

1 **Digital Detox: The effect of smartphone abstinence on mood, anxiety, and craving**

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11 Abstract

12 Whether behavioural addictions should be conceptualised using a similar framework to substance-related  
13 addictions remains a topic of considerable debate. Previous literature has developed criteria, which allows  
14 any new behavioural addiction to be considered analogous to substance-related addictions. These imply  
15 that abstinence from a related object (e.g. smartphones for heavy smartphone users) would lead to mood  
16 fluctuations alongside increased levels of anxiety and craving. In a sample of smartphone users, we  
17 measured three variables (mood, anxiety, and craving) on four occasions, which included a 24-hour period  
18 of smartphone abstinence. Only craving was affected following a short period of abstinence. The results  
19 suggest that heavy smartphone usage does not fulfil the criteria required to be considered an addiction. This  
20 may have implications for other behavioural addictions.

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23 Behavioural addiction is defined by the DSM-V as an addictive disorder that does not involve the ingestion  
24 of a psychoactive substance (APA, 2013). However, Kardefelt-Winther et al (2017) have recently argued  
25 that research concerning behavioural addictions has not yet clarified whether sufferers become functionally  
26 impaired, experience psychological distress, or demonstrate any separation from normative behaviour.  
27 Failure to meet these criteria may indicate that an addiction is not present. Symptoms associated with  
28 substance addiction include mood modification, tolerance, and withdrawal (Griffiths, 2005). Therefore, we  
29 would also expect to see these symptoms in behavioural addictions, however, their measurement is often  
30 problematic. For example, how would one quantify tolerance within internet addiction? Further, with  
31 behavioural addictions in digital domains, it is difficult to appreciate where a line might be drawn between  
32 typical, excessive and problematic usage (see Ellis et al., 2018). Problematic usage should impair normal  
33 functioning and cause distress. For example, abstinence from addiction-related behaviours (e.g. drinking  
34 for heavy drinkers), leads to changes in mood, anxiety, and craving (cf. Kardefelt-Winther et al, 2017). If  
35 abstinence results in changes across all three measures, then this might reveal analogous symptoms  
36 necessary for a new phenomenon to be considered a genuine behavioural addiction.

37 In recent years, a growing body of research has focused on the potential problems associated with excessive  
38 smartphone use (e.g. Pan, et al., 2019; Kimm, et al., 2019; Lee, et al., 2019; Wilcockson, et al., 2018).  
39 However, Billieux et al (2015) argues that very little evidence supports the notion that smartphone use can  
40 be considered a form of behavioural addiction. Related research has focused specifically on social media.  
41 For example, Stiegel and Lewetz (2018) observed that social media abstinence led to an increase in craving  
42 for social media, but anxiety and mood were unaffected. Another study by Vanman and colleagues (2018)  
43 however, observed that people who gave-up Facebook reported lower levels of wellbeing. However,  
44 comparatively little research has considered the psychological changes that occur as people experience  
45 smartphone abstinence, which are primarily used to access to these services. Such research could support  
46 or refute the current literature base concerning the potential psychological consequences of smartphone  
47 addiction. Previously, Clayton, Leshner, and Almond (2015) reported that smartphone separation led to  
48 negative affect if a participant was prevented from answering their phone while it rang in another room.  
49 But this separation anxiety may not necessarily reflect addiction-like anxiety, which would be the result of  
50 prolonged functional impairment and distress and not simply event-based (cf. Kardefelt-Winther et al,  
51 2017). To date, no study has examined smartphone abstinence over a 24-hour period. The aim of this project  
52 is therefore to examine the effect on mood, anxiety, and craving when participants stop using their  
53 smartphone for 24-hours.

