INTERNATIONAL DOCTORAL
SCHOOL OF THE USC

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PhD Thesis

Problematic Internet Use and online risk behaviours. An analysis from the gender perspective

Santiago de Compostela, 2022

Doctoral Programme in Psychology of Work and Organisations, Legal-Forensic, Consumer and User

DOCTORAL THESIS

PROBLEMATIC INTERNET USE AND ONLINE RISK BEHAVIOURS. AN ANALYSIS FROM THE GENDER PERSPECTIVE

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INTERNATIONAL PHD SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELA

PHD PROGRAMME IN PSYCHOLOGY OF WORK AND ORGANISATIONS, LEGAL-FORENSIC, CONSUMERS AND USERS

SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELA

2022

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author of this dissertation declares not having any conflict of interest regarding the present study.

FUNDING

This thesis has been supported by funding granted by the Xunta de Galicia (Government of Galicia) to support predoctoral researchers within the framework of the *Programa de axudas de apoio á etapa predoutoral*.

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Ars longa, vita brevis

A quienes ya se han ido…
Pero nunca dejáis de estar

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AGRADECIMIENTOS/ ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Y heme aquí, cerrando este capítulo vital que parecía que no acabaría nunca. Por fin sentada ante estas páginas donde la ciencia pierde protagonismo para dejar espacio a sentimientos que posiblemente no tengan tanta presencia en nuestras vidas como debieran. Se hace difícil a veces reconocer su lugar a las personas que me han traído hasta aquí cuando el camino se torcía, aparecían las piedras, árboles y puede que algún que otro dragón. Ha habido personas que nunca han faltado, otras que han ido y venido como las olas del mar, quienes parecía que siempre iban a estar pero nuestro andar no conservó su camino, quienes han aparecido de forma sorpresiva y feroz y ya nunca se han ido, y quienes con muy poco tiempo han hecho muy grandes contribuciones. En la tesis y en la vida misma. Se hace difícil encontrar las palabras o el momento para dar las gracias, pero intentaré aprovechar el siguiente espacio para hacer precisamente eso, sabiendo que se quedarán en el tintero muchas personas y momentos. Así que ya sabes, si perteneces a una de esas categorías (espero que la primera), siéntete libre de coger un pedacito de este agradecimiento genérico por ahora y ya luego darme una colleja cuando me veas.

A quienes me habéis apoyado en estos años de aventura tesil… GRACIAS

Pero la historia de esta tesis comienza mucho antes. Sin ánimo de contar *The story of my life*, creo que debo mencionar la oportunidad de retomar los estudios en el IES Castelao. Si esa experiencia no hubiera salido exactamente como salió, no habría llegado a pisar la universidad ni de lejos, por lo que quiero extender mi agradecimiento a todo el equipo docente del centro. A veces los pequeños detalles no son pequeños en absoluto. Sí ha habido un profesional en concreto que para mí fue el ejemplo de perseverancia y lucha por lo que se quiere que me ayudó a empezar mi propia etapa universitaria. Gracias por compartir tus anécdotas de pueblos de la Galicia profunda, jroloñesas, y la infinita sabiduría de “La vida es j***** y al final te mueres” (Calaza, circa 2012). Posiblemente si tú no hubieras hecho de “niñero” en Selectividad, yo hubiera permitido que la inseguridad ganase ese batalla.

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Voy a hacer flash forward durante mis años universitarios. Pasaron demasiadas cosas y habría que mencionar a tanta gente que no me llegarían las páginas o las palabras. Nos ponemos en la primera aproximación real a un trabajo de investigación que es el TFG. Gracias, Eduardo por haber sido el tutor que necesitaba cuando lo necesitaba. Aunque luego escogiera seguir otro camino, no he olvidado tus enseñanzas ni tus consejos.

Ese último curso también fue decisivo para tomar este rumbo y ningún otro.

A Antonio le quiero agradecer el momento en el Practicum en que puso la mayor base de datos que había visto jamás en mis manos para que pudiera contrastar una hipótesis que le plantee en la hora del café. No confirmé mi hipótesis, pero sin duda confirmé que quería dedicarme a la investigación. Y a pesar de que el camino ante mí parecía difícil, me permitiste ocupar un espacio en el equipo de investigación y luchar para lograr ese sueño. Te agradezco haberme empujado a sacar esta tesis, los "sáfate" que nos permiten aprender a caminar autónomamente y todas tus demás lecciones.

A Teresa, que muchas veces parece la gran "desconocida" del equipo. En mi caso he tenido la oportunidad de conocerte un poquito más cuando aceptaste ser codirectora de esta tesis y poder ahora agradecerte muchos gestos que trascienden lo laboral y denotan una preocupación por el bienestar de la gente que te rodea. Y qué necesario es que haya quien se pare a pensar en aquello que muchas veces descuidamos en beneficio de la producción científica o las deadlines.

Aunque mis directores de tesis son la figura más obvia en mi desarrollo investigador, un equipo lo componen muchas personas. Ya se sabe que si quieres viajar rápido, caminas en solitario, pero si quieres llegar lejos lo haces en grupo. Jesús Varela, director del equipo y catedrático, dos figuras que ya por separado pueden intimidar, pero por suerte la hora del café nos permite ver a la persona más allá de los títulos. Sara, Patricia y Alba, que yo estaba de entrada cuando vosotras estabais de salida y no pude aprender tanto de vosotras como me hubiera gustado. Sandra, con quien sí pude coincidir más, como literalmente me dijiste que no te escribiera nada… si eso ya te lo digo

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en persona. Manuel, para mí eres de este equipo con independencia de la afiliación que pongan los artículos, sobre todo cuando vienes portando golosos regalos. Pichel, casi hemos llegado a la meta tesil conjuntamente, mucha suerte con el camino que sigas. Nuria, que siempre me aportas una perspectiva totalmente distinta. Javier, por haberme dado la oportunidad de seguir trabajando y aprendiendo contigo un poco más, por cuestionarme y obligarme a hacerlo mejor sin dejar de ser un amigo. Vanessa, por haber trascendido el ámbito académico y estar tan dispuesta a aprender juntas de ciencia como de gastronomía. Espero que nos lleve a dónde nos lleve la vida, nuestros caminos sigan convergiendo. Álvaro, seguiremos con interés tu carrera. Espero que brilles con tanta fuerza como yo creo que lo harás. Y por supuesto, muchas otras personas que estuvisteis de paso, pero dejasteis valiosísimas aportaciones.

A David, compañero de mil y una batallas en esta aventura tesil, sólo espero que cuando toque jugar todo al rojo no dejes que gane la Casa, pues mereces todo el honor del mundo.

E agora debo recordar a importancia dos organismos que destinan fondos para a investigación en xeral, e a formación de doutores en concreto. De non vivir e estudar nun sitio con axudas destinadas precisamente a isto, eu xa tería abandonado o barco fai anos. Dicir tamén que aínda queda moito camiño por percorrer. Quero agradecer de corazón o traballo de persoas que comprometen o seu tempo en intentar ir pavimentando devandito camiño, trazando novas rutas, sinalando onde hai fendas e engadindo os carteis que evitan que nos perdamos. Pero non se pode esquecer ás persoas que parece que están ao outro lado do valado, pero non dubidan en saltar na nosa axuda, en facer todo o posible por simplificar as instrucións do traxecto e sinalar por onde é máis doado avanzar. Graciñas polo voso esforzo en facer a carreira investigadora máis doada e mellor para nós e para toda a comunidade.

Al alumnado que ha tenido que padecerme. Si he podido formarme como docente en estos años ha sido gracias a vuestra sorprendente paciencia y ganas de aprender. Espero que sigáis conservando esa ilusión y dedicación más allá de la Universidad.

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To those who made Dublin City University a second home to me. I learned during my Research Stay that when Irish people welcome you, they do so not once, but a hundred thousand times. To James for not hesitating to receive me in the Anti-Bullying Centre and Mairéad for agreeing to supervise me, but for so much more… And Angela, Darran, Derek, Geraldine, Katerina, Lian, Murray, Robert, Seff, Tijana. A hundred thousand words will not make you all merit, so I will just say… Go raibh mile maith agat.

A Patricia por haber seguido conviviendo conmigo en un momento en que la demencia tesil hacía estragos… aunque entonces recuerdo tus palabras sobre los quesos gallegos y ya se me pasa la culpabilidad. Pero supongo que no se puede sobrevivir a la Gran Cuarentena juntas y que eso no una lo suficiente como para perdonarte lo mancheguiña que eres.

A mi familia. No me extenderé porque me prometí hablar sólo de lo estrictamente vinculado a la tesis, aunque a veces todo se cruza. Diré que lamento profundamente que la principal culpable de hacerme querer una tesis no esté aquí para verla finalmente. Decir también que mi carrera investigadora y esta tesis no serían lo que son sin mi traductora de confianza, siempre pronta a revisar mi inglés y hacer centenares de mejoras. Yo la llamo mamá, but in their tongue she is catcher of typos, bringer of missing verbs, explainer of synonymia. Porque nadie más que tú se implicaría como lo haces, echando las horas que hagan falta con independencia de los festivos, el viento o la marea.

A esas amistades gracias a la cuales aprendí que *blood is thicker than water* no es el dicho entero. Por los moment in time que lo valen todo. Por los segundos desayunos que son la comida más importante del día. Por los brownies de chocolate en noches de estudio. Por los bailes improvisados a los que nadie más llamaría así. Por los tés telemáticos. Por los viajes planeados a las 5 de la mañana. Por los amaneceres donde los caballitos. Por las tardes viendo venir al oleaje cual vida percebe. Por las personas con quien se puede ser idiotas al cubo sin cortarse. Por estar en las laderas de bellotas voladoras discutiendo sobre terraplenes. Por la siguiente aventura. Por ti, viejo amigo. Espero que sigas estando orgulloso.

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation has been carried out in the framework of a research team with a line of work started more than a decade ago and aimed to analyse and understand the use that the adolescents are making of Information and Communication Technologies [ICTs]. The integration of the gender perspective as an analytical approach should contribute to a greater understanding of how females and males relate to the ICTs, which results in many cases in a maladaptive use, may it be through a Problematic Internet Use itself or the occurrence of a range of online risky behaviours. To achieve the objectives of this thesis, a sample of 41,137 students was collected in collaboration with UNICEF Spain. The results obtained will favour the development of evidence-based prevention measures taking into account the specific needs of females.

Keywords: Adolescence, Gender, Problematic Internet Use, Online risk behaviours, Prevention

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RESUMEN

Esta tesis se ha realizado en el marco de un equipo de investigación con una línea de trabajo iniciada hace más de una década y cuyo objetivo es analizar y comprender el uso que los adolescentes hacen de las Tecnologías de la Información y la Comunicación [TIC]. La integración de la perspectiva de género como enfoque analítico contribuirá a una mayor comprensión de la relación de los géneros femenino y masculino con las TIC, que en muchos casos se traduce en un uso desadaptativo, ya sea a través del propio Uso Problemático de Internet o de la aparición de una serie de conductas de riesgo online. Para cumplir los objetivos de esta tesis, se ha empleado una muestra de 41.137 estudiantes gracias a una colaboración con UNICEF España. Los resultados obtenidos favorecerán el desarrollo de medidas de prevención basadas en la evidencia teniendo en cuenta las necesidades específicas del género femenino.

Palabras clave: Adolescencia, Género, Uso Problemático de Internet, Conductas de riesgo online, Prevención

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RESUMO

O acceso cada vez máis xeneralizado á Internet e ás Tecnoloxías da Información e da Comunicación [TIC] está a suscitar cada vez unha maior preocupación social. Máis alá dos contidos aos que a mocidade accede a través da Rede ou dos comportamentos de risco nos que poden incorrer, a evidencia científica ven advertindo nos últimos anos de que un uso excesivo, intensivo e sen a debida supervisión pode ter importantes consecuencias a nivel de saúde mental e xeral, de estilo de vida, de convivencia escolar e familiar e mesmo un impacto trascendental no desenvolvemento persoal do individuo.

O uso globalizado da Internet e dos dispositivos tecnolóxicos están a ocasionar tamén cambios importantes na maneira de considerar o fenómeno das adiccións, mesmo dando lugar a novas entidades diagnósticas que son definidas seguindo criterios similares ás tradicionais adiccións con substancia (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017), aínda que non sempre recoñecidas oficialmente nos manuais diagnósticos de referencia, como o DSM-5 (American Psychiatric Association, 2013) ou a CIE-11 (World Health Organization, 2019). No caso particular da "adicción a Internet", este é precisamente o motivo polo que algúns autores suxiren outros termos, como "Uso Compulsivo", "Uso Patolóxico", "Uso Desadaptativo" ou "Uso Problemático de Internet" [UPI], abordando a súa consideración clínica con certa cautela. O UPI adoita ser definido como a incapacidade para controlar o uso que a propia persoa fai da Rede xerando un alto grao de interferencia e repercusións negativas na vida cotiá (Gómez et al., 2014). Máis alá do debate conceptual subxacente, que ten levado incluso aos expertos a considerar este eido de investigación como un verdadeiro "campo de minas" (Ryding & Kaye), ser quen de homoxeneizar ou estandarizar a súa avaliación segue sendo tamén unha tarefa pendente. O uso de diferentes instrumentos, diferentes poboacións de referencia e diferentes franxas de idade, provoca que a investigación esté a reportar taxas de prevalencia moi heteroxéneas e ás veces difíciles de comparar, o que dificulta de maneira extraordinaria non só poder cuantificar o problema senon tamén establecer pautas e estratexias tanto de prevención como de intervención axeitadas. En calquera caso, recentes investigacións levadas a cabo no eido da pediatría de Atención Primaria, constatan que se trata dun

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problema crecente, que dada a súa elevada prevalencia, pode ser interpretado xa en termos de saúde pública (Baz-Rodriguez et al., 2020).

Outra das razóns polas que está a preocupar o UPI é pola súa elevada comorbilidade con outros trastornos e/ou problemas de saúde. A investigación levada a cabo ata día de hoxe con adolescentes e con adultas/os mozas/os constata a súa estreita relación coa aparición de sintomatoloxía depresiva, ansiedade, alteracións do sono, trastornos alimentarios e mesmo co trastorno por déficit de atención e hiperactividade (TDAH), o fracaso escolar ou unha peor calidade das relacións familiares. Non faltan tampouco evidencias da súa asociación co consumo de substancias e diferentes tipos de adiccións (con e sen substancia), conductas de risco en liña e problemas de convivencia entre iguais, como son o acoso escolar e o ciberacoso (Cerutti et al., 2019; Cooper et al., 2016; El Asam et al., 2019; Zsila et al., 2018).

Ademais do propio UPI, na Rede danse unha serie de comportamentos de risco que están a suscitar certa alarma social, como é o caso do xogo e as apostas en liña, o consumo de pornografía, o intercambio de contidos sexuais, o contacto con persoas descoñecidas, ou o ciberacoso. No caso da participación de menores en xogos de azar, as taxas de prevalencia atopadas, sensiblemente maiores que as da poboación adulta (Calado et al., 2017), e sobre todo o incremento experimentado no volume de adolescentes que toman parte activa nas diferentes modalidades de xogo, amosan un contexto de risco preocupante (Gómez et al., 2020). No caso da pornografía en liña, vense alertando do seu impacto negativo na saúde afectivo-sexual das e dos adolescentes (Ballester & Orte, 2019), asociándose tamén coa expansión de diferentes formas de abuso sexual vinculadas ao uso das TIC (Gámez-Guadix et al., 2021; Kloess et al., 2014). Por outra parte, Peris e Maganto (2018) identifican especificamente o sexting, a sextorsión e o grooming como os riscos máis importantes de carácter sexual que mozas e mozos atopan online. O sexting é o intercambio de contido autoproducido de carácter erótico ou pornográfico, ven sexa o envío (sexting activo) ou a recepción (sexting pasivo), tanto en mensaxe escrita como contido audiovisual (Barrense-Dias et al., 2017). O sexting parece estar a normalizarse nas interaccións sociais e debe xerar maior preocupación nos casos de que o intercambio non sexa consentido ou se realíce baixo presión (Döring, 2014), constituindo ademais

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estes últimos delitos punibles. As presión para obter este tipo de contido poden ser consideradas sextorsión, se ben este termo emprégase máis no contexto de sufrir chantaxes coa difusión dun contido erótico ou pornográfico que xa estea en posesión da persoa que realiza a ameaza (Peris e Maganto, 2018). Por outra parte, o grooming é o proceso no cal unha persoa adulta contacta con outra menor de idade tamén aparentando ser menor coa intención de establecer unha relación romántica, xeralmente coa intención de obter contido erótico ou pornográfico, quedar en persoa ou abusar sexualmente da vítima menor (Webster et al, 2012). Un dos factores que poñen en risco as e os adolescentes de padecer este tipo de abusos é o contacto con persoas descoñecidas, se ben en moitos casos tamén son persoas coñecidas quen realizan as agresións. Precisamente, outra das conductas que está a xurdir co auxe das TICs é o acoso en Rede ou ciberacoso. A definición máis frecuente de ciberacoso baséase na definición do tradicional acoso en persoa, e alude a unha conducta negativa ou danosa realizada a través de medios electrónicos (as TICs), repetida no tempo e que implica un desequilibrio de poder con respecto da persoa ou persoas que están a ser inxustamente atacadas (Smith et al., 2008).

Outro dos grandes desafíos da actualidade é a incorporación transversal da perspectiva de xénero como marco analítico, tanto na investigación en xeral (Coen & Banister, 2012; Heidari et al., 2016) como concretamente no ámbito das adiccións con e sen substancia, de forma que as estratexias de intervención e prevención neste ámbito abandonen o enfoque predominante centrado nas necesidades masculinas (Fundación Atenea, 2016; Plan Nacional Sobre Drogas, 2018). Esta perspectiva atopa como principal obstáculo que os termos "sexo" e "xénero" son habitualmente empregados como sinónimos sen atender ás especificidades dun e doutro principalmente pola complexa relación entre ambos aspectos (Heidari et al., 2016; Sánchez-López et al., 2013).

Os roles de xénero son o conxunto de crenzas socialmente construídas acerca do que é esperable dunha persoa en función do seu sexo, e que resultan nun conxunto de normas que inflúen na conducta de homes e mulleres. A distribución dos roles feminino e masculino é complementaria e crea unha dinámica na que se manteñen relacións xerárquicas de poder entre homes e mulleres (Romo, 2018). Aínda que o contido específico dos roles foi mudando

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co paso do tempo e na actualidade recoñecese a existencia de diverxencias nesta dicotomía, as características bases do que é correcto nun home ou nunha muller seguen a ser as mesmas dende a definición de Bem no ano 1974. A instrumentalidade corresponde ao masculino e a expresividade ao feminino. Os homes deben ser activos, dominantes e axentes, mentres que as mulleres deben ser pasivas, ter unha tendencia máis enfocada ao emocional e social, e coidar a outras persoas. Estas características repercuten na súa conducta en tódolos ámbitos e vense afectadas polo contexto xeográfico e temporal, ademais de por variables individuais como son a clase social, etnia, relixión ou incluso a idade. Así, as diferencias na conducta de homes e mulleres son menores na infancia e vanse acentuando no final da adolescencia ata estar plenamente consolidadas na idade adulta. Este proceso recibe o nome de "intensificación de xénero" e reforza a idea de que estas diferencias principalmente teñen a súa orixe na aprendizaxe social (Galambos et al., 1990; Koenig, 2018; Moreau et al., 2021).

O uso de Internet é frecuente entre a mocidade española con independencia do seu sexo ou xénero, porén as actividades que se levan a cabo en liña e a relación en concreto que se establece coa Rede difire entre as e os adolescentes. Por unha parte, as mozas tenden a empregar máis Internet para comunicarse, compartir información ou escoitar música, mentres os mozos prefiren xogar a videoxogos e asumen máis riscos en liña (Golpe et al., 2017; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019). A investigación en España tamén sinala que o UPI é máis frecuente nelas, aínda que a literatura internacional atopa maiores taxas nos mozos e no xénero masculino (Durkee et al., 2016). Asemade, diversos estudos sinalan a participación diferencial tanto en diversas conductas de risco ou incluso no acoso en Rede (Ballester & Orte, 2019; Calado et al., 2017; Chocarro & Garaigordobil, 2019; Kasahara et al., 2019; Madigan et al., 2018).

Por todo o mencionado con anterioridade, a realización da presente tese pretende aportar unha perspectiva de xénero á liña de traballo comezada fai máis dunha década polo equipo de investigación USC-Psicom coa intención de analizar e comprender o uso que a mocidade fai das TIC. Este obxectivo xeral tradúcese en tres obxectivos específicos no presente estudo: (a) obter datos actualizados das taxas de PIU e conductas de risco online entre a

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mocidade; (b) comprender as diferentes motivacións, percepcións e expectativas do xénero feminino e masculino tralo uso que fan da Rede; (c) explorar potenciais variables moderadoras do devandito uso, tales como o control dos proxenitores sobre o uso de Internet, o benestar psicolóxico ou a sintomatoloxía depresiva. Para dar conta destes obxectivos, o presente traballo enmarcouse nun proxecto máis amplo en colaboración con UNICEF España e o Consejo General de Colegios de Ingeniería Informática, que permitiu estender devanditos obxectivos á toda España en lugar da mocidade galega coma fora orixinalmente planeado.

O marco mostral estivo composto por todo o alumando de Educación Secundaria Obrigatoria (ESO) do territorio español. Realizouse unha mostraxe estratificada por conglomerados tendo en conta a distribución por Comunidades e Cidades Autónomas (CCAA) do alumnado e a afixación mostral realizouse por compromiso para garantir unha representatividade mínima das CCAA con menos poboación. Contactarónse 550 centros educativos ao azar, dos cales aceptaron participar 265, acadándose unha mostra inicial de 50.957 estudantes de ESO. Dado que a recollida de datos non foi levada a cabo polo equipo de investigación senon por responsables das escolas designadas/os e formadas/os a tal efecto, realizouse unha depuración exhaustiva da base de datos antes de proceder coas análises, quedando a mostra composta por 41.509 estudiantes con idades comprendidas entre os 11 e 18 anos (48,7% do xénero feminino, 50,4% xénero masculino, e 0,9% outros xéneros). Dada a reducida porcentaxe doutros xéneros en comparación cos xéneros feminino e masculino, ese 0,9% foi finalmente excluído da base de datos para non producir un sesgo na análise de datos. Así, a mostra final estivo composta por 41.137 estudantes (Idade media = 13,81; Desviación típica = 1,33), o 25% de primeiro curso da ESO, 26,1% estaban no segundo, 26,1% en terceiro e 22,8% en cuarto.

A elaboración do cuestionario realizouse especificamente para o presente estudio (ad hoc) en colaboración cun comité de espertos nos diversos tópicos de interese e foi testado en dous centros escolares antes da súa implementación online na aplicación de software libre LimeSurvey. Esta tarefa foi levada a cabo polo Consejo General de Colegios de Ingeniería Informática, responsable tamén de manter o servidor no Centro de Supercomputación de Galicia e

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garantir que a información fose manexada en concordancia coa Lei Orgánica 3/2018, de 5 de decembro, de Protección de Datos Persoais e garantía dos dereitos dixitais. As/os responsables de realizar a recollida de datos no seu centro recibiron un correo electrónico con enlaces individualizados ao cuestionario e instrucións sobre como proceder, así coma un Manual de Procedemento. Este manual incluía un resumo das ferramentas de cribado e ítems do cuestionario e resolvíanse as potenciais dúbidas que lle puidesen xurdir ó alumnado, ademais de describir paso a paso como realizar a recollida, de forma que se maximizase a estandarización da recollida de datos que ían supervisar diferentes persoas. O cuestionario incluía preguntas baseadas en diferentes estudos a nivel nacional e internacional, xunto con ítems de elaboración propia acerca do uso de Internet e teléfono móbil, asi coma das actividades e conductas de risco que se levan a cabo na Rede. Tamén se incluíron escalas de cribado específicas para rexistrar: o UPI coa Escala de Uso Problemático de Internet en adolescentes (EUPI-a, Rial, Gómez et al., 2015); o xogo problemático co Brief Adolescent Gambling Screen (BAGS, Stinchfield et al., 2017); ou o ciberacoso co European Cyberbullying Intervention Project Questionnaire (ECIP-Q, Del Rey et al., 2015). O benestar psicolóxico foi medido coa Psychological Well-Being Scale deseñada para o estudo The Children's Worlds (Rees e Main, 2015), a sintomatoloxía depresiva foi rexistrada a través do Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9, Richardson et al., 2010) e, finalmente, para coñecer os niveis de control parental empregouse o Cuestionario de Control Parental del Uso de Internet durante la Adolescencia de Álvarez-García et al. (2019).

A recollida de datos foi realizada nos centros educativos a través dos propios ordenadores do centro no horario previamente acordado entre os responsables de cada recollida e o equipo de investigación, de forma que na depuración da base fora posible comprobar que os datos se correspondían coa franxa horaria e as IPs e URL axeitadas. A exactitude dos datos foi supervisada diariamente mentres os centros estaban recollendo os datos. Trala pertinente depuración da base de datos realizáronse tabulacións bivariadas por xénero, aplicando χ^2 para comparar porcentaxes e *t* de Student para medias, complementando estas últimas coa aplicación de probas non paramétricas U de Mann-Whitney seguindo as recomendación de Rial e Varela (2008). Para

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calcular o tamaño do efecto empregáronse Coeficientes de Continxencia (CC) ou V de Cramér nas variables cualitativas e eta cadrada (η^2) para as variables cuantitativas, e os índices resultantes foron interpretados en base ao traballo de Funder e Ozer (2019). Todos as análises foron realizadas empregando o software IBM SPSS Statistics 25 statistical package.

