Nomophobia and Student Life: A Case Study of the University of Gujrat, Pakistan

Namra Shahzadi[1], Arooba Sehar[2] and Anila Iram[3]

Abstract

The study aimed to discover how common nomophobia is among Pakistani university students in Gujrat. A total of 1000 senior semester students, ages 17 to 26, participated in this study, with gender inequalities also being eliminated. Students completed the NMP-Q questionnaire on nomophobia (Yildirim & Correia, 2015). The use of mobile phones showed that most participants used their phones for between six and ten hours a day, spent less than five hours online, received fewer than five calls and 100 SMS messages daily, and had at least one phone. Out of all the answers, the question with the most significant percentage of responses (62.8%) was "I would be nervous because I would be disconnected from my online identity." The scale's psychometric qualities demonstrate internal solid consistency (α=.82) and good reliability. The results also showed that university students had a significant frequency of nomophobia. Most students (75.5%) exhibit a moderate degree of nomophobia, consistent with earlier research findings. The results also showed that, in comparison to male pupils, female students exhibit a higher degree of nomophobia. Cross-sectional studies at several universities should be conducted to improve future research's generalizability.

Keywords: Anxiety, Nomophobia, University Students, Gujrat, Pakistan.

Introduction

One of the most prominent issues in the world now is the use of mobile phones and internet addiction among young adults, particularly among students (Tuco et al., 2023). However, young people, particularly university students, experience worry when their phones are lost or unused. This is because they have grown reliant on social media, and when they are unable to use it, their anxiety levels might negatively affect their academic performance (Devi & Dutta, 2022). Anxiety disorder is any severe mental illness that impairs one's ability to function in daily life and causes intense discomfort, uneasiness, or terror that may not go away on its own (Kelly, 2023). According to studies, 61% of students had moderate to severe anxiety as a result of not using a smartphone and not using the internet as much (Islam et al., 2020).

Uncontrolled situations brought on by a particular fear of things deemed far more harmful than they are known as phobias (APA, 2022). A phobia is an intense and incapacitating fear of a thing, location, circumstance, emotion, or animal that arises when a person perceives an irrational or heightened level of risk in a given circumstance or item (Comer & Gould, 2010). Many different kinds of phobias affect how people operate daily. One such phobia is nomophobia, or the dread of

---

[1]*Lecturer, Department of Psychology, University of Gujrat. Email: Namra.shahzadi@uog.edu.pk*
[2]*BS, Student, Department of Psychology, University of Gujrat. Email: aroobasehar71@gmail.com*
[3]*Associate Lecturer, Department of Sociology, University of Gujrat. Email: anila.iram@uog.edu.pk*

being without a cell phone (Bartwal & Nath, 2020; Perrotta, 2019). Numerous adverse outcomes stemming from excessive reliance on cell phones include nomophobia, a clinical illness that is becoming a public health concern (Rodríguez-García et al., 2020). The term "no mobile" is a contraction of the phrase "extreme mobile phone usage by students," which gave rise to studies on nomophobia (Gezgin & Çakir, 2016). A 2010 UK survey measuring the anxiety of university students who use mobile phones found that half of the sample worried when their phone was lost, ran out of charge, or did not have internet access, contributing to nomophobia (Kanmani et al., 2017). Nomophobia was not well documented at the outset and was considered an illness that met the characteristics of a distinct phobia; however, efforts were made to include it in the DSM-V (Ivanova & Dhingra, 2023).

Nomophobia, which stands for "no mobile phone phobia," is the fear of not owning a smartphone or being unable to communicate with people on a mobile device (Notara et al., 2021). According to Kavani et al. (2020), signs of nomophobia include anxiety, depression, hostile conduct when a phone is not nearby, poor communication skills, a poor academic record, less accomplishments and memory, social anxiety, and digital dependency. Physical symptoms include weariness, tense muscles, headache pain, eyesight issues, and circadian cycle disruption (Khilnani et al., 2019). *Nomophobia* is a modern technological disorder that highlights uneasiness, worry, tension, or sorrow due to not owning a digital phone. Clinical descriptions include sleeping with a mobile phone on the bed, constantly holding it, having multiple chargers, checking it frequently, not going places, or not interacting with people in person (Bartwal & Nath, 2020). Younger ages rely more on mobile phones, and long-term users also use them more frequently, according to a study that examined connections between nomophobia and problematic mobile phone use (Kaviani et al., 2020). One study found that university students are more likely to have four features of nomophobia: difficulty communicating, anxiety about losing connection, lack of quick access to information, and giving up the comforts of a cell phone (Garcia et al., 2020). The study, which focused on nomophobia in adolescents and university students, was cross-sectional, descriptive, non-experimental, and had a negative impact on the participants' personalities, self-esteem, discomfort, trauma, educational presentation, and overall mental and physical fitness (Garcia et al., 2020).

