

DEVELOPMENT OF THE BINGE-WATCHING ATTITUDE SCALE: THE CASE OF TÜRKİYE

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Abstract: The objective of this study is to develop a psychometric measurement tool that can be used to identify the underlying reasons for binge-watching behaviour and to introduce this tool to the field. To this end, data were collected from 351 individuals (aged 18 years and over) residing in Pendik-Istanbul/Türkiye using a convenience sampling method and face-to-face surveys. The initial scale included 35 items. Following expert reviews and a pilot study, the number of items was reduced to 31. The revised draft scale, now comprising 31 items, was subsequently administered to the sample group. Following which, data analysis was conducted, beginning with exploratory factor analysis. The exploratory factor analysis revealed that seven items were redundant, leaving 24 items in the final version of the scale. The remaining items were grouped under three factors: “reward”, “socialisation”, and “loneliness”. To validate the structure identified through exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was performed. This analysis revealed that the model exhibited an excellent statistical fit to the data. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the newly developed scale was found to be 0.928. In conclusion, the developed scale is a valid and reliable tool for measuring individuals’ attitudes toward binge-watching. This newly developed scale is anticipated to pave the way and provide guidance for future research in this field. Additionally, it is suggested that the scale be explored with related variables in Turkish and international samples to encourage and foster new research.

Keywords: binge-watching, scale development, attitude scale, Turkish sample, digital disorders

INTRODUCTION

The notion of binge-watching, which is defined as the consumption of multiple episodes of a series or programme in succession, was formally incorporated into the Oxford English Dictionary in 2013. Synonyms employed to delineate this phenomenon include ‘marathon viewing’, ‘excessive watching’, and ‘consecutive viewing’. The term gained prominence during a period of technological advancement that coincided with the gradual replacement of traditional television by digital platforms that were increasingly integrated into daily life. The confluence of technological development, marketing strategies employed by digital platforms, and the tendency of humans to seek social interaction, alleviate feelings of loneliness, or reward themselves, has led to the emergence of binge-watching behaviour.

When it is prolonged, this behaviour can become a form of behavioural addiction, potentially leading to negative outcomes such as sleep deprivation, stress, anxiety, and depression (Smith et al., 2023). A review of the literature indicates the existence of measurement tools for binge-watching at both the international (Flayelle et al., 2019a; Forte et al., 2021) and national levels (Açikel & Özkent, 2023; Demirbaş & Irmak, 2024).

In the context of this study, a Binge-Watching Attitude Scale has been developed, with the objective of identifying the underlying reasons for binge-watching behaviour. This scale is based on a societal framework. It is anticipated that this scale will enhance and inform extant measurement tools in the relevant literature. The proliferation of smart devices, particularly smartphones, has given rise to a multitude of digital disturbances that have profoundly impacted human be-

haviour. One such disturbance is the phenomenon of binge-watching.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Notwithstanding the fact that the term binge-watching was officially added to the Oxford English Dictionary in 2013 (Tüzün Ateşalp & Başlar, 2020; Terzi, 2021), it was first mentioned in a 2005 New York Times article titled 'The Lost Weekend'. The article described a behaviour in which individuals spent an entire weekend or day moving only to meet physiological needs, while otherwise remaining in their pajamas and binge-watching TV series (Gülmez & Yalçıntaş, 2023). The term "binge-watching" is generally understood to denote the practice of viewing multiple episodes of a series or programme in succession. The extant literature reveals that terms such as "marathon viewing", "excessive watching", and "consecutive viewing experience" are also used interchangeably with 'binge-watching' (Tüzün Ateşalp & Başlar, 2020; Çaycı, 2021). There is no universally agreed-upon criterion for the minimum number of episodes required to classify a behaviour as binge-watching, and various perspectives exist on this topic (Ersin, 2023). Some researchers argue that watching one to three episodes consecutively constitutes binge-watching (Pittman & Sheehan, 2015; Panda & Pandey, 2017), while others suggest that binge-watching involves viewing four to six episodes in one sitting (Spruance et al., 2017; Flayelle et al., 2019a). An alternative viewpoint asserts that watching three or more episodes in succession in a single session should be considered binge-watching (Walton-Pattison et al., 2018; Flayelle et al., 2019b). While binge-watching behaviour is often labelled as addictive, there is no clear consensus on the specific threshold at which it becomes an addiction (Flayelle et al., 2017). This behaviour has increased alongside technological advancements and is primarily associated with smart devices, particularly computers, rather than traditional television (Nanda & Banerjee, 2020).

The practice of binge-watching has become increasingly prevalent among users of internet-based platforms, such as Netflix, Amazon

Prime, and PuhuTV, which have been at the forefront of the on-demand viewing era. A significant increase in the number of individuals engaging in binge-watching was observed during the period of the COVID-19 pandemic (Tüzün Ateşalp & Başlar, 2020; Gümüş, 2021; Rahman & Arif, 2021; Ersin, 2023). This rise can be interpreted as an indication that individuals engaged in binge-watching to fill their free time. The practice of uploading entire seasons or episodes of series and programmes consecutively to platforms such as Netflix, Amazon Prime, and PuhuTV is designed to encourage binge-watching behaviour (Tüzün Ateşalp & Başlar, 2020).

