model identification, the latent means of the first group (males) were constrained to zero, and the latent means of the second group (females) were freely estimated and then compared by means of a $z$-test. Results were considered statistically significant when $p < .05$.

In a second step, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the independence of the three constructs: symptoms of online gaming disorder, PIU and problematic Facebook use. Model fit was assessed using the same criteria as in invariance analysis.

**Results**

**Invariance and Gender Differences**

Regarding problematic online gaming, the fit of the model was inadequate both for males and females (see Table A in Appendix). The inspection of the Lagrange multiplier tests suggested that allowing the estimation of three error covariances would improve model fit in both groups. Regarding PIU, the fit of the model was also inadequate both for males and females (see Table A in Appendix). The Lagrange multiplier tests also suggested that the estimation of ten error covariances would lead to an improvement in model fit and this was found for both groups. Allowing the estimation of these covariances led to an
acceptable model fit both for males and females (see Table 2). For both measures – problematic online gaming and PIU – all factor loadings for unidimensional models were significant and higher than .35, in both groups, whether error covariances were estimated or not. Thus, the results support the unidimensional structure for both measures. Given that the models with error covariances had a better fit, these were used for measurement invariance testing. Regarding problematic Facebook use, the model fit was adequate in both groups, as can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2 also presents the results for measure invariance between males and females in each of the three measures. Configural invariance model fit of the online gaming and PIU measures was adequate after allowing the estimation of error covariances, suggested by the examination of the Lagrange multiplier tests. The fit indices for the metric and scalar invariance models were also adequate. Although some of the $\Delta \chi^2$ were significant, $\Delta$CFI and $\Delta$RMSEA did not exceed the reference values, indicating that the metric invariance models fitted as well as the configural invariance models and that the scalar invariance models fitted as well as the metric invariance models. The BIC for the scalar models was also lower than that obtained for the configural and metric models. Therefore, evidence of strong invariance was achieved for both measures.

Regarding problematic Facebook use, the metric invariance model of the instrument fitted as well as the configural model, but the $\Delta$CFI and $\Delta$RMSEA exceeded the reference values when comparing the metric and the scalar invariance model. The examination of the Lagrange Multiplier tests suggested that one intercept was not invariant. The free estimation of this intercept in each group lead to a good model fit (see model 3 in Table 2). Therefore, this model was taken as the final model to conduct latent means comparisons.

The comparison of the latent means indicated that the females’ sample had lower scores in problematic online gaming ($\Delta M = -.267, p = .027$), PIU ($\Delta M = -.256, p = .009$), and problematic Facebook use ($\Delta M = -.246, p = .018$).

---

2 Table A in the appendix shows the results of measurement invariance testing without the estimation of error covariances. Regardless of the poorer fit, the results are similar to the ones obtained with the estimation of these covariances, which suggests that these do not impact the main findings.
Table 2
Measurement invariance between males and females

| Model                               | MLR $\chi^2$ ($df$) | CFI   | TLI   | RMSEA  | 90% CI RMSEA | SRMR  | BIC        | $\Delta S B - \chi^2$ ($df$) | $\Delta CFI$ | $\Delta RMSEA$ |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------|-------|-------|--------|--------------|-------|------------|--------------------------------|--------------|----------------|
| **Problematic online gaming**       |                      |       |       |        |              |       |            |                                |              |                |
| Males                              | 138.08 (74)***       | .942  | .929  | .068   | [.050, .086] | .032  | 6782.268   | -                              | -            | -              |
| Females                            | 191.28 (74)***       | .910  | .890  | .071   | [.059, .084] | .045  | 10480.852  | -                              | -            | -              |
| Model 0: Configural                 | 335.64 (148)***      | .923  | .905  | .071   | [.061, .081] | .040  | 17328.554  | -                              | -            | -              |
| Model 1: Metric                    | 363.60 (162)***      | .917  | .907  | .071   | [.061, .080] | .097  | 17292.944  | 26.778 (14)*                   | .006         | .000           |
| Model 2: Scalar                    | 393.91 (176)***      | .910  | .907  | .070   | [.061, .080] | .090  | 17234.341  | 28.733 (14)*                   | .007         | .001           |
| **Problematic internet use**        |                      |       |       |        |              |       |            |                                |              |                |
| Males                              | 324.54 (160)***      | .901  | .882  | .074   | [.063, .086] | .068  | 10040.907  | -                              | -            | -              |
| Females                            | 473.50 (160)***      | .901  | .882  | .079   | [.071, .087] | .058  | 16005.312  | -                              | -            | -              |
| Model 0: Configural                 | 793.23 (320)***      | .901  | .883  | .077   | [.070, .084] | .062  | 26148.004  | -                              | -            | -              |
| Model 1: Metric                    | 818.33 (340)***      | .900  | .889  | .075   | [.068, .082] | .065  | 26037.541  | 14.866 (20)                   | .001         | .002           |
| Model 2: Scalar                    | 871.52 (360)***      | .894  | .888  | .075   | [.069, .082] | .073  | 25968.465  | 54.641 (20)***                  | .006         | .000           |
| **Problematic Facebook use**        |                      |       |       |        |              |       |            |                                |              |                |
| Males                              | 10.33 (9)            | .996  | .994  | .028   | [.000, .090] | .021  | 2682.529   | -                              | -            | -              |
| Females                            | 12.58 (9)            | .995  | .991  | .036   | [.000, .078] | .019  | 4284.767   | -                              | -            | -              |
| Model 0: Configural                 | 22.89 (18)           | .995  | .992  | .033   | [.000, .069] | .020  | 6993.470   | -                              | -            | -              |
| Model 1: Metric                    | 27.02 (24)           | .997  | .996  | .022   | [.000, .058] | .033  | 6959.578   | 3.115 (6)                     | .002         | .011           |
| Model 2: Scalar                    | 44.11 (30)*          | .986  | .986  | .043   | [.006, .069] | .054  | 6942.597   | 20.611 (6)*                    | .011         | .021           |
| Model 3: Partial Scalar            | 34.32 (29)           | .995  | .995  | .027   | [.000, .058] | .058  | 6936.404   | 7.844 (5)                     | .002         | .005           |