Social cognitive theory-based research examines how university students' relationships are affected by their use of mobile phones, including how long they use them, how frequently they use them, and how much nomophobia they exhibit. The findings reveal a relationship between smartphone use and nomophobia, as well as a single or multiple mediation effect on loneliness and anxiety (Kara, 2021). Arpaci et al. (2017) identified three attachment styles: secure, avoidant, and anxious. The avoidant and anxious attachment styles exhibit greater nomophobia due to their greater attachment to mobile phones. According to Nasher et al. (2023), excessive mobile phone use can lead to mental and physiological imbalances that compromise sleep quality, create gene mutations, cause hearing problems, impair concentration, and cause behavioral issues. In addition to experiencing physical side effects like drug and cigarette misuse, laziness, inability to focus, and psychological discomfort, students who do not own a mobile phone report higher levels of worry (Farooqi et al., 2018). Panic episodes, quick breathing, vibrating, sweating, elevated heart rate, hand joint aches, and discomfort in the neck and spine are a few physical symptoms (Kanmani et al., 2017).

Low self-esteem, fear of loneliness, dependency, learned phobia, traumatic, guilt-ridden, and abusive past experiences, fear of missing out, aggressive behavior, safety concerns, personality, and other medical conditions were among the etiological factors of nomophobia (Tanaka-Matsumi,

2019; Ivanova & Dhingra, 2002). According to Rosales-Huamani et al. (2019), the symptomatic characteristics were dysfunctional online habits, online community involvement, image-related concern, discomfort while separating from virtual identity, anxiety, compulsive smartphone use, and feelings of panic and anxiety. Anxiety, compulsive smartphone use, and everyday fear were the three symptoms identified in a study to identify markers of nomophobia in college students (Rosales-Huamani et al., 2019). Online factors include relying too much on a mobile device, and individuals who use the internet for more than two hours a day are more likely to acquire nomophobia (Hassan et al., 2019). Demographic variables include age, gender, marital status, type of housing, and lifestyles (habits); academic data includes GPA, department name, and degree year; additional characteristics include mobile phone usage habits and related activities (Qutishat et al., 2020).

In one study, the relationship between attachment and nomophobia is examined, as well as the mediating role of mindfulness. A notable disparity in attachment was identified based on gender, with women more susceptible to anxious attachment than men (Arpaci et al., 2017). According to Kumar (2023), there is evidence that students' excessive use of mobile phones contributed to their mental health issues. Internationally speaking, women are more likely than men to become addicted to cell phones. Some research indicates that nomophobia is more common in men. However, the current study suggests that women are more likely than men to experience nomophobia because of their excessive usage of social media. Studies from Australia and elsewhere show no correlation between gender and nomophobia. Gender inequality is, therefore, culturally diverse. According to a western Gujarat study, men's levels of nomophobia are 48.9% moderate, 37.5% mild, and 12.5% severe. According to Khilnani et al. (2019), women exhibit moderate nomophobia at a rate of 55.3%, mild nomophobia at 34.5%, and severe nomophobia at 10%. These individuals also tend to check their phones frequently. According to a study, 66% of people range in severity from mild to severe, with Pakistani students showing lower levels of nomophobia than Turkish students. Meanwhile, India, a neighboring country with which there are cultural similarities, has higher levels of nomophobia, ranging from forties to hundreds, with slightly higher levels in males (52.2%) compared to females (47.8%) (Samsudin & Aziz, 2021).