The underlying reasons for binge-watching behaviour are manifold. These include the anticipation of future events in the series or programme being viewed, the adoption of an excited emotional state, the deferral of other tasks, the evasion of reality, the passage of time, and the attainment of a sense of social connection through the expectation that the series or programme will be the subject of subsequent discussion (Panda & Pandey, 2017; Rubenking & Bracken, 2018; Rubenking et al., 2018; Özel & Durmaz, 2021; Alimoradi et al., 2022). A review of the extant literature pertaining to the consequences of binge-watching behaviour reveals a range of potential outcomes for individuals. These include obesity, sleep disturbances, suicidal tendencies, social isolation, individualism, depression, and anxiety (Tüzün Ateşalp & Başlar, 2020; Çaycı, 2021; Alimoradi et al., 2022; Saladino et al., 2024). Beyond that, it is also worth noting that excessive monitoring behaviours can have positive effects (Bhatti et al., 2022).

A review of the literature reveals that several studies have addressed the topic of binge-watching. The following section will discuss some of these studies.

A study conducted on a sample of 260 individuals residing in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, examined the concept of binge-watching in relation to the variables of depression and loneliness. The findings indicated that binge-watching behaviour is more prevalent among young individuals, and there is a statistically significant positive relationship between binge-watching be-

haviour and depression. However, the study did not identify a statistically significant relationship between binge-watching and loneliness (Ahmed, 2017).

Vaterlaus et al. (2019) conducted a study to explore the reasons behind binge-watching behaviour among university students. The findings indicated that university students engaged in binge-watching to become more socially active, and that being a university student facilitated binge-watching behaviour. In some cases, students engaged in binge-watching to isolate themselves from society. Building on this, Tüzün Ateşalp and Başlar (2020) conducted three focus group discussions with a total of 20 university students to identify binge-watching behaviours. The analysis revealed that, despite the loss of time, as well as the fatigue and confusion as a result of binge-watching, students engaged in this behaviour to socialise, utilise their free time, and escape from current events. Flayelle et al. (2020) conducted a study using a systematic review method to investigate the concept of binge-watching. The review incorporated a total of 24 studies and concluded that a consensus on the concept remains elusive. The study posits that binge-watching can be regarded as either problematic viewing or a harmless form of behaviour.

In the study conducted by Starosta and Izdorczyk (2020), research published between 2013 and 2020 on the concept of binge-watching was analysed using a systematic review methodology. A total of 28 articles were reviewed, revealing that studies in the field approach the concept of binge-watching from various perspectives. The analysis identified two predominant perspectives on binge-watching. The first perspective regards it as a form of entertainment that elicits positive emotions and can be regarded as a leisure activity. In contrast, the second perspective views binge-watching as a behavioural addiction that necessitates intervention. In another study by Starosta et al. (2021), the relationship between anxiety-depressive syndromes and binge-watching was examined among 645 young Polish participants. The findings revealed a statistically significant relationship between anxiety-depres-

sive syndromes and binge-watching behaviour: as the anxiety-depression levels of the Polish youth increased, so did their tendency to engage in binge-watching. Building upon these findings, Paulus and Aziz (2023) investigated the association between binge-watching, compensatory health beliefs, and academic procrastination in a sample of 167 students. Their analysis identified a statistically significant positive relationship between binge-watching, compensatory health beliefs, and academic procrastination. Cornelio-Marí (2023) investigated binge-watching behaviours among 457 Mexican university students, aged 18-25 years, and found that binge-watching often occurred in solitude among students, with motivations including relaxation, socialisation, and a desire to learn something new.

In the study by Gülmez and Yalçıntaş (2023), which examined the reasons behind university students' binge-watching behaviours, the findings indicated that students primarily engaged in binge-watching for socialisation purposes. Ersin (2023) analysed the reasons behind binge-watching behaviour among 441 Netflix users, identifying social influence, entertainment and relaxation, passing time, and escapism as the primary motivators. Akram et al. (2024) conducted a study in Pakistan with a sample of 386 participants, revealing that binge-watching increased feelings of loneliness and led to poor sleep quality. The study also identified statistically significant relationships between binge-watching behaviour and anxiety, depression, and sleep quality. A further study by Bandla et al. (2024) surveyed 400 university students, also identifying a statistically significant relationship between binge-watching behaviour and anxiety, depression, and sleep quality. In addition, Yu and Alizadeh (2024) examined the impact of binge-watching on loneliness, anxiety, and depression among 446 Chinese university students. Their analysis found that binge-watching addiction significantly affected levels of depression, loneliness, and anxiety.