Un dos principais achados é o estendido que parece estar o UPI en España, con 1 de cada tres adolescentes (32,9%) dando positivo no EUPI-a, un resultado que ademais mostra un aumento da problemática con respecto a investigacións previas empregando a mesma ferramenta (Gómez et al., 2014; Rial et al., 2018). Ademais da alta taxa de UPI, atópase un elevado acceso a Internet e ao uso do smartphone, o cal teñen dende antes dos 11 anos de media. A presencia do smartphone na vida das e dos adolescentes parece constante cando dous de cada tres dormen co teléfono na habitación e o levan á clase case diariamente. Precisamente esta elevada exposición á Rede dende unha idade tan temperá podería estar a explicar o aumento do UPI, sumándose tamén como factores de risco o reducido control por parte dos proxenitores ou titores, un reducido benestar psicolóxico e a presenza de sintomatoloxía depresiva. Era esperable que a situación de encerro vinculada á pandemia de COVID-19 aumentase o acceso ás TICs nun intento de levar unha vida o máis normalizada posible (Milosevic et al., 2021), con clases virtuais e suplíndose as interacción sociais en persoa coa comunicación nas Redes Sociais ou mensaxeira instantánea.

Tamén se atopan taxas preocupantes doutros riscos para o benestar dos adolescentes. Sobre o acceso a contidos inadecuados, atópase que case a metade das e dos adolescentes coñecen a Dark Web, 1 de cada 10 admite ter accedido a ela e 1 de cada 3 ten consumido pornografía online, sendo a taxa aínda maior entre o xénero masculino. No caso do sexting, é mais frecuente a recepción que o envío de contido e sobre todo máis a través de mensaxes escritas que de vídeos ou imaxes, e 1 de cada 10 refire ter sufrido presións para enviar contido erótico ou pornográfico. Mais da metade da mostra ten contactado e aceptado a persoas descoñecidas nas Redes e 2 de cada 10 chegaron a quedar presencialmente. Destácase tamén a elevada participación en ciberacoso, estando case 1 de cada 3 adolescentes implicadas/os nalgún

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perfil, entre os cales o máis frecuente é a vítima que tamén é agresora, mentres que as agresoras puras obteñen a menor taxa.

A pesar de todas as ameazas na Rede, as percepcións e expecattivas favorables que o alumnado maiormente ten respecto desta, xunto coas emoción positivas que se derivan do seu uso, explicarían que os beneificios lles compense a asunción de riscos. Todo isto implica que unha mensaxe alarmista acerca dos perigos da Rede probablemente sexa ineficaz como estratexia disuasoria, ademais de que se estaría a limitar a posibilidade de que se beneficiasen de tódalas vantaxes do mundo online. No seu canto, abógase por ensinar á mocidade a navegar de forma que se minimicen os riscos e consecuencias negativas.

O xénero masculino presenta unha maior implicación activa nos riscos en Rede, levando a cabo conductas como apostar, consumir pornografía, acceder a Dark Web ou ciberacosar a outras persoas. Pola contra, o xénero feminino parece sufrir maiores consecuencias negativas, como ser vítima de ciberacoso, recibir presións para o envío de contido erótico ou pornográfico, ase coma máis solicitudes sexuais por parte de persoas adultas. Estes resultados son coherentes cos estereotipos tradicionais de xénero e o mantemento dun desequilibro xerárquico entre os xéneros (Castillo-Mayén & Montes-Berges, 2014; Fundación Atenea, 2016; Romo, 2018; Silva & Alves, 2020). Existen tamén diferencias en canto as posibles adiccións sen substancia exploradas, sendo o xénero feminino o que presenta maiores taxas de UPI mentres que o masculino presenta maior implicación en xogo problemático. Estes datos contrapóñense á literatura actual sobre as tradicionais adiccións con substancia nas que se percibe unha tendencia converxente ou a unha paridade das taxas de consumo por xénero (Romo, 2010; McHugh et al., 2018; PNSD, 2020).

En definitiva, mais alá das limitacións metodolóxicas propias dun traballo destas características, os resultados acadados permiten constatar que o uso da Internet e as redes sociais está a supor un problema entre as e os adolescentes, tanto a nivel de conductas de risco e de convivencia, como de Uso Problemático, o que se traduce nunha clara interferencia no seu día a día. Máis alá deste resultado xeral, confírmase tamén a existencia de diferencias

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por xénero que deben ser tidas en conta tanto a nivel de intervención como de prevención.

O esforzo preventivo debe ser realizado dende unha perspectiva de xénero transversal e cun compoñente psicosocial, que teña en conta as diferencias existentes na maneira de relacionarse a través da Rede e coa propia Rede, nas posibles diferencias en termos de necesidades e emocións que teñen a súa base nos estereotipos e roles tradicionais de xénero (Fundación Atenea, 2016). En consecuencia, aínda que unha parte da prevención debe ter carácter universal, faise necesario desenvolver módulos específicos elaborados atendendo as necesidades do xénero co que se vaia a traballar, e distanciándose do actual modelo androcéntrico (Baxter et al., 2016; Fundación Atenea, 2016).

Por outra parte, debe adoptarse un enfoque integral, traballando diferentes dimensións, no canto de centrarse en conductas concretas (Beltrán-Catalán et al., 2018; Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021). Un aumento da seguridade online a través da mellora das competencias dixitais da mocidade é necesaria pero non suficiente, xa que a asunción de riscos na Rede resulta a miúdo rendible en termos das emocións positivas e beneficios. Debe desenvolverse tamén un traballo a nivel de competencias emocionais, sociais e humanas, especialmente no eido da empatía, a asertividade, a autoestima e a xestión emocional (Rial et al., 2018). Ademais, os resultados amosan que no ESO tanto o UPI, como as conductas de risco en liña parecen estar xa instauradas, o cal revela a necesidade de comezar a prevención de maneira temperá.

Por último, proponse tamén adoptar un enfoque comunitario, con esforzos a diferentes niveis (UNICEF, 2020; Valkenburg & Peter, 2013). A familia debe ser a principal fonte para a educación no uso seguro e saudable da tecnoloxía, polo que é preciso implicar a nais, pais e/ou titores legais, traballando nestes as súas propias competencias dixitais, para favorecer un maior e mellor acompañamento das súas fillas e fillos no uso da Rede. É necesario establecer normas e límites no fogar para o uso das TICs, de maneira que o uso destas sexa unha actividade máis dentro do lecer da mocidade. Paralelamente os centros educativos deben asumir un papel máis activo. Máis alá da escaseza de tempo e de recursos e da urxencia que supón o cumprimento

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dos obxectivos académicos recollidos nos deseños curriculares, a escola constitúe un excelente escenario de oportunidade, no que incluír contidos transversais para a mellora das competencias dixitais e sociais da mocidade. Os centros educativos constitúen, por outra parte, o contexto natural de interacción cos pares e o lugar onde as e os adolescentes pasan a maior parte do seu tempo cada día. Precísase tamén unha maior implicación por parte das institucións e da propia Administración Pública, aportando medios e programas de forma continuada no tempo, promocionando actividades sociais ao marxe da Rede a través da oferta dun lecer alternativo, o deporte e a actividade física e promovendo un marco normativo específico que permita protexer as e os menores na contorna dixital.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Internet access in Spain is widespread, with 95.9% of total households having fixed and/or mobile broadband access (Instituto Nacional de Estadística [INE], 2021). In the specific case of early adolescence, the official data from the latest report of the Spanish National Statistics Institute inform that "computer use is very high", with 95.1% of minors between 10- and 15-years old reporting using a computer, being Internet use even higher with a rate of 97.5% among these population, and 68.7% having their own mobile phone (INE, 2021). Moreover, the European School Survey Project on Alcohol and Other Drugs [ESPAD] indicates that 10% of Spanish adolescents spend 5 hours or more a day surfing the Net (The ESPAD Group, 2020). These numbers have been steadily increasing over the last decades, and are expected to increase even further till reaching almost the entire population. At the same time, there has been growing concern about the use that children and adolescents make of the Internet and Information and Communication Technologies [ICT] in general, based on the premise that children and adolescents are the developmental group most susceptible to developing disorders or negative consequences linked to their use of ICTs (Carbonell & Montiel, 2016; Castellana et al., 2007; Echeburúa & Corral, 2009; Muñoz-Miralles et al., 2016). The World Health Organisation [WHO] itself has warned that inappropriate or excessive use of technologies is a problem with serious public health implications (WHO, 2015).

The extensive use of ICTs in general and the Internet in particular has led to younger people being known as "digital natives", while older people are "digital immigrants", terms coined by Prensky (2001) that establish a counterpoint between people who have been raised in an environment with a strong technological presence and those who have had to adapt to the dizzying social changes brought forward by these technologies. This high connectivity allows access to really useful tools for learning, working, leisure, personal development, as well as establishing and maintaining social relationships, as the COVID-19 lockdown demonstrated globally. This makes it particularly important for the population, and maybe especially for these digital natives, to learn to take advantage of the wide range of opportunities while avoiding

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the risks. With regard to this, some authors remark that it should be achieved through the combination of enhancement of adolescents' digital skills and parental monitoring (Rodríguez-de-Dios et al., 2018).

Online risky behaviours are defined as behaviours conducted through the Net that facilitate the emergence of situations endangering the well-being and/or development of the adolescent, either through self-exposure or exertion on other people (Carbonell & Montiel, 2016). These risky behaviours may include the development of an addictive use of Internet, gambling money online, accessing pornographic content, contacting strangers or exchanging self-produced erotic or sexual content, which is known as "sexting".

1.1. Problematic Internet Use

Among the online risks adolescents can face, it should be highlighted the development of a problematic or addictive use of the Internet itself or even an addiction to the ICTs as a whole, as some authors have suggested (Muñoz-Miralles et al., 2016). Despite the wide range of literature in the last decades that referred to pathological Internet use, or addiction (for example: Brand et al., 2014; Echeburúa et al., 2005; Fuchs et al., 2018; Griffiths, 2000; Jorgenson et al., 2016; Kaess et al., 2021; Kuss et al., 2014; Leung, 2004; Young, 1998), this disorder is not included in any of the reference diagnostic manuals yet, like the DSM-5 published by the American Psychiatric Association (APA, 2013) or the ICD-11 of the World Health Organization (WHO, 2019). For this reason, other authors suggest using the term "Problematic Internet Use" [PIU] (Anderson et al., 2016; Shapira et al., 2003), understood as an inability to control the use oneself makes of cyberspace, generating discomfort from abstinence and negative repercussions in everyday life (Gómez et al., 2014). However, this leads to a conceptual debate about the appropriate terminology to refer to this problem, which at the same time can be a barrier to its study, prevention and intervention. The debate and the controversy it has generated was such that it has been dramatically but accurately described as a "Conceptual Minefield" by Ryding and Kaye (2018). Specifically, some authors use the term "addiction" (Brand et al., 2014; Jorgenson et a., 2016; Fumero et al., 2018; Kuss et al., 2014), others refer to it as "pathological use"

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(Durkee et al., 2016; Fuchs et al., 2018; Kaess et al., 2021), "excessive use" (Kaess et al., 2021; Smahel et al., 2020; WHO, 2015), "compulsive use" (OEDA & PNSD, 2021), or the more conservative "problematic use" mentioned earlier (Anderson et al., 2016; Aznar Díaz et al., 2020; Cerutti et al., 2019; Golpe et al., 2017; Gómez, Rial et al, 2017; Shapira et al., 2003). This translates in the use of completely different tools to record this problem, which at the same time leads to a wide range of prevalence data among adolescents and varying evidence associated, hindering the work of professionals in the field of adolescence (Baz-Rodríguez et al., 2020; WHO, 2015).

Although this dissertation will mainly focus on the PIU, it should be noted that the Internet is not the only ICT that may be used excessively or inappropriately, or even addictively. As mentioned above, there are authors addressing problematic use of ICTs in general (Muñoz-Miralles et al., 2016), and then of specific technological devices (Billieux et al., 2015; Panova & Carbonell, 2018), or of a particular social networking site (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017). For example, when conceptualising and labelling smartphone overuse or smartphone addiction (Panova & Carbonell, 2018), a very similar situation to the conceptualisation of PIU happens. According to Kuss and Griffiths (2017), smartphones will not cause an addiction by themselves, but rather suppose a means to engage in potentially addictive behaviours such as visiting social networking sites, and as it happens with Internet use, "smartphone addiction" is not recognised in diagnostic manuals, therefore some authors recommend the use of "Problematic Smartphone Use" (Billieux et al., 2015). Even the WHO follows this approach when considering that, beyond understanding the excessive use of the Internet itself, it is important to take into account that the Net and ITCs in general serve merely as vectors for a wide range of behaviours that can potentially be harmful, bringing forward the examples of socializing, gaming, gambling, shopping, getting information, and pornography consumption (WHO, 2015). Furthermore, in the latest edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5), the only disorder linked to ICTs use is "Internet Gaming Disorder", which is included in the section of disorders that require further study (APA, 2013), and in the last ICD-11 it is merely recognised as "gaming disorder" (WHO,

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2019), regardless of weather the gaming is online or not (WHO, 2019). The other behavioural addiction or "addiction without substance" included in the diagnostic manuals is gambling, referred to as "gambling disorder" and it is included in the corresponding section of Addictive Disorders of both manuals (APA, 2013; WHO, 2019). Gambling is understood as occurring both online and offline indifferently, with the digital format thus becoming another feature of the more general "gambling disorder" in both the DSM-V and the ICD-11, but not decisive as in the case of the "Internet Gaming Disorder" included in DSM-V.

All the behavioural addictions associated with excessive use of the Internet and the wide range of available electronic devices (both those officially recognised in diagnostic manuals and those not officially recognised but which names are widely used), are defined on the basis of traditional criteria of substance use disorders (APA, 2013; Kuss & Griffiths, 2017; WHO, 2019). The WHO summarises the descriptions of behavioural addictions as the following: "an irresistible urge, impulse or drive to repeatedly engage in an action and an inability to reduce or cease this behaviour (loss of control) despite serious negative consequences to the person's physical, mental, social and/or financial well-being" (WHO, 2015, p. 8). Several authors highlight the great milestone that supposes the inclusion of such disorders in the diagnostic manuals of reference, as it allows to elaborate tools based in common criteria for diagnosis and to better distinguish disorders for a mere intensive usage (Khoury et al., 2017; Mora-Salgueiro et al., 2022), all of which will favour avoiding overdiagnosis (Billieux et al., 2019). Yet, these arguments are not without controversy, since normal behaviours could be classified as disorders if they are not well defined, and it is doubtful whether empirical evidence supports the conceptualization of some problematic uses as genuine addictive behaviours (Aarseth et al., 2017; Billieux et al., 2015).

Beyond the conceptual debate (Anderson et al., 2016; Gómez et al., 2014; Ryding & Kaye, 2018), or even the question of whether PIU should be considered a psychopathology in itself or merely a risky behaviour (Kaess et al., 2021), it has been found to present an elevated comorbidity with other disorders and diverse health problems. Studies with adolescents and young adults have found that such problems include depression, anxiety, substance

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use, sleep disturbances, eating disorders, academic failure and poor family relationships (Aznar Díaz et al., 2020; Cerutti et al., 2019; El Asam et al., 2019; Fernández-Villa et al., 2015; Jorgenson et al., 2016; Muñoz-Miralles et al., 2016). It is also noteworthy how PIU relates to other behavioural addictions, online risky behaviours or cyberbullying (Cooper et al., 2016; Floros et al., 2013; Gómez et al., 2020; Rial, Golpe et al., 2015; Zsila et al., 2018), justifying the application of a comprehensive or holistic approach to online safety, rather than focusing on just one specific online behaviour (Beltrán-Catalán et al., 2018; Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021).

Another controversial topic is the real estimation of the problem. The lack of a gold standard of assessment has been highlighted years ago (Kuss et al., 2014), yet this is a topic that remains unsettled, resulting in a wide range of rates reported from one study to another. In Spain, the prevalence of PIU in adolescence is estimated to be between 18.2% (Rial et al., 2018) and 38.8% (Baz-Rodriguez et al., 2020), with official data from the ESTUDES survey finding a 20% of "compulsive use" (OEDA & PNSD, 2021). ESTUDES is an acronym for *Encuesta sobre uso de drogas en Enseñanzas Secundarias en España* (Survey on Drug Use in Secondary Education in Spain), and it is conducted among students between 14 and 18 years old and published biannually by the *Plan Nacional Sobre Drogas* [PNSD] (National Plan on Drugs). The PNSD is the institution of the Spanish Ministry of Health that is responsible for the evaluation and implementation of prevention, treatment, social inclusion and harm reduction programmes related to addictive behaviours. Besides the ESTUDES, the PNSD also conducts biannually the EDADES, acronym of *Encuesta sobre alcohol y otras drogas en España* (Survey on alcohol and other drugs in Spain), among population between 15 and 64 years old. With data extracted from these two surveys, the PNSD has started to publish the *Informe sobre Adicciones comportamentales* (Report on Behavioural Addictions), that focuses on the use of Internet, gambling and videogame usage, both in its recreational or normalised use, as well as in its problematic use through the application of screening instruments (OEDA & PNSD, 2021). The results of this report show that it is the youngest people who seem to have the greatest problems with Internet use: among students

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aged 14 to 18 the rate of "compulsive use" was 20%, while among the population aged 15 to 64 this rate is merely a 3.7%.

There are various explanatory theories for the development of problematic Internet use, among which three can be highlighted: the biopsychosocial addiction model (Griffiths, 2005), the cognitive-behavioural model of generalized problematic Internet use (Caplan, 2010), and the differential susceptibility to media effects model (Valkenburg & Peter, 2013). On the one hand, the biopsychosocial model was proposed by Griffiths (2005), and was not specifically aimed to Internet usage, but to any addiction without substances. This model was developed from the comparison between people addicted to alcohol, tobacco and other drugs with people interacting with ICTs or performing other reinforcing behaviours. He concluded that the symptomatology is similar in both cases, and therefore, the clinical criteria that determined the traditional addictions with substance could be homogeneously adapted to behavioural addictions. These criteria were defined by Griffiths (2005) as follows:

- Salience: the behaviour or activity becomes the most important thing for the person, affecting their thinking, feeling and actual behaviour. To exemplify this, Griffiths indicates that the person would present cognitive distortions, cravings and deterioration of socialized behaviour, respectively.
- Mood modification: is the subjective experience that people report when engaging in a particular activity, producing a reliable and consistent shift in their mood state and normally used as a coping strategy.
- Tolerance: is the process through which increasing amounts of the particular activity are required to achieve the effects obtained originally, or the desired mood.
- Withdrawal symptoms: the unpleasant feelings and/or physical effects derived from suddenly reduce or end the particular activity. The symptoms can be psychological or more physical, such as somatisations.

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- Conflict: the interpersonal or intrapsychic conflicts derived from participating in the activity. The first would cause deterioration of relationships with other people, while the latter can compromise working or educational lives or affect other social and recreational activities.
- Relapse: the reversions to earlier patterns of the particular activity or backsliding after periods of abstinence or control.

Griffiths (2005) also notes that some people may be more vulnerable to presenting this symptomatology depending on a series of biological, psychological and social factors, which has led the model to be branded as biopsychosocial. Among the first factors would be the neurobiological vulnerabilities, genetic affectations or biological predispositions. Some of the psychological factors could be the self-esteem, neuroticism or high reward dependence of the person, and among the social factors, family support or problems in peer relations would be present.

On the other hand, the cognitive-behavioural model of generalized problematic Internet use by Caplan (2010) is a revision of a model previously proposed by Davis in 2001. This model presents a series of key interrelated constructs: Preference for Online Social Interaction, which would lead to the person using Internet for Mood Regulation, and having Deficient Self-regulation in general, all of which is aggravated by Cognitive Preoccupation (obsessive thought patterns involving the Internet use) and the actual Compulsive Use (inability to control or regulate Internet connection behaviour). Moreover, the model highlights the importance of the occurrence of negative consequences derived from the Internet usage, meaning the extent to which an individual experiences personal, social, academic or occupational problems as a result of dysfunctional use of the network. It is also noteworthy than Davis's model (2001) differentiated between a "generalized form" of PIU, and "specific forms", which are concrete behaviours performed online, such as gambling, pornography consumption or even social networking sites usage.

Finally, the differential susceptibility to media effects model proposed by Valkenburg and Peter (2013) focuses on the media in general, be it television,

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social media, social networking sites, videogames or the Internet as a whole. This model derives from the integration of different theories, many of them classics in psychology, such as the Social Cognitive Theory of Bandura or the Ecological Systems Theory from Bronfenbrenner, and it distinguishes three types of susceptibility to media effects: dispositional, developmental, and social susceptibility. Dispositional susceptibility is defined as characteristics from the person that would predispose to a higher responsiveness to media, regardless of whether these characteristics are stable across time, such as the personality, temperament, values or beliefs; or more temporary, as the mood or motivations. Developmental susceptibility is linked to cognitive, emotional, and social development. In the case of social susceptibility, it is defined as all social-context factors that can influence the selective use of and responsiveness to media of a person, be it at a micro level or interpersonal context (e.g.: family or friends), meso level or institutional context (e.g.: school, work, or associations the person belongs to), and macro level or societal context (e.g.: cultural norms and values). When specifically applied to PIU, the differential susceptibility to media effects model could explain why higher rates are found among adolescents, as they have lesser cognitive, emotional, and social development. The authors also highlight that parents and peers can restrict or stimulate exposure to certain content, and schools can restrain or encourage access to certain Internet websites.

1.2. Online Risky behaviours

The use of ICTs has the added concern of the behaviours to which it allows access and their implications, beyond the potential addictive use of the Internet and other technologies (WHO, 2015). Some of these risky behaviours include gambling, pornography consumption, sexting or contacting strangers, as well as the related negative consequences mainly linked to the latter two such as sextortion and grooming. All of these behaviours are explained in the following paragraphs.

Participation in games of chance or gambling is a risky behaviour with great implementation and popularity in our country (PNSD, 2021), in a parallel way to alcohol consumption. Games of chance are those in which the

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possibility of winning or losing is decisively conditioned by chance, so that they do not depend solely on the player's skill (García-Ruíz et al., 2016), although it is true that this is moderated by the type of game. This is the case of sports betting, in which the player's prior knowledge and skill can increase their chances of winning even if this is ultimately determined by chance (Griffiths, 2009). With regard to online gambling, the participation in those games of chance must simply be carried out by electronic, computerised, telematic and/or interactive means, and is covered in Spanish legislation by Law 13/2011, of 27 May, on the regulation of gambling. This is the same law that establishes the legal gambling age over 18 years old and designates underage children as a collective requiring special protection, in line with the European recommendations reflected in the *Green Paper On on-line gambling in the Internal Market* published that same year (European Commission, 2011). And despite being an illicit behaviour and the European Commission itself calling for special measures prohibiting access to underage people, numerous studies have warned about the rates at which minors are gambling (for example: Chóliz & Lamas, 2017; De Luigi et al., 2017; Floros et al., 2013; Gómez et al., 2020; González-Roz et al., 2017; Wong & So, 2014), and even developing a related disorder (Calado et al., 2017). In this sense, the latest official data available in Spain finds that 7.4% of students between 14 and 18 years old gambled online and 4.7% could have already developed a problem with this behaviour, a rate calculated regardless of the gambling online or offline modality (OEDA & PNSD, 2021). Concretely in Galicia and for online gambling, it has been detected an upward trend as the rates have quadrupled in the time span of just seven years (Gómez et al., 2020). Furthermore, an earlier age of onset is related to the probability of developing a disorder and its severity, as well as other negative outcomes (Sharman et al., 2019). This makes particularly worrisome that the online setting may be more attractive to adolescents, as it facilitates their behaviour not only because of the numerous access mechanisms they have at their disposal (apart from their laptops, gamblers can use tablets, mobile phones, videogame consoles and even smart televisions), but also because it makes it difficult to verify the age of the gambler, making it easier for them to remain anonymous (Griffiths & Parke, 2010; Montiel et al., 2013). Wong and So (2014) found that the main reasons for gambling online reported by adolescents were to while the time

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away, because of offers of free credit on the websites, peer influence, the attractive server designs, and even having the possibility to gamble small amounts of money. On the other hand, adolescents that developed problematic gambling specifically highlighted the convenience of online gambling, the anonymity, the ability to gamble on multiple platforms simultaneously, the attractiveness of gambling advertisements, and having family members or peers who also gambled either online or offline (Wong & So, 2014). Montiel et al. (2013) also suggest that adolescents may be attracted by the risk involved in gambling, as they are at an evolutionary stage characterised by thrill-seeking. Besides, a potential monetary reward is added to psychological gratification in gambling (Ricijaš et al., 2016).