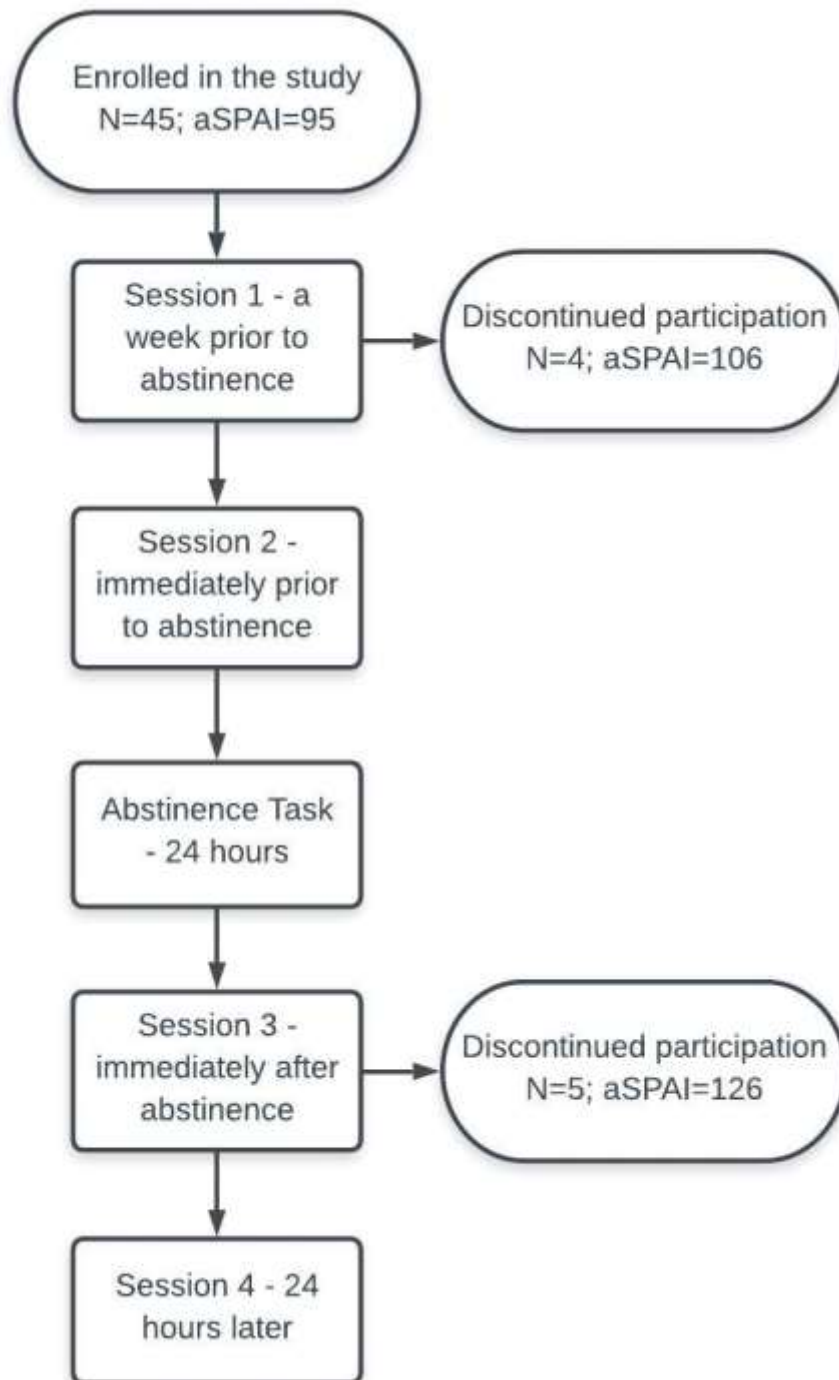
54 Participants attended the lab on four occasions and completed a battery of tasks. The first session took place  
55 a week before the abstinence task, with the second session occurring immediately before abstinence. A  
56 third session took place immediately after a 24-hour smartphone abstinence, with the final session taking

57 place the following day. We expected no differences between responses on sessions 1 and 4, however, we  
58 predicted that changes would likely occur immediately before and after the abstinence task (sessions 2 and  
59 3). Specifically, before the abstinence task people may be concerned about giving-up their device for 24  
60 hours. Conversely, people are likely to be relieved after any period of abstinence is over.

## 61 **Method**

### 62 **Participants**

63 There were 45 participants who started the study (33% male; average age = 22.4), however, nine  
64 participants did not complete all four lab sessions (see Figure 1). Participants were recruited from the  
65 Psychology subject-pool at Lancaster University and by advertising the study across campus using posters.  
66 Recruitment was blind to any current levels of smartphone usage however, previous research demonstrates  
67 that younger participants spend more time on their smartphone than older adults (Christensen et al., 2016;  
68 Ellis et al., 2018). They were reimbursed £15 for their time. Full ethical approval was obtained prior to the  
69 study and all participants provided written informed consent.