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; $\Delta S B - \chi^2$ = Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test. *Models for the problematic online gaming measure included the estimation of three error covariances (Item 1 with Item 2; Item 4 with Item 5; Item 13 with Item 14); b Models for the problematic Internet use measure included the estimation of ten error covariances (Item 20 with Item 19; Item 19 with Item 3; Item 19 with Item 6; Item 7 with Item 3; Item 18 with Item 17; Item 7 with Item 1; Item 16 with Item 10; Item 20 with Item 7; Item 17 with Item 16; Item 8 with Item 6); c Intercept of item 3 freely estimated. *$p < .05$; ***$p < .001$. 
Relationships between Problematic Internet and Facebook Use and Online Gaming

To investigate the relationships and the relative independence of the three constructs, a series of structural equation models was considered. In all models, the items of each measure were used as observed indicators of the factors and all included the estimation of the error covariances identified in invariance analyses\(^3\). We started by testing a hierarchical model in which problematic use was a second-order factor and problematic Internet and Facebook use and online gaming were the first-order factors. However, the standardized coefficient of the second-order factor on PIU was slightly higher than 1, which indicated the presence of a Heywood case. This model was therefore abandoned and instead, a correlated three-factor model, which is mathematically equivalent to the previous model, was tested. The correlated three-factor model presented an adequate fit (see Table 3). However, the correlation between PIU and problematic Facebook use was high (see Figure 1). Therefore, the second model was tested, in which the items of these two measures were combined to form a single factor of problematic use, whereas online gaming was taken as the second factor. This correlated two-factor structure also presented an adequate fit, but the BIC was higher than the one obtained for the correlated three-factor model (see Table 3). Next, a one-factor model, in which all items were combined into a single factor was tested. As shown in Table 3, this model did not fit the data.

Table 3
Model fit for the testing of independence of problematic online gaming, Internet, and Facebook use

| Model                              | MLR $\chi^2$ (df) | CFI  | TLI  | RMSEA  | 90% CI RMSEA | SRMR | BIC           |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|------|------|---------|---------------|------|---------------|
| Model 1: Correlated three-factor   | 1823.82 (724)***  | .903 | .896 | .055    | [.052, .058]  | .048 | 49357.301     |
| model                              |                   |      |      |         |               |      |               |
| Model 2: Correlated two-factor     | 2014.36 (726)***  | .887 | .878 | .060    | [.056, .063]  | .051 | 49621.855     |
| model                              |                   |      |      |         |               |      |               |
| Model 3: One-factor model          | 4807.19 (727)***  | .641 | .615 | .106    | [.103, .109]  | .136 | 53712.596     |
| Model 4: Bifactor model            | 1476.43 (687)***  | .931 | .921 | .048    | [.045, .051]  | .035 | 49104.249     |

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI=Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion. *** $p < .001$.\(^3\)

Results in Table 3 are for the models including the estimation of error covariances. The results for the same models without the inclusion of the estimation of these parameters are presented in Table B of the appendix and suggest similar conclusions.
Finally, to test if the data were consistent both with a single common factor and multidimensional latent structures, a bifactor model was tested, in which responses were accounted for both by a general factor of problematic use and specific factors (more detailed information on the potentialities of bifactor models can be found in Reise, 2012). This model obtained the best fit and the lowest BIC of all models. The standardized parameters of this model are presented in Figure 2. As depicted in Figure 2, the standardized regression coefficients of the general factor were high. The factor loadings of the specific factor of online gaming were also high and statistically significant \((p < .05)\), ranging between .61 and .79. Factor loadings for the specific factor of problematic Facebook use ranged between .18 and .42 and were also statistically significant \((p < .05)\). However, the regression coefficients of the items 3, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 18, 19, and 20 of IAT on the specific factor of PIU were negative or close to zero (non-significant)\(^4\). Table 4 presents additional indices for the bifactor model, calculated using the tool provided by Dueber (2017). The explained common variance (ECV) was high not only for the general factor, but also for the specific factor of problematic online gaming. However, the ECV for the two remaining specific factors was low. The values of the omega hierarchical for the specific factors, which indicate the proportion of variance after controlling for the variability attributed to the general factor (Dueber, 2017), reinforce these findings (see Table 4). The values of the reliability index \(H\), which is an indicator of how well a latent variable is defined and for which minimum values of .80 are recommended (Hancock, & Mueller, 2001), also suggest that only problematic online gaming is a well-defined specific factor.