Although pornography usage is another behaviour that does not necessarily have to be carried out online, the "new pornography" has been described as characterised by its accessibility, virtually unlimited content and anonymity, all made possible by the spread of ICTs (Ballester & Orte, 2019). As in the case of gambling, access to pornography in Spain is legally restricted to people over 18 years old (Organic Law 8/2021, 4 June of Comprehensive Protection from Violence against Children and Adolescents), yet there are reports of Spanish children as young as 8 years old accessing pornography and the average age of first access is found to be 14.84 years old (Ballester & Orte, 2019). This is aggravated by the absence of quality affective-sexual education and the taboo of discussing the subject with parents, with online content and specifically pornography often proving to be the greatest influence in the sexual socialisation of adolescents (Hald et al., 2013). Some evidence of the possible negative effects that pornography use may be having on the sex lives of adolescents is its increased association with risky practices such as not using condoms during sexual encounters, sexually aggressive behaviour, sex in group with dubious consent, or higher probability to use prostitution (Ballester & Orte, 2019; Ybarra et al., 2011). Even direct imitation of pornographic sexual scripts has been reported, such as engaging in uncommon, degrading and/or violent sexual activities (Bridges et al., 2016). Ballester and Orte (2019) warn about the lack of representation of the affective-sexual components present in real sex encounters in pornography, as well as the silencing of female desire, being the focus of mainstream

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pornography entirely placed on male satisfaction and usually always reproducing the same stereotypes closely linked to male domination. However, pornography exposure is not always desired, and some children report being distressed by involuntary exposure to sexual content. The older the children are, the more likely they are to see sexual images, willingly or not, with boys reporting higher rates than girls (Smahel et al., 2020).

In the case of sexting, the term appears as a conjunction of the words "sex" and "texting" (Peris & Maganto, 2018), and already in 2011 research emerged in the Spanish context defining it as the "sending of messages of an erotic nature" (also referred to as "sexts"). However, the term of sexting is another topic which is highly controversial in terms of conceptualisation, as different authors establish different definitions of this behaviour (Barrense-Dias et al., 2017). For instance, Ferguson (2011) extended the definition to also include photos with erotic or explicitly pornographic content, while Temple & Choi (2014) redefined sexting to encompass not only sending but also receiving images or videos of a sexual or erotic nature. This last definition is the most widely used in current research, and sending is known as "active sexting", while receiving is named "passive sexting" (Madigan et al., 2018; Peris & Maganto, 2018). A wide range of elements are included among sexting behaviours (Madigan et al., 2018), and there are even recommendations to include the posting of suggestive content on social networking sites as a type of sexting, and differentiating between "soft sexting", that doesn't include explicit content, and "hard sexting", with photographs or videos in which the subject is naked or half-naked (Agustina & Gómez-Duran, 2016). There is a certain consensus however that to be considered sexting it needs to be consensual and the content must be self-produced (Döring, 2014), and not retrieved from a pornographic website, for example.

As with several of the behaviours studied in this dissertation, research indicates varying prevalence rates of sexting, which is largely attributed to variations in methodology or operationalisation of the behaviour understood as "sexting" (Agustina & Gómez-Duran, 2016; Barrense-Dias et al., 2017). In this sense, the rates reported in the meta-analysis of Madigan et al. (2018) range between 14.8% and 27.4%, and through the synthesis of results,

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estimated the sending of content (active sexting) at 14.8% and receiving (passive sexting) at 27.4% in adolescents aged 11-17, while EU Kids Online reported for Spain a rate of 30% for passive sexting and 9% for active sexting in children aged between 12 and 16 years old (Smahel et al., 2020). Sexting is a behaviour whose prevalence increases as adolescents grow older, so the disparity may also be due to the age range of the sample used from one study to another (Madigan et al., 2018). It has been found that sexting is also related to pornography consumption and being sexually active (Molla et al., 2020), and that those in a romantic relationship are more likely to carry it out (Alonso-Ruido et al., 2015; Klettke et al., 2014). However, dissemination is not always produced voluntarily by the person themselves, as Morelli et al. (2016) found in their study with adolescents and young adults that 12.5% reported having sent sexts from another person without their consent. On the other hand, a review of the literature has concluded that there is a relationship between sexting and several mental health problems (Gassó et al., 2019). However, promoting risk avoidance via abstention and fear-based strategies have proven ineffectual, leading to the recommendation of following safe sexting guidelines instead (Döring, 2014; Patchin & Hinduja, 2020a). Besides, there seems to be a growing normalisation of the exchange of sexual content as a way of socialising specially in the context of flirting (Søndergaard, 2019; Symons et al., 2018; Villacampa, 2016), and some authors suggest it should only cause alarm when it is done under pressure or leads to further harassment (Döring, 2014; Patchin & Hinduja, 2020a). It cannot be denied either the fact that sending photos or videos to other people causes a loss of control over that material, and sexting would therefore become a risk factor predisposing to blackmail or even grooming (Agustina & Gómez-Duran, 2016; Barrense-Dias et al., 2017).

Different forms of online child sexual abuse seem to be one of the growing phenomena linked to the widespread use of ITCs among young people, as it offers new forms of accessibility, opportunity and vulnerability to offending behaviour (Gámez-Guadix et al., 2021; Kloess et al., 2014). Peris and Maganto (2018) specifically identify sexting, sextortion and grooming as the most important risks of a sexual nature that adolescents and young people can encounter online. On the one hand, the Spanish Penal Code includes as a

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crime the dissemination of images without the consent of the person (Article 197, Organic Law 10/1995, 23 November), but consensual sexting does not constitute a punishable offence as long as the content belongs to a person over 16 years of age, the minimum age for sexual consent in Spain (Organic Law 1/2015). On the other hand, the forwarding of such content may constitute an offence of distribution of child pornography (Article 189, Organic Law 10/1995, 23 November). In the case of sextortion, this behaviour is described as the fact of suffering blackmail or sexual extortion mainly under the threat of making public erotic content that the blackmailer already has in their possession, whether as result of previous consensual sexting, the hacking or theft of said content from the victim or even sharing from a third party (Patchin & Hinduja, 2020b; Peris & Maganto, 2018). Furthermore, being pressured to sext may also be considered as sextortion, regardless of the instigator resorting to subtle emotional pressure instead of using explicit blackmail (Peris & Maganto, 2018). On the other hand, while sextortion may be suffered by people of legal age, grooming is an offence limited to underage victims. Grooming is the process by which an adult contacts a minor using social media and the Internet pretending to be another minor themselves in order to seduce the minor, generally with the intent to obtain sexual images, meet physically, or sexually exploit the victim in any other way (Peris & Maganto, 2018; Webster et al, 2012). The term comes from the verb "groom", and in this context it refers to an adult who grooms or prepares the ground for the abuse of a child, and has been coined to distinguish it from other concepts of sexual abuse where the offender gains access to the victim by force instead of by deceitfully gaining their trust (Burgess & Hartman, 2018). Internet contact with minors under the age of sixteen for sexual purposes is criminalised in the Penal Code under the same Law that regulates sextortion and the distribution of child pornography (Article 183, Organic Law of 23 November). Although not necessarily constituting an offence with recognition in the legal framework, there is also the "early erotisation", meaning imposing adult sexuality on children who are not yet mature enough, causing a developmental gap and dissociating sexual behaviour from affective behaviour (Peris & Maganto, 2018). This could be caused due to the exposure to sexual images or pornography, being in some cases said exposure neither wanted by the children themselves nor deliberately planned by others (Smahel et al., 2020).

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Regarding the prevalence of suffering sextortion, the cross-cultural comparison of Bolivia, Chile and Spain by Ilabaca et al. (2015) had found that Spanish adolescents had the lesser rate among the three countries, with 16% reporting having suffered some kind of sexual extortion online. This study also showed that victims of sextortion presented a deteriorated mental health and relationship with sexuality. Besides, in a more recent survey Peris and Maganto (2018) had found that, while 7% of adolescents reported that someone had disseminated their erotic content online to harm them at least once, up to 46.5% had seen this being done to others. In the case of the possible prevalence of grooming in Spain, a study with adolescents between 12 and 15 years old found that 12% reported having received sexual solicitations by adults in the previous year (de Santisteban & Gámez-Guadix, 2018). However, a review on the topic by the same authors had detected two main limitations to establish the prevalence of online grooming: the inclusion of adolescents above the age of sexual consent, and that most studies fail to distinguish between the online sexual request and the actual physical meeting between the minor and the adult, both scenarios resulting in a distortion of true prevalence of grooming (de Santisteban & Gámez-Guadix, 2017). Moreover, the number of unreported cases is estimated to be large, as it is the case for all sexual offences (Kloess et al., 2014).

The main factor that could expose children to the above-mentioned behaviours is contact with strangers, something that the Internet greatly facilitates. The last survey of EU kids Online found that 37% of children reported being in contact with someone unknown on the Internet, and 16% even had met face-to-face with someone they had previously met online (Smahel et al., 2020). Rates seem similar specifically in Galicia, as 32.1% of adolescents had contacted strangers online and 10.3% even met with them in person (Golpe et al., 2017). Despite the great social concern that the contact with strangers arouses (Smahel et al., 2020), some authors indicate that strangers do not necessarily pose a risk, as they could be “latent links” (contacts of their friends or people in their environment), or people with whom the adolescent shares interests and hobbies, and that only 1% had a bad experience derived from meeting in person (Garmendia et al., 2016). However, the same authors highlight that the relationship between risk and

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harm is complex and non-linear, and therefore still call for preventive efforts regarding this kind of behaviour (Garmendia et al., 2016). It should also not be overlooked that teenagers are sometimes victimised online by people they know, leading to overlapping with other aggressions or even a different phenomenon (Patchin & Hinduja, 2020b), such as child abuse when it is a family member (Kopecký, 2017), teen dating violence in the case of a romantic partner (Morelli et al., 2016; Rodríguez-Castro et al., 2019), or cyberbullying when the violence is between peers (Hinduja & Patchin, 2013).

The transfer of traditional face-to-face bullying to the new virtual environment is one among the many ways the spread of social media and ICTs have changed how social relationships are established and maintained. Cyberbullying has been defined as a type of bullying carried out through technological means (Olweus, 2012), described as "negative or hurtful, repetitive behaviour, by means of electronic communication tools, which involve an imbalance of power with the less-powerful person or group being unfairly attacked" (Smith et al., 2008). This definition is an adaptation to the virtual environment of the traditional definition of bullying already put forward by psychologist Dan Olweus in the 1970s (Olweus, 1993), pioneer in this field of research and coiner of what has been the most widely accepted definition of bullying to this day. However, not all authors agree to merely consider cyberbullying as an online extension of traditional bullying, and other experts suggest that cyberbullying has its own characteristics and should be considered as its own entity distinct from face-to-face bullying (Hinduja & Patchin, 2013; Menin et al., 2021; Tokunaga, 2010). Some of these characteristics include that the online environment can provide a space where there is no necessity for repetition or power imbalance for bullying to occur (Slonje et al., 2013), since one act can be spread and forwarded with no further intervention from the original perpetrator (Menesini et al., 2012) and the anonymity Internet facilitates is sufficient to provide the power imbalance for bullying to occur (Sticca & Perren, 2013). Yet, students themselves believe that episodes of cyberbullying stem from face-to-face bullying, and evidence shows there is a high overlap of both kinds of bullying (Lazuras et al., 2017; Pichel et al., 2021). Furthermore, the UNESCO has called for an actualized consensus in bullying definitions and has presented their recommendation

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derived from an international committee of experts in the last World Anti-Bullying Forum carried out at the beginning of November 2021 (Cornu, 2021), although it is still in development thanks to feedback from the research community and practitioners. This new definition is innovative in that it considers school bullying as a behaviour that occurs both in person and online. Although it keeps the aspects of causing physical, emotional, and/or social harm to the victims, as well as the imbalance of power, the definition does not include either the intention to harm or the need for repetition in order to consider a certain conduct as bullying rather than occasional aggression. Another aspect in which this new definition is particularly innovative is that it shifts the focus from the victim and perpetrator to society as a whole, and the educational system in particular, as they have not been able to prevent bullying from occurring, so that instead of blaming the roles directly involved, bullying is understood as a social responsibility.

Zych et al. (2016) found that the most popular definition of cyberbullying cited in Spanish studies until their review was the one proposed by Smith et al. (2008) aforementioned, and that the first Spanish study on cyberbullying published in a high impact journal was conducted in 2008. Since then, the number of publications has been growing steadily. The rates of the different research reviewed presented such a large difference that they ranged from 78.31% to 4.6% for suffering cyberbullying, and from 56.5% to 1.37% for perpetrating cyberbullying, with huge disparities based in the questionnaire employed (Zych et al., 2016). The more studied roles of cyberbullying involvement are those of victims (also known as targets) and bullies (also known as perpetrators), but different authors suggest taking into account the mixed role of victims who also bully others at the same time, or bully-victims (Del Rey et al., 2015; Yang & Salmivalli, 2013). This classification is supported by evidence that this mixed profile of bully-victim suffers worse negative consequences than those who are pure victims or pure bullies (Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021). Moore et al. (2017) concluded in a meta-analytic review that victimisation in children and adolescents is associated with a wide range of mental health problems, such as depression, anxiety and even suicide ideation and attempts. Moreover, Ong et al. (2021) have warned that being bullied represents the main cause associated with suicide attempts during

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childhood. However, Garaigordobil (2017) argued that victims are not the only ones to suffer from the severe consequences of online or offline bullying, highlighting the importance of studying all roles involved in bullying, even the observers. Behaviours constituting cyberbullying range from subtle ones such as the spread of rumours online or the exclusion of someone in social networking sites to more abrupt ones like the hacking of social networking sites or e-mail accounts, either to steal personal information or to impersonate other people (Del Rey et al., 2015). Research has found that victims themselves may fail to identify the behaviours they suffer as bullying, making it especially relevant to apply multi-item questionnaires that address concrete behaviours in order to better establish the prevalence of bullying (Zych et al., 2016).

Besides all the different risks aforementioned, adolescents present a generalized pattern of online vulnerability (Carbonell & Montiel, 2016), so that when a risky behaviour is present, it is often accompanied by the presence of other risky online behaviours. This would explain the close relationship that different research has found between different online risk behaviours (Durkee et al., 2016; Floros et al., 2013; Gómez et al., 2020; Montiel et al., 2015; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019), PIU (Cooper et al., 2016; Gómez, Rial et al., 2017), and even cyberbullying (Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021; Zsila et al., 2018). The risk pattern even transcends the Net, since it is also frequently found a relationship with face-to-face risk behaviours, such as substance use (OEDA & PNSD, 2021; Rial et al., 2018). Cyberbullying was even found to be related to higher alcohol and tobacco consumption, as shown by a recent longitudinal research by Alonso & Romero (2020).

From the perspective of possible moderating variables in adolescents engaging in online risk behaviours or developing a problematic Internet use, parental supervision and control have been proposed (Álvarez-García et al., 2019; Floros et al., 2013; Gómez, Harris et al., 2017; Livingstone et al., 2011). According to Nikken and Jansz (2013), there are four types of "parental mediation" or ways in which parents can influence the safe and responsible use of the Internet of their children: through "active mediation", which are conversations between family and children to foster children's understanding and critical analysis of Internet content and usage, including norms of

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adequate use; through "co-use" or shared use of the Internet between family and children, with the main intent of establishing the parents as the role model for good use; through "restrictive mediation", which consists of limiting time, activities and content either by a set of rules or using specific software; or "supervision", with the family monitoring children's use of the Internet, whether overtly or covertly. It has been found that all different forms of parental mediation help decrease PIU, online risks and even involvement in cyberbullying, although a positive approach to supervision seems to be more efficient than a restrictive one (Álvarez-García et al., 2019; Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021; Khurana et al., 2015; Nieh et al., 2020; Nikken & Jansz, 2013). Through their mediation, parents can play an important role in minimising the risky practices their children engage in online and help them maximize the opportunities they can reach on the Net (Livingstone et al., 2017; Rodríguez-de-Dios et al., 2018), yet adolescents tend to report low levels of parental supervision or control (Álvarez-García et al., 2019). Nieh et al. (2020) also found that peer influence was a better predictor of adolescent risky behaviour that parental monitoring, so peer relationships cannot be ignored either.

1.3. Gender perspective

One of the challenges that current research must address is the integration of the gender perspective as an analytical framework. In Spain, this occurs under the umbrella of Organic Law 3/2007, of March 22, for the effective equality of women and men (LO 3/2007, art. 20). This law explains that the needs and reality of women must be incorporated into strategic actions and interventions. Thus, National Strategy on Addictions for the period 2017 - 2024 (PNSD, 2018) devotes a section to highlight the relevance of the analysis of the situation of addictions among women in Spain from a gender perspective.

1.3.1. The relevance of gender in research

Before even considering implementing a gender perspective, the first problem encountered in research is the definition of the concept of "gender"

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itself. “Gender” is a social construct related to roles, behaviours and identities associated with a specific sex, while “sex” is a biological characteristic associated with physical and physiological features (Coen & Banister, 2012). More specifically, sex involves biological, hormonal, chromosomal and gonadal differences, as well as genital dimorphism in relation to being a men or a woman (Patró-Hernández et al., 2020), or in a small percentage of the population, intersex (i.e. persons born with a reproductive or sexual anatomy not conforming to either sex; Alexander et al., 2016). On the other hand, gender is linked to norms that designate what is considered socially appropriate for either women or men, and vary from one culture to another (Sánchez-López et al., 2013). Besides, it has been theorised by one of the first and most relevant gender schemas that a person can have another gender, either by combining characteristics of both aforementioned genders at the same time or by exhibiting traits considered neutral (Bem, 1974). However, “sex” and “gender” have been usually simply binary categorized as “female” or “male” and used in a somewhat interchangeable way due to their complex relationship (Heidari et al., 2016; Sánchez-López et al., 2013). Some authors have even proposed as a possible resolution to this controversy the use of the combined term “sex-gender” (Franconi et al., 2019). It could be argued that the relevance of maintaining the distinction between the two aspects stems from the need to emphasise that the disparity of women and men in society depends on social and cultural aspects that go beyond biological differences. Another criticism of this approach is the invisibility of other realities, such as intersex and non-binary people. In addition to the complex relationship between sex and gender, the political implications of gender inequality also increase the difficulties of addressing this field of study (Eagly & Wood, 2011).

One of the main implications of researching gender, and particularly sex differences as they actually could have a biological substantiation, is entering the debate Nature vs. Nurture. Eagly and Wood (2011) argument that the conflict between current feminism and Evolutionary Psychology lies precisely in this dichotomy nature/nurture, and how to approach it. According to them, feminism tends to aim to demonstrate the malleability of male and female behaviour, while Evolutionary Psychology view sex differences as “inevitable

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consequences of evolutionary adaptations and therefore as largely unresponsive to socioeconomic and political changes in society" (Eagly & Wood, 2011). It might be argued that this obviates that gender socialization begins with the parent's preparation even before a baby is born, and that the social environment surrounding a new-born reacts differently towards a girl or a boy, so by the time the child is able to interact freely with the environment, they will have a fully learned behavioural pattern of what is right and wrong for them, making it tremendously difficult to establish the origin of the behavioural differences between females and males. Gender roles are defined by a set of beliefs about what females and males normally do, but also of rules about what they should do or are allowed to do, usually called descriptive and prescriptive components of gender stereotypes (Koenig, 2018), and they affect all aspects of a person's life. Hispanic authors also refer to these stereotypes as "mandatos de género" in Spanish, something that could be roughly translated as "gender commandments" (Fundación Atenea, 2016; Macías-Valadez-Márquez & Luna-Lara, 2018).

The roles of the female gender are complemented by those of the male gender and vice versa, resulting into a dynamic that reinforces and maintains each other's roles (Fundación Atenea, 2016), while at the same time establishing hierarchical and power relations between them (Romo, 2018). The specific content of the stereotypes may have changed over time and is dependent on the context (Castillo-Mayén & Montes-Berges, 2014), but the overall characteristics that society sees as desirable in a man or a woman can still be summarised as "instrumentality" for men and "expressiveness" for women as first described by Sandra Bem in the seventies (Hoffman & Borders, 2001; Silva & Alves, 2020). This would imply that men are expected to be more active, dominant and exhibit greater agency and achievement at work and life in general, while women are more emotionally and socially focused, caring and passive (Bem, 1974). Of course, their behaviour must show these traits accordingly and with differences conforming to historical and geographical context or even individual variables among the same environment such as social class, ethnicity, religion or even age. This is what is known as "intersectionality" and should also be considered in the research,

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so that not only an "inter-gender" but also an "intra-gender" analysis is conducted (Romo, 2018).

Regarding the differential behavioural patterns, it has been found that differences between girls and boys are smaller in childhood and increase towards the end of adolescence (Moreau et al., 2021), which led to the hypothesis of "gender intensification" more than three decades ago (Galambos et al., 1990). This hypothesis seems to still be proven to be true, based in the results of the study of Koenig (2018) comparing Prescriptive and Descriptive Gender Stereotypes throughout the human life cycle. Koenig (2018) assessed toddlers, elementary-aged children, adolescents, young adults, adults, and elderly people, including both females and males in all age groups. Her main findings include that women were perceived as needing to be "communal and avoid being dominant", while men should be "agentic, independent, masculine in appearance, and interested in science and technology, but avoid being weak, emotional, shy, and feminine in appearance". These stereotypes were already present for school-aged children and intensified in adolescence, being particularly rigid for adults as their transgression of gender roles was judged with particular harshness, while stereotypes for the elderly weakened, being the gender transgressions among this last age group perceived more benevolently. Toddlers were already subjected to some gender stereotypes, but these stereotypes related mainly to physical appearance and play behaviours, such as wearing blue for boys and playing with dolls for girls, but not to their personality traits or general behaviour yet (Koenig, 2018). All these changes of the rigidity of gender stereotypes across life could be interpreted as evidence in favour of socialisation outweighing the inherent biological differences between men and women in the debate Nature vs. Nurture.

On the other hand, the need to address both sex and gender differences in research has been persistently highlighted by several authors (e.g. Coen & Banister, 2012; Day et al., 2017; Heidari et al., 2016; Franconi et al., 2019), and the androcentric approach has been denounced many times, particularly in medical research because of its tremendous negative impact for the health and well-being of girls and women (Epstein, 2007). Since investigating both sex and gender may not be appropriate for all study analyses, Day et al. (2017)

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employ "sex/gender" in their recommendations for researchers, clearly stating that they do so "not to imply that the two concepts are synonymous, but to serve as shorthand for *and/or*", similar to what was proposed by Franconi et al. (2019). In the case of psychological and social studies, the American Psychological Association [APA] recommends to specifically address "gender" differences, and to employ this term when referring to people as social groups (APA, 2019). Besides the recommendations of the APA, there are tools such as the Sex and Gender Equity in Research (SAGER) guidelines (Heidari et al., 2016) to help guide reporting of sex and gender findings in scientific publications, and the United Nations has been the prime promoter for the incorporation of a gender perspective in all officially published statistics since the 1st World Conference on Women in 1975 (Touriño et al., 2010). One of the first textbooks on the psychology of women and gender roles was published in 1978 (Frieze et al. 1978, retrieved from Zosuls et al., 2011) and the expansion of gender schemas research to explain differential behavioural patterns begun in the early 1980s (Starr & Zurbriggen, 2016). Although the current patterns have changed (Castillo-Mayén & Montes-Berges, 2014), gender roles continue to condition the expected behaviour of men and women in all aspects of life. Furthermore, taking these constructs into account from the very beginning and planning of the research, and throughout the entire study, will improve the scientific output (Day et al., 2017; Franconi et al., 2019; Tannenbaum et al., 2016), and will increase the validity of the research by reflecting more diverse realities. In this sense, a gender perspective allows for better assessment of the reality and the incorporation of the specific needs of women in all strategic actions and interventions (PNSD, 2018).

Although gender analysis is far from becoming a frequent cross-sectional approach in research (Tannenbaum et al., 2016), more than two decades ago Swann and his collaborators stated that gender research had shifted from being a peripheral place in Psychology to be considered a discipline itself (Swann et al., 1999, retrieved from Gartzia & Lopez-Zafra, 2014). Over the years, this assertion has only been reinforced with the rapidly growing scientific bibliographical corpus, to which Spain and Spanish scientific journals are no exception (Barberá & Cala 2008; Gartzia & Lopez-Zafra, 2014). The research

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topics addressed range from issues that could seem inherently gendered, such as intimate partner violence against women (Lila, 2013; Muñiz Rivas & Monreal Gimeno, 2017) or sexism (León & Aizpurúa, 2020), to topics seemingly unrelated to gender, such as sporting performance (Monforte & Colomer, 2019), learning strategies (Torrano & Soria, 2017), or management skills (Pérez et al., 2018). However, all of this seemingly non-gender-related research shares the finding of differences between females and males, and thus the conclusion that gender is not as unrelated as it first appeared to be. The process of gender socialisation has an impact on differential behaviour across ambits that is still in play today, as it has been suggested by the literature (Fundación Atenea, 2016; Castillo-Mayén & Montes-Berges, 2014). Another topic where interest in gender has increased is in the addiction research field, which will be discussed in the following section.