The study of nomophobia among university students focuses on students from various countries, such as India, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Pakistan, Ghana, and Kuwait. These countries exhibit varying degrees of nomophobia, with Turkish students having the highest level of severity, Saudi students having a lower level, and Australian students having the lowest level (Al-Mamun et al., 2023). With a mean score of 88.55, nomophobia was categorized as 9.4% mild, 56.1% moderate, and 34.5% severe. 99.3% of Omani pupils exhibit a moderate level of nomophobia. The average percentage of nomophobia in Saudi Arabia is 85.3%, with 63.2% of cases being mild and 22.1% being severe. Approximately 93% of Bahraini citizens reported having moderate to severe nomophobia (Al-Mamun et al., 2023).

The rising prevalence of this phobia in Pakistan is a result of people's perceptions of mobile phones as sources of entertainment. They are readily available in study areas and find it easier to spend time on their phones than to go out and socialize. Of the 350 students, 17.4% had mild nomophobia, 61.7% had moderate, and 20.9% had severe (Safdar & Khan, 2020). *Nomophobia* is a mental illness that causes discomfort for a person to be without a cell phone. According to this research, the prevalence of nomophobia was 95.8%, with 7.0% of individuals suffering from severe cases, 53.1% having moderate cases, and 35.7% of students having mild cases. There was no significant difference in nomophobia scores between male and female students (Kanwal et al., 2023). According to a study, 40.88% of Pakistani undergraduate students reported having severe

nomophobia, 48.57% reported having moderate nomophobia, and 10.55% had light nomophobia (Farooq et al., 2022). According to a university student study on nomophobia, using a phone excessively wastes time negatively impacts education, results in subpar grades, and increases the rate of academic dropout (Vagka et al., 2023). According to a study conducted by Qutishat et al. (2020), there is no statistical proof that children with severe nomophobia do poorly academically, while 99.33% of students report having a moderate level of nomophobia. Parental involvement, institutional constraints, act or legislation development, medical treatment, and reality approach are coping techniques to control nomophobia (Bhattacharya et al., 2019).

Study Objectives
The research objectives of the current study are to:
1. Find out the prevalence of nomophobia among students at Gujrat University.
2. Explore the gender difference among variables.

Methodology
Design and Sample
A cross-sectional study was carried out to investigate the prevalence of nomophobia among University of Gujrat students. A thousand students from the University of Gujrat were in the research sample. Students from the faculties of architecture, design and fine arts, arts, computing and information technology, engineering and technology, science, and social science were chosen using stratified random sampling in the second, fourth, sixth, eighth, and fifth semesters. Each of these faculties' 31 departments is divided into strata, each with 32 students. The strata are further divided into sub-strata that are comprised of 16 male and 16 female students. There are 500 male and 500 female students at Gujrat University.

Instrument
Demographic Form: The demographic form requires questions about age, gender, family structure, socioeconomic status, marital status, department, semester, degree program, and mobile using pattern questions. Examples of these questions include how many hours a day people use their phones, how many hours they use the internet, how many calls and SMS they receive, how many emails they receive, how many mobile phones they own, and which mobile phone applications they use the most.

Nomophobia Questionnaire (NMP-Q)
The English version of the Nomophobia Questionnaire (NMP-Q), created by Yildirim and Corriea (2015), was utilized to investigate the incidence of nomophobia among university students in Gujrat. The twenty elements are divided into four categories:
*   Losing connection (five).
*   Not being able to converse (six).
*   Not being able to obtain information (four).
*   Giving up convenience (five).
Cronbach Alpha (α=.82) indicates the validity of the NMP-Q tool for this study. Ratings such as 20 absent, 21 to 60 mild, 60 to 100 moderate, and 100 to 140 severe were used to represent the degree of nomophobia.

Procedures

Before administering the Nomophobia Questionnaire, approval was obtained from the chosen chairperson or head of each department after they were informed of the importance of the study and its effects on students. Informed consent was provided to guarantee the students' desire to participate in the research. Students interacted in the respective departments' common areas, hallways, and classrooms. By stating that the data would only be used for research purposes, pupils were given assurances regarding its confidentiality and privacy. A nomophobia questionnaire was given to each university student individually, and they were eager to complete it.