In the study by Aytaş and Topatan (2024), the binge-watching behaviours of university students were analysed based on demographic data. A total of 636 students participated in the

study, which revealed that female students engaged in binge-watching more frequently than male students. Moreover, the propensity for binge-watching diminished with an increase in educational attainment, with students lacking prior work experience demonstrating higher levels of binge-watching in comparison to those with work experience.

Elkholy et al. (2024) examined the relationship between the mental health of Egyptian university students and binge-watching behaviour. The analysis encompassed data from 333 participants, who were stratified into three categories: non-binge-watchers, non-problematic binge-watchers, and problematic binge-watchers. The findings indicated that individuals classified as problematic binge-watchers experienced more significant mental health challenges. Kılınç and Çalışkan (2024) identified that among the underlying reasons for binge-watching, enrichment and coping/escapism were significantly associated with happiness.

A review of the extant literature reveals the development and introduction of measurement tools similar to the Binge-Watching Attitude Scale, the focus of the present study, by various researchers over different periods. One such measurement tool, consisting of 24 items grouped under the sub-dimensions of “craving, dependency, anticipation, and avoidance”, was developed by Forte et al. (2021) and added to the literature. The study comprised a sample of 1,277 individuals residing in Italy. The Turkish validity and reliability study of the Binge-Watching Dependency Scale developed by Forte et al. (2021) was conducted by Demirbaş and Irmak (2024). The scale in question comprises 20 items and 4 sub-dimensions, which are named as follows: “Craving (9 items), Dependency (4 items), Anticipation (3 items), and Avoidance (4 items)”.

Moreover, the validity and reliability study of the scale developed by Forte et al. (2021) for the Turkish adolescent population was introduced to the field by Açikel and Özkent (2023). The study comprised a sample of 189 adolescents aged between 12 and 17 years, and the statistical analyses confirmed the validity and reliability of the scale.

Consequently, it is evident that the measurement tool developed by Forte et al. (2021) has undergone two separate validity and reliability studies in the Turkish context, targeting both adult and adolescent populations. Additionally, Flayelle et al. (2019a) developed a measurement tool to assess binge-watching interactions and symptoms: this tool consists of seven factors and 40 items.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Excessive monitoring, when sustained over a long duration, is considered a type of behavioural addiction. A review of the literature reveals that individuals engage in excessive monitoring behaviours to satisfy various needs, such as information seeking, entertainment, and socialisation. This phenomenon is often examined within the framework of the Uses and Gratifications Theory (Katz et al., 1973).

This theory emerged to answer the question, “Why do individuals watch television?”. Introduced by psychologist Elihu Katz, and subsequently updated in various forms, its core assumption is that individuals use mass media to fulfil diverse needs (Katz et al., 1973; Blumler, 1979; Ruggiero, 2000). Since the desires and expectations of individuals can vary, each person may turn to a different mass medium. Excessive monitoring behaviour extends the Uses and Gratifications Theory. Individuals, who achieve gratification through media consumption, engage in excessive monitoring, particularly with short videos (Steiner & Xu, 2020).

When examining studies within the Uses and Gratifications Theory perspective, it is evident that this research generally focuses on the use of social media platforms by individuals (Whiting & Williams, 2013; Al-Jabri et al., 2015; Florenthal, 2015; Ürkmez & Eskicumalı, 2021). There are also studies in the literature that address excessive monitoring behaviour within the context of the Uses and Gratifications Theory. These studies are discussed below.

In a study by Fernandes and Pinto (2020), where university students were included in the sample, the findings revealed that participants en-

gaged in excessive monitoring behaviours for the following purposes - “escaping reality, fulfilling entertainment and curiosity needs, and belonging to a group”. A study by Stamenković and Mitrović (2023) from Serbia explored excessive monitoring within the framework of the Uses and Gratifications Theory, specifically concerning TikTok videos. Their analysis identified self-expression, entertainment, identity formation, and social integration as the underlying reasons for individuals’ TikTok usage and time spent on the platform. In a study by Kasım (2022), comments made by individuals on the official Instagram page of *Masterchef Türkiye*, a recently popular programme in Türkiye, were analysed from a Uses and Gratifications Theory perspective. The study found that individuals experienced pleasure when their favoured contestant won, as well as sadness when they lost. Another finding from this study highlighted the individuals’ desire for entertainment and their need to escape daily life stress. Tiryakioglu and Yavaşcalı (2019) investigated the motivations behind individuals watching Twitch TV broadcasts created by video and e-sports players, within the context of the Uses and Gratifications Theory. Their assessment revealed that the desire for entertainment was prominent, and a significant difference was found in the influence of the time spent watching such content and individuals’ motivation.