1.3.2. Implementing a gender perspective in addiction research

The need to implement a gender perspective in addiction research has already been pointed out more than 25 years ago at the IV World Conference on Women of the United Nations General Assembly (1995), and current research has been gradually moving away from a male-centred approach (Mazure & Jones, 2015). The Spanish Plan of Drugs subscribes to the assertion of the relevance of a gender perspective explicitly with the last National Strategy on Addictions (PNSD, 2018). This strategy highlights gender and equity as major challenges still pending resolution, understanding the first as the implementation of a gender perspective via the "mainstreaming of the specific needs of women through all the prevention and care programmes", and "equity" as the improvement of "the accessibility of services and treatments and to extend best practices" (PNSD, 2018). Besides the mainstreaming of the gender perspective across all intervention and prevention measures, the Spanish Plan of Drugs deems necessary to raise social awareness about the aspects that are protection factors in women and encourage men to adopt them too, as well as promoting the prevention and early detection of gender violence in women with a substance use disorder,

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and further research the differential settings of consumption and the new forms of addiction without substance.

One of the most common uptakes of implementing a gender perspective in this field consists in the segregation of data by sex/gender and their subsequent comparison. The World Health Organization [WHO] itself has long pointed out the differential consumption of substances between men and women (WHO, 2005). The existence of said differences holds true currently in Spain, as confirmed by both the EDADES (PNSD, 2021) and the ESTUDES (PNSD, 2022), for population between 15-64 years old and 14-18 years old respectively. It should be noted that both reports reach different conclusions regarding the differential pattern of consumption. The EDADES establishes that men consume more alcohol than women, while for the ESTUDES is the other way around. In fact, the ESTUDES highlights that girls not only use more alcohol than boys, but also tobacco and hypnosedatives, while boys consume more illegal substances (PNSD, 2022). On the other hand, the EDADES found that men have higher rates than women in all psychoactive substances with the exception of hypnosedatives with or without prescription and opioid analgesics (PNSD, 2021). This may be showing that the consumption pattern follows norms not only sensible to gender roles, but that the characteristics of those roles may change over the lifetime. It should be noted that there are findings common to both reports, such as alcohol being the most widely used substance both between men and women across all ages, and that cannabis tends to be the substance with the higher difference among them, although this gap seems to be progressively decreasing. In the case of non-substance addictive behaviour, specific research focusing on sex differences has a more recent development, just as general research in behavioural addictions is more recent than studies in consumption habits. The official data available in Spain shows that both online and offline gambling are more frequent among men regardless of their age, and coherently they are the ones to have higher rates of a disorder or problematic gambling (OEDA & PNSD, 2021). Videogames use and possible related disorders follow a similar trend, though it has only been assessed among 14-18 years olds through the ESTUDES and lacks inclusion in the EDADES. In the case of possible compulsive use of Internet, the EDADES results are unclear, showing little

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differences between men and women, and those differences may even change directionality from one year to another, while in the case of the ESTUDES it is clear that girls are the ones with higher rates (OEDA & PNSD, 2021). More evidently in drug use than in the addictions without substance, and especially among the youngest, the differences between girls and boys have been decreasing, in line with the so-called "convergence hypothesis" (Romo, 2010).

Beyond the establishment of differences between boys and girls, there have been researchers trying to explain the origin of such differences, although most studies have been limited to the identification of differences without taking into account the social implications associated with masculinity or femininity (Fundación Atenea, 2016). There are publications pointing out to biological explanations, such as the differential impact of ovarian hormones in the reward mechanism of the brain (Becker, 2016; Gillies et al., 2014). Specific explanations for some drugs in particular have also been proposed, such as the different metabolization of the same amount of alcohol between men and women (McHugh et al., 2018) or physiological differences in nicotine absorption (Pauly, 2008). It should be noted that even studies researching biological aspects have not always reached conclusive results as to the presence of differences or even the direction of these differences (Lind et al., 2017), and they may be dependant of other moderator factors (McHugh et al., 2018). Explanations leading to a more gendered social analysis of consumption have also been proposed, such as a higher tendency to prescribe opioids to women (Back et al., 2009), or the convergence of men and women's alcohol consumption as a consequence of the parity of social status brought forward by the women's rights movements (Rahav et al., 2006). On the other hand, addictions without substance have been usually approached from the latter more social view. All of these research trends are discussed more in depth in the recently published review of Christine LaGrotta (2021), who concludes that gender differences in addiction are a result of the interaction of both biological and social aspects, and that addictive research should consider not only birth-assigned sex but also gender identity. The social explanation behind gendered consumption would also be supported by the decreasing differences between men and women in all substances consumption in the last

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decades, when in the past it seemed to be more frequent among males (McHugh et al., 2018). Some differences still linger, but they relate more to the use pattern than to whether or not women show addictive behaviours even if there are still some differential rates. For instance, the aforementioned tendency among men to consume more illicit substances is not only found in Spain (PNSD, 2022), but internationally (Center for Behavioral Health Statistics and Quality, 2018).

Differences between men and women are not only present in the rates or pattern of consumption, but also in the development of a disorder or addiction and their predisposition for treatment seeking. Particularly in the case of substance use, women seem to have a latter age of onset but a faster development into a problematic consumption, which is called "telescoping" (Keyes et al., 2010; McHugh et al., 2018). In the case of behavioural addictions, the one more studied so far has been gambling disorder, and evidence points out that gambling disorder is a problem underdiagnosed among women as they tend to seek less treatment than men, and they tend to do it when the disorder has been ongoing for years (Granero et al., 2018). Women are more reluctant to seek help because addictions are more stigmatised among them in comparison with men, which ultimately results in a barrier to accessing treatment and has a negative impact on women's health (Baxter et al., 2016; Fundación Atenea, 2014). Another barrier that hinders the efficacy of addiction treatment among women is that programmes and specialized treatment centres are developed on the basis of male needs (Fundación Atenea, 2016), highlighting the need for a gender mainstreaming approach not only in research, but also in the empirical sphere.

The Fundación Atenea [Atenea Foundation] has developed an in-depth qualitative study in Spain to analyse the social reasons for differential consumption by men and women nowadays and its explanation (Fundación Atenea, 2016). This report focuses on how gender commandments shape differential substance use between men and women, but most of its findings can be generalised to addiction research in general. There is a poorer social status of women consumers, since they are perceived as failing to fulfil their gender role, while men consumers may have their social worth diminished, but not their masculine identity per se. For starters, women who use drugs

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have a reduced ability to care for others, and studies on female consumers often focus on how this consumption affects their families, although for male consumers this issue is rarely discussed. Furthermore, females are required to please and seek to be liked by other people, particularly for their physical appearance, and by men, and the fact of using substances and not fulfilling their gender role leads them in many cases to feel guilt and emotional distress. In the case of males, rather than provoking guilt, it tends to generate a fear of ridicule for failing to meet social expectations. However, for males consumption also fulfils one of their role characteristics since they are expected to take risks. Drug use symbolises a challenge to authority for adolescents, a test to which the body is subjected and therefore a way of proving manhood. Peer relationships are also relevant to the onset and maintenance of consumption, and in the case of women the influence of a sentimental partner who is a consumer becomes keynote, while the influence of this particular agent is almost non-existent in the case of men. Besides, men usually have a more active and leading role in obtaining illegal substances, while women tend to prefer to rely on male partners or friends to do so. In addition, there is a derogatory social image that links women users with the practice of prostitution in order to gain access to the substances.

Another report of Fundación Atenea (2014) focused on young people (between 18 and 30 years old), also found that the pattern of substance use as a socially acceptable recreational behaviour is widespread from the adolescence onwards for both boys and girls. However, it is believed that girls are less problematic consumers, and that they have been incorporated through softer drinks and mixed drinks, and they are under increased social pressure to prove that they are equal to their male peers, while at the same time girls are influenced by traditional social values that also determine their attitude towards drug use. There seems to be a lesser negative attitude towards male consumers than female ones. It should be highlighted that the "equalisation of male standards" in consumption is pointed out by the experts interviewed as "misunderstood" or "misapplied" equality on the part of girls. On the other hand, this report also finds differential motivations to smoke tobacco. Boys report smoking as a result of socialisation and to comply with male patterns, while girls do it to calm stressful situations, and learning to cope with such

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situations is a demand they make if they decide to go to therapy to quit smoking.

Some of the findings reported by the Fundación Atenea (2014, 2016) may conflict with the results of Koenig (2018) about a lesser severity perceived of transgression of gender norms by women than by men. In this sense, society would be more permissive towards girls manifesting behaviours traditionally regarded as masculine and, therefore, they would feel freer to engage in such behaviours without expecting any major consequences for it. However, gender role requirements are laxer during adolescence, which is often understood as a period of experimentation (Fundación Atenea, 2014; Fundación Atenea, 2016), and this could be a possible explanation why alcohol and tobacco consumption is higher among girls than among boys as reported by the ESTUDES (PNSD, 2022). Gender role demands would increase on adult women, and adult women only have a higher use of hypnosedatives and analgesics (PNSD, 2021), which might even fit in with their role as "weaker" than males and therefore more likely to need medication to cope with their problems (Back et al., 2009). Adolescent and young adult female consumers are also particularly exposed to some characteristic repercussions their male counterparts seem to be spared, such as frequent episodes of sexual abuse and its normalisation in the Spanish nightlife context. For instance, girls are openly afraid of being sexually assaulted in nightlife venues, and boys consider normal to approach unknown girls at night venues and persist until they have sex with them, especially if the girls are alone or perceived as drunk (García-Carpintero et al., 2019; Ruiz-Repullo et al., 2020). The implications of the latter are terrible, as a drunken girl cannot consent to have sex, but the boys making advances on them seem oblivious to it. Beyond the cases of premeditated drug use by rapists, known as "chemical submission", taking advantage of a person who has used the substance of their own volition is known as "chemical vulnerability", and is also considered a sexual abuse (Tarancón, 2020). The frequency of reported cases of both kinds of sexual abuse has increased interest in research on the subject, and forced the development of specific legal regulations, and consequently needs to be taken into account when addressing female consumption. Furthermore, the normalisation of violence and abuse against women does not only occur

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because of the involvement of drugs in the nightlife context. Among other things, exposure to inadequate roles in pornography has been pointed out as one of the reasons for the increase in sexual violence and risky or inadequate sexual practices (Bridges et al., 2016; Gallego & Fernández-González, 2019; Ybarra et al., 2011). Some health practitioners have gone so far as to point out an "addiction to pornography" as a cause of increase in sexist attitudes, even if this particular addiction has not been well accepted by the scientific community (Ley et al., 2014), and such a disorder is not yet included in any of the diagnostic manuals of reference (APA, 2013; WHO, 2019).

In conclusion, previous literature suggests that the differential gender roles condition differential patterns of development and maintenance of addictive behaviours, with varying consequences and implications depending on whether the actors involved are female or male. Although drug use has been the most studied in this regard until now, research on non-substance addictions and online behaviour seems to be yielding the same results thus far.

1.3.3. Gender differences in online behaviour and Problematic Internet Use

Using Internet is a frequent leisure time activity among Spanish adolescents regardless of their sex or gender (OEDA & PNSD, 2021), but there seems to be a differential pattern in how boys and girls use it, in the same way that there was a different pattern in substance consumption. However, the first studies addressing sex/gender differences in this context did point to a gender digital gap in terms of access to the Internet. Boys were the ones who traditionally made the highest Internet use, both in frequency and time spent online, but the latest literature suggests that this gap between girls and boys no longer exists (Golpe et al., 2017). Currently, the gender digital gap seems to have been confined simply to certain cultural contexts and to older people, at least in terms of access to Internet, even if other digital inequalities remain (Mariscal et al., 2019), such as their own digital competence, access to newer and more up-to-date tools or the positioning of women professionals compared to men both in the catalogue that is the Internet or in jobs linked to ICTs.

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Although girls and boys access the Internet and own mobile phones at similar rates, their use of the Internet is not the same. Girls tend to spend more time listening to music and communicating over social media, while boys prefer to play videogames (Cotten et al., 2014; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019). Based on studies such as Golpe et al. (2017), the social aspect of the Net is relevant for all adolescents, and one of the main reasons they access the Internet is for using social networking sites or instant messaging, but girls appear to have an even more prominent usage of this kind of media. Girls also use the Internet to a greater extent to share information, using more visual networks such as Instagram or Pinterest (Golpe et al., 2017; Lenhart, 2015). Tik Tok popularity has increased during the worldwide lockdown measures imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic (Feldkamp, 2021), and it is likely to have been more popular among girls as it is a visual platform, but no literature has yet been found on such a recent topic. Beyond the behaviours carried out on the Net, there is also research finding that boys tend to go online later in the evening than girls (Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019), and they generally take more risks online (Livingstone et al., 2017), which can be easily linked to their need to present a masculine risk-taking image of themselves (Fundación Atenea, 2016).

In the specific case of the possible development of a problematic use of the Internet itself, research conducted in Spain has reached a consensus that it is more frequent in girls and females (Durkee et al., 2012; Golpe et al., 2017; Muñoz-Miralles et al., 2016; Rial, Golpe et al., 2015), while international research indicated that it was more frequent among boys (Fumero et al., 2018), but this gap also seems to have been decreasing in recent years (Durkee et al., 2016). However, a meta-analysis with an aggregated sample of 204,352 participants across 34 countries concluded that PIU was higher among males globally, but particularly Asian males were the most susceptible to developing a problem with Internet use (Su et al., 2019). A review by Baloğlu et al., (2020) further explored the possible cultural implications in gender differences in PIU studies. Among the main results of this review, one was that the most frequently studied variable in this area of research was gender. Another interesting finding was the presence of relevant cultural differences in both PIU and specific behaviours, encouraging the development of specific

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cross-cultural PIU research. These differences would serve to highlight the importance of conducting national studies in order to properly focus prevention and not just extrapolate results from studies in other countries.

The higher prevalence of problematic use among girls, coupled with greater monitoring of girls' Internet use, leads to two hypotheses: parental supervision starts to be exercised more intensively once the problem is already developed; and parents have a more protective attitude towards their daughters (Golpe et al., 2017). The latter hypothesis would be supported by further research concretely in Spain, where it is found that girls have a greater parental control or supervision than boys (Álvarez-García et al., 2019; Garmendia et al., 2016; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019). This is particularly relevant given that parental control acts as a protective factor not only against PIU, but also against online risky behaviours, and girls appear to be the ones to benefit more frequently from it.

In the case of gambling, the Network has been described as more a "gender neutral" setting than the face-to-face gambling environment, being the latter even explicitly remarked by women as a "masculine" one (Corney & Davis, 2010). However, all the research reviewed for the present dissertation coincided in pointing out that boys gamble more than girls off-line, but also online (for example: Calado et al., 2017; Chóliz & Lamas, 2017; De Luigi et al., 2017; Gómez et al., 2020; Ricijaš et al., 2016; Weidberg et al., 2018). In the latest official data published for students between 14 and 18 years of age in Spain, it can be seen that online gambling rates are quite smaller than face-to-face gambling, but still it was found that boys gambled up to five times more than girls (OEDA & PNSD, 2021). Aggravating their increased access to gambling, boys have an earlier age of onset, higher risky gambling patterns, as well as higher financial investment, and they appear to be more prone to develop a disorder related to gambling (De Luigi et al., 2017; Ricijaš et al., 2016).

Pornography consumption is another behaviour clearly linked to males (Ballester & Orte, 2019; Nieh et al., 2020; Peter & Valkenburg, 2016). In Spain, 86.9% of males and 54.8% of females between 16 and 29 years old reported having consumed pornography in the prior 5 years (Ballester & Orte,

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2019). Nieh et al., (2020) found that boys also used pornography more frequently than girls and had an earlier first access. A higher usage of this content can mean higher presence of the negative consequences of said usage, particularly an early access to a content for which they are not mature enough for (Peris & Maganto, 2018). Besides, there are studies that found that pornography usage is related to higher sexist attitudes and stronger gender stereotypical sexual beliefs (Hald et al., 2013; Peter & Valkenburg, 2016), while others link the consumption of violent pornography with the performance of sexually aggressive behaviours (Ybarra et al., 2011), and even with violence towards women within the couple (Gallego & Fernández-González, 2019). Beyond the higher exposition to pornography among males, they seem more inclined to try to recreate pornographic sexual scripts (Bridges et al., 2016), and suffer a greater impact on their expectations and stereotypes about sexual relationships (Ballester & Orte, 2019). Furthermore, men have also been found to be more interested in trying aggressive and degrading/uncommon behaviours and also to finally engage in them, while women were more likely to be the target of such behaviours (Bridges et al., 2016). Women were also the ones to report having their perception of both men and other women more affected by how they are represented on pornography (Ballester & Orte, 2019). On the other hand, boys appeared to have a greater impact from the supervision of their parents but receive it less frequently than girls, while at the same time they are more influenced by peer norms regarding pornography use, as they are more likely to discuss pornographic materials with other boys (Nieh et al., 2020). This could be extendable to all online risk behaviours, as Sasson & Mesch (2016) found that boys were more influenced by their peers' and parents' perceived subjective norms as well as their own perception of behaviour control over online risks, while for girls, only parents' subjective norms had an impact on their behaviour.

Completely opposite to gambling and pornography consumption, research is divided in the case of the sharing of sexual or erotic self-made content or sexting. For instance, Coskunpinar et al. (2013) had found that boys were the ones to perform more active sexting, while Alonso-Ruido et al. (2015) and Villacampa (2016) found that girls were the ones to sext more, and

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studies such as Strassberg et al. (2013) or Temple et al. (2012) showed no differences. More recent research points out that even if girls tend to be asked to send sexually explicit images more frequently than boys, and boys are more likely to ask for and receive sexually explicit images, the prevalence for having actually sent sexual pictures is similar between boys and girls (Foody et al., 2021). There seems to be a higher consensus in girls being the ones to experience more pressure to send sexts and having more negative experiences while sexting (Burén & Lunde, 2018; Golpe et al., 2017; Madigan et al., 2018; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017), as well as being more likely to suffer sextortion (Kopecký, 2017). Higher pressure to sext and sextortion are results also found by Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal (2019), authors who also remark that there was a relationship between time spent online and the number of requests for sexting among girls, while the same result was not found for boys. It could be hypothesised that girls are regarded by others as a potential source of sexts, and that the more they engage with other people online, the more likely it is that those others will try to get that kind of content from them. Besides, sexting is usually performed through the social networking sites girls are more active on (Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019), and their greater tendency to accept friend requests from unfamiliar individuals or complete strangers reported by Garmendia et al. (2016) may be acting as a risk factor in this case. This may be extensible to grooming, as girls seem to suffer more this kind of victimisation (de Santisteban & Gámez-Guadix, 2018; Gámez-Guadix et al., 2021; Mitchell et al., 2014; Montiel et al., 2015).

Girls who sext are often negatively impacted on their social reputation and are regarded as "not respectable" (Casas et al., 2019), while boys suffer fewer negative consequences from sexting, even to the point of experiencing positive outcomes, such as an increase in popularity among their peers (Dobson & Ringrose, 2016; Symons et al., 2018). This could be due to boys being more likely to participate in sexting in ways which are riskier for other people and even for their partners than for themselves, such as receiving and forwarding third-party content (Agustina & Gómez-Duran, 2016; Ojeda et al., 2019). Furthermore, Patchin and Hinduja (2020b) found in their study in the USA that the vast majority of cases of sextortion occurred within the context of a relationship (not necessarily romantic), and rarely came from someone

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unknown to the victim. They also found that boys were more likely to participate in sextortion as both victims and perpetrators (Patchin & Hinduja, 2020b), although they are less concerned than girls about the possible public dissemination of their nude images (Ricciardelli & Adorjan, 2019). Furthermore, girls seem to justify the fact that they are pressured to sext from boys who are or want to be their romantic partners (Rodríguez-Castro et al., 2019). This justification of pressure combined with the actual higher prevalence of girls suffering this kind of pressure, may put them at risk of cyber-control by their romantic partners or of dating violence (Alonso-Ruido et al., 2015; Morelli et al., 2016; Rodríguez-Castro et al., 2019).

Cyberbullying is another topic on which research findings are most divided. Some authors conclude that there is no difference between boys and girls (Garaigordobil & Aliri, 2013; Hinduja & Patchin, 2008; Larrañaga at al., 2018; Smith et al., 2008), while other studies found higher rates among boys (Erdur-Baker, 2010; Kasahara et al., 2019), and further research reports that cyberbullying is more frequent among girls, particularly with them being the victims (Chocarro & Garaigordobil, 2019; Golpe et al., 2017; Livingstone et al., 2011; Marcum et al., 2012; Pichel et al., 2021). Some of the explanations brought forward for these disparities include cultural differences across countries (Athanasiou et al., 2018; Inchley et al., 2020), influence of the sample age (Smith et al., 2019), or how sex and gender are understood by both the research participants and the researchers themselves, and therefore how questions about these variables are raised and answered (Foody et al., 2019; Feijóo, O'Higgins Norman et al., 2021). Besides, the differences may go beyond the general rates of involvement, and be found in specific behaviours (Chocarro & Garaigordobil, 2019; Feijóo, O'Higgins-Norman et al., 2021). Interestingly, some research highlights that differences between girls and boys in the case of cyberbullying are smaller than in traditional bullying (Smith et al., 2019), and also suggest that it could be precisely because the behaviours carried out online are more indirect, and therefore more typical of girls as they tend to avoid direct or even physical violence and prefer emotional and psychological aggressions (Marcum et al., 2012). This seems to be true in Spain in particular, since a study focused on sex differences in bullying found that girls favoured more "subtle" ways to bully others such as slander or name-

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calling, while boys resorted to more "direct" behaviours such as hacking into accounts or directly threating people (Feijóo, O'Higgins Norman et al., 2021).

Bullying has been considered as a way of expressing gender identity, with different types of behaviours being manifestations of one's gender identity. In this sense, masculine identity would be constructed through direct and explicit forms of aggression, and feminine identity would be shown through social and relational aggression (Carrera-Fernández et al., 2016; Rosen & Nofzige, 2019). Furthermore, bullying could be perceived as a way to exercise heteronormative control (Carrera-Fernández et al., 2016), which is supported by evidence pointing out that the students who are more bullied are those who are gender diverse and/or with a sexual orientation other than heterosexuality (Larrain & Garaigordobil, 2020; Vaillancourt et al., 2021). These people are not victimised because of their real orientation or identity, but because they do not fit into traditional gender roles and, therefore, into what is expected from a man or a woman (Amnesty International, 2019; Pichardo et al., 2013), which has led some authors to deem homophobic, transphobic and general LGBTphobic bullying as a clear gender issue (Feijóo & Rodríguez-Fernández, 2021; Ruiz et al., 2018). There is further criticism regarding how literature on bullying has studied the behavior of "girls" and "boys", ignoring the spectrum of gender and sexual diversity, and how social and cultural factors impact gender/sexuality-based bullying (Ging & Neary, 2019).

For all the above mentioned, the present dissertation will analyse Problematic Internet Use and risky online behaviours from a gender perspective.

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2 OBJECTIVES

This dissertation has been carried out in the framework of a research team with a line of work started more than a decade ago and aimed to analyse and understand the use that children and adolescents make of ICTs in general, and of the Internet in particular. The integration of the gender perspective as an analytical framework in this context should contribute to a greater understanding of how females and males relate to the Internet, which results in many cases in a maladaptive use, may it be through the Problematic Internet Use [PIU] itself or the occurrence of a range of online risky behaviours. This will favour the development of evidence-based prevention measures taking into account the specific needs and motivations of females.

This general objective translates into three specific objectives which are:

(a) To obtain updated prevalence data on PIU and the risky online behaviours performed by adolescents.

(b) To understand the different motivations, perceptions and expectations of females and males in their use of the Net.

(c) To explore some of the variables associated with PIU and risky behaviours, trying to identify possible moderators, as well as possible prognostic factors.

In order to achieve these objectives, the relationship between adolescents and ICTs must also be characterised beyond risky behaviour and the development of a problematic usage, by understanding the access to and the use of different devices that adolescent make, both for the global sample and for possible gender differences between females and males. In addition to assessing the PIU through the application of a specific screening tool, the risky behaviours explored in the present study were: gambling, accessing the Dark Web, pornography consumption, sexting, contact with strangers and cyberbullying. On the other hand, among the potential moderators suggested by the literature that may influence the development of a problematic usage, the present dissertation will focus on parental control over Internet use, psychological wellbeing and depressive symptoms.

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These objectives were initially planned to be met only with Galician adolescents, but the possibility of undertaking a borader collaborative project with the Spanish Branch of the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund [UNICEF Spain], and the *Consejo General de Colegios de Ingeniería Informática* [CCII] (General Council of Associations of Computer Engineering) has made it possible to extend the scope of the present Study to the whole country of Spain. The original proposed project in collaboration with UNICEF and CCII that served as the framework in which the objectives of this thesis have been pursued is included as Annex 1.

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3 METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants

The sampling frame used to obtain the sample was the population of students enrolled in Spanish Compulsory Secondary Education (hereinafter referred to by its Spanish acronym, ESO). UNICEF Spain provided an estimation of this population segregated by Autonomous Community, including the Autonomous Cities of Ceuta and Melilla. The population data provided by UNICEF was used to carry out a probabilistic stratified cluster sampling selecting the number of centres required in each Autonomous Community or City to reach the desired total sample (*n*). From the outset, the aim was to obtain a total *n* of 100,000 students, evenly distributed by the number of students in each Autonomous Community or City (hereinafter referred to by its Spanish acronym, CCAA). A compromise allocation was used to guarantee a minimum representation in the total sample of those CCAA less populated. The sample floor established was of 2,223 individuals per CCAA for the stratified sample, and the number of schools selected in each stratum was defined on the assumption that there would be around 300-350 students per school, and that it might be necessary to recruit more centres later on to compensate for those with fewer students. The allocation of the *n* is presented in Table 1.