Results

Table 1: Frequency and percentage of sociodemographic variables (N= 1000)

Characteristics	*n*	%
Duration of Mobile Phone use per day in hours		
1h-5h	310	31.0
6h-10h	479	47.9
11h-15h	140	14.0
16h-20h	49	4.9
21h-24h	22	2.2
Duration of internet use per day in hours		
1h-5h	424	42.4
6h-10h	419	41.9
11h-15h	111	11.1
16h-20h	24	2.4
21h-24h	22	2.2
Number of calls received per day		
Less than 5	787	78.7
5 to 10	147	14.7
11 to 15	27	2.7
More than 15	39	3.9
Number of SMS received per day		
0-100	830	83.0
101-200	169	16.9
More than 300	1	.1
Number of emails received per day		
Less than 5	777	77.7
6 to 10	217	21.7
More than 10	6	.6
Number of mobile phones		
1	858	85.8
2	137	13.7
3	5	.5
Mostly used mobile phone app		
WhatsApp	265	26.5
Instagram	346	34.6
Snapchat	94	9.4
Facebook	152	15.2
Twitter	89	8.9
YouTube	20	2.0
TikTok	34	3.4

Table 1 indicates frequency and percentage of sociodemographic characteristics including duration of mobile phone use per day in hours was highest for those who use mobile for (6h to 10h) was (47.9%), from 1h-5h (31.0%), 11h-15h, 14.0, (4.9%) 16h-20h and only (2.2%) were using mobile phones for 21h-24h. Internet use duration 1h-5h among (42.4%) 6h-10h among (41.9%), (11.1%) 11h-15h, (2.4%) use interne for 16h-20h and the least use was in the 21h-24h in (2.2%) students. (78.7%) sample was receiving less than 5 calls per day as compare to 5 to 10 calls (14.7 %), (2.7%) 11 to 15 calls, (3.9%) more than 15 calls per day. SMS receiving range was between 0-100 in (77.7%) students, (16.9%) 101-200 messages per day, and only (0.1%) received more than 300 SMS. 77.7% were receiving less than 5 emails per day as compare to 6-10 emails (21.7%) and (0.6%) were receiving more than 10 emails per day. Most of the students having 1 mobile phone which are (85.8%), as compare to (13.7%) were using 2 mobile phone and only (0.3%) students having 3 mobile phones with them. Maximum sample was using Instagram (34.6%) WhatsApp (26.5%), Facebook (15.2%), Snapchat (9.4%), Twitter (8.9%), TikTok (3.4%) and YouTube (2.0%).

Table 2: Percentages of the Responses of NMP-Q (Yildirim & Corriea 2015) (Items=20)

Variable	SD %	D%	SD %	N%	SA%	A%	SA %
I would feel uncomfortable without constant access to information through my smartphone.	11.2	31.7	33.0	.7	.3	23.0	.1
I would be annoyed if I could not look information up on my smartphone when I wanted to do so.	5.0	12.2	1.7	16.8	16.1	23.7	13.5
Being unable to get the news (e.g., happenings, weather, etc.) on my smartphone would make me nervous.	12.2	21.2	13.9	20.4	13.9	13.0	5.4
I would be annoyed if I could not use my smartphone and/or its capabilities when I wanted to do so.	4.7	12.3	11.0	19.6	14.8	25.2	12.4
Running out of battery in my smartphone would scare me.	12.1	15.4	8.7	13.7	15.0	18.3	16.8
If I were to run out of credits or hit my monthly data limit, I would panic.	15.6	21.7	11.7	16.4	13.8	11.7	9.1
If I did not have a data signal or could not connect to Wi-Fi, then I would constantly check to see if I had a signal or could find a Wi-Fi network.	7.9	12.3	8.5	14.4	13.1	24.9	18.9
If I could not use my smartphone, I would be afraid of getting stranded somewhere.	9.4	20.6	14.8	20.1	14.7	15.3	5.1
If I could not check my smartphone for a while, I would feel a desire to check it.	6.9	26.6	41.8	.4	.6	23.6	.1
I would feel anxious because I could not instantly communicate with my family and/or friends.	6.2	13.9	11.3	18.5	17.3	20.0	11.8
I would be worried because my family and/or friends could not reach me.	5.0	14.5	57.3	.9	.5	.2	21.6
I would feel nervous because I would not be able to receive text messages and calls.	9.6	18.9	10.3	22.9	12.9	16.4	9.0
I would be anxious because I could not keep in touch with my family and/or friends.	4.9	13.0	12.1	21.8	13.9	20.0	14.3
I would be nervous because I could not know if someone had tried to get a hold of me.	8.7	14.7	11.9	24.4	17.0	15.2	8.1
I would feel anxious because my constant connection to my family and friends would be broken.	8.1	27.8	38.3	1.3	1.5	22.8	.2