When excessive monitoring behaviour becomes prolonged, it is often considered within the framework of behavioural addiction. Such addiction is related to substance-related disorders, but evaluates an individual as addicted without substance use (Grant et al., 2010). Examples related to behavioural addiction include gambling addiction, social media addiction, and online shopping addiction (Hollander & Allen, 2006). Behavioural addiction can also be explained by drawing upon theoretical backgrounds. These theories often share similarities with those used to understand substance addiction in the literature, yet they also have distinct differences from substance addiction. Theories explaining behavioural addiction include social learning theory, cognitive-behavioural approach, impulse control dis-

orders perspective, neurobiological approaches, and comorbidity and risk factors (Bandura, 1977; Potenza, 2006; Grant et al., 2010; APA, 2013). The sub-dimensions of the excessive monitoring attitude scale developed in this study were examined within the context of these theories. One sub-dimension of the study, termed “reward”, includes statements related to individuals rewarding themselves, while engaging in excessive monitoring behaviour. This can be explained by the social learning theory introduced by Bandura (1977). The other sub-dimensions of the scale developed in this study are “socialisation” and “loneliness”. In the cognitive-behavioural approach, an individual’s behaviours are explained by reinforcers and triggers (Potenza, 2006; Grant et al., 2010). The presence of socialisation as a factor in an individual’s excessive monitoring behaviour, alongside the desire to withdraw from society and engage in excessive monitoring, can be explained by the cognitive-behavioural approach within behavioural addiction theories. In summary, the sub-dimensions of the scale developed in this study were constructed from the perspective of behavioural addiction theories. The primary aim of the present study is to develop a measurement tool that reveals individuals’ attitudes in this regard.

METHOD

Ethical considerations

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Istanbul Gedik University on November 10, 2023 (Approval No: E-56365223-050.02.04-2023.137548.236-597).

Population and sample

The population of this study consists of individuals over the age of 18 years residing in the Pendik district of Istanbul. The sample comprises a total of 351 individuals who were engaged in face-to-face surveys after using the convenience sampling method. Ensuring that participants met the inclusion criteria for the study was facilitated through direct data collection. There are several reasons for recruiting individuals aged 18 years

and above. One reason is the anticipated difficulty in obtaining parental/guardian consent and informed consent forms for data collection from minors. Another reason is that individuals over 18 years of age are expected to possess more comprehensive knowledge regarding the research topic. Additionally, collecting data from adult participants is believed to yield more realistic results.

There are various perspectives in the literature regarding the appropriate sample size for scale development studies, often tied to the number of items in the scale and the minimum required sample size. According to Karakoç and Dönmez (2014) and Nunnally (1994), the sample size for scale development should be at least five times, and preferably ten times, the number of items in the scale. Hinkin (1995) suggests that the sample size should range between 4 to 10 participants per item. Similarly, Mundform et al. (2005) recommend a sample size between 3 to 20 times the number of items.

In addition to item-based sample size requirements, there are views on the minimum number of participants needed. Gorsuch (2014) considers a sample size of 50 to 200 sufficient for scale development, while Kline (1994) argues that at least 100 participants are required. Comrey and Lee (2013) provide a qualitative evaluation of sample sizes: 50 participants (very poor), 100 participants (poor), 200 participants (fair), 300 participants (good), 500 participants (very good), and 1,000 participants (excellent). Carpenter (2018) recommends including at least 300 participants in scale development studies.

In this study, 351 participants were included to validate a scale consisting of 24 items. Based on the views of Nunnally (1994), Karakoç and Dönmez (2014), Hinkin (1995), Gorsuch (2014), Kline (1994), and Carpenter (2018), this sample size adequately represents the population. Additionally, the sample size aligns with the “good” category proposed by Comrey and Lee (2013). According to Mundform et al. (2005), who recommend a sample size between 3 and 20 times the number of items, the sample size in this study exceeds 14 times the number of items (24 items, 351 participants), confirming its adequacy.

In summary, based on the views, it can be concluded that the sample size achieved in this study sufficiently represents the target population.

Conceptual model of the study

The conceptual model of this study was developed to determine individuals’ attitudes toward binge-watching (reward, socialisation, and loneliness) and the structural relationships between these attitudes. Sub-dimensions of the scale were named using terms that best describe the items grouped under each dimension. Explanations regarding these dimensions are as follows:

- **Reward:** This dimension, termed “Reward”, encompasses items reflecting the idea that individuals engage in binge-watching as a means of dedicating time to themselves, effectively rewarding themselves.
- **Socialisation:** The dimension named “Socialisation” includes items indicating that individuals engage in binge-watching to become socially active in environments they are in or wish to be in.
- **Loneliness:** The dimension “Loneliness” consists of items representing individuals’ engagement in binge-watching either to spend time alone or because they are compelled to remain alone.

Development of the scale

The conceptual framework of the scale was derived from the literature and applied to participants who agreed to participate in the study (Vatterlaus et al., 2019; Flayelle et al., 2019a; Flayelle et al., 2019b; Flayelle et al., 2020; Starosta & Izydorczyk, 2020; Tüzün Ateşalp & Başlar, 2020; Forte et al., 2021; Ersin, 2023; Gülmez & Yalçıntaş, 2023; Cornelio-Marí, 2023; Aytaş & Topatan, 2024; Elkholy et al., 2024; Yu & Alizadeh, 2024). Based on this conceptual framework, the item pool for the scale was created by the researchers.