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Table 1. Initial sampling and allocation by Autonomous Community or City

Autonomous Community/City	N	*n*	Selected schools
Andalusia	397,573	9,915	30
Aragon	50,626	4,659	15
Asturias	33,177	4,256	14
Balearic Islands	46,503	4,574	15
Canary Islands	89,992	5,343	17
Cantabria	22,402	3,904	13
Castile and León	84,575	5,269	17
Castile La Mancha	87,649	5,319	17
Catalonia	327,096	8,921	28
Valencian Community	212,441	7,290	23
Extremadura	43,361	4,504	15
Galicia	92,523	5,398	17
Madrid	280,331	8,256	27
Murcia	72,202	5,060	16
Navarre	27,606	4,088	14
Basque Country	85,142	5,277	17
La Rioja	12,857	3,384	11
Ceuta	4,711	2,301	8
Melilla	4,636	2,282	8
TOTAL SPAIN	**1,975,403**	**100,000**	**322**

The 322 schools were randomly selected according to the compromise allocation performed. Since several schools did not have the minimum *n* size to reach the total sample of 100,000, centres of similar characteristics in the same CCAA were chosen in an attempt to fill the gap with the desired sample. Thus, 335 schools were initially selected and contacted, and those who refused to participate were replaced by other schools of similar characteristics. Finally, 265 schools participated in the study of a total of 550 contacted, managing to reach an initial sample of 50,957 ESO students.

Given the particularities of the online data collection (without the presence of the research team, but of external collaborators), a strict cleansing process of the database was followed, described in further detail in Data Analysis. This process resulted in a final sample of 41,509 adolescents, which implied a sampling error of 0.65 with a 99% confidence interval. The final sample composition and its allocation by CCAA are presented in Table 2.

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Table 2. Final sample and allocation by Autonomous Community or City

Autonomous Community/City	Initial *n*	Final *n*	Participating schools
Andalusia	2,838	2,228	24
Aragon	3,095	2,418	13
Asturias	1,595	1,274	12
Balearic Islands	3,574	2,982	14
Canary Islands	2,535	1,888	15
Cantabria	2,316	1,931	10
Castile and León	3,627	2,885	19
Castile La Mancha	2,318	1,994	14
Catalonia	368	267	2
Valencian Community	4,182	3,722	27
Extremadura	5,668	4,597	23
Galicia	2,905	2,290	14
Madrid	3,650	3,165	19
Murcia	4,053	3,235	21
Navarre	4,687	3,640	20
Basque Country	2,865	2,351	12
La Rioja	568	548	4
Ceuta and Melilla	113	94	2
TOTAL SPAIN	**50,957**	**41,509**	**265**

The final sample had ages comprised between 11 and 18 years old (Mean = 13.81; Standard Deviation = 1.33). By gender, 48.7% were females, 50.4% males, and 0.9% other gender. From these other genders, 39.3% reported being non-binary, 15,1% were gender fluid, 11.7% bigender (including two students who identified as androgynous), 6.8% agender, 1.9% trans, 1.9% were gender neutral, and 5.3% directly wrote "other" without further specification, or were the only people to report a specific gender (e.g.: demigender). Other reported casuistic in the gender variable included that 8.7% identified their sexual orientation instead of their gender, 7.8% reported not knowing yet the gender they identified with, and 1.5% identified explicitly their biological sex but not their gender.

By educational level, 25% were in the first grade of ESO, 26.1% in the second, 26.1% in the third, and 22.8% in the fourth and last grade. Almost all the sample (93.1%) had been born in Spain. Regarding their situation at home, 73.5% lived with both their parents (heterosexual or same-sex couple), 8.7% spent half of their time with each of their parents, 4.5% with their mother and

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their new partner, 0.6% with their father and their new partner, 2.4% with their parents and grandparents at the same time, 0.5% only with their grandparents, 0.4% with other family, 5.9% only with their mother, 1% only with their father, 0.1% with their foster family, 0.2% in a safe house, and 2.2% reported that none of the above applied to them. Up to 83.8% had siblings, from these 68.7% had only one, 21.8% had two, 5.6% had three and the remaining 3.9% had 4 or more.

Regarding their sexual-affective life, 14.1% had a romantic partner at the moment of the survey and 29% had being in a relationship during at least three months in the past. The most frequent sexual orientation was being "completely heterosexual" with 71.3% identifying as such, while 11.6% were "mostly heterosexual", 7.7% bisexual, 1% "mostly homosexual" and only 0.9% reported being "completely homosexual" and 0.8% asexual. The option of reporting "Other" or not knowing yet was chosen by 6.7% of the sample.

3.2. Instruments

The online survey included 10 thematic blocks distributed in 12 separate screens that will be explained in the same order in which they were presented to the students, and the original draft used for the pilot test in paper can be found in Annex 2. For the detection of problematic usages, the recommended tools for early screening in the Spanish primary health care system were used (for further detail, see García-Couceiro et al., 2021): the *Escala de Uso Problemático de Internet en adolescentes* [EUPI-a] or Problematic Internet Use Scale in adolescents [PIUS-a]; and the Spanish versions of Game Addiction Scale for Adolescents [GASA]; and Brief Adolescent Gambling Screen [BAGS]. All of them are explained in the following paragraphs in order of presentation to the students, but are also summarised together with the other validated scales used in Table 3, presented at the end of this section.

The first thematic block was the presentation of the survey, briefly describing the purpose of the study and informing the respondents about the voluntariness and anonymity of their participation. Likewise, the importance of each adolescent's participation was emphasised, they were asked to answer

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honestly and seriously, and were given instructions on how to proceed if they had any doubts or questions.

The second block included questions about the sociodemographic variables described in Participants, such as their gender, age, academic grade, situation at home, whether they had siblings (if they did, how many), or their sexual-affective life.

The third block focused on leisure and well-being, including questions about the leisure activities they enjoyed, their sports practice, or their engagement in youth associations. This section also included the Psychological Well-Being Scale of the Personal Well-Being Index for schoolchildren (Rees & Main, 2015) and the Patient Health Questionnaire [PHQ-9] modified for Adolescents [PHQ-A] (Johnson et al. 2002; Richardson et al., 2010), both in their Spanish versions. The Psychological Well-Being Scale was developed for The Children's Worlds survey, and covers the six components of psychological well-being proposed by Ryff (1989). It has six items with response options ranging from "Totally disagree" to "Totally agree" on an 11-point scale, and the internal consistency evaluated through the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α) was of .76 in the present study. The score of psychological well-Being is aggregated to other sub-scales of personal wellbeing and converted to a scale out of 10. Regarding the PHQ-A, it was originally developed by Johnson et al. (2002) to screen for major depression among adolescents in primary care, and further revised by Richardson et al. (2010) to produce the current version, and kept the name PHQ-9 from the adult version. This questionnaire has 9 items based on the depression criteria in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders asking about how often the adolescent felt in a particular way during the last weeks, with answers ranging from "Never" to "Nearly every day". Richardson et al. (2010) found that the cut point of 11 was optimal for maximizing sensitivity without loss of specificity in screening depression, but different thresholds may indicate different levels of depression severity. The α for the PHQ9 was .87.

The fourth block introduced questions developed for the present study about adolescents' Internet and smartphone use (e.g.: "At what age did you have your first mobile phone with Internet connection?"; "How much time do

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you usually use the Internet on a typical weekday?"; "Do you access the Internet, use your mobile phone, tablet or video game console after midnight?"; "What activities do you usually do on the Internet?"), as well as social networking sites and messaging applications. (e.g.: "In which social networking sites do you have an account?"; "What instant messaging applications do you use regularly?").

The fifth thematic block assessed possible online risky behaviours, emotions felt while using Internet (e.g.: fear, sadness, enjoyment, fun, support), and also includes the EUPI-a (Rial, Gómez et al., 2015) and the *Cuestionario de Control Parental del Uso de Internet durante la Adolescencia* (Questionnaire on Parental Control of Internet Use during Adolescence, Álvarez-García et al., 2019). The online risky behaviours could be carried out at least once in the prior month, prior year, once in the lifetime or never, and included: accessing erotic websites; accessing the Dark Web; sending or receiving self-made erotic content (active and passive sexting, respectively) either as written message or via pictures or videos; being pressured to sext; accepting or contacting strangers through social networking sites, and physically meeting these strangers offline. The EUPI-a is a 11-item screening measure for Problematic Internet Use (PIU) in adolescents developed in the Spanish context by Rial, Gómez et al. (2015) and has an English version proposed in the original publication (see Rial, Gómez et al., 2015 for further detail). The response options are presented in a Likert scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree" (values 0 to 4), with the sum of all responses determining whether there was a PIU or not if the score is equal to or higher than 11. The items referred to scenarios linked to their Internet use during the previous year (e.g., "When I'm online I feel that time flies and hours pass without me realizing it"; "I sometimes get irritated or in a bad mood because I can't connect to Internet or because I have to disconnect"; "I've stopped going to places or doing things that interested me before so as to connect to the Internet"), and the α coefficient obtained in the present study was .87. The *Cuestionario de Control Parental del Uso de Internet durante la Adolescencia* was recently developed in the Spanish context by Álvarez-García et al. (2019) and focuses on two of the types of parental mediation proposed by Nikken and Jansz (2013), specifically on restrictive mediation

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and supervision. Although the authors of the questionnaire themselves do not propose a reduced name for the scale, for ease of reading it will henceforth be referred to as "C-CPUIA". The C-CPUIA has 7 items with Likert-type response scale of four alternatives, and the α obtained in the present study was of .83 for the whole scale (.75 for the Restriction sub-scale and .76 for the Supervision sub-scale).

The sixth block was focused on video games and included questions on the frequency and habits of use of video games, games played, PEGI compliance, and items about gaming with strangers. In addition, it included the Game Addiction Scale for Adolescents [GASA] (Lemmens et al., 2009; Lloret et al., 2018), to screen possible problematic use of video games. The GASA was originally developed by Lemmens et al. (2009) based on the DSM-5 criteria for Internet gambling disorder (salience, tolerance, emotion, relapses, abstinence, conflict and problems), and was adapted to the Spanish context by Lloret et al. (2018). It has 7 items with Likert-type answers ranging from 1 ("Never") to 5 ("Very Often"). Each criterion is considered fulfilled if the individual replies with a 3 ("Sometimes") or more. When at least 4 criteria are fulfilled, the person is considered to present "problematic gaming"; and if they reach all 7, it is considered that they present symptoms of a "possible addiction". The α obtained in the present study was .87.

The seventh block focused on gambling, with items about frequency, typology, as well as means and reasons why adolescents may spend money online on betting or gambling. This section also included the Brief Adolescent Gambling Screen [BAGS] (Stinchfield et al., 2017). The BAGS was developed by Stinchfield et al. (2017), and is a short scale with three items that screens for problematic gambling behaviour. The three items have a four-point response options coded as 0–3, with a total score range of 0–9. The original authors stated in the development of the scale that a subject with a score of 4 or greater in the BAGS had a very high likelihood of reaching a diagnosis of Gambling Disorder when assessed through a clinical interview, while scores of 6 or greater indicated certainty of having the disorder. Since the first criterion maximized classification accuracy and better balanced false positive and false negative classification errors, their recommended cut score

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is 4 (Stinchfield et al., 2017). The internal consistency measured by the α was .70 in the present study.

The eighth block centered on both school bullying and cyberbullying, but for purposes of the present dissertation, only the latter will be described. The Spanish version of the European Bullying Intervention Project Questionnaire [EBIPQ] (Ortega-Ruiz et al., 2016) and the European Cyberbullying Intervention Project Questionnaire [ECIPQ] (Del Rey et al., 2015) were included in this block. The EBIPQ and the ECIPQ are used for calculating the prevalence and roles of school bullying and cyberbullying involvement respectively (victims, bullies, or bully-victims). Both questionnaires were developed as a result of an international collaboration, thus having different language versions. The EBIPQ has a total of 14 items, while the ECIPQ has 22 items. They both include two different scales with half of the total items each; one describes different types of school or cyber bullying behaviours and asks if the adolescent suffered them, while the other mirrors the same behaviours but enquiries about perpetrating them. The frequency of these behaviours is estimated by taking the last two months as a reference timeframe using a Likert scale with 5 response options: "No"; "Yes, once or twice"; "Yes, once or twice a month"; "Yes, once a week"; "Yes, several times a week". The α coefficient of the EBIPQ was .82 for the victim scale, and .85 for the perpetrator scale, while the α of the ECIPQ was .86 for the victim scale, and .87 for the perpetrator scale.

The ninth block focused on learning about adolescents' experience in the online teaching procedures established as a result of COVID-19, and how they were assessing their own learning and the quality of the teaching received.

Finally, the tenth and last thematic block included questions related to the online questionnaire itself, such as its length or the complexity of the questions, in order to obtain feedback and improve future data collection.

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Table 3. Summary of the validated scales included in the survey

Scale	Authors	Number of items	Original Reliability	Present Reliability
Psychological Well-Being Scale of the Personal Well-Being Index for schoolchildren	Rees & Main, 2015	6	Not reported	α = .76
Patient Health Questionnaire [PHQ-9]	Johnson et al. 2002; Richardson et al., 2010	9	Not reported	α = .87
Cuestionario de Control Parental del Uso de Internet durante la Adolescencia	Álvarez-García et al., 2019	7	Overall scale = .82 Supervision = .80 Restriction = .68	Overall scale = .83 Supervision = .76 Restriction = .75
Escala de Uso Problemático de Internet en adolescentes [EUPI-a] / Problematic Internet Use Scale in adolescents [PIUS-a]	Rial, Gómez et al., 2015	11	α = .82	α = .87
Game Addiction Scale for Adolescents [GASA]	Lemmens et al., 2009	7	α = .86 (Spanish validation by Lloret et al., 2018)	α = .87
Brief Adolescent Gambling Screen [BAGS]	Stinchfield et al., 2017	3	α = .72	α = .70
European Bullying Intervention Project Questionnaire [EBIPQ]	Brighi et al., 2012 (retrieved from Ortega-Ruiz et al., 2016)	14	Victimisation = .73 Perpetration = .69	Victimisation = .82 Perpetration = .85
European Cyberbullying Intervention Project Questionnaire [ECIPQ]	Del Rey et al., 2015	22	Victimisation = .97 Perpetration = .93	Victimisation = .86 Perpetration = .87

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3.3. Procedure

For the elaboration of the survey and selection of the specific instruments to be used, a committee of experts on the various topics addressed was consulted. The different contributors to the instrument and their areas of expertise are described below (Table 4).

Table 4. Experts who have served as advisors for the development of the Instrument

Area	Expert	Role and Affiliation
Technology usage	Mailen Garmendia	Head of EuKids Online in Spain, University of the Basque Country
	Patricia Gómez	Expert researcher in Minors and New Technologies, University of Santiago de Compostela
	Daniel Kardefelt	Member of the research programme on Children and Digital Technologies of UNICEF. International Office of Research and Studies, Innocenti, UNICEF
Child rights	Mª Angels Balsells	Professor of Pedagogy, Departament de Pedagogia Facultat d'Educació, Psicologia i Treball Social. University of Lleida
	Francisco Rivera	Lecturer in Methodology of Behavioural Sciences, University of Seville
	Sara Luna	Researcher in the Area of Behavioural Sciences Methodology, University of Seville
Diversity, inclusion and gender perspective	María Teresa Andrés	Director of the Inclusion Department, Fundación Secretariado Gitano
	Jesús Martín Blanco	Delegate for Human Rights and for the Convention, CERMI (Spanish Committee of Representatives of Persons with Disabilities)
	Yolanda Rodríguez	Expert researcher in Youth and ICTs from a Gender perspective, University of Vigo

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Table 4. Continuation

Security, data protection and cybercrime	José Julio Fernández	Director of the Centre for Security Studies of Galicia (CESEG). Lecturer at the Faculty of Law and data protection delegate, University of Santiago
	Santiago Reboyras	Inspector of the National Police Force Expert in Cybersecurity, Superior Police Headquarters of Galicia
	José Torres	Head of the Technological Investigation Team of the Judicial Police, Command of the Guardia Civil of Pontevedra
Addiction prevention	Gregor Burkhart	Responsible for prevention responses, EMCDDA-European Monitoring Centre for the Drugs an Drugs Abuse
	Gerardo Flórez	Psychiatrist specialised in behavioural addictions in young people and adolescents, Galician Health Service
	Sion Kim Harris	Co-Director, Center for Adolescent Behavioral Health Research (CABHRe) Division of Adolescent/Young Adult Medicine, Boston Children's Hospital Associate Professor, Department of Pediatrics, Harvard Medical School
	Manuel Isorna	Expert researcher in addictions and adolescent well-being, University of Vigo
	Patricia Ros	Head of Planet Youth in Spain, Planet Youth
School bullying and cyberbullying	James O'Higgins	Director of National Anti-Bullying Center, Dublin City University UNESCO Chair on Tackling Bullying in Schools and Cyberspace, UNESCO
	Rosario Del Rey	Head of group Interpersonal Aggression and Socio-Emotional Development (IASED), University of Seville Co-president of the International Observatory for School Climate and Violence Prevention

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Before implementing the resulting questionnaire online, it was pilot tested in paper in two classrooms from different schools, each one from a different autonomous community (Galicia and Madrid). As this questionnaire reported no problems and underwent no modifications for its online implementation, these pilot tests were subsequently included in the final database. The online survey was implemented and maintained in LimeSurvey (Limesurvey GmbH., 2003) with the technical support of the Spanish General Council of Associations of Computer Engineering. This online survey tool has its own repository for participants' answers that allows to download a data sheet in .sav format. The data server with all the survey's output was kept by the Centro de Supercomputación de Galicia (Galician Supercomputing Center), guaranteeing that the participants' answers never left national borders in compliance with the Spanish law on personal data protection (Organic Law 3/2018 of 5 December on the Protection of Personal Data and the Guarantee of Digital Rights). The stipulations of this law were followed throughout all the data management process.

The different UNICEF regional committees provided a list of all schools with ESO in the different CCAA, and the schools were randomly selected according to the compromise allocation performed. Each UNICEF regional committee acted as an intermediary between the research team and each of the schools in the first contact, and once they agreed to participate in the study, they were directly contacted by the lead researcher of the project (Dr. Antonio Rial, supervisor of the present dissertation). The alleged complications linked to COVID-19 or even organizing the data gathering resulted in a 48.2% refusal rate, forcing to contact a total of 550 schools across all the sampling process, until 335 agreed to participate in the study and 265 actually gathered the data. They received instructions on how to access the questionnaire and what steps to take to collect the sample, all of it included in a Procedure Manual they were delivered by mail. This manual indicated the different steps to be followed for data collection, allowing the standardization of the procedure from one school to another, the unification of the criteria, the solution of possible doubts, and the minimization of possible biases derived from having several supervisors. Emphasis was placed on the voluntary and anonymous nature of the participation, as well as on the confidentiality of all responses.

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The Procedure Manual with more information about the online platform can be found in Annex 3.

Firstly, the schools needed to designate two contact people responsible for the study or coordinators. Then, they would establish a calendar in accordance with the research team with the dates of access to the questionnaire for the different ESO courses, so that afterwards it could be verified that the accesses had been made only in the classroom context supervised by the person designated for this purpose. Then, before starting the data gathering, the designated coordinators of each school should test the online questionnaire in order to familiarize themselves with the different questions and sections, as well as to check that everything worked correctly. Access to the online platform was possible through a link created by the CCII specifically for each centre, which allowed control of the centre's IP and access times. This Direct Access was sent on a file by e-mail and the coordinators should copy and place them on the desktop of each computer (PC or laptop) located in the room where the students were going to complete the survey (computer room, library, or any other suitable space). Finally, after checking that the direct access worked in all computers, the school coordinator had to notify the lead researcher that they were going to begin data gathering, so that it could be verified that the surveys were being uploaded to the platform without any problems. Daily checks were carried out while the schools were collecting the data, until each of the bases were downloaded and the estimated sample and dates were verified to ensure that they matched what had been reported by each centre. This procedure begun in November 2020 and ended in March 2021, with a break corresponding to the Christmas holidays, when the schools were closed.

3.4. Data analysis

First, a data cleansing was performed in the individual databases of each school, establishing three essential criteria that had to be met or the subject would be excluded from the database:

- Criterion 1: The subject had not abandoned the questionnaire before reaching the online risky behaviours.

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- Criterion 2: The day and timeframe on which the questionnaire was accessed coincided with the information reported by the centre in their calendar for the grade the subject was in.
- Criterion 3: the IP and URL of access should be the ones assigned to the centre, since the link had to be accessed from the school's network only, and usually even from a computer or tablet in the school itself. This step was carried out with the collaboration of a computer technician.

Furthermore, once these three criteria had been met, a control of duplicates and strange or apparently random response patterns were performed (such as first reporting doing something and then indicating "never" in frequency of that behaviour; or answering rudely or jokingly to qualitative questions). This cleansing resulted in the removal of a total of 9,448 entries among the different databases of the schools. The criterion that the questionnaire should be filled at least halfway through resulted in most of the questionnaires having no missing data. However, being at the end of the online survey, the ECIPQ had a missing rate of 4.9%, resulting in a lower sample for this section (n = 39,523), since the results in this dissertation were computed from valid data only. Finally, the sample of other gender was not included because of its small size (n = 372) in comparison to females (n = 20,223) and males (n = 20,914), therefore it would be a bias for the analyses. This decision was also in line with the original objective of this dissertation (comparing females and males). So, the Results presented will be based on the information gathered from 41,137 students (Mean age = 13.81; Standard Deviation = 1.33).

Bivariate tabulations by gender were carried out with the application of contrasts χ^2 for the comparison of percentages, and Student's t-test was applied for comparison of means. To ensure the appropriate use of parametric analysis, the assumption of normality and the assumption of homogeneity of variances were previously checked, using the K-S test with Lilliefors correction and the Levene test, respectively. Given the non-compliance with both assumptions in most variables, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied as a complementary non-parametric test, following the recommendations of Rial and Varela (2008). On the other hand, contingency coefficients (CC) or

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Cramér's V were applied to qualitative variables to calculate the effect size, and eta-squared (η^2) was used instead when analysing quantitative variables. These effect sizes were interpreted in accordance with Funder and Ozer (2019). To make the comparison by age, the sample was grouped in a way that they were similar to the usual groupings of early adolescence, middle adolescence and late adolescence in current research (Moreau et al., 2021): one group between 11 and 14 years olds (early adolescence), and the other from 15 to 18 years olds (middle adolescence). The early adolescence group consisted of 68.4% of the sample, while the middle adolescents were the 31.6% remaining. All analyses were performed with the IBM SPSS Statistics 25 statistical package (IBM Corp. Released, 2017).

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4 RESULTS

The results of the data analysis will be presented below. Although the questionnaire has been described exhaustively, the present study was part of a broader project, so not all the items included in the questionnaire have been of interest for the fulfilment of the objectives of the present dissertation. As stated in the Objectives, Problematic Internet use and risky behaviours must first be contextualised by analysing the general use that adolescents are making of Internet, their mobile phone and social networking sites. Following this contextualization, the results of the present dissertation will appear in the order of the proposed objectives, regardless of the thematic block in which the items are included in their presentation to the students. Therefore, the prevalence of Problematic Internet Use (PIU) and online risky behaviours will be introduced (Objective 1) will be presented in section 4.1, then the perceptions and expectations of females and males in their use of the Net (Objective 2) shall correspond to section 4.2, and finally the possible moderators of the development of a problem, such as parental control over Internet use, psychological wellbeing and depressive symptoms (Objective 3) will be section 4.3.

Before explicitly addressing adolescents' use of the Internet, they were asked about the activities they like to do in their free time. Some of these activities were online while others were offline, and the results allow us to anticipate the high involvement of ICTs in current leisure time, being the most frequent behaviour using the smartphone, tablet or computer (96.3%), followed by listening to music (93.6%) and using social networking sites (90.9%). There are also several differences between the activities more reported by either females or males. Females have higher rates in almost all the activities explored, with the exception of playing sports, going to the cinema, and playing video games. This last item is also the most remarkable difference, also presenting the higher effect size. The other most relevant differences are dancing, also with a very large effect size, and singing, painting and go shopping, all of them most prevalent among females and with medium effects. This data is presented in detail in Table 5.