I would be nervous because I would be disconnected from my online identity.	12.6	1.9	5.0	6.7	6.8	4.2	62.8
I would be uncomfortable because I could not stay up-to-date with social media and online networks.	8.2	16.7	13.1	21.6	16.3	16.3	7.8
I would feel awkward because I could not check my notifications for updates from my connections and online networks.	8.2	16.5	13.4	20.6	21.4	14.2	5.7
I would feel anxious because I could not check my email messages.	13.3	17.5	14.8	21.6	15.1	12.1	5.6
I would feel weird because I would not know what to do.	10.4	14.2	11.2	23.5	13.9	15.9	10.9

Note: ("SD= Strongly disagree", "D= Disagree", "SD= Slightly disagree", "N= Neutral", "SA= Slightly agree", "A= Agree", "SA= Strongly agree")

The percentages of participant replied on the NMP-Q were displayed in table 2 findings (Yildirim & Corriea, 2015). The survey participants' maximum replies were "neutral" on six issues, with the greatest percentage of neutral responses being 24.4%. "I wouldn't know if someone had tried to contact me, so I would be anxious." Three questions have the majority of "disagree" comments; the item "if I were to run out of credits or hit my monthly data limit, I would panic" has the highest percentage (21.7%). The greatest percentage (57.3%) on the question "I would be worried because my family and/or friends could not reach me" was one of four that received comprehensive going responses at "slightly disagree." The statement, "I would feel awkward because I could not check my notifications for updates from my connections and online networks," received the most responses (21.4%) of any item on the "slightly agree" scale. The largest number of respondents selected "agree" for five questions, with the highest percentage (25.2%) going to the statement, "I would be annoyed if I could not use my smartphone and/or its capabilities when I wanted to do so." The item "I would be nervous because I would be disconnected from my online identity" had the largest percentage of replies (62.8%) out of all the comments listed above.

Table 3: Psychometric Properties for Scale

Scale	*M*	*SD*	Range	Cronbach's α
NMP-Q	80.64	17.168	36-120	.82

Note. (NMP-Q= Nomophobia Questionnaire)

The psychometric characteristics of the scale employed in this study are displayed in table 3. The no mobile phone phobia scale's Cronbach's α value was.821(<.90), indicating good reliability and high internal consistency.

Prevalence of Nomophobia

Table 4: Severity of Nomophobia among University students (N=1000)

Variable	Absent%	Mild%	Moderate%	Severe%
Nomophobia	.5	9.9	75.5	14.1

Student levels of nomophobia at universities are shown in table 4. This phobia affects nearly every student. A significant proportion of students (14.1%) had severe nomophobia, compared to a smaller percentage (9.5%) who had mild nomophobia, while the remaining students (0.5%) did not exhibit any nomophobia at all. The majority of students had moderate nomophobia.

Table 5: Mean Comparison of Male and Female Gender on Nomophobia

	Men		Women				
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t(1000)*	*p*	Cohen's *d*
NBTC	23.07	5.99	24.38	6.81	-3.22	.00	0.20
LC	20.52	6.31	22.03	6.40	-3.76	.00	0.23
NBAI	15.60	4.53	16.08	4.41	-1.69	.09	0.10
GVC	19.11	6.27	20.09	6.04	-2.53	.01	0.15
Total	78.31	16.52	82.60	17.54	-3.98	.00	0.25

Note. "Small effect size, d = .2," "medium effect size, d = .5," and "large effect size, d = .8"

Table 5 presents the findings of an independent sample t test comparing the means of two groups, namely men and women, on whether or not they have a fear of cell phones. Previous research findings indicate that there is gender variance in nomophobia (Naser et al., 2023). With t (1000) = -3.98, P<0.05, the current investigation demonstrates a significant mean difference. The results indicate that women experience a higher level of nomophobia (M=82.60, SD=17.54) than men do (M=78.31, SD=16.52). With a Cohen's d value of 0.25 (<0.05), the effect size was tiny.

