

# Parental phubbing and mental well-being: Preliminary study in Indonesia

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## Abstract

Parental phubbing is the latest phenomenon that raises concerns because of the changes in habits due to technological developments. It is a form of parental behavior that ignores children as they tend to focus more on activities on gadgets or smartphones. Current parental phubbing studies are limited; however, previous studies have showed the negative impact of parental phubbing on children in late childhood, adolescent, and emerging adulthood, especially on their mental well-being. Therefore, our study aims to determine the impact of parental phubbing on participants' well-being using a quantitative approach of a comparative independent sample between participants experiencing high and low parental phubbing. The results showed that there were some differences in the effects of parental phubbing on mental well-being, especially mother's parental phubbing (PP-M), for both male and female. In general, parental phubbing affects 3 aspects of mental well-being: a sense of confidence, hope for the future, problem solving and decision-making abilities with a medium effect size. The results indicated that increasingly sophisticated technological developments have affected some changes in behavior and habits through parenting practices, which are not so realized to have negative consequences on the participants' mental well-being. Our study can also be a reference for new knowledge for practitioners and parents to build an awareness to minimize the further negative impact of parental phubbing behavior on children's development and well-being (in the wide range of developmental stages).

*Keywords:* phubbing; parental phubbing; well-being; mental health; children; adolescent

## 1. Introduction

The rapid technology development, especially information and communication technology, facilitates humans in communicating with each other, such as the existence of smartphones or mobile phones and apps that can connect to one another. Referring to data in 2019, mobile phone users in Indonesia reached 355.5 million people, meaning that it has exceeded the total Indonesia population of 268.2 million people (We Are Social, 2021). The high intensity of smartphone users has triggered many problems and phenomena, one of which is phubbing behavior. Created by Alex Haigh, phubbing is a term consisting of the terms "phone" and "snubbing" (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018). Phubbing behavior means the act and behavior of individuals who ignore other people in interaction as they prefer to pay attention to cell phones more than other person (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018). The behavior can be in the form of checking applications such as Facebook, Whatsapp, Instagram, and other apps or activities via mobile phones (Fauzan, 2018).

Phubbing behavior shows a disrespectful attitude towards people who are invited to communicate by ignoring the person and preferring the virtual environment over real life (Karadağ

*et al.*, 2015). This behavior becomes a great concern due to its negative impacts on psychological well-being in individual and social contexts (Pancani *et al.*, 2020), such as reducing the quality of social relationships (Al-Saggaf & MacCulloch, 2019; Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2016), life satisfaction (Chotpitayasunondh & Douglas, 2018), anxiety levels (Khare & Qasim, 2019), and high depressive mood (Ivanova *et al.*, 2020).

One of the phenomena that give concern is parental phubbing or parents who commit phubbing when interacting with their children (Wang, Gao, *et al.*, 2020). Recent studies showed that parents who commit phubbing are associated with the problematic mobile phone use in children (Hong *et al.*, 2019) and the emergence of depression in children in late childhood (Xie & Xie, 2020), positively related to children's social withdrawal and aggression (Wang *et al.*, 2022), and indirectly affecting children's internet gaming addiction (Zhou *et al.*, 2022). Parental phubbing also has the same influence in adolescence, such as associated with depression in adolescence (Xie & Xie, 2020), significantly increasing mobile phone dependence behavior in adolescents (Liu *et al.*, 2019), negatively affecting the adolescent life satisfaction (Liu *et al.*, 2019), positively correlated to depression and feelings of rejection (Xie & Xie, 2020; Khare & Qasim, 2019), and increasing the risk of adolescent cyberbullying behavior (Wang *et al.*, 2020).