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Table 5. Free time activities

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Playing sports	76.1%	68.3%	83.7%	1346.83**	.18
Watching films or series online	86.3%	90.8%	81.9%	684.67**	.13
Listening to music	93.6%	97.4%	90%	937.64**	.15
Playing an instrument	22.5%	24.2%	20.9%	66.13**	.04
Singing	38.6%	51.7%	25.9%	2890.15**	.26
Dancing	38.8%	62.1%	16.2%	9129.16**	.47
Reading	55.2%	61.2%	49.3%	591.66**	.12
Writing	48.4%	52.4%	44.5%	257.30**	.08
Using social networking sites	90.9%	93.3%	88.5%	277.83**	.08
Going to the cinema	47.4%	46.3%	48.4%	19.20**	.02
Playing video games	67.6%	42.3%	92%	11592.81**	.53
Being with friends	86.3%	87.4%	85.2%	42.48**	.03
Using the smartphone, tablet or computer	96.3%	96.7%	96%	14.52**	.02
Strolling	73.2%	77%	69.5%	291.50**	.08
Painting	42%	54.1%	30.3%	2398.06**	.24
Go shopping	59.4%	73.8%	45.4%	3454.83**	.29

Note: **$p < .001$

Furthermore, the results show a high access to Internet and usage of the mobile phone from an early age. The mean age for having their first mobile phone with data access was 10.96 years old for the whole sample (Standard Deviation = 1.65), 10.94 years old for males (SD = 1.74) and 10.99 years old for females (SD = 1.55), a slight difference that had statistical significance ($t = -2.95$; $p < .05$), although the effect size was irrelevant ($\eta^2 < .001$). As shown in Table 6, almost the entire sample (98%) reported having Wi-Fi at home, being also the only item where there was no difference at all between females and males, while for the rest there were a few percentage differences with too small effect sizes. Females had higher rates in having their own mobile phone, connecting daily, and using Internet more than 5 hours per day during weekdays, while males used the Internet more during the weekend and were the ones to have a higher rate in having unlimited data in their phones.

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Table 6. Mobile phone usage and Internet access

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Having their own mobile phone	94.8%	95.5%	94.1%	35.08**	.03
Having unlimited data in their phone	27.6%	26.7%	28.5%	16.85**	.02
Having Wi-Fi at home	98%	98%	98%	-	-
Connecting to the Internet on a daily basis	90.8%	91.8%	89.7%	56.61**	.04
Using Internet more than 5 hours per day during weekdays	31.4%	32.9%	30%	39.44**	.03
Using Internet more than 5 hours per day on the weekend	49.5%	48.1%	50.8%	29.98**	.03

Note: **p < .001

Regarding the assessed habits in the household concerning the mobile phone (Table 7), females tend to sleep more frequently with the mobile phone in the room and they also use it more after midnight. In the same way, they take their mobiles to classroom and use it there more frequently. Females have more arguments at home caused by mobile usage, but males report more actual punishments derived from this usage. Males are also who report a higher frequency of having their parents using their own devices at lunchtime.

Table 7. Household habits regarding mobile phone

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	CC
Sleeping with mobile phone in the room					
Never/Almost never	24.8%	21.3%	28.2%	511.65**	.11
At least once a month	6.5%	5.4%	7.6%		
At least once a week	9.2%	8.2%	10.1%		
Every day/Almost everyday	59.5%	65.1%	54.1%		
Using their mobile phone after midnight					
Never/Almost never	33.1%	31.3%	34.9%	140.93**	.06
At least once a month	16.3%	15.3%	17.3%		
At least once a week	28.6%	29.7%	27.6%		
Every day/Almost everyday	21.9%	23.8%	20.1%		

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Table 7. Continuation

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	CC
Taking their mobile phone to school					
Never/Almost never	27.2%	24.3%	30.1%	218.16**	.07
At least once a month	6.2%	5.9%	6.4%		
At least once a week	7.6%	7.3%	8%		
Every day/Almost everyday	59%	62.6%	55.5%		
Using their mobile in the classroom					
Never/Almost never	74.6%	74.6%	74.5%	8.16*	.01
At least once a month	9%	8.7%	9.4%		
At least once a week	9.3%	9.6%	9%		
Every day/Almost everyday	7.1%	7%	7.1%		
Parents use their mobile at lunchtime					
Never/Almost never	48.6%	51.4%	45.9%	129.19**	.06
At least once a month	13.5%	13%	14%		
At least once a week	14.7%	14.1%	15.3%		
Every day/Almost everyday	23.1%	21.4%	24.8%		
Arguments at home caused by mobile usage					
Never/Almost never	42.7%	42%	43.4%	148.63**	.06
At least once a month	31.8%	30.4%	33.2%		
At least once a week	17.2%	17.8%	16.7%		
Every day/Almost everyday	8.3%	9.8%	6.8%		
Punishments derived from mobile usage					
Never/Almost never	52.4%	55.3%	49.5%	161.16**	.06
At least once a month	32%	29.3%	34.5%		
At least once a week	9.9%	9.4%	10.4%		
Every day/Almost everyday	5.7%	5.9%	5.6%		

Note: *p < .05; **p < .001

In the case of the activities frequently performed online (Table 8), the five most popular for the whole sample were using WhatsApp or chatting with contacts, listening to music, using social networking sites, watching videos on YouTube or Twitch, and doing homework. However, there were disparities regarding the activities of females and males. Several activities were reported in a higher rate by females, while males reported more gambling, flirting, watching videos on YouTube or Twitch, and particularly playing video games, watching matches (or other sporting events), and consuming pornography. In these last three activities, males doubled or even tripled females, which is

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accompanied by the fact of those being the items that showed the largest effect sizes among all activities.

Table 8. Activities performed online

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Using social networking sites	91.5%	94.2%	88.9%	368.64**	.10
Watching series or films	86%	90.7%	81.4%	741.50**	.13
Listening to music	93.8%	97.8%	90.2%	1063.73**	.16
Searching for all kinds of information	81.4%	82%	80.8%	9.47*	.01
Doing homework	90.1%	92.3%	87.9%	223.10**	.07
Using WhatsApp, chatting with contacts	95.6%	97.1%	94.1%	222.64**	.07
Sending and receiving e-mails	74%	77.8%	70.4%	290.08**	.08
Gambling, playing online poker, roulette	4.8%	3.7%	5.8%	101.22**	.05
Flirting, looking for a partner	12.7%	9.5%	15.9%	378.77**	.10
Following other people	66.1%	70.5%	61.9%	336.78**	.09
Playing video games	71%	48.4%	92.9%	9893.77**	.49
Watching matches and other sporting events	46.6%	27.9%	64.8%	5631.46**	.37
Watching pornography	24.8%	9.5%	39.5%	4956.10**	.35
Buying or selling stuff	33.4%	36.3%	30.5%	156.59**	.06
Uploading photos, videos or other content	52.4%	60.6%	44.4%	1081.57**	.16
Watching videos on YouTube or Twitch	90.7%	86.4%	94.8%	865.86**	.14
Stalking or snooping about other people	49.8%	62.9%	37.1%	2737.32**	.26
Doing or watching Tik Toks	72.9%	86.6%	59.6%	3783.23**	.30
Making video calls with friends	77%	86.8%	67.6%	2147.03**	.23
Reading	44.2%	51.8%	36.8%	929.46**	.15

Note: *p < .05; **p < .001

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The most used Social Networking Sites (SNS) and instant messaging apps for the whole sample were YouTube and WhatsApp, respectively. As shown in Table 9, their apparent superior popularity among other SNS and messaging apps seems true among both females and males; however, there are some differences between females and males in their preferences. In the case of SNS, the largest number of users of Instagram, Tik Tok, Pinterest, Tumblr, Peoople, and other SNS not contemplated in the listing were females, while males were the most frequent users of Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Tinder and Twitch. Females also had higher rates in having an account or profile in three or more SNS and having more than one account or profile in the same SNS. In the case of the instant messaging apps, females were mostly users of WhatsApp, MD Instagram, Snapchat, Skype, Zoom, Meet and other apps not listed, while males used more Messenger Facebook, Telegram, and Discord. There was no difference between females and males in WeChat and Line use, which were both marginal apps with less than 1% users each.

Table 9a. Frequently used Social Networking Sites (SNS)

Social Networking Sites	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Instagram	81.1%	83.6%	78.7%	157.48**	.06
Tik Tok	76.4%	87.3%	65.8%	2609.59**	.25
Facebook	14.1%	10.7%	17.5%	384.64**	.10
Pinterest	34.7%	56.8%	13.2%	8506.20**	.49
YouTube	92.2%	88.8%	95.4%	607.49**	.12
Twitter	32.9%	30.8%	34.9%	73.90**	.04
Tinder	1%	0.4%	1.5%	120.33**	.05
Tumblr	2.6%	3.9%	1.3%	276.87**	.08
Twitch	47%	21.9%	71.4%	9963.54**	.50
Peoople	4.7%	7.4%	2.2%	612.02**	.12
Other	32.9%	36.4%	29.5%	218.53**	.07
Not having any account or profile in any SNS	1.5%	1.3%	1.7%	12.28**	.01
Having account or profile in 3 or more SNS	84.8%	86.5%	83%	97.50**	.05
Having more than one account or profile per SNS	62.4%	68%	56.9%	526.71**	.11

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Table 9b. Frequently used Instant messaging apps

Instant messaging apps	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
WhatsApp	96.1%	96.7%	95.4%	44.55**	.03
MD Instagram	59.8%	62.5%	57.3%	112.73**	.05
Messenger Facebook	3.7%	3.1%	4.2%	33.10**	.03
Snapchat	19.4%	29.4%	9.7%	2505.51**	.25
Skype	7.7%	8.2%	7.1%	16.97**	.02
WeChat	0.7%	0.6%	0.8%	3.50	-
Telegram	12.5%	8.4%	16.6%	623.58**	.12
Line	0.4%	0.4%	0.5%	2.47	-
Discord	34.7%	15.1%	53.7%	6690.51**	.40
Zoom	11.4%	12.8%	10.1%	74.27**	.04
Meet	19.9%	21.7%	18.1%	84.52**	.05
Other	11.9%	12.6%	11.2%	18.03**	.02
Not having any instant messaging apps	1%	0.8%	1.3%	27.60**	.03

Note: **$p < .001$

Students were also asked about their interactions with other people through online videogames, whether they simply had met other people to play with them, had even become friends with some of those new people, or had felt bullied by other people. It was found that, even if half (50.8%) of the online players reported meeting new people, less than five per cent (4.8%) had felt bullied, threatened or harassed through videogames. Male players doubled the rate of females who had met new people and made friends, both behaviours with medium effect sizes, but in the case of feeling bullied, the difference was much lower and the effect size was irrelevant. This data is presented in detail in Table 10.

Table 10. Social interactions in online videogames (only answered by online videogame players)

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Meeting new people	50.8%	29.9%	65.3%	4075.80**	.35
Making friends	44.5%	26.4%	57.1%	3117.79**	.30
Feeling bullied, threatened, harassed	4.8%	4.3%	5.2%	14.76**	.02

Note: **$p < .001$

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4.1. Problematic Internet Use and online risky behaviours

In order to fulfil Objective one (To obtain updated prevalence data on PIU and the risky online behaviours performed by adolescents), the Problematic Internet Use Scale in adolescents (PIUS-a) was applied. The overall rate of Problematic Internet Use (PIU) was 32.9%. Females presented higher rates than males (36.1% vs 29.8%), a result with statistical significance and a very small but relevant effect size, as presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Problematic Internet Use

	Global	Females	Males	χ^2	V
Problematic Internet Use	32.9%	36.1%	29.8%	181.40**	.07

Note: **p < .001

As shown in Table 12, females also had higher mean in every item of the Problematic Internet Use Scale in adolescents, and although these differences had statistical significance, the effect sizes were too small to be relevant in any item. The PIU criteria with the highest average was the feeling that time flies and hours pass without realizing it while using Internet, while the lowest average was in stopping going to places or doing things they used to be interested in in order to connect to the Internet.

Table 12. Mean of the items of the Problematic Internet Use Scale in adolescents

	Global Mean (SD)	Female Mean (SD)	Male Mean (SD)	*t*	z	η^2
Feeling that time flies and hours pass without realizing it when online	2.71 (1.17)	2.79 (1.11)	2.63 (1.22)	-13.25**	-11.02**	<.01
Inability to control or reduce access	1.42 (1.24)	1.64 (1.26)	1.20 (1.19)	-36.92**	-36.73**	.03
Neglecting certain tasks or having low performance because of Internet use	1.32 (1.18)	1.40 (1.20)	1.24 (1.16)	-13.20**	-13.15**	<.01
Needing progressively increased time connected to Internet	1.14 (1.23)	1.17 (1.24)	1.11 (1.21)	-5.62**	-5.72**	<.01

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Table 12. Continuation

Getting irritated or in a bad mood for inability to connect to Internet or having to disconnect	1.11 (1.15)	1.13 (1.18)	1.09 (1.12)	-4.00**	-2.26*	<.01
Preferring parents do not know about excessive time online	0.76 (1.07)	0.83 (1.11)	0.69 (1.02)	-13.48**	-12.38**	<.01
Stopping going to places/doing things in order to connect to the Internet	0.51 (0.91)	0.54 (0.93)	0.49 (0.89)	-5.47**	-5.56**	<.01
Getting into trouble because of the Internet	0.80 (1.06)	0.83 (1.08)	0.78 (1.04)	-5.43**	-4.71**	<.01
Being annoyed for spending hours without connecting to Internet	0.88 (1.07)	0.90 (1.09)	0.86 (1.05)	-4.09**	-2.96*	<.01
Fear of missing out when not online	1.16 (1.22)	1.23 (1.26)	1.10 (1.18)	-11.16**	-9.86**	<.01
Say or doing things on Internet that would not say or do in person	0.85 (1.12)	0.89 (1.14)	0.82 (1.10)	-6.01**	-5.56**	<.01

Note: *p < .05; **p < .001

Regarding possible risky behaviours adolescents may be engaging in on the Net (Table 13), 3.6% of the whole sample reported having gambled online at least once in their lifetime, with males quadrupling the rate of female gamblers. The application of the BAGS also allowed to estimate the rate of problematic gambling among online gamblers, finding an overall rate of 0.5%; with males once again quadrupling the rate of female gamblers (0.8% vs 0.2%; $\chi^2 = 84.44$; $p < .001$; V = .05). Adolescents were also asked if they knew about and had accessed the Dark Web. Of the whole sample, 44.2% reported knowing about the Dark Web, but the rate descended to 10.6% when answering if they had accessed it. In both cases, males had significant higher rates with small effect sizes.

Other risky behaviours explored were linked to sexual risks, such as sexting, sextortion or pornography consumption. Males received more sexts via written messages, but there were no differences in receiving erotic pictures or videos. In comparison to passive sexting, the rates of active sexting are lower, and males sent more written messages while females sent more pictures

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or videos. Males also had higher rates of receiving sexts originally from a third party, while the rates of females being pressured to sext more than doubled the ones of males. However, the rates of being threatened with the dissemination of sexts showed no differences between females and males. Finally, receiving sexual solicitations from an adult was more frequent among females, and males were the largest consumers of pornography. This last behaviour is also the one with the highest effect size, with a value that could even be considered large.

There are risky behaviours related to contacting strangers through the Net. Males had higher rates of actively contacting strangers online, while females had the higher rates of accepting strangers in their social networks. In the case of meeting those online acquaintances in person, rates are slightly higher in males, a result with statistical significance in spite of the effect size being too low.

Table 13. Online risky behaviours

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Gambling money online	3.6%	1.4%	5.9%	572.07**	.12
Knowing about the Dark Web	44.2%	33.9%	54.2%	1728.86**	.20
Accessed the Dark Web	10.6%	5.3%	13.8%	325.72**	.13
Passive sexting (written messages)	41.9%	40.6%	43.2%	29.18**	.03
Passive sexting (pictures or videos)	26.7%	26.8%	26.6%	0.15	-
Active sexting (written messages)	13.7%	11.9%	15.4%	105.68**	.05
Active sexting (pictures or videos)	7.9%	8.3%	7.5%	9.96*	.02
Receiving sexts originally from a third party	19%	14.3%	23.6%	572.21**	.12
Pressures or coercions to sext	11.3%	15.9%	6.8%	853.90**	.14
Threats with the dissemination of sexts	3.6%	3.5%	3.7%	0.44	-
Receiving sexual solicitations from adults	9.7%	12.9%	6.6%	476.19**	.11
Pornography consumption	35.2%	19.9%	50.1%	4127.79**	.32
Actively contacting strangers online	55%	50.7%	59.3%	305.66**	.09
Accepting strangers on social networking sites	57.2%	58.5%	55.9%	26.56**	.02
Meeting online acquaintances in person	21.4%	20.7%	22.1%	12.17**	.02

Note: $^{**}p < .001$

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Cyberbullying involvement was assessed both through the multi-item ECIPQ, that made it possible to distinguish between three profiles: victims, bullies and those who were both at the same time (bully-victims). This last profile was the most common, followed by pure victims. All three roles presented gender differences, but in the case of the cyberbullies, the low effect made those differences too small to take into account. Females tended to be cybervictims, while males were more cyberbully-victims. Global rates and gender differences in cyberbullyng are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. Cyberbullying involvement (ECIPQ results). Overall and by gender

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Cybervictims	10.7%	12.7%	8.7%	164.53**	.06
Cyberbullies	7.8%	7.3%	8.4%	17.62**	.02
Cyberbully-victims	11.7%	9.6%	13.8%	159.47**	.06

Note: **$p < .001$

Following the theories that identify LGBTphobic bullying as a gender issue, the possible differential cyberbullying involvement by sexual orientation was also explored and is presented in Table 15. It was found that bisexual people suffered the double cybervictimisation than heterosexuals, while homosexuals had also higher rates but asexuals suffered the same victimisation rate. Heterosexuals had the highest rate in cyberbullying others, while homosexual people were more cyberbully-victims than their peers, but the effect size was irrelevant in both cases for the global sample. However, in the case of females, not only bisexual had the higher rates of cybervictims, but homosexuals did have relevant higher rates of bully-victimisation. Males had no relevant differences between profiles of cyberbullying involvement.

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Table 15. Cyberbullying involvement by sexual orientation

Global	**Heterosexual**	**Bisexual**	**Homosexual**	**Asexual**	**χ^2**	**V**
Victims	9.8%	20.2%	16.5%	9.9%	334.32**	.10
Bullies	8.2%	7%	7.8%	5.6%	7.91*	.01
Bully-victims	11.7%	14.8%	16%	14.4%	37.75**	.03
Females	**Heterosexual**	**Bisexual**	**Homosexual**	**Asexual**	**χ^2**	**V**
Victims	11.3%	21.5%	16.9%	11.6%	202.76**	.11
Bullies	7.7%	6.7%	7.6%	3.3%	6.22	-
Bully-victims	9.1%	13.7%	15.3%	8.3%	65.10**	.06
Males	**Heterosexual**	**Bisexual**	**Homosexual**	**Asexual**	**χ^2**	**V**
Victims	8.5%	13.9%	15.6%	8.6%	32.98**	.04
Bullies	8.6%	8.6%	8.2%	7.3%	0.41	-
Bully-victims	13.8%	20.4%	17.2%	19%	22.62**	.03

Note: *p < .05; **p < .001

Students were also directly asked about their own perception of having suffered cyberbullying, whether they were suffering it at the time of the survey, or had formerly suffered it during the prior year or before. Most of the sample (90.9%) did not believe they had ever suffered cyberbullying, and very few reported suffering it at present (0.6%). As shown in Table 16, males reported lesser rates that females in general, particularly at least once in their lifetime (11.1% vs 7.1%).

Table 16. Self-identified cyberbullying victims

Consider they have suffered cyberbullying…	**Global**	**Female**	**Male**	**χ^2**	**CC**
At least once in their lifetime	9.1%	11.1%	7.1%		
During the prior year	1.5%	1.7%	1.3%	228.77**	.07
Currently suffering cyberbullying	0.6%	0.5%	0.7%		

Note: **p < .001

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Although it was not one of the objectives of the present dissertation, the data gathered allowed to explore in PIU and online risky behaviours the gender intensification found in other behaviours, and the results are presented in detail in Table 17. Gender differences are mostly present already in early adolescence and maintained in the middle adolescence. In the cases were these differences are not consistent, the effect sizes are lower than .05. Even if there were already significant differences in early adolescence in the behaviours where the largest gender differences are present (such as gambling, pornography consumption, or receiving sexual solicitations from adults), there was also an increase in the effect size value in middle adolescence, which may imply that gender intensification is present for some behaviours but not for all. In particular, PIU differences between genders seem to be constant from early to middle adolescence.

Table 17. Problematic Internet Use and online risky behaviours in early and middle adolescence

Problematic Internet Use	**Females**	**Males**	χ^2	**V**
Early adolescence	33.8%	27.1%	151.19**	.07
Middle adolescence	41.1%	35.7%	40.23**	.06
Online Gambling				
Early adolescence	1.1%	4.3%	250.44**	.09
Middle adolescence	1.9%	9.3%	317.70**	.16
Pornography consumption				
Early adolescence	15.1%	40.2%	2214.15**	.28
Middle adolescence	30.5%	71.1%	2141.43**	.41
Passive sexting (messages)				
Early adolescence	32.3%	35.3%	28.99**	.03
Middle adolescence	58.9%	59.8%	0.92	-
Passive sexting (pictures or videos)				
Early adolescence	18.9%	19.2%	0.38	-
Middle adolescence	44.5%	42.2%	5.47*	.02
Receiving sexts from third parties				
Early adolescence	11%	18%	272.50**	.09
Middle adolescence	21.7%	35.5%	300.99**	.15
Active sexting (messages)				
Early adolescence	7.7%	10.6%	69.45**	.05
Middle adolescence	21.4%	25.8%	33.51**	.05
Active sexting (pictures or videos)				
Early adolescence	5%	4.4.%	5.14*	.01
Middle adolescence	15.7%	14%	7.99*	.02

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Table 17. Continuation

Pressures or coercions to sext	Females	Males	χ^2	V
Early adolescence	12.4%	5.4%	418.77**	.12
Middle adolescence	23.8%	9.7%	468.36**	.19
Threats with sext dissemination				
Early adolescence	2.7%	3.2%	4.45*	.01
Middle adolescence	5.4%	4.7%	2.39	-
Contacting strangers online				
Early adolescence	46.5%	55.4%	219.84**	.09
Middle adolescence	59.9%	67.5%	80.10**	.08
Accepting strangers in SNS				
Early adolescence	51.9%	49.5%	17.48**	.02
Middle adolescence	73%	69.7%	17.02**	.04
Meeting in person				
Early adolescence	16.7%	17.7%	4.88*	.01
Middle adolescence	29.4%	31.3%	5.16*	.02
Sexual solicitations from adults				
Early adolescence	9.4%	5.1%	199.87**	.08
Middle adolescence	20.7%	9.7%	305.82**	.15
Accesing the Dark Web				
Early adolescence	5.4%	12.5%	149.52**	.12
Middle adolescence	5.1%	15.7%	179.13**	.16
Cybervictimisation				
Early adolescence	12.8%	8.6%	118.86**	.07
Middle adolescence	12.5%	8.7%	45.44**	.06
Cyberperpetration				
Early adolescence	6.5%	7.4%	7.96*	.02
Middle adolescence	8.9%	10.5%	8.93*	.03
Cyberperpetration-victimisation				
Early adolescence	9.4%	12.6%	69.94**	.05
Middle adolescence	10.2%	16.1%	95.77**	.09

Note: *p < .05; **p < .001

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4.2. Perceptions and emotions related to Internet and social networking sites

The perceptions related to Internet and social networking sites (SNS) usage and emotions felt online were assessed in order to fulfil the second Objective (To understand the different motivations, perceptions and expectations of females and males in their use of the Net), and the results are presented in tables 18 and 19 respectively. Females mostly report that Internet and SN help them to not feel lonely, to make friends, to be more accepted by others and to be themselves. However, males are the ones to report that Internet and SN help them to become more popular. Males also reported having more difficulties or barriers when using different technological devices, while there was no statistical significance in accessing the Internet or SN. In both cases, less than 1 in 10 students reported having any difficulty or barrier.

Table 18. Perceptions related to Internet and social networking sites (SNS) usage

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Having difficulties or barriers accessing the Internet or SNS	6.2%	6%	6.4%	3.62	-
Having difficulties or barriers to use different technological devices	7.8%	6.6%	8.9%	70.89**	.04
Internet and SNS help them to not feel lonely	44.1%	47.4%	41%	171.57**	.06
Internet and SNS help them to make friends	58%	59.2%	56.8%	25.17**	.02
Internet and SNS help them to become popular	27.2%	25.2%	29.2%	79.74**	.04
Internet and SNS help them to be more accepted by others	27.7%	28.8%	26.7%	23.66**	.02
Internet and SNS help them to be themselves	32.8%	35.5%	30.2%	132.51**	.06

Note: **$p < .001$

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Regarding the emotions often or always felt online, the primary emotion reported by both females and males was happiness, although males had a slightly higher rate (85.6% vs 84%). Negative emotions such as fear, loneliness, distress, insecurity, uneasiness or exclusion were the least reported, but all of them were higher among females. On the other hand, almost all the positive emotions were mainly reported by males, with the exception of support and understanding.