Data collection process

This study is an output of a research project supported by TÜBİTAK 2209-A Undergraduate Research Projects (project number 1919B012318363). The project was conducted under the academic supervision of the second author and led by the first author. Since the proposal required ethical approval, it was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Istanbul Gedik University on November 10, 2023. The project was accepted during the TÜBİTAK 2209-A 2023/2 term, with the acceptance date being March 22, 2024.

As part of this project, the scale form was administered to individuals residing in the Pendik district of Istanbul over a three-month period, from April 1 to July 30, 2024.

RESULTS

Content validity and pilot study

This study aimed to develop a psychometric measurement tool to determine the attitudes of individuals toward binge-watching behaviour. Initially, a comprehensive literature review was conducted on the subject. Based on the findings of the literature review, a conceptual framework was developed, leading to the creation of a question pool consisting of 35 items.

The items in the question pool were reviewed by 10 experts with theoretical knowledge of the topic. Among these experts, 2 were from medical faculties, 5 from health sciences faculties, and 3 from education faculties. The Lawshe technique was employed to evaluate the level of agreement among the experts regarding the scale's content validity. Expert opinions on the clarity and appropriateness of the scale items for the target audience were used to estimate content or construct validity (Yurdugül, 2005).

Based on the evaluations of the experts, the content validity ratio calculated using the Lawshe technique was found to be 0.96. This result is sufficient according to the significance level criteria for content validity ($\alpha = 0.05$), as outlined in the table developed by Veneziano and Hooper (1997) (Yurdugül, 2005).

Following the expert review, a pilot study was conducted with a group of 20 healthcare professionals. After the pilot study, 4 items were removed from the draft scale, reducing the total number of items to 31. The remaining 31 items were then administered to the same group of 40 participants two times, with a three-week interval between each administration.

The analysis revealed a correlation coefficient of 0.85 (85%) between the first and the second time the scale was administered. This high correlation indicates a statistically significant relationship and a strong consistency in participants' responses over the three-week period.

After establishing reliability, the finalised scale was administered to the target sample of 351 individuals.

Results related to the construct validity of the scale

The items constituting the question pool developed by the researchers were subjected to factor analysis using the IBM SPSS software package. The factor analysis yielded the factor loadings of the items. In accordance with the established criteria, items are required to have a factor loading of 0.30 or above, they are required to cluster under a single factor, as well as to refrain from overlapping across multiple factors (Karagöz & Bardakçı, 2020; Karagöz, 2021). Seven items that did not meet these criteria were excluded from the study, reducing the number of items in the scale to 24. For the remaining 24 items, the minimum factor loading was found to be 0.457, indicating that the factor loadings were statistically adequate. The findings from the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Results related to explanatory factor analysis

Factors	Statements	Factor Loadings	Explained Variance (%)
Reward factor	BW1: By watching my favourite programme consecutively, I create time for myself.	0.72	37.98
	BW4: When stressed, I engage in binge-watching to relax psychologically.	0.69	
	BW17: I engage in binge-watching to avoid boredom.	0.67	
	BW5: I engage in binge-watching for programmes I think will make me happy.	0.65	
	BW16: At the end of a busy day, I engage in binge-watching.	0.64	
	BW18: I relieve daily stress by engaging in binge-watching.	0.63	
	BW6: I engage in binge-watching to escape my problems.	0.63	
	BW2: After completing an important task, I plan to binge-watch my favourite programme.	0.62	
	BW14: When I have nothing else to do, I engage in binge-watching.	0.62	
	BW7: I engage in binge-watching to ease my anxieties.	0.61	
	BW15: I feel refreshed after engaging in binge-watching.	0.59	
	BW3: I engage in binge-watching to better understand complex storylines.	0.45	
Socialisation factor	BW23: I binge-watch to help me participate in conversations in my friend group.	0.77	10.80
	BW21: I binge-watch to have common topics to discuss with people around me.	0.75	
	BW22: I binge-watch to join discussions about a programme on various platforms.	0.74	
	BW25: I binge-watch to create a social circle and avoid loneliness.	0.72	
	BW24: I feel it is necessary to binge-watch due to my surrounding environment.	0.70	
	BW20: I binge-watch to be part of a group of individuals following the same programme.	0.64	
	BW12: By binge-watching my favourite programme, I fulfil my need for socialisation.	0.56	
	BW13: By binge-watching, I create the social environment I would have gained through interacting with others.	0.56	
Loneliness factor	BW9: Even though there are many people around me, I find myself binge-watching because I have no one to confide in.	0.78	5.40
	BW8: I binge-watch because I lack friendships where I believe I can spend meaningful time.	0.73	
	BW10: I binge-watch because I cannot establish social relationships.	0.66	
	BW11: I binge-watch because I do not want to establish social relationships.	0.60	
Evaluation criteria			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy: 0.929			
Approx. Chi-square: 4018.804			
Bartlett's test of sphericity: p < 0.000			
Extraction method: Principal components			
Rotation method: Varimax			
Total explained variance: 54.205%			

As demonstrated in Table 1, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value is 0.929. A KMO value in the range of $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$ is considered excellent (Karagöz, 2021). Consequently, the KMO value of 0.929 for this scale signifies that the result is statistically excellent. A high KMO value is indicative of an adequate sample size for factor analysis. Additionally, the results of the Bartlett's test ($p < 0.05$) were significant, indicating the presence of strong correlations among variables and that the data followed a multivariate normal distribution. Consequently, the findings suggest

that the data are suitable for factor analysis and the sample size is sufficient.