Table 4

| Bifactor model indices | ECV | Omega | Omega H | H |
|------------------------|-----|-------|---------|---|
| General Factor         | .615| .978  | .814    | .970 |
| Problematic online gaming | .727| .970  | .707    | .938 |
| Problematic Internet use | .140| .957  | .050    | .665 |
| Problematic Facebook use | .220| .905  | .192    | .491 |

Note. ECV = explained common variance; Omega H = Omega hierarchical.

---

\(^4\) Similar results were obtained in the models without the estimation of error covariances.
The overall objective of this study was to study problematic online gaming, Internet and Facebook use among students in higher education. As this population is one of the populations at highest risk of addiction (Brezing, Derevensky, & Potenza, 2010; Griffiths, 2014; Young, 2010; Wittek et al., 2016), studies using higher education students are useful for deepening knowledge of an emerging reality for which gaps in research remain and divergent results have been obtained. Although there is some research in the Portuguese context with young populations (Dias et al., 2017; Dias et al., 2018; Pontes, Andreassen, & Griffiths, 2016; Pontes, Patrão, & Griffiths, 2014), studies clarifying the interdependence of possible behavioural addictions are scarce.
The first goal of this study was to explore the existence of gender differences in problematic online gaming, Facebook, and Internet use. The results indicated gender invariance in the constructs as measured by the instruments. However, contrarily to the study by Vallejos-Flores, Copez-Lonzoy, and Capa-Luque (2018), in which full measurement invariance across gender was found for the BFAS, we found that the intercept of one item (“Used Facebook in order to forget about personal problems”) was non-invariant and higher in the females’ group. This item implies that Facebook can be used as a coping strategy (Kardefelt-Winther, 2014a), i.e., is a way to manage stress, but coping strategies used by males and females are typically different. Moreover, mean differences results are consistent with the international literature, namely, by showing excessive use of online gaming and a more problematic use of the Internet and Facebook among young males (Andreassen et al., 2016; Dias et al., 2018; Irles & Gomis, 2015; King & Potenza, 2019; Király et al., 2014; Rehbein et al., 2010). As with other addictions, many people use online gaming Internet and Facebook regularly but males tend to show more engagement in persistent use and a higher risk of addiction.

The second goal of this study concerned the independence between problematic online gaming, Internet and Facebook use. Some authors have raised the issue whether there is an underlying factor common to several possible behavioural addictions (Sigerson et al., 2017), as they all encompass common components such as mood modification, withdrawal symptoms or conflict with other occupations (Griffiths, 2005; Kim & Hodgins, 2018). Revision studies point out inconclusive data, as well as terminological and methodological issues to be improved (Petry, Zajac, & Ginley, 2018). The results of our study suggest that a general factor of problematic use – “information technology addiction” or “digital addiction” – seems to account for the communality between items in the measurement instruments and that there were also three domain specific factors – problematic online gaming, Internet and Facebook use – that account for specific variance above and beyond the more general factor. Therefore, we can assume that these are different constructs and nosological entities with distinctive characteristics (e.g., Rehbein & Mößle, 2013), although they all encompass the previously referred common components. These results are consistent with research that suggests that a common underlying factor permeates the results obtained in measures that assess these types of behavioural addictions (Sigerson et al., 2017), but also supports the claims of others that state that these addictions have specific characteristics and therefore should be clearly acknowledged as distinct (Davis, 2001; Starcevic & Billieux, 2017). Our results suggest that this is particularly the case of problematic online gaming, which seems to have distinctive characteristics. On the contrary, the results for PIU and problematic Facebook use suggest that these behaviours are more dependent on a general factor of information technology addiction.

However, some limitations of this study must be considered. The first is the use of a convenience sample, particularly limited to the north of Portugal, which limits the generalization of the findings. The sampling technique also led
to a second limitation with almost 2/3 of the sample being composed of females. This imbalance in our sample echoes the gender differences in higher education in Portugal, but once again limits the generalization. Future studies should take this issue into account and include a more balanced sample.

**Conclusions**

The present study confirmed gender differences in relation to online gaming, PIU, and problematic Facebook use and found that the three constructs although conceptually different could be related to the general factor of problematic use. To summarize, these findings reinforce the need to develop focused research and specific measures to explore different conditions related to digital technology-based behaviors (King & Potenza, 2019; Griffits & Kuss, 2017).

The results nonetheless support the importance of adequate prevention through either educational policies that favour the development of social and emotional skills or digital literacy. Although pilot projects are emerging, particularly among younger people (Joo & Park, 2010; Mun & Lee, 2015), the data are limited, and a more thorough assessment of the effectiveness of these projects is required (Vondráčková & Gabrhelík, 2016).

**References**

Abreu, C. N., Karam, R. G., Góes, D. S., & Sritzer, D. T. (2008). Dependência de Internet e de jogos electrónicos: uma revisão [Internet and online gaming addiction: a review]. *Revista Brasileira de Psiquiatria, 30*(2), 156–167. doi: 10.1590/S1516-44462008000200014

American Psychiatric Association (2013). *The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders: DSM 5*. Washington, USA: American Psychiatric Association.