Discussion

Nomophobia is a growing phobia among the younger generation as students rely too much on their smartphones for any kind of desire, from using them for entertainment, social identities, and academic help to using them for any kind of beneficial or negative purpose, such as cybercrime and other negative uses (Tuco et al., 2023). Nomophobia, a phobia associated with mobile phones that has an impact on both physical and mental health, develops when people fail to use these services regularly or find disruptive internet in their daily lives (Devi & Dutta, 2022). Therefore, there needs to be some planning done for the student population's data use, as well as policies regarding the use of mobile phones in classrooms, at home, and outside of the home. Not enough study has been done in Pakistan to determine the incidence of nomophobia, particularly among college students. A sample of one thousand students from the University of Gujrat was chosen in order to investigate the prevalence of nomophobia among upperclassmen. For this reason, students' informed consent was obtained and the nomophobia scale (NMP-Q), created by Yildirim and Corriea (2015), was combined with several demographic and mobile phone usage pattern questions. The frequency and percentage of demographics were evaluated first.

The study's initial premise was to determine how common nomophobia was among university of Gujrat students. Table 4 lists the frequency and severity of the problem together with the prevalence and a description of the score on four different levels, ranging from "absent" to "mild" to "moderate" to "severe." The majority of participants (75.5%) and those with severe (14.1%) degrees of nomophobia, respectively, accepted the hypothesis, according to the results. The current study's findings agreed with earlier research conducted by several researchers. Copaja-corzo et al. (2022) report a less severe prevalence (7.4%) and a more moderate level of nomophobia (25.7%). The Jilisha et al. (2019) study reveals a relatively small sample based on a severe degree of nomophobia. According to one study, pupils' levels of nomophobia are somewhat severe. The study by Than and Shan (2021) examined the prevalence of nomophobia among university undergraduates who had a moderate to severe degree of the phobia. Preventive measures for mild, moderate, and severe levels must be implemented because the situation is becoming more and more dire. The results indicate that the sample fall in the absent group is the lowest, the sample fall in the moderate category is the greatest, and the sample fall in the mild and severe levels is

almost equal. Therefore, some assessment and management of the level of nomophobia is required. Results show that university administrations, instructors, and parents need to monitor their students' mobile phone usage habits. Additionally, professors should monitor students' use of their phones during lectures and offer them access to the internet so they can obtain study-related information. According to Safdar et al. (2020), this study contributes to the prevalence by revealing that 17.4% of students have mild nomophobia, 61.7% have moderate nomophobia, and 20.9% have severe nomophobia.

The study's second hypothesis examined whether there would be a gender difference in nomophobia among University of Gujrat students that would be significant. Table 7 of the study's results supports the premise that there is a gender difference in nomophobia, with women's mean percentage of the total being 82.60% higher than men's (78.31%). Compared to men, women experience nomophobia more frequently in all its manifestations. As in NBTC, where women show up at 24.38% compared to (23.07%), LC, where women show up at 22.03% compared to (20.52%), NBAI, where women show up at 16.08% compared to men (15.60%), and GVC, where women show up at (20.09%) compared to me (19.11%). The total result was in line with other earlier investigations. According to Schwaiger and Tahir (2020), women exhibit a higher degree of nomophobia than males do. These differences can be attributed to gender. According to Vagka et al. (2023) research, women exhibit a higher level of nomophobia between the ages of 20 and 24 than do men.

The current study also reveals a gender difference in the high level of nomophobia experienced by females, who prioritize social relationships and communication over all else. They also exhibit higher levels of emotional attachment because they feel more secure going out with a mobile phone and can stay in touch with their family via it. Therefore, more research in this area is required

Recommendations and Limitations

More research should be done in the future with students from various universities in Punjab and other provinces to improve the generalizability of the findings. In order for the results of future study to be more broadly applicable to those above the age of 26, the age range must be higher than 26. For the research to effectively be generalizable, students from various educational settings should be involved. To get beyond the limitations of the self-report measure, triangulation or an integrative methodology should be employed. Future studies should be longitudinal in order to examine the temporal variations in smartphone dependency-related sentiments and usage. The University of Gujrat was the only university from which data could be gathered due to time constraints, hence conclusions cannot be applied to students at other universities. There is no possibility of generalizability to students in colleges or schools or non-academic settings because this study was done on university students. Self-reported instruments are used in data collecting, which increases the possibility of biased responses. Because contributors might provide socially expected answers, the results would be carefully inferred. Since the data was collected all at once, it might not reflect changes in people's mobile phone usage patterns or their feelings on their dependence on them over time.