Table 19. Emotions often/always felt online

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Fear	3.3%	4%	2.5%	71.95**	.04
Happiness, joy	84.8%	84%	85.6%	20.70**	.02
Loneliness	8.1%	9.1%	7.2%	53.47**	.04
Distress	4.5%	5.9%	3.1%	187.23**	.07
Support and understanding	36.6%	40%	33.3%	198.09**	.07
Insecurity, uneasiness	10.7%	16.1%	5.4%	1217.86**	.17
Tranquillity, peace of mind	47%	40.2%	53.6%	737.97**	.13
Exclusion, rejection, discrimination	4.2%	5.1%	3.3%	76.50**	.04
Pleasure, entertainment	57.7%	49.1%	66%	1203.31**	.17
Energy, euphoria, a rush	36.5%	32.1%	40.7%	332.15**	.09
A connection with another person	33.5%	32.1%	34.8%	34.22**	.03

Note: $^{**}p < .001$

Besides the perceptions related to Internet and SN usage and the emotions they had felt while using the Net, adolescents reported the increased online vulnerability that they perceived that certain groups might be suffering online (Table 20). The group perceived like the most vulnerable for the whole sample were trans or intersex people, reported by almost half the sample (46.3%), and the least perceived as vulnerable were people with better grades than their peers (9.7%). However, there were several gender differences, as females reported significant higher rates of perceived vulnerability for all assessed groups, and for them being overweight or obese became the first cause of vulnerability (reported by 55.5% of females). It is worth noting that the largest difference between genders was in perceiving women as a vulnerable group, which also had one of the largest associated effect sizes.

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Table 20. Perceived increased online vulnerability of certain groups

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Having any kind of disability	43.4%	50.9%	36%	885.62**	.15
Having religious beliefs different from the majority	22.6%	27.4%	17.9%	502.72**	.11
Being of Roma ethnicity	25.4%	30.2%	20.6%	478.87**	.11
Being lesbian, gay or bisexual	43.9%	50.5%	37.5%	665.65**	.13
Being trans or intersex	46.3%	54.2%	38.5%	968.03**	.16
Being hyperactive or having ADHD	19.5%	24.2%	14.8%	561.48**	.12
For their skin colour	36.1%	42.9%	29.4%	772.41**	.14
Being an immigrant or child of immigrants	33.5%	39.1%	28%	536.59**	.12
Being a woman	18%	26.7%	9.4%	1973.44**	.22
Getting better grades than others	9.7%	11.6%	7.9%	148.86**	.06
Being overweight or obese	46.2%	55.5%	37%	1347.04**	.19
Having anorexia or bulimia	37.4%	48.7%	26.3%	2096.66**	.23
Having few financial resources	28.2%	34.8%	21.7%	827.47**	.15
Being different	35.4%	43.7%	27.2%	1155.89**	.17

Note: **$p < .001$

The actual reason or reasons cybervictims believe to be behind their victimisation were also addressed, and are presented in Table 21. The main reason was the physical appearance of the victim for both females and males, and the least was having anorexia or bulimia for the overall sample (3.5%), as well as for the male sub-group (1.7%), while for females it was their skin colour (4%). Females reported in a higher rate than males being victimized because of different aspects of their appearance, as well as for their shyness or sexual orientation, and out of envy or revenge. They also indicated other reasons not listed in a higher rate than males. In the case of males, they only were more victimized for their skin colour, or directly did not know the reason for being targeted.

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Table 21. Reason or reasons for being victimised reported by Cybervictims

	Global	Female	Male	χ^2	V
Physical appearance of the victim	49.7%	55.8%	41.1%	72.25**	.14
The bullies hate the victim	32%	32.2%	31.6%	0.18	-
Shyness of the victim	21.1%	23.7%	17.5%	18.98**	.07
Out of envy	30.2%	32.5%	26.8%	13.03**	.06
Skin colour of the victim	5.4%	4%	7.3%	17.04**	.07
For making a joke	33.4%	33.9%	32.8%	0.41	-
Ethnicity, culture or religion of the victim	8.7%	8.9%	8.4%	0.24	-
Sexual orientation of the victim	10.4%	11.4%	8.9%	5.50*	.04
Out of revenge	13.3%	14%	12.4%	1.75	-
The victim is different	23.9%	25.2%	22%	4.56*	.04
Out of jealousy	18.6%	22.1%	13.7%	38.95**	.11
Grades of the victim	14.2%	14.6%	13.6%	0.70	-
Overweight of the victim	14.6%	16.3%	12.3%	10.37**	.05
Anorexia or bulimia of the victim	3.5%	4.7%	1.7%	23.15**	.08
Other reasons	34.1%	38.5%	27.9%	41.59**	.11
Victim does not know	12.2%	10.6%	14.3%	12.11**	.06

Note: *$p < .05$; **$p \leq .001$

4.3. Parental control, psychological well-being and depression

The third and last Objective of the present dissertation was to explore some of the variables associated with PIU and risky behaviours, trying to identify possible moderators, as well as possible prognostic factors. Parental control over Internet usage was assessed through the C-CPUIA, and an overall mean value of 12.36 was reached (see Table 22). The sub-scale of Restriction had an overall mean of 5.24, while the mean of the sub-scale of Supervision was 7.12. Both the overall 87l score of the questionnaire and the subscales presented gender differences, having the females significant higher scores in all cases, but with irrelevant effect sizes ($\eta^2 = .004$ or lesser).

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Table 22. Overall parental control and sub-scales scores

	Global Mean (SD)	Female Mean (SD)	Male Mean (SD)	*t*	Z	η^2
Restriction	5.24 (2.37)	5.30 (2.41)	5.18 (2.33)	-5.94**	-5.20**	<.01
Supervision	7.12 (3.02)	7.32 (3.10)	6.92 (2.93)	-13.53**	-13.70**	<.01
Overall parental control scale	12.36 (4.85)	12.63 (4.95)	12.10 (4.73)	-11.12**	-11.31**	<.01

Those adolescents with PIU have lower rates of parental control, both in the overall score of the scale, as in the Supervision subscale, while in the Restriction subscale there is only significance in the Mann Whitney U test for the global sample (Table 23). This trend is present for females and males, with the Restriction sub-scale once again presenting contradictory findings. In this case, males with a normal use present a lower restriction, while in the case of the females the results are contradictory between the parametric and non-parametric analysis, as the Mann Whitney U test does not give significant results, while the t-test does. However, the effect sizes are irrelevant in all cases.

Table 23. PIU and parental control

Restriction	**Normal use**	**Problematic use**	***t***	**Z**	η^2
Global Mean (SD)	5.25 (2.42)	5.24 (2.28)	0.19	-2.79*	<.01
Females Mean (SD)	5.35 (2.48)	5.23 (2.28)	3.60**	-1.09	<.01
Males Mean (SD)	5.15 (2.35)	5.25 (2.29)	-2.94*	-4.62**	<.01
Supervision					
Global Mean (SD)	7.32 (3.11)	6.72 (2.80)	19.64**	-17.99**	.01
Females Mean (SD)	7.63 (3.20)	6.78 (2.82)	19.57**	-18.38**	.02
Males Mean (SD)	7.04 (2.99)	6.64 (2.77)	9.23**	-8.34**	<.01
Overall parental control scale					
Global Mean (SD)	12.56 (4.98)	11.95 (4.55)	12.25**	-10.14**	<.01
Females Mean (SD)	12.98 (5.13)	12.01 (4.55)	13.94**	-12.30**	.01
Males Mean (SD)	12.18 (4.81)	11.89 (4.54)	4.19**	-3.08*	<.01

Note: *p < .05; **p < .001

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The mean obtained in the Psychological Well-Being Scale in a scale out of 10 was of 7.65 for the overall sample, with females having a lower mean than males. Regarding depression, the mean obtained by the overall sample in the PHQ-9 was 8.19, and females had a significant higher mean than males. Both results are presented in detail in Table 24.

Table 24. Overall Psychological Well-Being and Depression

	Global Mean (SD)	Female Mean (SD)	Male Mean (SD)	*t*	Z	η^2
Psychological Well-Being	7.65 (1.55)	7.45 (1.65)	7.86 (1.41)	27,11**	-24.74**	.02
Depression	8.19 (5.85)	9.74 (6.28)	6.69 (4.96)	-54,46**	-51.62**	.07

Note: **p < .001

There was also lower psychological wellbeing in those with PIU in both in the global sample as in females and males, as shown in Table 25. The relationship between PIU and depression and the possible gender differences were also explored and are presented in Table 25, which allowed to find that those who had a positive score in PIU had a higher mean of depressive symptoms.

Table 25. PIU, Psychological Well-Being and Depression

Psychological Well-Being	Normal use	Problematic use	*t*	Z	η^2
Global Mean (SD)	7.96 (1.40)	7.03 (1.65)	56.35**	-58.53**	.08
Females Mean (SD)	7.83 (1.49)	6.77 (1.71)	44.10**	-45.05**	.09
Males Mean (SD)	8.08 (1.30)	7.33 (1.53)	33.70**	-35.72**	.06
Depression					
Global Mean (SD)	6.68 (5.10)	11.26 (6.07)	-75.51**	-76.52**	.13
Females Mean (SD)	7.94 (5.61)	12.92 (6.15)	-57.00**	-55.87**	.14
Males Mean (SD)	5.58 (4.32)	9.32 (5.37)	-48.76**	-50.74**	.12

Note: **p < .001

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5 DISCUSSION

The present dissertation strived to bring a gender perspective to an ongoing line of research on Internet and ICTs usage among adolescents in general, and, particularly, in Problematic Internet Use (PIU) and engagement in online risky behaviours. Such a perspective as analytical framework contributes to a better understanding of the possible differential relationship of females and males with the Internet, which may lead to having different needs that cannot be ignored when trying to develop effective prevention and intervention measures. In order to achieve the objectives of this dissertation, the results were extracted from a very large and probabilistic sample thanks to the collaborative project with UNICEF and the CCII, all of which has made it possible to draw conclusions for the whole of Spain with a very low sampling error and to conclude that the results are representative of the reality of Spanish young people. However, this also presents the risk of interpreting that, just because differences are present, they are significant enough to justify recommending completely different intervention and preventive strategies. In order to distinguish where the differences between females and males are truly relevant, effect size will be taken into account rather than statistical significance alone. Therefore, and in accordance with Funder and Ozer (2019), only items than reached an effect size equal or superior to .05 will be considered as relevant during the following Discussion.

Firstly, it should be noted that a differential pattern between females and males is already present in the leisure activities they respectively engage in, including both the online and offline world. Besides, the high involvement of ICTs in the leisure time of adolescents is already manifested, since using the smartphone, tablet or computer was precisely the most frequent activity reported for the whole sample. For females, listening to music comes in first place with less than a perceptual point of difference. It can be seen that adolescents have a wide range of activities that they enjoy, even outside of the Internet. The lowest global involvement was found in playing an instrument, and even then, 2 in 10 adolescents reported having it as a free time activity. That playing an instrument was the least preferred activity remained true for females, while males appeared to enjoy dancing even less, while this one was

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a fairly popular activity among their female peers (62.1% vs 16.2%). The only relevant activities males reported engaging in significantly more than females were playing videogames and sports. On the other hand, females had a plethora of activities they seem to enjoy more than males, like engaging with others through social networking sites usage, and especially those closely related to the artistic field, such as listening to music, singing, dancing, reading, writing or painting. Females also appear to enjoy more going shopping or strolling, activities they could be performing alone or also as another social activity, although the same holds true for males when playing videogames. These activities match traditional gender roles in which females are more expressive and social, while males are more active and have higher agency (Bem, 1974; Hoffman & Borders, 2001). Moreover, it has been reported that the low interest of females in sport worsens as they grow older, being of particular concern not only for the general negative health implications of a sedentary lifestyle, but because females appear to respond to social pressure on their appearance with distorted eating practices instead of with an active lifestyle and adequate nutrition (Spencer et al., 2015).

Regarding the actual mobile phone use and Internet access of the students, most of the sample (94.8%) reported having their own mobile phone with data, a higher rate with respect to the Spanish National Statistics Institute data (INE, 2021), and only surpassed by almost every student (98%) having Wi-Fi connection available at home. Although Internet usage increases during the weekend, almost one in three adolescents (31.4%) is already connected to Internet 5 or more hours per day in weekdays, revealing a huge opportunity for exposure to online content, a once again higher rate in comparison with other reports (The ESPAD Group, 2020). In addition, 27.6% report having unlimited data on their phones, further increasing the possibilities to access all kinds of content. This exposure also seems to be possible from a very early age, as the average age of access to their own mobile phone is already before the age of 11, even before children enter secondary education. The accessibility to Internet of adolescents has greatly increased over the last few years, a result corroborated both by official data (INE, 2021), and the comparison with previous research with secondary students, where 10.5% reported spending more than 3 hours a day and only 6% reported doing so

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after midnight (Gómez et al., 2014). There had already been warnings that the lockdown caused by the COVID-19 pandemic would lead to an increase in time spent online among adolescents (Milosevic et al., 2021; UNICEF, 2020), and the present data support this claim. Besides, there appears to be no gender gap in digital access opportunities in Spain, at least not among the younger people (Golpe et al., 2017, Mariscal et al., 2019), since there are no relevant gender differences in Internet and mobile phone access. There is not even a single tenth of a percent difference in the case of having Wi-Fi at home, for example.

Some household habits regarding mobile phone usage were assessed, in order to understand better the norms and examples that families might be enforcing on adolescents about a device with a strong presence in contemporary daily life. One of the first results that may be striking is the apparent omnipresence of the mobile phone for the adolescents, with 59.5% sleeping daily with their device in the room, and 59% carrying it to school every day or almost every day. In contrast to what previous literature pointed to (Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019), females were the ones who used their mobile phone more after midnight, something that is probably directly linked to being those who have the opportunity to do so and not necessarily a gender issue, as they are the ones to sleep with the device in their rooms more frequently. This is reinforced by the finding that females take their mobile phones to school more frequently, but the difference in their actual use of the device in the classroom setting is not relevant. Furthermore, the rates drop considerably in this case, as more than half the sample (59%) report taking their mobile phone to the school daily, but only 7.1% report actually using it. This may have to do with the presence of a teacher in the classroom, which discourages adolescents from using their devices, while in their bedrooms the rates of actual use do not drop as much given the lack of supervision. Moreover, males appeared to be more ignored by their parents, as they tended to use their own mobiles phones more frequently at lunchtime, pointing to less active supervision over their male children. A curious finding was that, while females had more frequent arguments with their parents over mobile phone use, the males were the ones who received a higher rate of punishments and more frequently. All these results may point to a somewhat

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contradictory pattern in household rules regarding mobile phone use. Whereas females may be assumed to have a greater capacity for self-control (manifested in letting them take their devices into the bedroom or to school), and have more parental attention paid to them (parents use their own mobile phones less in their presence and discuss their children device usage more with them), parents react to the behaviour of their male children when problems have already manifested themselves, resulting in more punishments for males even if parents have done little to prevent the problematic behaviour. Household rules for technology use and boundaries need to be set for females and males, so a balance between healthy usage of the ITCs and offline activities is achieved. Besides, the devices should have the latest software updates and antivirus programs, as well as the privacy settings set to "high", and it could be also useful to use "parental control" settings on the devices of younger children (UNICEF, 2020).

When taking into account the specific activities carried out online, the present results follow the line of previous literature (Cotten et al., 2014; Fernández-Villa et al., 2015; Golpe et al., 2017; Lenhart, 2015; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019). These results could also have been already anticipated from the reported things students liked to do in their free time as, besides the obvious importance of the digital world in the leisure of adolescents nowadays, they appear to transfer their enjoyment for certain offline activities to the Web. In this sense, females seem to use the Internet in a more artistic and social way, with behaviours such as using social networking sites, instant messaging apps or other ways of interacting with other people, listening to music, reading or even uploading content they have created themselves. The only social activity males reported in a higher rate than females was online dating. In general, males prefered to play videogames, to gamble online, and to watch matches, sporting events, pornography, or videos in YouTube and Twitch. Moreover, females and males appear to have further distinctive preferences over the Social Networking sites (SNS) and Instant Messaging apps they use, and coincide with their overall interests and activities developed in the Network.

Not all SNS have the same characteristics or implications for their users, as some of them are focused on online dating, others encourage artistic

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activity, there are some that facilitate bonding over gaming, there are those who are widely eclectic and even those where the line between social network and instant messaging app is blurred (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017). The most popular network among the students was the video-sharing website YouTube, but it was also obvious the increase in popularity of Tik Tok following the quarantine linked to the COVID-19 pandemic (Feldkamp, 2021). Such popularity is particularly notable among females, as expected due to the visual and potentially artistic approach of this platform. Tik Tok was the second most used network the global sample and for females, and ranked forth for males. The overall popularity of Instagram was also evidenced by the fact that it was the second most popular network among males and the third most popular among females. These three networks (YouTube, Instagram and Tik Tok) were used by more than 3 in four in the students of the global sample, with rates ranging from 76.4% for Tik Tok up to 92.2% for YouTube. Then there was a marked decrease in the popularity of the rest of the SNS for the global sample, with Twitch, the next highest ranked, being frequently used by 47% of the students. However, the popularity of Twitch is even more divided by gender than Tik Tok. Twitch ranks third among males, with 71.4% of users, while only 21.9% of females report using it, all reinforced by the largest effect size found in the present dissertation. Possibly this gender gap is due to the fact that Twitch is a platform whose main function is the live streaming of video games, and males have proven to be the main users of video games, both in the present study as well as in previous literature (Cotten et al., 2014; OEDA & PNSD, 2021; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019). The least popular assessed networks were Peoople, Tumblr and Tinder, and even those presented gender differences. Peoople and Tumblr were more prevalent among females, an unsurprising fact given the social focus of both platforms, the first for following influencers or other people relevant to the user, and the second for microblogging, understood as the exchange of messages or media content in a similar way to instant messaging but to a broader audience of "followers" (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017). Finally, the dating platform Tinder had the triple of users among males than females (1.5% versus 0.4%), coincidently with the previous finding that they used the Internet more than females for flirting or trying to get a date.

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The overall popularity of SNS among adolescents is evidenced by the fact that only 1.3% of them do not have any account or profile on any network, with no relevant gender differences. However, in the extent of reported usage there are significant divergences. Although a large proportion of the students (84.8%) had three or more different social media accounts or profiles, the figure was even higher for females (86.5%). Moreover, females had a greater tendency than males to have more than one account or profile on the same network (68% versus 56.9%), which possibly implies that they make different uses of the same platform, or that they have accounts that they do not want certain people to know about. Besides, a high involvement on SNS use increases the risk of suffering negative repercussions, such as the lowering of offline social skills or even the development of a dependence on the networks (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017). Since females appear to be more vulnerable to have an addictive use of the SNS instead of a mere intensive one (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017), their higher usage and engagement in most networks puts them even more at risk than males, highlighting SNS usage as one of the key topics in the prevention and intervention with them.

In the case of the messaging apps, the most popular among adolescents was undoubtedly WhatsApp, used by 96.1% of students, a rate slightly higher than students with their own device, so they may be using WhatsApp through the phone of another person in their household, which would pose a means to monitor the time spent by the adolescent communicating through the app. The popularity of other platforms for instant messaging decreases greatly, since the second most popular one was the Instagram Direct Messaging function (MD Instagram), included in the Instagram application, with 59.8% of users, while the third was Discord reported to be used by 34.7% of students. The least popular were WeChat and Line, with less than 1% of users among the global sample (0.7% and 0.4% respectively), and only 1% of the students reported not having any instant messaging app. MD Instagram was more used among females, in the same way they had Instagram more frequently as a SNS, and they were also the most habitual users of Snapchat and Meet. A higher ratio of females engaging in instant messaging was to be expected given their more social approach when using the Internet, but there were two apps where males were the most frequent users. Such apps were Telegram and

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particularly Discord, in which they tripled the number of female users. Discord is mostly used as a means of communication among the gamer community, of which males are members to a greater extent than females, likely explaining the increased use of Discord by males. On the other hand, ease of use and convenience have been identified as two key specific technical characteristics of Telegram compared to other media (Ghorbanzadeh & Saeednia, 2018), and those may pose a greater attractive for males.

As social networking sites and instant messaging apps are not the only means by which one can contact and engage with other people, social interactions in the context of online video games were also explored. It is particularly noteworthy that, although half of the players report meeting new people, only a tenth of them report feeling intimidated or threatened, and it does not necessarily have to be by these new acquaintances. In fact, the rate of players that report having made friends trough online video games is quite close to those who report meeting new people (50.8% and 44.5% respectively). There are some gender differences of relevance, though, as males double the rate of females meeting new people and making friends in this setting. The reticence of females to engage strangers on videogames could be easily related to the fact that online video games can be a toxic environment for women, which is something they are well aware of, and often makes them withdrawal from the game, resort to gender bending (pretending to be males), or avoid other players (Fox & Tang, 2016). Maybe due precisely to the self-protection techniques or less contact with strangers of females, there are no significant gender differences in reporting feeling bullied, threatened or harassed through online videogames while the present data show that females are more cyberbullied in general. This result adds to the debate of whether contact with strangers in this context is in fact not such an alarming risk factor (Garmendia et al., 2016; Smahel et al., 2020), and whether the harassment is exercised by someone known to the victim, as it is frequently the case in other kinds of online abuse (Patchin & Hinduja, 2020b). This is one of the areas that future research can focus on helping to develop strategies to enable children and adolescents to engage in video game usage more safely, and enjoying it as another social activity of their leisure time.

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All of the aforementioned allowed to characterize the use Spanish adolescents are making of the ICTs as a prerequisite for addressing the specific objectives of the present study. With regard to the first of these objectives, one of the main findings of the present dissertation is that up to 1 in 3 (32.9%) secondary students in Spain presented a Problematic Internet Use (PIU). This rate is similar to recent literature using the same screening tool in Primary Health Care (Baz-Rodriguez et al., 2020), but it points out to a progressive increase of this problem when compared to older research (Gómez et al., 2014; Rial et al., 2018). The present PIU rate is also quite higher in comparison with the official data from the ESTUDES (OEDA & PNSD, 2021), but that survey uses another questionnaire that follows a different conceptualisation of the problem, as it assesses "compulsive Internet use". Coherently with most Spanish literature (Baz-Rodriguez et al., 2020; Golpe et al., 2017; Muñoz-Miralles et al., 2016; Rial, Golpe et al., 2015), females significantly surpass the rate of males (36.1% vs. 29.8%). When exploring the different items one by one, it could be concluded than females and males do not appear to have different patterns or symptoms of problematic use, but that females show a slightly higher level of all the criteria that constitute PIU. There may be an influence of how PIU is being assessed, as it seems that if social networking and instant messaging are explicitly addressed in comparison to other Internet uses, females would score higher in those while males would have a higher problem with Internet outside social networking and instant messaging (Pedrero-Pérez et al., 2018). Differences in the operationalisation of the PIU would also explain the variability of results from one study to another, reinforcing the need for a gold standard in the future (Kuss et al., 2014). Disparities in sample size or the different reference population, as well as procedures of data collection have also been highlighted as another source of variability in this field of study (Gómez et al., 2014). All of this reinforces the need to follow standardized screening recommendations to detect problematic uses in adolescents (García-Couceiro et al., 2021). Taking into account international differences (Athanasiou et al., 2018; Baloğlu et al., 2020); Inchley et al., 2020; Su et al., 2019), it is of special relevance that such recommendations were proposed specifically for the cultural context in which they are to be applied.

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Although the analysis of the different items of the Problematic Internet Use Scale in adolescents (PIUS-a, or EUPI-a for its Spanish acronym) did not reveal relevant gender differences, it showed that not all criteria is equally common among the adolescent population. The higher mean was in the item related to feeling that time flies without them realizing when using the Internet, and said item was already found to achieve the higher results in the development of the PIUS-a, even among non-problematic users (Rial, Gómez et al., 2015). The lowest mean was in the criterion of stopping going places or doing things the adolescent previously enjoyed in favour of connecting to the Net, a result that once again replicates the study of Rial, Gómez et al. (2015), but also shows a growth of this interference criterion in daily life because of PIU. It could be argued that not all items reflect the same level of interference and impact in the lives of the adolescents, and therefore higher levels of the mildest indicators are of less concern. However, there seems to be an increase in the means of all the items. The present study was conducted a few months after adolescents returned to face-to-face education after the lockdown, which undoubtedly had an impact on their relationship with the Internet (UNICEF, 2020), but the possible increase of the most problematic indicators calls for the need for further research and to monitor the long-term impact of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Besides the possible development of a problematic use of the Internet itself, some specific risky behaviours were specifically targeted. In the case of online gambling, the rate found contradicts the evidence pointing to a possible progressive increase in this behaviour (Gómez et al., 2020), especially considering that during the lockdown linked to the COVID situation online gambling should have peaked in comparison to the offline modality. The present study was focused on secondary students, and therefore a younger sample that the one the ESTUDES usually works with (OEDA & PNSD, 2021), so a lower rate was to be expected to some extent, but the present study finds almost half of the number of online gamblers compared to that official data. A result which has turned out entirely as expected is the higher rate of male gamblers, as the previous literature indicated (Calado et al., 2017; Chóliz & Lamas, 2017; De Luigi et al., 2017; Gómez et al., 2020; Ricijaš et al., 2016;

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Weidberg et al., 2018). Coherently, problematic gambling was also higher among male online gamblers.

Another social concern that has been growing in recent years is the possible use of the Dark Web, as it facilitates access to illegal activities, such as buying and selling drugs without mentioning much more gruesome activities, and it is the main usage expected from adolescents (Oksanen et al., 2021). Of the whole sample, almost half (44.2%) reported knowing about the Dark Web, and one out of ten (10.6%) reported having even accessed it. In both cases, the rate of males was higher, with a marked difference with females especially in the item of having actually accessed, where they were more than doubled (13.8% males versus 5.3% females). Although such access may suggest a greater likelihood or interest in accessing other inappropriate content, it should be kept in mind that mainstream public Internet platforms give easy access to varying types of illicit and harmful content as well (Oksanen et al., 2021).