Andreassen, C. S., Billieux, J., Griffiths, M. D., Kuss, D. J., Demetrovics, Z., Mazzoni, E., & Pallesen, S. (2016). The relationship between addictive use of social media and video games and symptoms of psychiatric disorders: A large-scale cross-sectional study. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 30*(2), 252–262. doi:10.1037/adb0000160

Andreassen, C. S., Pallesen, S., & Griffiths, M. D. (2017). The relationship between addictive use of social media, narcissism, and self-esteem: Findings from a large national survey. *Addictive Behaviors, 64*, 287–293. doi:10.1016/j.addbeh.2016.03.006

Andreassen, C. S., Torsheim, T., Brunborg, G. S., & Pallesen, S. (2012). Development of a Facebook addiction scale. *Psychological Reports, 110*, 501–517. doi: 10.2466/02.09.18.PR0.110.2.501-517

Bargeron, A. H., & Hormes, J. M. (2017). Psychosocial correlates of internet gaming disorder: Psychopathology, life satisfaction, and impulsivity. *Computers in Human Behavior, 68*, 388–394. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2016.11.029

Billieux, J. (2012). Problematic use of the mobile phone: A literature review and a pathways model. *Current Psychiatry Reviews, 8*, 299–307. doi: 10.2174/157340012803520522

Boyd, D. (2008). Why youth (heart) social network sites: The role of networked publics in teenage social life. In D. Buckingham (Ed.), *Youth, Identity, and Digital Media* (pp. 119–142). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Brezing, C., Derevensky, J. L., & Potenza, M. (2010). Non-substance-addictive behaviors in youth: Pathological gambling and problematic internet use. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Clinics of North America, 19*(3), 625–641. doi: 10.1016/j.chc.2010.03.012
Byrne, B. M. (2012). Structural equation modeling with Mplus: Basic concepts, applications and programming. New York: Routledge Academic.

Caplan, S. E. (2010). Theory and measurement of generalized problematic Internet use: A two-step approach. Computers in Human Behavior, 26(5), 1089–1097. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2010.03.012

Carras, M. C., Rooij, A. J., Mheen, D. V., Musci, R., Xue, Q. L., & Mendelson, T. (2017). Video gaming in a hyperconnected world: A cross-sectional study of heavy gaming, problematic gaming symptoms, and online socializing in adolescents. Computers in Human Behavior, 68, 472–479. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2016.11.060

Černja, I., Vejmelka, L., & Rajter, M. (2019). Internet addiction test: Croatian preliminary study. BMC Psychiatry, 19, 388. doi:10.1186/s12888-019-2366-2

Chang, J. H., & Zhang, H. (2008). Analyzing online game players: From materialism and motivation to attitude. CyberPsychology & Behavior, 11(6), 711–714. doi:10.1089/cpb.2007.0147

Chen, F. F. (2007). Sensitivity of goodness of fit indexes to lack of measurement invariance. Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 14, 464–504. doi:10.1080/10705510701301834

Chen, K. H., Oliffe, J. L., & Kelly, M. T. (2018). Internet Gaming Disorder: An Emergent Health Issue for Men. American Journal of Men’s Health, 12(4), 1151–1159. doi: 10.1177/1557988318766950

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 9, 233–255. doi:10.1207/S15328007SEM0902

Chiu, S. I., Hong, F. Y., & Chiu, S. L. (2013). An analysis on the correlation and gender difference between college students’ internet addiction and mobile phone addiction in Taiwan. ISRN Addiction, 360607. doi: 10.1155/2013/360607

Cole, H., & Griffiths, M. D. (2007). Social interactions in massively multiplayer online role-playing gamers. CyberPsychology & Behavior, 10(4), 575–583. doi:10.1089/cpb.2007.9988

Davis, R. A. (2001). A cognitive-behavioral model of pathological Internet use. Computers in Human Behavior, 17(2), 187–195. doi: 10.1016/S07747-5632(00)00041-8

de Palo, V., Monacis, L., Sinatra, M., Griffiths, M. D., Pontes, H., Petro, M., & Miceli, S. (2019). Measurement invariance of the nine-item Internet Gaming Disorder Scale (IGDS9-SF) across Albania, USA, UK, and Italy. International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction, 17, 935–946. doi:10.1007/s11469-018-9925-5

Demetrovics, Z., Urbán, R., Nagygyörgy, K., Farkas, J., Zilahy, D., Mervó, B., … Harmath, E. (2011). Why do you play? The development of the motives for online gaming questionnaire (MOGQ). Behavior Research Methods, 43(3), 814–825. doi: 10.3758/s13428-011-0091-y

Dias, P. C., Cadime, I., Castillo-López, A., Garcia-Castillo, F., & García del Castillo, J. A. (2018). Uso abusivo de Facebook pelos adolescentes portugueses: aportes de la adaptación de la Bergen Facebook Addiction. Health and Addictions, 18(1), 131–139. doi: 10.21134/haaj.v18i1.377

Dias, P. C., Garcia del Castillo, J. A., & Castillo-López, A. (2017). Preditores do uso do Facebook pelos adolescentes portugueses: Contributos de um estudo exploratório. Actualidades en Psicología, 31(123), 31–42. doi: 10.15517/ap.31i123.27450