For factor loadings, a value above 0.30 is generally deemed acceptable (Karagöz, 2021; Karagöz & Bardakçı, 2020). In this analysis, the smallest factor loading identified was 0.457. The cumulative variance explained by the eigenvalues accounted for 54.205% of the total variance. The analysis of the rotated factor loadings revealed that the scale comprises 24 items and 3 dimensions. The dimensions were then named based on

the meanings conveyed by the items in each factor, namely “Reward”, “Socialisation” and “Loneliness.”

Conducting both EFA and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the same sample group enables the empirical validation of the data structure (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). In accordance with this, the data collected from the same sam-

ple group were subjected to both EFA and CFA within the present study. The CFA was performed on the proposed scale using the IBM AMOS software package. The purpose of applying CFA was to assess the degree to which the data fit the hypothesised model. The corresponding diagram is presented in Figure 1.

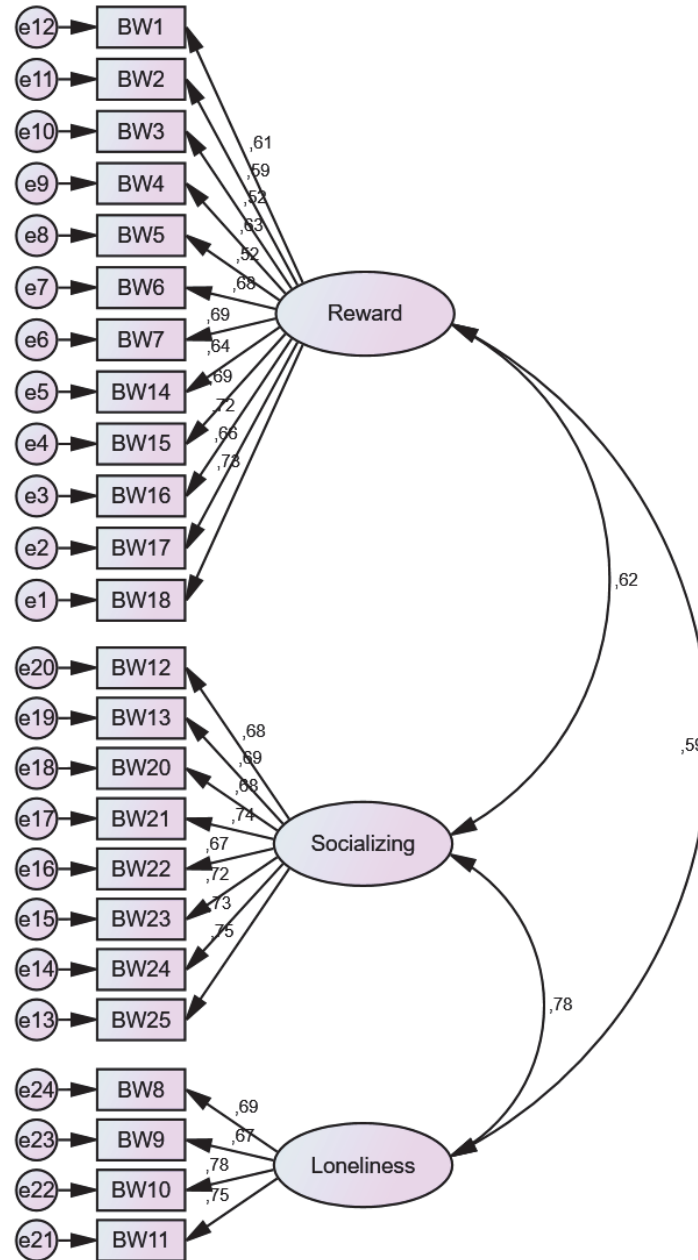


Figure 1: Measurement model and goodness-of-fit results

As illustrated in Table 2, the following information is provided regarding the model fit results of the research.

Table 2: Model fit results of the study

	CMIN/df (χ^2 /sd)	GFI	IFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Acceptable value*	< 5	> 0.85	> 0.90	> 0.90	< 0.08	< 0.08
Calculated value	2.521	0.871	0.903	0.902	0.066	0.0574

CFI: Comparative Fit Index; CMIN: Chi-square value; GFI: Goodness of Fit Index ; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual.