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Khare & Qasim (2019) found that individuals who experience phubbing of others will create a feeling of rejection, exclusion, and considered unimportant. Amelia *et al.* (2019) stated that most people feel uncomfortable when they are with people who commit phubbing in social interactions. This then creates the feelings of discomfort and depreciation in the interaction process. Moreover, Kim, Kang & Lee (2020) stated that parental dependence on smartphones, especially mothers, is negatively correlated to parenting patterns. Kim *et al.* (2020) similarly explained that smartphone dependence, especially mothers, brings an effect that exacerbates negative parenting patterns felt by children, such as the feelings of rejection that in turn can increase children's problematic behavior. In the end, negative parenting patterns contribute to weakening relationships and trigger the developmental disorders and autonomous competence in the psychological aspects of children (Jeong & Shin, 2011). Besides, depression symptoms in children will increase when there is congruence between parental phubbing behavior and child phubbing behavior in which it is also moderated by an avoidant attachment (Bai *et al.*, 2020). Parental phubbing has also been found to reduce the bond between parents and children (Xie *et al.*, 2019).

However, many existing studies have only examined the effect of parental phubbing on children and are relatively dearth in the literature specifically in Indonesian context. Therefore, this study aims to identify the effects of parental phubbing on participants' well-being to observe the effects of parental phubbing on a broader stage of development.

## 2. Methodology

This study used a quantitative approach as a comparative test by comparing the effect sizes of participants with high and low parental phubbing behavior on their well-being. “An effect size is often standardized measure of the magnitude of a certain phenomenon” (Schäfer & Schwarz, 2019). The effect size measure has been suggested by American Psychological Association (APA) to report with the confidence intervals because an effect size is known as the currency of psychological research to answer the research questions and measure statistical power of the significant tests (Schäfer & Schwarz, 2019). Therefore, we used the term “effect” in this study to refer to the size of an effect as explained by Schäfer & Schwarz (2019).

### 2.1. Participants

The sampling was determined using a convenience sampling technique and involved a total of 189 male and female participants aged 15 to 25 years, which were in the stage of late childhood, adolescent, and emerging adulthood. They came from seven provinces in Indonesia (Sulawesi, Java, Kalimantan, Maluku, Papua, Sumatra, and Riau). Parental phubbing behavior was measured through children's perception regarding their parents' tendency of using mobile phones in social interaction with them. Each participant has filled out informed consent to state his or her willingness to voluntarily participate in the study process before filling out the online questionnaire.

### 2.2. Data collection

The data were collected using a self-report scale on two variables, namely parental phubbing and mental well-being.

### 2.3 Measurements

To examine the focus of our study, two scales namely parental phubbing and mental wellbeing were applied. The parental phubbing scale was adapted from the Parental Phubbing Scale (PPS) developed by Pancani *et al.* (2020). It is valid and reliable to measure adolescents' perceptions of parental phubbing behavior, both fathers, mothers and overall phubbing behavior from parents despite of differences in adolescent's sex, ethnic origin, and parental education level (Pancani *et al.*, 2020). The parental phubbing scale consisted of 7 items, all of which could measure the children's perception of parental phubbing behavior, both fathers and mothers using the similar item. For example, to use parental phubbing scale items for measuring mothers' phubbing tendencies, it needs to replace the word “father” in each item as in “*Mom/Dad keeps holding her/his mobile phone when he is with me*” (3<sup>rd</sup> item) and so on for other items. The measurement of the parental phubbing scale used a Likert scale with a range of 1 meaning “never” to 5 meaning “always/every time”. We adapted this scale to Indonesian sample using EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) to identify the quality of the psychometric scale. The results of the analysis showed that the parental phubbing scale was possible to be used on Indonesian subjects in wider age groups, ranging from 15 to 25 years old as the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test value was higher than 0.7 ranging from 0.792 to 0.888. Further, the Chi-squared test showed a p-value of <0.05, 0.927 for the Tucker Lewis fit Index (TLI), and 0.076 for the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The reliability of the scale based on Cronbach's alpha reached 0.788 for the father's parental phubbing scale and 0.786 for the mother's one. The internal consistency found in this study was slightly lower than that of the original scale as developed by Pancani *et al.* (2020) with Cronbach's alpha of 0.890.