Dueber, D. M. (2017). Bifactor Indices Calculator: A Microsoft Excel-based tool to calculate various indices relevant to bifactor CFA models. doi: 10.13023/edp.tool.01

Durkee, T., Kaess, M., Carli, V., Parzer, P., Wasserman, C., Floderus, B., … & Wasserman, D. (2012). Prevalence of pathological internet use among adolescents in Europe: demographic and social factors. Addiction, 107, 2210–2222. doi: 10.1111/j.1360-0443.2012.03946.x

Gaetan, S., Bonnet, A., Brejard, V., & Curé, F. (2014). French validation of the 7-item Game Addiction Scale for adolescents. European Review of Applied Psychology / Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée, 64(4), 161–168. doi: 10.1016/j.ersp.2014.04.004
Garcia del Castillo, J. A. (2016). Manual of the Online Gaming Scale (Unpublished manuscript). Alicante: Universidad Miguel Hernández.

Gentile, D. A., Bailey, K., Bavelier, D., Brockmyer, J. F., Cash, H., Coyne, S. M., … Young, K. (2017). Internet Gaming Disorder in Children and Adolescents. Pediatrics, 140(Suppl 2), S81–S85. doi: 10.1542/peds.2016-1758H.

Griffiths, M. D. (1996). Behavioural addictions: An issue for everybody? Journal of Workplace Learning, 8(3), 19–25. doi: 10.1108/13665629610116872

Griffiths, M. D. (2005). A “components” model of addiction within a biopsychosocial framework. Journal of Substance Use, 10, 191–197. doi: 10.1080/1465989050114359

Griffiths, M. D. (2011). Gaming convergence: Further legal issues and psychosocial impact. Gaming Law Review and Economics, 14, 461–464. doi. 10.1089/glre.2011.15705

Griffiths, M. D., & Kuss, D. J. (2017). Adolescent social media addiction (revisited). Education and Health, 35(3), 49–52.

Griffiths, M. D. (2014). Online games, addiction and overuse of. In P.H. Ang and R. Mansell (eds.), The International Encyclopedia of Digital Communication and Society (pp. 1–6). Hoboken, NJ, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Griffiths, M. D., Kuss, D. J., Billieux, J., & Pontes, H. M. (2016). The evolution of Internet addiction: A global perspective. Addictive Behaviors, 53, 193–195. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2015.11.001

Hancock, G., & Mueller, R. (2001). Rethinking construct reliability within latent variable systems. In R. Cudeck, S. du Toit, & D. Sorbom (Eds.), Structural equation modeling: Present and future—A Festschrift in honor of Karl Joreskog (pp. 195–216). Lincolnwood: Scientific Software International.

Hyun, G. J., Han, D. H., Lee, Y. S., Kang, K. D., Yoo, S. K., Chung, U. S., & Renshaw, P. F. (2015). Risk factors associated with online game addiction: A hierarchical model. Computers in Human Behavior, 48, 706–713. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2015.02.008

Irles, D. L., & Gomis, R. M. (2015). Impulsiveness and video game addiction. Health and Addictions, 16, 33–40.

Joo, A., & Park, I. (2010). Effects of an empowerment education program in the prevention of internet games addiction in middle school students. Journal of Korean Academy of Nursing, 40, 255–263. doi: 10.4040/jknan.2010.40.2.255

Kardefelt-Winther, D. (2014a). Problematizing excessive online gaming and its psychological predictors. Computers in Human Behavior, 31, 118–122. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2013.10.017

Kardefelt-Winther, D. (2014b). A conceptual and methodological critique of internet addiction research: towards a model of compensatory internet use. Computers in Human Behavior, 31, 351–354. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2013.10.059

Kardefelt-Winther, D. (2014c) The moderating role of psychosocial well-being on the relationship between escapism and excessive online gaming. Computers in Human Behavior, 38, 68–74. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2014.05.020

Kim, H. S., & Hodgins, D. C. (2018). Component Model of Addiction Treatment: A pragmatic transdiagnostic treatment model of behavioral and substance addictions. Frontiers in Psychiatry, 9, 406. doi:10.3389/fpsyt.2018.00406

King, D. L., & Potenza, M. N. (2019). Not playing around: Gaming Disorder in the International Classification of Diseases (ICD–11). Journal of Adolescent Health, 64, 5–7. doi: 10.1016/j.jadohealth.2018.10.010

Király, O., Bőthe, B., Ramos-Díaz, J., Rahimi-Movaghar, A., Lukavska, K., Hrabec, O., … Demetrovics, Z. (2019). Ten-Item Internet Gaming Disorder Test (IGDT-10): Measurement invariance and cross-cultural validation across seven language-based samples. Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 33(1), 91–103. doi:10.1037/adb0000433

Király, O., & Demetrovics, Z. (2017). Inclusion of Gaming Disorder in ICD has more advantages than disadvantages: Commentary on: Scholars’ open debate paper on the
World Health Organization ICD–11 Gaming Disorder proposal (Aarseth et al.). *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 6*(3), 280–284. doi: 10.1556/2006.6.2017.046