70

71 Figure 1. Flow diagram of procedure and participation discontinuation at each stage. Session 1 occurred a  
 72 week prior to the abstinence task, Session 2 occurred immediately before abstinence. The Abstinance Task  
 73 lasted 24 hours with Session 3 taking place immediately after. Session 4 occurred a further 24 hours later.  
 74 This diagram also reports average Smartphone Addiction Inventory (aSPAI) scores for participants who  
 75 left the study. Note, average SPAI scores for participants who discontinued was higher than the mean e.g.  
 76 Session 3 drop-out aSPAI scores were 126 on average compared to mean SPAI scores from all participants  
 77 at the start of the study (95). See supplementary materials for mean differences between participants who  
 78 completed or discontinued based on Session 1 scores (Table S1).  
 79

## 80 **Materials**

81 We used a number of paper-based measures to assess anxiety (Marteau & Bekker, 1992), mood (Mayer &  
82 Gaschke, 1988), craving for smartphones (modified desire for drinking questionnaire: Love et al., 1998),  
83 and smartphone addiction (Lin et al., 2014). The STAI-6 (State-trait Anxiety Inventory) is a 6-item measure  
84 where participants can respond to each statement using a 4-point Likert scale e.g. “I feel calm”. Responses  
85 can range from “not at all” to “very much”. The Brief Mood Introspection Scale (BMIS) consists of two  
86 parts, [1] a 16-item questionnaire (e.g. happy, lively, sad) with a 4-point Likert response scale ranging from  
87 “definitely do not feel” to “definitely feel” and [2] an ‘overall mood’ question where participants indicate  
88 their current mood on a 21-point scale ranging from “very unpleasant” to “very pleasant”. To assess  
89 craving, we used a modified version of the Love et al (1998) Desire for Alcohol Questionnaire with  
90 smartphone terminology replacing alcohol terminology. This is a 37-item questionnaire (e.g. “I could easily  
91 limit how much I use my phone”) with a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from “strongly agree” to  
92 “strongly disagree”. Finally, the Smartphone Addiction Inventory (SPAI) is a 26-item questionnaire (e.g.  
93 “I feel restless and irritable when my smartphone is unavailable”) with 4 responses ranging from “disagree”  
94 to “agree”. Cronbach alpha’s were  $> .75$  for all measures.

## 95 **Procedure**

96 In the first lab session, participants completed all questionnaires. They then returned to the lab one week  
97 later and had their phone placed in an evidence bag, which they were requested to not open/use. Selected  
98 questionnaires were also administered: mood, craving, anxiety. 24 hours after the abstinence task began,  
99 participants returned to the lab and completed the selected questionnaires again (session 3). After the  
100 abstinence task was completed the participants were asked to return to the lab a fourth and final to complete  
101 the selected questionnaires.

102 During the abstinence period, participants were instructed to place their smartphone in a secure evidence  
103 bag. In the case of an emergency or if they wished to withdraw from the study, it was possible to quickly  
104 tear the bag open and use their phone at any time. Note that no participants returned to the lab with opened  
105 or tampered evidence bags.