The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing short-scale developed by Stewart-Brown *et al.* (2007) was also adapted into Indonesian. We used EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) to identify the quality of the psychometric scale. This scale consisted of 7 items to monitor mental wellbeing in the general population. The measurement of this scale used a Likert scale with a range of 1 meaning “never” to 5 meaning “always”. The possible range of score was from 7 (lowest possible) to 35 (highest possible) in which the high score represented a person with high eudemonic and hedonic wellbeing and high psychological functioning and subjective wellbeing (Stewart-Brown *et al.*, 2007). For Indonesian sample, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test value was higher than 0.7 with overall value of 0.741. The Chi-squared test showed the p-value of <0.01. Moreover, 0.808 was for the Tucker Lewis fit Index (TLI) and 0.098 was for the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Cronbach's alpha reliability of this scale was 0.681. The psychometric properties of the scale indicate a good scale if the minimum of Cronbach's alpha's score is 0.700 (Harrison *et al.*, 2021). However, this adaptation process needs further procedures so that these two scales have more reliable psychometric properties for Indonesian sample.

### 2.4 Data analysis

In the data analysis process, we used a comparative test through independent sample t-test analysis to identify the effect

size of parental phubbing on participants’ mental well-being. We compared the effect size of mental well-being of participants who experienced highest and lowest levels of phubbing behavior from their parents.

### 3. Results and Discussion

We examined the effect size of parental phubbing on participants’ mental well-being by comparing the score of mental well-being between participants with highest and lowest parental phubbing experience. The results through an independent sample t-test showed a significant difference of mental well-being between participants who experienced the lowest and the highest Parental Phubbing (PP), especially the one committed by mother (PP-M). Meanwhile, Parental Phubbing-Father (PP-F) did not show a significant difference between participants’ mental well-being with the highest and the lowest Parental Phubbing-Father (PP-F). The detailed results of the analysis are presented in several tables below.

In this study, we involved 189 participants, which were grouped into two. The first group consisted of 59 participants with mother’s phubbing behavior (29 participants who experienced the lowest phubbing behavior from their mother or the <20<sup>th</sup> percentile group and 30 participants who experienced the highest phubbing behavior from their mother or the >80<sup>th</sup> percentile group). The second group consisted of 74 participants with father’s phubbing behavior (38 participants who experienced the lowest phubbing behavior from their father or the <20<sup>th</sup> percentile group and 36 participants who experienced the highest phubbing behavior from their father or the >80<sup>th</sup> percentile group). Table 1 shows the demographic data of the participants.

As shown in Table 1, participants consisted of 57 males and 132 females with an average age of 20.53 years. Besides, most of participants came from three major provinces in Indonesia, namely Sulawesi (57.1%), Java (29.6%), and Kalimantan (6.3%). In terms of employment status, most participants were university students (72.5%), high school students (12.2%), and employed (14.8%).

Table 1. Participant demographic

Characteristic	N (%)
Age (year) (Mean: 20.53, SD: 2.409)	
15-19	43 (22.8)
20 – 25	146 (77.2)
Sex	
Male	57 (30.2)
Female	132 (69.8)
Originality (Provinces of Indonesia)	
Sulawesi	108 (57.1)
Java	56 (29.6)
Kalimantan	12 (6.3)
Maluku	2 (1.1)
Papua	4 (2.1)
Sumatra	3 (1.6)
Riau	2 (1.1)
Missing	2 (1.1)
Work	
High school students	23 (12.2)
University Students	137 (72.5)
Worker	28 (14.8)
Others	1 (0.5)

Table 2. The difference of participants’ mental well-being score with the highest and the lowest PP-M

Group Statistics		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mental Well-being	Parental Phubbing-Mother (PP-M) with lowest phubbing (<P20)	29	26.03	3.26	0.610
	Mother parental phubbing with highest phubbing (>P80)	30	24.23	3.49	0.640

Table 2 shows the differences in mental well-being scores between participants with the highest and the lowest PP-M (mean of the highest PP-M = 24.233 and mean of the lowest PP-M = 26.034). Then, Table 3 shows a significant difference in the level of mental well-being between participants with the highest and the lowest PP-M. The difference of participants’ mental well-being score was significant with  $p=0.023^*$  ( $p<0.05$ ). From the data, PP-M affected 26% of participants’ mental well-being ( $t=2.04$ ,  $df=57$ ,  $r=0.260$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), which was categorized into a medium effect size.