Király, O., Griffiths, M. D., Urbán, R., Farkas, J., Kökönyei, G. Elekes, Z., & Demetrovics, Z. (2014). Problematic internet use and problematic online gaming are not the same: Findings from a large nationally representative adolescent sample. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 17*(12), 749–754. doi:10.1089/cyber.2014.0475

Király, O., Griffiths, M.D., & Demetrovics, Z. (2015). Internet Gaming Disorder and the DSM-5: Conceptualization, Debates, and Controversies. *Current Addiction Reports, 2*(3), 254–262. doi: 10.1007/s40429-015-0066-7

Ko, C. H., Yen, J. Y., Yen, C. F., Lin, H. C., & Yang, M. J. (2007). Factors predictive for incidence and remission of Internet addiction in young adolescents: a prospective study. *CyberPsychology and Behavior, 10*(4), 545–551. doi:10.1089/cpb.2007.9992

Korkmaz, S., Goksuluk, D., & Zararsiz G. (2014). MVN: An R Package for assessing multivariate normality. *The R Journal, 6*(2), 151–162.

Kruss, D. J., & Griffiths, M. D. (2011). Online social networking and addiction: A review of psychological literature. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 8*, 3528–3552. doi:10.3390/ijerph8093528

Lam, L. T., Peng, Z. W., Mai, J. C., & Jing, J. (2009). Factors associated with Internet addiction among adolescents. *CyberPsychology and Behavior, 12*(5), 551–5. doi: 10.1089/cpb.2009.0036.

Lemos, I. I., & Santana, S. M. (2012). Dependência de jogos eletrônicos: a possibilidade de um novo diagnóstico psiquiátrico. *Revista Psiquiátrica Clínica, 39*, 28–33. doi: 10.1590/ S0101-60832012000100006

Lin, C. Y., Broström, A., Nilsen, P., Griffiths, M. D., & Pakpour, A. H. (2017). Psychometric validation of the Persian Bergen Social Media Addiction Scale using classic theory and Rash models. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 6*(4), 620–629. doi: 10.1556/2006.6.2017.071

Marino, C., Vieno, A., Altoè, G., & Spada, M. M. (2017). Factorial validity of the Problematic Facebook Use Scale for adolescents and young adults. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 6*(1), 5–10. doi: 10.1556/2006.6.2017.004

Mentzoni, R. A., Brunborg, G. S., Molde, H., Myrseth, H., Skouveroe, K. J., Hetland, J., & Pallesen, S. (2011). Problematic video game use: estimated prevalence and associations with mental and physical health. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 14*(10), 591–596. doi: 10.1089/cyber.2010.0260

Molde, H., Pallesen, S., Bartone, P., Hystad, S., & Johnsen, B. H. (2009). Prevalence and correlates of gambling among 16- to 19-year-old adolescents in Norway. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 50*, 55–64. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9450.2008.00667.x

Montag, C., Zhao, Z., Sindermann, C., Xu, L., Fu, M., Li, J., & Becker, B. (2018). Internet Communication Disorder and the structure of the human brain: initial insights on WeChat addiction. *Scientific Reports, 8*(1), 2155. doi: 10.1038/s41598-018-19904

Müller, K. W., Janikian, M., Dreier, M., Wölfing, K., Beutel, M. E., Tzavara, C., Richardson, C., & Tsitsika, A. (2015). Regular gaming behavior and internet gaming disorder in European adolescents: Results from across-national representative survey of prevalence, predictors, and psychopathological correlates. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 24*(5), 565–574. doi:10.1007/s00787-014-0611-2

Mun, S. Y., & Lee, B. S. (2015). Effects of an integrated internet addiction prevention program on elementary students’ self-regulation and internet addiction. *Journal of Korean Academy of Nursing, 45*(2), 251–261. doi: 10.4040/jkan.2015.45.2.251

Nam, T. (2017). Who is dating and gaming online? Categorizing, profiling, and predicting online daters and gamers. *Computers in Human Behavior, 73*, 152–160. doi:10.1016/j.chb.2017.03.044

Peeters, M., Zondervan-Zwijnenburg, M., Vink, G., & van de Schoot, R. (2015). How to handle missing data: A comparison of different approaches. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology, 12*, 377–394.
Peng, L. H., & Li, X. (2009). A survey of Chinese college students addicted to video games. *China Education Innovation Herald, 28*, 111–112.

Petry, N. M., & O’Brien, C. P. (2013). Internet gaming disorder and the DSM-5. *Addiction, 108*, 1186–1187. doi: 10.1111/add.12162

Petry, N. M., Zajac, K., Ginley, M. K. (2018). Behavioral addictions as mental disorders: To be or not to be?. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology, 14*, 399–423. doi: 10.1146/annurev-clinpsy-032816-045120

Pontes, H. M., & Patrão, I. M. (2014). Estudo exploratório sobre as motivações percebidas no uso excessivo da Internet em adolescentes e jovens adultos. *Psychology, Community & Health, 3*(2), 90–102. doi:10.5964/pch.v3i2.93

Pontes, H. M., Andreassen, C. S., & Griffiths, M. D. (2016). Portuguese validation of the Bergen Facebook Addiction Scale: An empirical study. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction, 14*(6), 1062–1073. doi: 10.1007/s11469-016-9694-y