## 106 **Results**

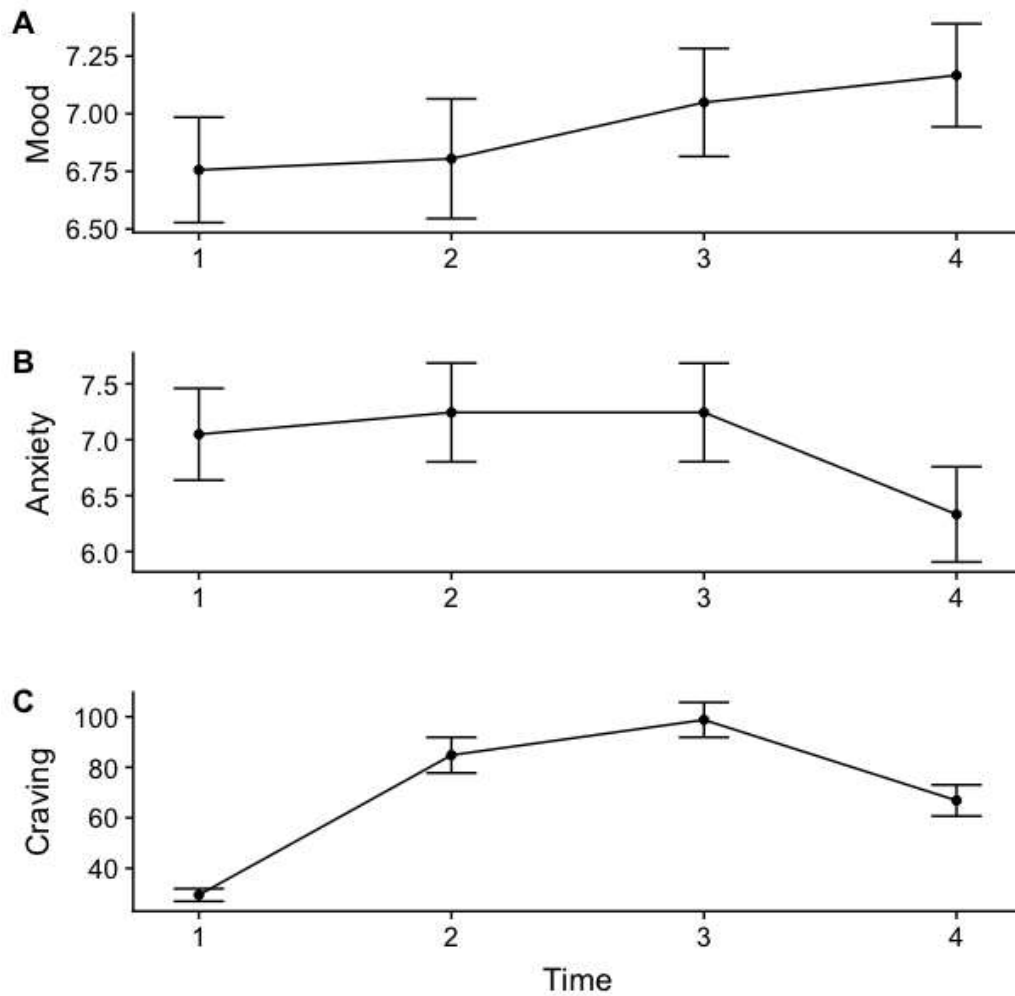
107 A number of measures were taken at different time periods. Therefore, for each measure, we initially  
108 calculated a repeated-measures ANOVA with 4 levels (session: 1, 2, 3, 4). If appropriate, comparisons were  
109 then conducted between different sessions. Additionally, a Bayes factor with default prior scales is  
110 computed for each analysis (Love et al., 2015; Morey, et al., 2015; Rouder, et al., 2012). Computing a  
111 Bayes factor provides us with the ability to interpret p-values  $> .05$ . As we are speculating whether  
112 differences exist between different sessions, for us to be able to meaningfully interpret a null p-value, it is  
113 important to use Bayes factors. Therefore, if a  $BF_{10} < .33$ , then we can interpret that result indicates some

114 evidence for the null hypothesis and  $BF_{10} > 3$  as strong evidence for the alternate hypothesis (e.g. Rouder,  
115 et al., 2012).

116 *Mood and Anxiety*

117 Overall, Figure 2 suggests that mood was lower immediately before the abstinence task, but gradually  
118 increased toward the end of the study. A small reduction in anxiety is also apparent during the final session.  
119 However, ANOVAs did not reveal a significant main effect of session on mood [ $F(3,105)=1.79;p=.153$ ;  
120  $BF_{10}=.29$ ] or anxiety [ $F(3,105)=1.08;p=.36$ ;  $BF_{10}=.13$ ].

121



122

123 Figure 2. Average scores across sessions for [A] mood, [B] anxiety, and [C] craving. Note that a 24-hour  
124 period of smartphone abstinence occurred between sessions 2 and 3. Error bars represent standard error of  
125 the mean.

126

127 *Craving*

128 A significant main effect of session was observed [ $F(3,105)=73.69$ ;  $p<.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ]. Uncorrected  
129 comparisons revealed that all sessions differed significantly: session 1 [ $M = 29.46$ ;  $SD = 16.02$ ] and session  
130 2 [ $M = 84.80$ ;  $SD = 45.22$ ;  $t(40)= 9.64$ ;  $p<.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ]; session 1 and session 3 [ $M = 98.78$ ;  $SD =$   
131  $44.21$ ;  $t(40)=12.162$ ;  $p<.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ]; session 1 and session 4 [ $M = 66.86$ ;  $SD = 37.06$ ;  $t(35)=8.07$ ;  
132  $p<.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ]; session 2 and session 3 [ $t(40)= 3.089$ ;  $p=.004$ ;  $BF_{10}=9.68$ ]; session 2 and session 4  
133 [ $t(35)= 3.93$ ;  $p<.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}=74.19$ ]; session 3 and session 4 [ $t(35)= 8.16$ ;  $p<.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ].