Table 3. The effect of parental phubbing on participants’ mental well-being who experienced the lowest and the highest PP-M

Variable	t-test for Equality for Means				Mean difference	Effect Size	Effect Size Groups
	F	Sig.	t	df			
Mental Well-being	.27	.60	2.04	57	0.046*	1.80	$r=0.260$ (26%) Medium effect size

\* $p<0.05$

Table 3 shows a significant difference on participants’ mental well-being between participants’ who experienced the lowest and those with highest phubbing behavior from their mother with  $p=0.046^*$  ( $p<0.05$ ).

Furthermore, the empirical result showed that parental phubbing contributed to the overall mental well-being of the participants in this study, especially as performed by mothers (see Table 4). The influence can be seen in three behavioral indicators of mental well-being, i.e. feeling optimistic about the future, problems solving and decision-making abilities. Further analysis was on the effect on each significant item based on the correlation coefficient or  $r$  value. Field (2005) explained that the  $r$  value can be identified by entering the  $t$  value and  $df$  value

from the table into the formula  $r = \sqrt{\frac{t^2}{t^2+df}}$ . The  $r$ -value obtained through this formula produces the same  $r$ -value from the Pearson Correlation and has been empirically tested (Field, 2005). The results of the analysis showed that on the difference in a sense of confidence and hope for the future, the effect size of PP-M was 9.33% ( $t=2.422$ ,  $df=57$ ,  $r=0.305$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), which was categorized into a medium effect size. The effect size of problem-solving ability was 14.60% ( $t=3.122$ ,  $df=57$ ,  $r=0.382$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), which was categorized into a medium effect size. Then, the difference in the decision-making ability, with 8.28% ( $t=2.268$ ,  $df=57$ ,  $r=0.288$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) was categorized into a small effect size.

Besides, in terms of genders, the findings of our study indicated that PP-M behavior had a different effect size on the mental well-being of male and female. In male, PP-M behavior showed a different effect size on sense of confidence and hope for the future with 21.43% ( $t = 2,216$ ,  $df = 18$ ,  $r = 0.462$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), which was categorized into a medium effect size. The

difference effect size in satisfaction, comfort, unapprehensiveness was 14.98% ( $t=1.781$ ,  $df=18$ ,  $r=0.387$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), categorized into a medium effect size. Then, the decision-making ability with 15.7 % ( $t=1.837$ ,  $df=18$ ,  $r=0.397$ ,  $p<0.05$ ), categorized into medium effect size and the difference in sharing beliefs, support and sympathy was 22.10% ( $t=2.163$ ,  $df=16,489$ ,  $r=0.470$ ,  $p <0.05$ ), categorized into medium effect size (see Table 5).

Table 4. The effect of PP-M on participants' mental well-being

Variable	Parental Phubbing-Mother (PP-M)		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Effect Size	Effect Size Groups
	Very low	Very high					
1. Feeling optimistic about the future	Mean = 4.27 SD = 0.79	Mean = 3.76 SD = 0.81	2.4	57	0.019*	r = 0.305 (9.33%)	Medium effect size
2. Feeling useful	Mean = 3.44 SD = 0.86	Mean = 3.30 SD = 0.59	0.7	49.3	0.447	r = 0.107 (1.16%)	Small effect size
3. Feeling relaxed	Mean = 3.27 SD = 0.84	Mean = 2.96 SD = 1.03	1.2	57	0.213	r = 0.164 (2.6%)	Small effect size
4. Dealing with problems well	Mean = 3.86 SD = 0.69	Mean = 3.33 SD = 0.60	3.1	57	0.003**	r = 0.382 (14.60%)	Medium effect size
5. Thinking clearly	Mean = 3.34 SD = 0.85	Mean = 3.46 SD = 0.62	-0.6	57	0.535	r = 0.082 (0.68%)	Very small effect size
6. Feeling close to other people	Mean = 3.75 SD = 1.09	Mean = 3.83 SD = 0.94	-0.2	57	0.780	r = 0.001 (0.000%)	Very small effect size
7. Able to make up own mind about things	Mean = 4.06 SD = 0.84	Mean = 3.56 SD = 0.85	2.2	57	0.027*	r = 0.288 (8.28%)	Small effect size