Conclusion

It was determined that a notable prevalence of nomophobia exists among University of Gujrat students. The majority of students exhibit a moderate degree of nomophobia, a small percentage have severe nomophobia, a smaller percentage have mild nomophobia, and very few students have no nomophobia at all. Additionally, because the prevalence of nomophobia was higher in women

than in men, it was determined that there was a substantial gender difference in this condition. To address the rising risk of nomophobia, the government, parents, and educational experts need to make some plans.

References

- American Psychiatric Association. (2022). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed., text rev.). https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.books.9780890425787
- Al-Mamun, F., Mamun, M. A., Prodhan, M. S., Muktarul, M., Griffiths, M. D., Muhit, M., & Sikder, M. T. (2023). Nomophobia among university students: Prevalence, correlates, and the mediating role of smartphone use between Facebook addiction and nomophobia. *Heliyon, 9*(3). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e14284
- Arpaci, I., Baloğlu, M., Özteke Kozan, H. İ., & Kesici, Ş. (2017). Individual differences in the relationship between attachment and nomophobia among college students: The mediating role of mindfulness. *Journal of medical internet research, 19*(12), e404 https://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.8847
- Bartwal, J., & Nath, B. (2020). Evaluation of nomophobia among medical students using smartphone in north India. *Medical Journal Armed Forces India*, *76*(4), 451-455.
- Bandura, A. (1999). Social Cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Asian Journal of social psychology, 2*(1), 21-41 https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-839X.00024
- Bhattacharya, S., Bashar, M. A., Srivastava, A., & Singh, A, (2019). Nomophobia: No mobile phone phobia. *Journal of family medicine and primary care, 8*(4), 1297. doi: 10.4103/jfmpc.jfmpc_71_19
- Bragazzi, N. L., & Del Puente, G. (2014). A proposal for including nomophobia in the new DSM-V. *Psychology research and behavior management,* 150-160.
- Comer, R., & Gould, E. (2010). *Psychology around us*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Devi, U., & Dutta, R. (2022). A review paper on prevalence of Nomophobia among students and its impact on their academic achievement. *Journal of Positive School Psychology*, *6*(3), 5397-5405. http://dx.doi.org/10.2147/JMDH.S415891
- Farooq, M., Rizvi, M. A., Wajid, W.A., Ashraf, M., Farooq, M., Javed, H., & Tayyba, A. (2022). Prevalence of Nomophobia and an Analysis of Its Contributing Factors in the Undergraduate Students of Pakistan. *Cyberpsychology, behavior, and Social Networking, 25*(2), 147-153. https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2021.0148
- Farooqui, I. A., Pore, P., & Gothankar, J. (2018). Nomophobia: an emerging issue in medical institutions?. *Journal of Mental Health, 27*(5), 438-441. https://doi.org/10.1080/09638237.2017.1417564
- Gezgin, D. M., & Çakır, Ö. (2016). Analysis of nomofobic behaviors of adolescents regarding various factors. *Journal of Human Sciences, 13*(2), 2504-2519.
- Islam, S., Akter, R., Sikder, T., & Griffiths, M. D. (2020). Prevalence and factors associated with depression and anxiety among first-year university students in Bangladesh: a cross-sectional study. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction,* 1-14.
- Ivanova, V., & Dingra, D.H (2023, November 11). Nomophobia: definition, causes, symptoms and risk factors. *The Diamand Luxury Rehab in Thailand*.
- Kanmani, A., Bhavani, U., & Maragatham, R. S. (2017). Nomophobia–An insight into its psychological aspects in India. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology, 4*(2), 5-15. 18.01.041.20170402-libre.pdf (d1wqtxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net)
- Kanwal, A., Shoaib, M. H., Tariq, M., Shamim, H., Sadiq, T., & Ahmed, T. F. Predictors of Nomophobia and its Association with Personality Traits: A Cross-Sectional Survey among Undergraduates. *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology, 8*(1), 2456-2165. IJISRT23JAN738.pdf