#### 134 *Problematic smartphone usage*

135 During the first session, participants completed the problematic phone usage questionnaire (SPAI). We  
136 observed that this measure positively correlated with craving measures taken during session 1 [ $r(45)= .69$ ;  
137  $p <.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ], session 2 [ $r(41)= .79$ ;  $p <.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ], session 3 [ $r(41)= .72$ ;  $p = .001$ ;  
138  $BF_{10}>100$ ], and session 4 [ $r(36)= .76$ ;  $p <.0005$ ;  $BF_{10}>100$ ]. Therefore, while levels of craving varied  
139 between each session, it would appear that participants who believed they used their smartphone more  
140 consistently reported higher levels of craving. Mood and anxiety scores were not associated with the SPAI  
141 at any time point [all  $p$ 's $>.05$ ].

#### 142 **Discussion**

143 Whether or not behavioural addictions are akin to substance addictions remains a matter of considerable  
144 debate (Kardefelt-Winther et al, 2017). However, our results suggest that while smartphone abstinence can  
145 lead to craving, mood and anxiety remain unaffected. The craving results may indicate that smartphone  
146 users like to use their smartphones and crave them when they are unavailable, but the lack of evidence for  
147 mood modification and increased anxiety suggests a key distinction between technology-related behaviours  
148 and substance abusers. Substance abusers during abstinence would demonstrate mood modification and  
149 increased anxiety. Therefore, this distinction suggests that behavioural addictions (e.g. technology usage)  
150 are unlikely to inhabit the same underlying processes as substance-related addictions (e.g. alcohol usage).  
151 This distinction is important from an addictions perspective as substance abusers continue to take  
152 substances in the absence of liking (see Robinson & Berridge, 1993). While liking is not necessarily the  
153 strongest motivator in substance abuse addiction, it may be the strongest driver in any technology-related  
154 behavioural addiction.

155 Although there was no significant effect of abstinence on mood, we note that some improvement in mood  
156 does occur between sessions 2 and 4. This suggests that once participants were reunited with their phone  
157 following abstinence, they reported improved mood compared to immediately before the abstinence period  
158 (session 2). While being reunited with their phone may have made people feel happier, this difference may  
159 also be the result of poorer mood when pre-empting abstinence. These factors combined could also magnify  
160 this effect. However, while this may provide some evidence to support mood modification, our Bayes result  
161 suggests that more evidence is required to support any effect of mood before or after any period of  
162 smartphone abstinence.



163 This study involved restricting the use of smartphones, but not all technology (e.g., laptops) completely.  
164 Our findings are therefore limited by the possibility that participants may have been using other digital  
165 devices. This may explain why anxiety and mood were not affected, but changes in craving scores  
166 contradict this interpretation somewhat. It would have also been ethically difficult to restrict all technology  
167 use completely. Further, our sample may not harbour problematic smartphone usage and have therefore not  
168 responded accordingly. However, as problematic usage scores increased, so too did craving. Problematic  
169 smartphone users in the current study may have simply discontinued (see Figure 1). It is striking that drop-  
170 outs had higher SPAI scores on average. This may indicate that smartphone ‘addicts’ were unable to fully  
171 participate in the study and so discontinued, thus affecting our findings and interpretation. However, we  
172 would caution this interpretation somewhat as these scales do not align favourably with objective behaviour  
173 (Ellis, 2019). Future research may benefit by carefully selecting only very heavy users, based on objective  
174 behaviour, who may be more likely to demonstrate expected patterns of withdrawal.

175 In summary, our data suggest that normal emotional functioning is not impaired by smartphone abstinence,  
176 which is outlined as a key symptom of any addiction (see Kardefelt-Winther et al, 2017; Robinson &  
177 Berridge, 1993). Therefore, heavy smartphone usage may not meet the criteria for a behavioural-type  
178 addiction. It does appear that smartphones develop an intense liking, and craving-type feelings are common,  
179 but this alone does not necessarily reflect any form of addiction.

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