\* $p<0.05$ . \*\* $p<0.01$

In female, moreover, PP-M contributed to the difference in the problem-solving ability with 14.80% ( $t=2.536$ ,  $df=37$ ,  $r=0.384$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) categorized into a medium effect size and the

difference in the decision-making ability reached 7.91% ( $t=1.783$ ,  $df=37$ ,  $r=0.281$ ,  $p=0.083$ ) categorized into a small effect size (see Table 6). Meanwhile, PP-F did not have a significant effect on participants' mental well-being, both in male and female with the same results on the entire study sample.

Our study confirmed the previous studies in which parental phubbing contributed to individual's mental wellbeing. A study revealed that parental phubbing had the potential to decrease the quality of adolescent's mental well-being (Liu *et al.*, 2020). Our present study found that mothers with high phubbing behavior significantly contributed to participants' mental well-being, both male and female compared to fathers with high phubbing behavior. It is in line with a previous study explaining that mother who committed phubbing behavior became a source of severe stress in children's daily lives and affected the psychological condition and negative behavior of children (Bai *et al.*, 2019). Besides, the findings of our study also confirmed the fact that the most involved figure in the parenting role in Indonesian culture is the mother in view of a belief that the essence of parenting tends to be attached to the mother, while father figure is considered as the one who provides protection and earns a living (Agustina, 2017). Moreover, the dominance of the mother's role in child care is a form of community cultural influence (Lutfatulatifah, 2020). It is in line with the findings in Indonesia that mothers who maintain the collectivist cultural values in the family environment as the original nature of Indonesian culture show a higher chance of practicing parenting (Puspitasari *et al.*, 2020). It shows that the parenting practice patterns are closely related to the cultural context adopted in a family (Agustina, 2017). It can be reflected in the beliefs, norms, and cultural values in society, which play a role as a determining factor for most of the goals of parental socialization and parenting practices in a family (Chen *et al.*, 2019).

The results of our study indicated that mothers' phubbing behavior has affected three behavior indicators of mental well-being, i.e. hope for the future, problem solving and decision-making skills. In hope for the future, there is a path connecting the participants' feelings for the future in the dynamics of parental phubbing behavior. Pancani *et al.* (2020) explained that children's perceptions of parental phubbing had a significant positive association with the feelings of social disconnection between children and parents. It then triggered the children's perception of feeling neglected by their parents because there has been a social distance between them due to the distraction of smartphone use. Unconsciously, phubbing behavior has triggered the children's perception of feeling rejected or ignored (Allred, 2020). As a result, when parents are not ready as providers and irresponsive to the needs of children, it will cause insecure attachments in children (Sanders & Turner, 2018). Insecure attachment is associated with dysfunctional attitudes that can predict low self-esteem in children (Lee & Hankin, 2009). Empirically, self-esteem has been proven to affect the adolescent's attitude of optimism in Indonesia in which it is related to adolescent's positive perspective on the problems they are facing and anything they expect to take place (Sidabalok *et al.*, 2019). Besides, another study has proven the influence of parental support on the children's future orientation, especially in education field of (Rahmawati, 2016). The influence can be obtained through the parent's involvement in providing support to children including emotional support, appreciation, instrumental support, and

information that can stimulate the children’s attitude of optimism that affects children’s future orientation.