Pontes, H. M., Patrão, I. M., & Griffiths, M. D. (2014). Portuguese validation of the Internet Addiction Test: An empirical study. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 3*(2), 107–114. doi: 10.1556/JBA.3.2014.2.4

Potenza, M. N. (2014). Non-substance addictive behaviors in the context of DSM-5. *Addictive Behaviors, 39*(1), 1–2. doi: 10.1016/j.addbeh.2013.09.004

Rehbein, F., & Mößle, T. (2013). Video game and Internet addiction: Is there a need for differentiation? *Sucht, 59*, 129–142. doi: 10.1024/0939-5911.a000245

Rehbein, F., Kleinmann, M., & Mößle, T. (2010). Prevalence and risk factors of video game dependency in adolescence: results of a German nationwide survey. *Cyberpsychology & Behavior, 13*, 269–277. doi: 10.1089/cyber.2009.0227

Rehbein, F., Kliem, S., Baier, D., Mößle, T., & Petry, N. M. (2015). Prevalence of Internet gaming disorder in German adolescents: diagnostic contribution of the nine DSM–5 criteria in a state-wide representative sample. *Addiction, 110*(5), 842–851. doi: 10.1111/add.12849

Reise, S. P. (2012). The rediscovery of bifactor measurement models. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 47*(5), 667–696. doi: 10.1080/00273171.2012.715555

Rumpf, H. J., Achab, S., Billieux, J., Bowden-Jones, H., Carragher, N., Demetrovics, Z., … Poznyak, V. (2018). Including gaming disorder in the ICD-11: The need to do so from a clinical and public health perspective. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 7*(3), 556–561. doi: 10.1556/2006.7.2018.59

Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of Psychological Research Online, 8*(2), 23–74.

Sigerson, L., Li, A.Y-L., Cheung, M. W.-L., & Cheng, C. (2017). Examining common information technology addictions and their relationships with non-technology-related addictions. *Computers in Human Behavior, 75*, 520–526. doi: 10.1016/j.chb.2017.05.041

Starcevic, V., & Billieux, J. (2017). Does the construct of Internet addiction reflect a single entity or a spectrum of disorders?. *Clinical Neuropsychiatry: Journal of Treatment Evaluation, 14*(1), 5–10.

Teo, T., & Kam, C. (2014). Validity of the Internet Addiction Test for adolescents and older children (IAT-A): Tests of measurement invariance and latent mean differences. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 32*(7), 624–637. doi: 10.1177/0734282914531708

Vallejos-Flores, M. A., Copez-Lonzoy, A., & Capa-Luque, W. (2018). Is there anyone online?: Validity and reliability of the Spanish version of the Bergen Facebook Addiction Scale (BFAS) in university students. *Health and Addictions, 18*(2), 175–184.

Valkenburg, P. M., & Peter, J. (2007). Online communication and adolescent wellbeing: Testing the stimulation versus the displacement hypothesis. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 12*, 1169–1182. doi: 10.1111/j.1083-6101.2007.00368.x
Valkenburg, P. M., & Peter, J. (2009). Social consequences of the internet for adolescents: A decade of research. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 18*(1), 1–5. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8721.2009.01595.x

van Rooij, A. J., Ferguson, C. J., Colder Carras, M., Kardefelt-Winther, D., Shi, J., Aarseth, E., … Przybylski, A. K. (2018). A weak scientific basis for gaming disorder: Let us err on the side of caution. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 7*(1), 1–9. doi: 10.1556/2006.7.2018.19

Vondráčková, P., & Gabrhelík, R. (2016). Prevention of internet addiction: A systematic review. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions, 5*(4), 568–579. doi: 10.1556/2006.5.2016.085

West, S. G., Finch, J. F., & Curran, P. J. (1995). Structural equation models with nonnormal variables: problems and remedies. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues and applications* (pp. 56–75). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Wittek, C. T., Finserås, T. R., Pallesen, S., Mentzoni, R. A., Hanss, D., Griffiths, M. D., Molde, H. (2016). Prevalence and predictors of video game addiction: a study based on a national representative sample of gamers. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction, 14*(5), 672–686. doi: 10.1007/s11469-015-9592-8

World Health Organization. (2018). *International statistical classification of diseases and related health problems (11th Revision)*. Retrieved from https://icd.who.int/browse11/l-m/en

Young, K. (1998). Internet addiction: The emergence of a new clinical disorder. *Cyberpsychology & Behavior, 1*, 237–244. doi: 10.1089/cpb.1998.1.237

Young, K. (2010). Internet addiction over the decade: A personal look back. *World Psychiatry, 9*(2), 91–91.