- Kara, M., Baytemir, K., & Inceman-Kara, F. (2021). Duration of daily smartphone usage as an antecedent of nomophobia: Exploring multiple mediation of loneliness and anxiety. *Behaviour & Informaton Technology, 40*(1), 85-98. https://doi.org/10.1080/0144929X.2019.1673485
- Kaviani, F., Robards, B., Young, K. L., & Koppel, S. (2020). Nomophobia: Is the fear of being without a smartphone associated with problematic use? *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(17), 6024. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17176024
- Kelly, O. (2023, November 22). *Understanding anxiety disorder*. Very well mind. Anxiety Disorder Symptoms, Diagnosis, and Treatments (verywellmind.com)
- Khilnani, A. K., Thaddanee, R., & Khilnani, G. (2019). Prevalence of nomophobia and factors associated with it: a cross-sectional study. *International Journal of Research in Medical Sciences, 7*(2), 468-472. http://dx.doi.org/10.18203/2320-6012.ijrms20190355
- Kumar, S. (2023). Prevalence of Nomophobia and Analysis of Its Contributing Factors among Higher Education Students. *Indian Journal of Private Psychiatry, 17*(2), 68-73.
- Naser, A. Y., Alwafi, H, Itani, R., Alzayani, S., Qadus, S., Al-Rousan, R., & Bahlol, M. (2023). Nomophobia among university students in five Arab countries in the Middle East: prevalence and risk factors. *BMC psychiatry, 23*(1), 541.
- Notara, V., Vagka, E., Gnardellis, C., & Lagious, A. (2021). The emerging phenomenon of nomophobia in young adults: A systematic review study. *Addiction & health, 13*(2). 120. doi: 10.22122/ahj.v13i2.309
- Perrotta, G. (2019). Anxiety disorders: definitions, contexts, neural correlates and strategic therapy. *J Neur Neurosci, 6*(1), 042.
- Qutishat, M., Lazarus, E. R., Razmy, A. M., & Packianathan, S. (2020). University students' nomophobia prevalence, sociodemographic factors and relationship with academic performance at a University in Oman. *International Journal of Africa Nursing Sciences, 13*, 100206. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijans.2020.100206
- Rashotte, L. (2007). Social influence. *The Blackwell encyclopedia of sociology*. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405165518.wbeoss154
- Rodríguez-García, A. M., Moreno-Guerrero, A. J., & Lopez Belmonte, J. (2020). Nomophobia: An individual's growing fear of being without a smartphone—a systematic litereature review. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 17*(2), 580. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17020580
- Rosales-Huamani, J. A., Guzaman-Lopez, R. R., Aroni-Vilca, E. E., Matos-Avalos, C. R., & Castillo-Sequera, J. L. (2019). Determining symptomatic factors of nomophobia in peruvian students from the national university of engineering. *Applied Sciences, 9*(9), 1814. https://doi.org/10.3390/app9091814
- Safdar, L., Khan, N., & Qureshi, M. (2020). Frequency of Nomophobia among Medical Students of Rawalpindi Medical University. *Journal of Rawalpindi Medical College, 24*(1), 42-45. https://doi.org/10.37939/jrmc.v24i1.1540
- Tuco, K. G., Castro-Diaz, S. D., Soriano-Moreno, D. R., & Benites-Zapata, V. A. (2023). Prevalence of nomophobia in university students: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Healthcare Informatics Research*, 29(1), 40-53. http://dx.doi.org/10.4258/hir.2023.29.1.40
- Tanaka-Matsumi, J. (2019). Abnormal psychology and culture. In D. Matsumoto & H. C. Hwang (Eds.), *The handbook of culture and psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 431–467). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780190679743.003.0014
- Vagka, E., Gnardellis, C., Lagiou, A., & Notara, V. (2023). Prevalence and factors related to Nomophobia: arising issues among young adults. *European Journal of Investigation in Health, Psychology and Education, 13*(8), 1476. https://doi.org/10.3390/ejihpe13080107
- Yildirim, C., & Correia, A. P. (2015). Exploring the dimensions of nomophobia: Development and validaton of a self-reported questionnaire. *Computers in human behavior, 49,* 130-137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.02.059