(*Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Munro, 2005; Hooper et al., 2008; Schumacher & Lomax, 2010; Kline, 2011; Byrne, 2013)

The fit indices presented in Table 2 indicate that the model achieves a good fit statistically, suggesting structural validity for the model. The

results of the CFA conducted on the optimised measurement model are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of the CFA for the optimized measurement model

Factors	Items	Standardised loading	Estimate	Standard error	t -value	p -value	AVE	CR	Cronbach's Alpha
Reward factor	BW1	0.59	0.85	0.08	10.64	***	0.41	0.80	0.89
	BW2	0.56	0.76	0.07	10.15	***			
	BW3	0.51	0.67	0.07	9.26	***			
	BW4	0.62	0.85	0.07	11.30	***			
	BW5	0.51	0.68	0.07	9.18	***			
	BW6	0.67	0.88	0.07	12.31	***			
	BW7	0.69	0.93	0.07	12.64	***			
	BW14	0.63	0.86	0.07	11.57	***			
	BW15	0.69	0.94	0.07	12.56	***			
	BW6	0.72	0.94	0.07	13.11	***			
	BW17	0.65	0.88	0.07	11.92	***			
Socialisation factor	BW18	0.73	1.00				0.50	0.81	0.88
	BW12	0.68	0.86	0.06	12.64	***			
	BW13	0.68	0.87	0.06	12.76	***			
	BW20	0.68	0.88	0.07	12.69	***			
	BW21	0.74	0.91	0.06	13.90	***			
	BW22	0.67	0.83	0.06	12.43	***			
	BW23	0.72	0.91	0.06	13.43	***			
	BW24	0.73	0.94	0.06	13.63	***			
Loneliness factor	BW25	0.75	1.00				0.52	0.70	0.81
	BW8	0.68	0.94	0.07	12.11	***			
	BW9	0.66	0.91	0.07	11.74	***			
	BW10	0.77	1.03	0.07	13.63	***			
	BW11	0.75	1.00						

Cronbach alpha value for the entire scale is 0.92.

AVE: Average Variance Extracted ; CR: Composite Reliability

An analysis of the CFA results listed in Table 3 revealed that the p-values for all pairwise relationships were below 0.001. This finding indicates that the factor loadings are significant, demonstrating that the items are appropriately loaded onto their

respective factors. Furthermore, the standardised regression coefficients were 0.515 or higher, suggesting the strong predictive power of the latent variables and high factor loadings for each item.

The analysis further identified that the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value is below 0.50. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), when the AVE value is less than 0.50, a Composite Reliability (CR) value exceeding 0.60 is sufficient to establish model fit validity. As demonstrated in Table 3, the calculated AVE values for the factors were 0.41 or higher, while the CR values were statistically identified as 0.70 or higher. This finding suggests that the model exhibits adequate validity.

The Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) was calculated to determine discriminant validity of the developed scale. In this method, average correlation is calculated to determine different construct measures between dimensions (DeVellis, 2017). The criterion for determining the HTMT value is < 0.85 or < 0.90 . In this study, where the binge-watching attitude scale was developed, the HTMT values between the reward, socialisation, and loneliness dimensions of the scale were determined using the SmartPLS package programme. These values are as follows: the HTMT value between the reward and socialisation dimensions was calculated as 0.618, while the HTMT value between the reward and loneliness dimensions was 0.645, and the HTMT value between the socialisation and loneliness dimensions was 0.749. Since the HTMT value between all three dimensions was calculated as < 0.85 , there is discriminant validity between the dimensions. This reveals that the developed scale has discriminant validity.

The item-total correlation analysis conducted for the entire scale yielded a reliability coefficient of 0.928. This value falls within the range of $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$, signifying a high level of reliability. In addition to the overall reliability of the scale, the reliability coefficients for the sub-factors, namely general reward ($\alpha = 0.893$), socialisation ($\alpha = 0.889$), and loneliness ($\alpha = 0.815$), are also within the range of $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$. These findings indicate that the developed scale statistically demonstrates high reliability, both in its entirety and across its sub-dimensions (Karagöz, 2021).

DISCUSSION

The term ‘binge-watching’ is defined as the consumption of multiple episodes of a TV series

or programme in succession. A review of the extant literature reveals numerous underlying reasons for binge-watching behaviour. These reasons include the desire to watch something new for socialisation purposes, escapism, passing time, and the need for solitude (Panda & Pandey, 2017; Rubenking & Bracken, 2018; Rubenking et al., 2018; Özel & Durmaz, 2021; Alimuradi et al., 2022). The notion of binge-watching has been examined across various scientific disciplines, with studies in this domain reporting findings indicating that individuals engaging in binge-watching behaviours are susceptible to anxiety, depression, sleep disturbances, and an elevated risk of suicidal ideation (Starosta et al., 2021; Akram et al., 2024; Bandola et al., 2024; Yu & Alizadeh, 2024).