Table 5. The effect of PP-M on participants’ mental well-being on male’s sample

Variable	Parental Phubbing Mother (PP-M)	Ver y low	Ver y high	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Effect Size	Effect Size Groups
1. Feeling optimistic about the future	Mean = 4.40 SD = 0.73	Mean = 3.60 SD = 0.54	2.216	18	0.040*	r = 0.462 (21.43%)	Medium effect size	
2. Feeling useful	Mean = 3.40 SD = 0.91	Mean = 3.20 SD = 0.44	0.467	18	0.646	r = 0.109 (1.19%)	Small effect size	
3. Feeling relaxed	Mean = 3.33 SD = 1.04	Mean = 2.40 SD = 0.89	1.781	18	0.092*	r = 0.387 (14.98%)	Medium effect size	
4. Dealing with problems well	Mean = 3.80 SD = 0.67	Mean = 3.20 SD = 0.44	1.837	18	0.083*	r = 0.397 (15.7%)	Medium effect size	
5. Thinking clearly	Mean = 3.20 SD = 0.67	Mean = 3.80 SD = 0.83	-1.625	18	0.121	r = 0.357 (12.7%)	Medium effect size	
6. Feeling close to other people	Mean = 3.53 SD = 1.06	Mean = 2.80 SD = 0.44	2.163	16.489	0.046*	r = 0.470 (22.10%)	Medium effect size	
7. Able to make up the mind about things	Mean = 4.13 SD = 0.83	Mean = 4.00 SD = 0.70	0.320	18	0.753	r = 0.075 (0.56%)	Very small effect size	

\*p<0.05

Continued Table 5. The effect of PP-M on participants’ mental well-being on female’s sample

Variable	Parental Phubbing Mother (PPM)	Ver y low	Ver y high	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Effect Size	Effect Size Groups
1. Feeling optimistic about the future	Mean = 4.142 SD = 0.864	Mean = 3.800 SD = 0.666	1.187	37	0.243	r = 0.191 (3.66%)	Small effect size	
2. Feeling useful	Mean = 3.500 SD = 0.854	Mean = 3.320 SD = 0.627	0.754	37	0.456	r = 0.123 (1.5%)	Small effect size	
3. Feeling relaxed	Mean = 3.214 SD = 0.578	Mean = 3.080 SD = 1.037	0.519	36.994	0.607	r = 0.084 (0.7%)	Very small effect size	
4. Dealing with problems well	Mean = 3.928 SD = 0.730	Mean = 3.360 SD = 0.637	2.536	37	0.016**	r = 0.384 (14.80%)	Medium effect size	
5. Thinking clearly	Mean = 3.500 SD = 1.019	Mean = 3.400 SD = 0.577	0.338	17.782	0.739	r = 0.079 (0.63%)	Small effect size	
6. Feeling close to other people	Mean = 4.000 SD = 1.109	Mean = 4.040 SD = 0.888	-0.123	37	0.903	r = 0.02 (0.04%)	Small effect size	
7. Able to make up the mind about things	Mean = 4.000 SD = 0.877	Mean = 3.480 SD = 0.871	1.783	37	0.083*	r = 0.281 (7.91%)	Small effect size	

\*p<0.05. \*\*p<0.01

Then, problem solving and decision-making skills are related to individual's social competencies. A study found a parenting role and parental involvement to educate and teach life skills to children (Sanders & Turner, 2018). Besides, in educating and teaching children, it is necessary to pay attention to the specific needs that should be taught to children according to their developmental tasks. The findings of this study confirmed that in certain developmental tasks, those skills need to be developed in children. Sanders & Mazzucchelli (Sanders & Turner, 2018) explained that in the adolescent phase (ages 13-17 years), adolescent need to be taught with some developmental tasks related to life skill competencies, such as supporting and encouraging themselves to develop competencies in solving problems, both practical and social problems. Meanwhile, in the young adult phase (aged 18-25 years), providing advice and support related to the development of decision-making competencies related to problems in their lives, such as studies, or work becomes the parent's duty and obligation to teach children in that age range. A previous study, in addition, revealed that the core competencies in adolescents are interconnected; for example, problem-solving competence requires other competencies, such as decision-making competence (Guerra *et al.*, 2011).