Yuan, K. H., & Bentler, P. M. (2000). Three likelihood-based methods for mean and covariance structure analysis with non-normal missing data. *Sociological Methodology, 30*(1), 165–200. doi: 10.1111/0081-1750.00078

**Problematična upotreba Interneta i Fejsbuka i igranje online igara kod studenata: Eksplorativna studija**

Paulo Dias¹, Irene Cadime¹,², José Antonio García del Castillo³, Juan Carlos Marzo³, Álvaro García del Castillo-López³, and Carmen López Sánchez⁴

¹ Catholic University of Portugal, Portugal

² Minho University, Portugal

³ University Miguel Hérnandez, Spain

⁴ University of Alicante, Spain

Tehnološki napredak je postavio nove izazove i probleme pred zakonodavce i istraživače. U naučnoj literaturi je u toku diskusija oko toga da li se zavisnosti od Interneta, Fejsbuka i onlajn kompjuterskih igara mogu smatrati poremećajima koji spadaju u grupu pravih poremećaja zavisnosti, ili se radi o manifestacijama opštije zavisnosti od informacionih tehnologija. Cilj ovog istraživanja je da ispita polne razlike u odnosu na problematičnu upotrebu Interneta, Fejsbuka i onlajn igara, kao i (međusobnu, prim. prev.) nezavisnost ovih fenomena. Uzorak se sastojao od 500 studenata koji su popunili sociodemografski upitnik, Test zavisnosti od Interneta (eng. the Internet Addiction Test), Bergensku skalu zavisnosti od Fejsbuka (eng. Bergen Facebook Addiction Scale) i Skalu onlajn igranja (eng. Online Gaming Scale). Mladiči su imali više problema sa online igranjem i više problematične upotrebe Interneta i Fejsbuka. Bifaktorski model sa jednim opštim i tri specifična faktora – problematično onlajn igranje, problematična upotreba Interneta i problematična upotreba Fejsbuka je pokazao
najbolje uklapanje u podatke. Međutim, količina specifične varijanse objašnjene faktorima problematične upotrebe Interneta i Fejsbuka je bila niska, dok je količina specifične varijanse objašnjene faktorom problematičnog onlajn igranja bila visoka. Shodno tome, izgleda da problematično onlajn igranje ima posebni karakteristike nego druga dva ispitivana oblika bihevijoralne zavisnosti.

**Ključne reči:** Problematična upotreba Interneta, Problematična upotreba Fejsbuka, poremećaj igranja komjuterskih igara, bifaktorsko modelovanje, digitalne bihevikoralne zavisnosti

© 2020 by authors

This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution ShareAlike 4.0 International license
### Appendix

Table A

**Measurement invariance between males and females without error covariances**

| Model                     | MLR $\chi^2$ (df) | CFI  | TLI  | RMSEA | 90% CI RMSEA | SRMR | BIC   | $\Delta S$−$\chi^2$ (df) | $\Delta$CFI | $\Delta$RMSEA |
|----------------------------|--------------------|------|------|--------|---------------|------|-------|--------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| **Problematic online gaming** |                    |      |      |        |               |      |       |                          |             |               |
| Males                      | 186.49 (77)***     | .901 | .883 | .087   | [.072, .104]  | .038 | 6903.911 | -                        | -           | -             |
| Females                    | 240.90 (77)***     | .875 | .852 | .082   | [.071, .094]  | .051 | 10641.993 | -                        | -           | -             |
| Model 0: Configural        | 433.46 (154)***    | .885 | .864 | .085   | [.076, .095]  | .047 | 17606.975 | -                        | -           | -             |
| Model 1: Metric            | 468.52 (168)***    | .876 | .866 | .085   | [.076, .094]  | .101 | 17583.193 | 33.334 (14)**             | .009        | .000          |
| Model 2: Scalar            | 502.84 (182)***    | .868 | .868 | .084   | [.075, .093]  | .094 | 17523.237 | 27.096 (14)*              | .008        | .001          |
| **Problematic internet use** |                    |      |      |        |               |      |       |                          |             |               |
| Males                      | 484.82 (170)***    | .810 | .788 | .100   | [.089, .110]  | .078 | 10213.730 | -                        | -           | -             |
| Females                    | 593.99 (170)***    | .866 | .850 | .089   | [.081, .097]  | .063 | 16116.541 | -                        | -           | -             |
| Model 0: Configural        | 1075.92 (340)***   | .847 | .829 | .093   | [.087, .099]  | .069 | 26417.515 | -                        | -           | -             |
| Model 1: Metric            | 1103.55 (360)***   | .845 | .837 | .091   | [.085, .097]  | .072 | 26305.078 | 12.654 (20)               | .002        | .002          |
| Model 2: Scalar            | 1160.31 (380)***   | .838 | .838 | .091   | [.085, .097]  | .079 | 26236.240 | 55.326 (20)***            | .007        | .000          |

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; $\Delta S$−$\chi^2$ = Satorra–Bentler scaled chi-square difference test.

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.
### Model fit for the testing of independence of problematic online gaming, Internet and Facebook use without error covariances

| Model                        | MLR $\chi^2$ (df) | CFI  | TLI  | RMSEA | 90% CI RMSEA | SRMR | BIC          |
|------------------------------|-------------------|------|------|-------|--------------|------|--------------|
| Model 1: Correlated three-factor model | 2267.38 (737)*** | .865 | .858 | .064  | [.061, .067] | .051 | 49950.855    |
| Model 2: Correlated two-factor model  | 2469.67 (739)*** | .848 | .839 | .068  | [.065, .071] | .054 | 50239.240    |
| Model 3: One-factor model      | 5857.65 (740)***  | .550 | .526 | .118  | [.115, .120] | .137 | 55061.456    |
| Model 4: Bifactor model        | 1757.31 (700)***  | .907 | .896 | .055  | [.052, .058] | .037 | 49453.709    |

*Note.* CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion. ***$p < .001$. 