A number of measurement tools for attitudes towards binge-watching have been developed over different time periods and samples. One such instrument, which was introduced by Flayelle et al. (2019a), consists of seven factors and 40 items, derived from a sample of 6,556 participants. The factors were labelled as follows: preoccupation, positive emotions, desire, enjoyment, pleasure preservation, binge-watching, dependence, and loss of control. The factor labels of the scale indicate that it addresses both the positive and negative dimensions of binge-watching. The Binge-Watching Attitude Scale, which was developed within the present study, comprises a reward dimension that primarily reflects individuals engaging in binge-watching as a form of self-reward. This characteristic is somewhat similar to the pleasure preservation sub-factor of the scale developed by Flayelle et al. (2019a). The scale developed by Flayelle et al. (2019a) has been widely adopted in studies related to binge-watching (e.g., Starosta & Izydorczyk, 2020; Starosta et al., 2021; Aytaş & Topatan, 2024).

Subsequent to the work of Flayelle et al. (2019a), another binge-watching attitude scale was developed by Forte et al. (2021), involving a sample of 1,227 participants residing in Italy. Their tool includes 24 items based on four factors labelled as follows: yearning, dependence, anticipation, and avoidance. In contrast to the present study, which developed a scale with three

dimensions, Forte et al. (2021) constructed a scale with four sub-factors. It is noteworthy that both the present study's scale and the scale by Forte et al. (2021) include 24 items. It is noteworthy that the scale developed by Forte et al. (2021) has undergone rigorous validation and reliability testing within the Turkish population, encompassing both adult and adolescent samples (see Demirbaş & Irmak, 2024; Açikel & Özkent, 2023). In addition, the scale developed in the present study is consistent with previous tools, including those by Flayelle et al. (2019) and Forte et al. (2021). It is therefore anticipated that this newly developed scale will serve as a valuable instrument that can be used to address binge-watching, a problematic consequence of the digital age.

CONCLUSION

This study adhered to all stages of scale development outlined by Karagöz and Bardakçı (2020), Karagöz (2021), and DeVellis (2017), and the statistical analyses confirmed the scale's validity and reliability. It is anticipated that the developed scale will facilitate future studies, and it is recommended that subsequent research include a larger and more diverse sample. In this study, during the exploratory factor analysis, items that did not load onto any factor, loaded onto multiple factors (cross-loading), or had factor loadings below 0.30 were excluded.

LIMITATIONS

As with every study, the present study has some limitations. These limitations are as follows:

The data collected for this study was cross-sectional, which constitutes a limitation. Another limitation is that the sample consisted of individuals over the age of 18 years residing in a single district. The study only included individuals residing in Pendik, Istanbul, Türkiye, which limits its generalisability to other regions. The study focused on scale development. Another limitation of this study is that the scale development process did not include the use of another relevant measurement tool when the model was created. Another limitation is the lack of qualitative participant access: further diverse and detailed information could have been obtained through the inclusion of qualitative participant information in the study. It is suggested that these limitations should be taken into consideration and addressed by researchers in future studies.

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APPENDIX: BINGE-WATCHING ATTITUDE SCALE: TURKISH SAMPLE

The scale below is structured as a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 indicates strongly disagree, 2 indicates disagree, 3 indicates neither agree nor disagree, 4 indicates agree, and 5 indicates strongly agree. The scale consists of 5 sub-dimensions:

1. Statements numbered 1-12 represent the reward sub-factor.
2. Statements numbered 13-20 represent the socialisation sub-factor.
3. Statements numbered 21-24 represent the loneliness sub-factor.

Item in study	No	Statements	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	1	By watching my favourite programme consecutively, I create time for myself.					
4	2	When stressed, I engage in binge-watching to relax psychologically.					
17	3	I engage in binge-watching to avoid boredom.					
5	4	I engage in binge-watching programmes I think will make me happy.					
16	5	At the end of a busy day, I engage in binge-watching.					
18	6	I relieve daily stress by engaging in binge-watching.					
6	7	I engage in binge-watching to escape my problems.					
2	8	After completing an important task, I plan to binge-watch my favorite programme.					
14	9	When I have nothing else to do, I engage in binge-watching.					
7	10	I engage in binge-watching to ease my anxiety.					
15	11	I feel refreshed after engaging in binge-watching.					
3	12	I engage in binge-watching to better understand complex storylines.					
23	13	I binge-watch to help me participate in conversations in my friend group.					
21	14	I binge-watch to have common topics to discuss with people around me.					
22	15	I binge-watch to join discussions about a programme on various platforms.					
25	16	I binge-watch to create a social circle and avoid loneliness.					
24	17	I feel it is necessary to binge-watch due to my surrounding environment.					
20	18	I binge-watch to be part of a group of individuals following the same programme.					
12	19	By binge-watching my favourite programme, I fulfil my need for socialisation.					
13	20	By binge-watching, I create the social environment I would have gained through interacting with others.					
9	21	Even though there are many people around me, I find myself binge-watching because I have no one to confide in.					
8	22	I binge-watch because I lack friendships where I believe I can spend meaningful time.					
10	23	I binge-watch because I cannot establish social relationships.					
11	24	I binge-watch because I do not want to establish social relationships.					