Furthermore, phubbing behavior triggers the children's perception of feeling neglected by their parents (Allred, 2020; Pancani *et al.*, 2020). It is in line with the previous study explaining that parental neglect can lead to unfulfilled children's needs, which then can affect the subsequent development of children, such as having the poor social, emotional, and adaptation abilities (Garai *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, regarding the participants' social competence, specifically on male subjects, parental phubbing affected the emotional dimension, such as feelings of satisfaction, comfort, and unapprehensiveness as well as differences in beliefs, support, and sympathy in children. The feelings of satisfaction, comfort, and unapprehensiveness are the conditions when children feel secured psychologically. Psychological security refers to a condition when children feel comfortable, safe, accepted, and loved in their environment (Maslow *et al.*, 1945). This condition can be achieved through emotional care applied by parents through a parenting process that can support the child's well-being (Sanders & Turner, 2018). Emotional care can be formed by providing a warm, caring, accepting, and protective environment that will make children feel loved and accepted resulting in a secure parent-child attachment (Waters *et al.*, 2010). Xie & Xie (2020) reported that parental phubbing was significantly negatively related to parental warmth. As a result, parental phubbing affected the warmth between parents and adolescents, which had an impact on adolescent's barriers to achieve psychologically secure conditions.

Besides, phubbing acts as a nuisance in communication, which reduces the child's feeling of being accepted by his or her parents and causing a sign of neglect or rejection of the child (Allred, 2020; Xie & Xie, 2020). Another study has empirically proven that parental phubbing has a negative effect on adolescent life satisfaction (Liu *et al.*, 2020) in which life satisfaction is one aspect in measuring subjective well-being, which can be seen through affective dimensions (Garcia, 2012), emotional reactions, and mood (Diener *et al.*, 2003) as the important indicators of mental health (Proctor & Linley, 2014). The result of our study was confirmed by a new finding from Lawrence *et al.* (2021) who found a reciprocal associations between excessive use of screen and loneliness in

adolescent because it increases a feeling of isolation and reduce the quality of adolescent's life. Therefore, the excessive use of screens in relationships is a crucial issue in this digital era.

Our present study also indicated that parental phubbing can trigger a lack of attachment on participants as an element of neglect in phubbing behavior, which can affect the emotional condition of participants, especially how to fulfill their emotional needs from their parents. When the person's psychological needs are fulfilled, especially in the emotional aspect, the person will feel satisfied, comfortable and experience fewer negative feelings. Then, it will directly contribute to their mental wellbeing. It is in line with Sanders & Turner (2018) stating that the success of parents in carrying out their roles and involvement in parenting will have an impact on the children's mental health, well-being, and adjustment in adulthood. Besides, the difference between the effects on male and female has been in accordance with the findings of Nurdiani & Mulyono (2014) in which male adolescents have the lower level of emotional support in comparison to the female. It confirmed that the fulfillment of emotional support for male is higher than that of female. However, the tendency to meet needs depends on children's experiences during their life, in particular the extent to which parenting roles and involvements have been applied by their parents.

#### 4. Conclusion

The results of the study showed that parental phubbing, especially performed by mothers contributed to the different of effect sizes on the elements of participants' mental well-being, especially on a sense of confidence, hope for the future, and social competences (problem-solving and decision-making skills). Especially for males, parental phubbing was found to affect their psychological security in the form of feeling comfortable, satisfied, unapprehensiveness, feeling supported, and getting sympathy. The results illustrated that parental phubbing indirectly affected the pattern of parenting practices that influenced the fulfillment of the psychological needs of participants that described the overall condition of the participants' well-being. Complex empirical studies are needed to reveal the phenomenon of parental phubbing as a whole, especially in the family environment, and to understand the specific influence of parental phubbing on the overall psychological condition of participants, both in the emotional, behavioral, and cognitive aspects as well as on the pattern of parenting practices. Furthermore, since this study involved samples with a wide range of age groups (15-25 years old), it needs a further study with a focus on the influence of parental phubbing on each individual developmental stage. Last, there remains a lack of studies regarding parental phubbing on adulthood sample so that we used the existing studies involving children and adolescents as an explanation in the discussion.

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before participating. The authors declared no known conflict of interest to disclose.

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