Different behaviours that could all be considered sexting were assessed separately, which allowed to grasp the possible variances in prevalence depending on which of the different definitions was taken into account (Agustina & Gómez-Duran, 2016; Barrense-Dias et al., 2017; Madigan et al., 2018; Peris & Maganto, 2018; Temple & Choi, 2014). In this sense, it was found that the reception of self-made erotic or pornographic content (passive sexting) was more frequent than the sending of such content to others (active sexting). In addition, suggestive written messages were more common than photos or videos. The prevalence of these behaviours seems to confirm that it is an increasingly common and normalized practice (Søndergaard, 2019; Symons et al., 2018; Villacampa, 2016), and the ineffectiveness of trying to completely prevent adolescents from engaging in it leads to recommending following safe sexting strategies instead (Döring, 2014; Patchin & Hinduja, 2020a). Males reported sending more suggestive written messages than females, but there were no relevant differences between females and males in sending pictures or videos, nor in receiving sexts from other person. There were dissimilarities in receiving content from a third party, however. The higher rate of males receiving content from other person different from the sender likely relates with them engaging in sexting in ways that pose a higher

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risk to others than to themselves (Agustina & Gómez-Duran, 2016; Ojeda et al., 2019), as such third-party content most likely proceeds from non-consensual dissemination. Males report disseminating sexts mainly because they thought it was "not a big deal", and to improve their social status amongst peers (Clancy et al., 2019). Moreover, females are under twice as much pressure to sext (15.9% vs 6.8%) and also double the number of solicitations from adults (12.6% vs 6.6%), an unpleasant fact that is consistent with the wide literature (Burén & Lunde, 2018; de Santisteban & Gámez-Guadix, 2018; Gámez-Guadix et al., 2021; Golpe et al., 2017; Kopecký, 2017; Madigan et al., 2018; Mitchell et al., 2014; Montiel et al., 2015; Van Ouytsel et al., 2017; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019). The rates revealed that at least one in ten adolescent females suffer any of these abuses, a fact which, together with their predisposition to justify pressure from boys or males who want to be their romantic partners, adds to concerns about their vulnerability to dating violence (Alonso-Ruido et al., 2015; Morelli et al., 2016; Rodríguez-Castro et al., 2019). All of which has led several authors to highlight the need to place greater focus on the promotion of respect for privacy, gender equality, consent, sexual ethics and healthy relationships (Dobson & Ringrose, 2016; Döring, 2014; Ojeda et al., 2019).

A behaviour that specifically poses a risk to the sexual well-being of adolescents is the consumption of pornography (Bridges et al., 2016; Gallego & Fernández-González, 2019; Ybarra et al., 2011). The claim that pornography is easier to access online (Ballester & Orte, 2019) seems supported by the results, since at least 35.2% of the whole sample has done so. This rate raises up to 50.1% among males, and when analysing possible gender intensification a further increase was found during their middle adolescence (71.1%). Moreover, pornography consumption is one of the risky behaviours that has been clearly linked to the male gender (Ballester & Orte, 2019; Nieh et al., 2020; Peter & Valkenburg, 2016), coherently with the stereotype of them being more sexually active (Ballester & Orte, 2019). There is a need for affective-sexual education to counteract the high exposure to inappropriate and unrealistic role models in pornography, so that adolescents can be critical of the material they are watching (Bridges et al., 2016; Hald et al., 2013). Males may need to be the prime targets of preventive efforts, not

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only for their higher exposure to pornography, but because they have proven to be more likely to engage in riskier practices influenced by it (Bridges et al., 2016).

Regarding contact with strangers online, more than half of the sample recognises having had active contact with strangers in SNS (55%), a slightly higher rate (57.2%) accepted them as "friends" or contacts when approached, and two in ten (21.4%) have even met with such online acquaintances in person. The only relevant gender difference was that males contacted other people more themselves. Although contacting strangers is a behaviour that raises controversy on whether it poses more of a risk or an opportunity to meet like-minded peers (Garmendia et al., 2016; Smahel et al., 2020), it cannot be denied that exposure to strangers is the best gateway for groomers and other people with ill intentions to get access to the potential victim. As such, adolescents need to take protective measures, find ways to confirm that the other person is who they say they are, and learn to recognise and report inappropriate behaviour.

Involvement in cyberbullying was measured through the application of the European Cyberbullying Intervention Project Questionnaire [ECIPQ], and in addition, an item was included explicitly asking whether the adolescent considered that they had been a victim of cyberbullying. The ECIPQ revealed a total involvement of 30.2% in any kind of role, which is divided into 10.7% pure cybervictims, 7.8% pure cyberbullies and 11.7% who are both at the same time (bully-victims). These rates can be particularly worrisome as they reveal an important increase compared to the last large-scale Spanish study (Sastre et al., 2016), as well as the latest research conducted in Galicia just before the lockdown ended (Pichel et al., 2021), both of them using the same questionnaire. Discrepancy with the latter could be explained following Zych et al. (2016), who warned that the rates varied so much from one autonomous community to another that studies from a single region should not be extrapolated to the whole country. On the other hand, it has been hypothesised and seems to be true that the lockdown linked to the COVID-19 pandemic has led to an escalation in cyberbullying due to the rapid increase in the amount of time students have been spending online (Milosevic et al., 2021; Shin & Choi, 2021; Pichel et al., 202; UNICEF, 2020). Also of great concern is that

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the role of bully-victims is the most frequent one, as they suffer the worst consequences of the bullying experience (Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021; Pichel et al, 2022), but it seems that the online setting facilitates the progression from being merely a perpetrator to also being cyberbullied (Garmendia et al., 2019). Besides, cyberbullies do not present relevant gender differences, whereas females tend to be more victims (12.7% vs 8.7%), and males more bully-victims (13.8% vs 9.6%). Sex and gender differences have been the subject of debate in traditional bullying research and even more so in the case of cyberbullying (Feijóo, O'Higgins Norman et al., 2021; Smith et al., 2019), with present research coinciding with studies that identify girls and females to be more prone to suffer victimisation and males to be the perpetrators (Chocarro & Garaigordobil, 2019; Foody et al., 2019; Golpe et al., 2017; Livingstone et al., 2011; Marcum et al., 2012; Pichel et al., 2021).

A visual comparison reveals that self-identified current cyberbullying victims present a huge drop from the rate of victims identified through the application of ECIPQ. This serves to further emphasise the importance of applying multi-item tools for the accurately detection of bullying (Zych et al., 2016). Cybervictims appear to have difficulties identifying themselves as such, even if they are aware of the behaviours they are suffering and report them in questionnaires such as the ECIPQ, either due to the normalisation of everyday violence, or because of the predicament of explicitly labelling oneself as a "victim". In support of the first hypothesis, it should be noted that it was later found that one in three victims (33.4%) perceived that "making a joke" was the reason for their victimisation, second only to the physical appearance of the victim. Females appeared to be more likely to self-identify as victims, but the rate of self-identification at present was still much lower than would be expected according to the ECIPQ results. De-normalisation of violence must be carried out, and it will also be necessary to provide adolescents with tools that enable them to recognise cyberbullying as such and to seek help, given that the intervention of an adult has proven to be the most efficient way to end a bullying episode as reported by the victims themselves (Bjereld et al., 2019). Although this kind of bullying occurs online, it should be targeted in the schools (Garmendia et al., 2019), as cyberbullying tends to be a result of offline relationship problems (Lazuras et al., 2017), and it is

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likely that all parties involved in the same case of cyberbullying are actually studying at the same school. Schools could provide a space that allows to help victims and reeducate perpetrators (Sastre et al., 2016), while fostering the relationship between the two parties instead of merely applying a punitive action that causes further harm to those involved. Besides, schools need to update their safeguarding polices regarding media or online content to take into account the new needs arising from online learning derived from the lockdown (UNICEF, 2020).

Following the different authors and organisms that highlight the relevance of LGBTphobic bullying as a gender issue (Amnesty International, 2019; Feijóo & Rodríguez-Fernández, 2021; Ging & Neary, 2019; Ruiz et al., 2018), an analysis of cyberbullying involvement by sexual orientation was also conducted. There were no relevant results by sexual orientation neither in the cyberbullies nor cyberbully-victims rates in the global sample, whereas the cybervictim rate among homosexual adolescents doubled both those of heterosexual and asexual (16.5%, 9.8% and 9.9%, respectively), and said rate was even higher for bisexual adolescents (20.2%). Moreover, there seems to be a further interaction with gender identity, since males do not present relevant differences between cyberbullying profiles, while bisexual females were even more targeted than females as a whole are already victimised. A surprising finding that will need further explanatory research was that homosexual females were more cyberbully-victims. A differential targetization among LGBT+ people has already been identified as a result of a specific study conducted a decade ago by the *Instituto de la Juventud* [INJUVE] (Youth Institute). In that study, while gay men in Spain had achieved a remarkable degree of visibility and acceptance, lesbianism remained an invisible reality, and identities such as bisexuality and transsexuality were widely rejected (INJUVE, 2011). The results of the present dissertation point out that little has changed over the last decade and bisexual people continue to be subject to greater discrimination than their heterosexual and even homosexual peers. However, it should be noted that when cybervictims were directly asked about the reasons behind their victimisation, the rate of those who reported being bullied due to their sexual orientation dropped to 10.4%. There is a wide disparity in rates depending on

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whether the general population is taken into account as a reference in a study, if specifically LGBT+ people are interviewed or even if pre-identified victims are asked about the reasons behind their victimisation, as a recent meta-analysis focused on school bullying has pointed out (Feijóo & Rodríguez-Fernández, 2021). This could mean that the relationship between bullying and homophobia is more complex and worthy of further study, as it cannot be ignored the fact that not all episodes of bullying suffered by a person need to be for the same reason, or that victims may have difficulties in identifying why they are being bullied, as shown by 12.2% reporting that they do not know the reason. Moreover, research seems to have focused on victimisation and overlooked that sometimes victims are reactive and end up becoming bully-victims (Yang & Salmivalli, 2013).

To summarise risk engagement, males appear to be the ones to actively engage in online risks (they gamble more, access the Dark Web, consume pornography, and cyberbully others), whereas females suffer more negative consequences (they are more victims of cyberbullying, are pressured to sext, and receive sexual solicitations from adults), in a way that is fully consistent with the gender stereotypes that apply to both genders (Castillo-Mayén & Montes-Berges, 2014; Fundación Atenea, 2016; Silva & Alves, 2020), and also contribute to the maintainance of their hierarchical relationship (Romo, 2018). There are also differences in terms of possible behavioural addictions, considering that females presented more PIU and males more problematic gambling, as opposed to the evidence suggesting a gender convergence in traditional substance addictions (Romo, 2010; McHugh et al., 2018; PNSD, 2022). This differential pattern in which females and males relate to the Internet needs to be considered for prevention and intervention. However, both genders are engaging in all behaviours assessed, even if not to the same extent, therefore, the work should be done with both of them and not segregated by gender. Beyond gender differences, there is also a close relationship between PIU and other online behaviours (Cooper et al., 2016; Durkee et al., 2016; Floros et al., 2013; Gómez, Rial et al., 2017; Gómez et al., 2020; Montiel et al., 2015; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019; Zsila et al., 2018), leading to the consideration of a generalised pattern of online vulnerability (Carbonell & Montiel, 2016). Therefore, to effectively

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tackle all those risks there is a need for a comprehensive or holistic approach, rather than focusing on prevention of specific online behaviours, but instead on online safety in general (Beltrán-Catalán et al., 2018; Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021). Moreover, this approach should be complemented with the improvement of several social and life skills in a similar way to the work developed in drug use prevention, such as assertiveness, empathy or self-regulation (Rial et al., 2018). However, working with adolescents can be hard as they may believe that adults are trying to manipulate them and reduce their autonomy, so "wise interventions" are proposed to overcome such resistance (Calvete et al., 2021). These kind of interventions do not address risky behaviours directly, nor do they tell adolescents what to do explicitly, but they are designed to be respectful of the autonomy of adolescents, aiming to enhance the interpretation of their environment, self-integrity and social belonging (see Calvete et al., 2021 for further detail).

The possible gender intensification over online behaviours has been explored, because it was expected that PIU and engagement in risky behaviours on the Net followed a similar pattern to other addictive or general conduct, and differences between females and males were more pronounced as adolescents grew older (Galambos et al., 1990; Koenig, 2018; Moreau et al., 2021). Beyond the actual gender differences, the aforementioned analysis allowed to note that risk behaviours increase in middle adolescence, including the perpetration of cyberbullying, but not cybervictimisation. UNICEF (2020) had warned that the lack of in-person interaction with friends and partners may lead older children to engage in riskier behaviour online during the lockdown, but PIU and risky behaviours are already present in early adolescence. This implies that prevention at the secondary education level comes already too late for a large proportion of adolescents. In the specific case of gender differences, it can be seen that when they exist they are already present in early adolescence, which showcases the need to look for their origin in an earlier period of life, possibly in childhood, when online behaviours start to make their appearance. However, it should be noted that for some behaviours in particular there is an increase in effect size in middle adolescence. This could be interpreted as a sign that there is an intensification of gender roles for some behaviours, with gender differences that were already present in early

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adolescence becoming more marked in middle adolescence. In other words, some behaviours may be more affected by gender stereotypes than others. In this sense, behaviours in which the differences between females and males are smaller seem to remain constant over time, while those in which the differences are already pronounced in early adolescence increases even more in middle adolescence. A rather blatant example where this is the case is online gambling, where in early adolescence there was a difference of a few decimals but in middle adolescence the rate of male gamblers more than doubled the one of female gamblers. Another example was pornography consumption, though in this case, males already greatly outnumbered females in early adolescence, and where the increase is apparent is in the relevance of the size of the effect.

Another finding of interest, regardless of gender implications, was the apparent consistency of cyber-victimisation rates between early and middle adolescence. It seems that students do not develop strategies to prevent their own victimisation in these life periods, yet they do appear to increase their capacity to target others, manifested in an increase in the rate of perpetrators, but especially bully-victims. This result is mostly coherent with current literature (Garmendia et al., 2019; Pichel et al., 2021). In the case of males, this was the only behaviour that remained stable as they grow older, while all the rest clearly increased from early to middle adolescence. However, females presented two other risky behaviours where a visual comparison of the rates showed that the difference between early and middle adolescence were a few decimal points and not even a full point: accessing the Dark Web and gambling. Both of them are susceptible of being behaviours in which the aforementioned gender intensification takes place. Further research is needed in this field, including a wider age-dispersion sample to seek out the emergence of all these online risky behaviours and to follow their development into adulthood, in line with the study of Koenig (2018).

The widespread use of mobile phones and the Internet by adolescents, as well as their PIU and online risky behaviours, are given a certain context and there are a number of perceptions and expectations linked to them, so the second objective of the present dissertation focused on these constructs. Given the high current usage of the Internet, availability of Wi-Fi at home or even

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unlimited data on their own mobile phones, it is unsurprising that only 6.2% of the adolescents reported having difficulties or barriers in accessing the Internet and SNS, while in the case of the technological devices the rate slightly increased up to 7.8%. There is no gender gap in their perceptions of having barriers or difficulties in accessing the Net or the devices. More than half of the adolescents (58%) believe that Internet and the SNS will help them make friends, the most frequent perception. While the least frequently reported perception was that Internet would help them to become popular, it was still harboured by one in four (27.2%) students. It could be concluded that a large proportion of adolescents have positive expectations about their use of the Internet, which justifies the risk-taking they engage in. Adolescents use social networking sites specifically to feel less lonely and to connect with people with similar interests (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017), which would explain why females are more able to be themselves online and particularly report feeling less lonely thanks to the Net. Furthermore, Verduyn et al. (2017) have found in their review that social networking sites had a positive impact in the well-being of their users, because online networks increased social support. However, another study of longitudinal nature pointed out that such a positive impact was moderated by the specific characteristics of the usage, and not only by the use per se (Utz & Breuer, 2017). For instance, users who actively asked for advice on their networks had higher online social support, and people with a low prior well-being or high stress were more prone to seek help on social networking sites but not to suffer a posterior worsening of their situation (Utz & Breuer, 2017).

In the case of what adolescents frequently feel when they are online, positive emotions are reported to a greater extent than negative emotions, the two most frequent being happiness and entertainment, both reported by more than half the global sample (84.8% and 57.7% respectively). This may relate to the fact that online risks do not necessarily turn into harm (Livingstone et al., 2011), and that hight access to Internet and usage of the mobile phone brings them benefits that make the risk-taking worthwhile. However, there appears to be a clear gender pattern, as females tend to report negative emotions to a greater extent than males, while the latter report more positive emotions. Females feel more insecure and distressed online, even if the males

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are the ones taking more online risks. Perhaps, precisely such negative feelings prevent females from further engagement in risky behaviours, while males act more impetuously as they perceive less of a threat in the digital context. However, there is one positive emotion reported by females that is coherent both with their social media use and also with their perceptions of the online world, as they felt higher support and understanding than their male peers. The greater expressiveness and social focus of females (Hoffman & Borders, 2001; Silva & Alves, 2020) may explain why this positive emotion can motivate them to continue to make extensive use of the Net despite their other bad experiences and negative repercussions. All these results reinforce the need to enhance individual skills such as assertiveness, empathy or self-regulation (Rial et al., 2018), so that teenagers can be more critical of and manage better their online experience, as well as become more aware of the possible negative consequences for them or even for others.

Regarding the potential higher vulnerability to be victimized online that some people may be prone to, the groups with characteristics that may make them targets were identified from the interviews with the study counsellors and then presented to the adolescents. One of the most striking results was the low rate of students who actually thought that these groups were more vulnerable, which was not even half of the overall sample. Females do perceive greater vulnerability in all the groups assessed than males do, with the most remarked differences in the people with anorexia and bulimia (reaching a rate of 55.5% vs 37%), and in the perception of being a woman as a source of increased vulnerability (26.7% vs 9.4%). As shown by the cybervictimisation rates found in the current study, females are more targeted than males, which may be related to a greater perception of vulnerability of women. Among the five groups perceived as more vulnerable by the global sample were people with any kind of disability, LGBT+ people (both by gender identity and by sexual orientation), and people with weight problems (both above and below normo-weight). Although both people with disabilities and belonging to the LGBT+ collective have been highlighted as prime targets of bullying (Larrain & Garaigordobil, 2020; Pinquart, 2017; Vaillancourt et al., 2021), attention to the other groups may be lacking. However, the present dissertation found that none of those reasons were the most frequent cause

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behind the victimisation as reported by the students themselves, with having anorexia or bulimia being, in fact, the least frequent (3.5% of cybervictims). The most frequent reason was the physical appearance of the victim (49.7%), followed by the bully wanting to "make a joke" (33.4%). There were several gender differences that may suggest that certain aspects may bring more attention to the potential victims depending on whether they are female or male. In this sense, females are more targeted due to their physical appearance, weight-related circumstances (both being overweight and having anorexia or bulimia), being shy, and out of jealously or envy. On the other hand, males are more targeted for their skin colour and report not knowing the reasons behind their victimisation to a higher degree.

To achieve the third objective of the present dissertation, some possible moderators of online behaviour were assessed, finding that adolescents tend to report low levels of parental control over their use of the Internet, something already pointed out by the original authors of the *Cuestionario de Control Parental del Uso de Internet durante la Adolescencia* (Álvarez-García et al., 2019). Besides, the high rates of adolescents sleeping with their mobile phones in the bedroom or taking them to class could already be interpreted as indirect indicators of lack of parental supervision. Caregivers' poor monitoring of their children's Internet use is probably related to the perception that being online is "safer than roaming the streets" (Kuss & Griffiths, 2017), especially if adolescents are using Internet in the supposed safety of their homes. It is indeed curious how parents seem overly concerned about their children in the physical world, but they ignore the risks children and adolescents face online; like, for instance, during the lockdown when Internet exposure was higher but online supervision remained the same (Milosevic et al., 2021). To effectively help their children, parents and caregivers may need to improve their own digital skills (Livingstone et al., 2017), and governments, companies and NGOs should support them with their guidance, giving them tools, and showing them who to report to and how to proceed if the need arises (UNICEF, 2020). Furthermore, governments can protect underage people by making it more difficult for them to access content for which they are not mature enough through more restrictive legal measures (Valkenburg & Peter, 2013).

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In the present study, results of parental control are a bit lower than in Álvarez-García et al. (2019), but they follow the same trend in terms of gender differences, although the low effect sizes make the differences too small to be relevant. Other Spanish literature points to females having higher rates of both parental control than males (Garmendia et al., 2016; Golpe et al., 2017; Villanueva-Blasco & Serrano-Bernal, 2019), but other research found that in behaviours such as pornography comsumtpion the impact of supervision of boys is even greater than of girls (Nieh et al., 2020). It is reasonable to think that these sex differences may be true at the gender level and for further online behaviours, so the fact that males are less adequately supervised than females is regrettable. It is particularly noteworthy that the results of the present study are certainly significant, but the too small effect sizes for the whole sample make parental control ultimately not sufficient to recommend such a variable to be considered key in preventing PIU. Therefore, the types of parental mediation that the C-CPUIA focuses on do not appear to be the most appropriate for reducing the development of PIU, although they may be positive for other variables (Álvarez-García et al. (2019), and further research should try to test the other types proposed by Nikken and Jansz (2013). Besides restrictive mediation and supervision, this model considered that parents (or the equivalent figure) could influence the safe and responsible use of the Internet of their children through active mediation and co-use (Nikken & Jansz, 2013). On the other hand, the present results may also imply the need to look for other variables of greater relevance to the behaviour of adolescents than parents, as it was suggested to be peer influence (Nieh et al., 2020). The reduced impact of parental control over PIU does not exempt them of their obligation as caregivers from being primarily responsible for the behaviour of their children online (UNICEF, 2020), and a small improvement is better than no improvement at all, so parents and tutors are urged to improve their own skills in accompanying their children online.

Psychological well-being and depression may pose better moderators to understand the development of PIU, even if the transversal nature of the study hinders the possibility of establishing causal relationships. A diminished psychological well-being and higher depression among those with PIU was expected (Aznar Díaz et al., 2020; Fernández-Villa et al., 2015), but both

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directions of such a relationship are plausible (El Asam et al., 2019). On the one hand, an excessive use of the Internet can cause social isolation and detachment from other activities (Kaess et al., 2021), and the social comparisons through SNS can lead adolescents to believe that their lives are a failure because they do not achieve the perceived standard (El Asam et al., 2019). On the other hand, PIU can be developed after Internet is used as a coping strategy and mood regulation strategy over prior depressive symptomatology, as a longitudinal study has found (Gámez-Guadix, 2014). Furthermore, the context in which this study has taken place should not be overlooked. The COVID-19 pandemic prompted widespread school closures and physical distancing measures and made digital solutions essential to support children's learning, socialization and play (UNICEF, 2020). Combined with the emotional and psychological impact of the lockdown, such a reliance on the digital world for a sense of "normalcy" could easily develop into a real dependence. Although the relationship between psychological well-being and depression is present for both males and females, it should be noted that the latter had a significative higher basal mean of depressive symptoms and the difference bteween females with PIU and those with a normal usage of the Internet is even more pronounced than in males.

Additionaly, the way in which the "gender" construct is understood by both researchers and study participants is a major bias in current research, as it is frequently mistaken with "sex" (Feijóo & Rodríguez-Fernández, 2021; Heidari et al., 2016). This has also affected the present study, in which participants had the opportunity to report being females, males or to freely write whichever gender their identified themselves with. The results seem to suggest that almost 1 in 5 adolescents who do not identify with the two majoritarian genders (female or male) do not understand what "gender" is, as shown by the 8.7% that addressed their sexual orientation instead of their gender and 1.5% that explicitly reported their biological sex but not their gender. This relates to one of the main limitations of the present study, as it is difficult to approach the gender construct without being reductionist. Spence had already indicated in her multifactorial theory of gender identity in 1985 that it is based on the characteristics or qualities that each person attributes to his or her own personal definition of what it means to be a female or male and

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not so much on the assessment of an overall gender stereotype (Edwards & Spence, 1987). Therefore, gender as a self-reported variable reflects adolescents' self-perceptions of themselves, and they will most likely perceive themselves as female if they are girls and as male if they are boys, even if their actual attitudes and behaviour do not conform to what is traditionally understood as adequate for each sex (Bem, 1974; Castillo-Mayén & Montes-Berges, 2014; Hoffman & Borders, 2001; Starr & Zurbriggen, 2017; Silva & Alves, 2020). However, the use of standardised tools and pre-established definitions of what a "male" or a "female" is also imply a reductionist approach, as most tools are outdated and do not take into account the impact of intersectionality, such as cultural specificities, social class or ethnicity (Romo, 2018). Besides, the present dissertation has focused on the comparison of "females" and "males". This has been done due to the disparity in sample size between the different groups since, while 48.7% of the students were females and 50.4% males, only 0.9% reported being other gender. Future lines of work could include other genders by randomly selecting sub-samples of females and males to balance the three groups, which on the one hand will reduce the representativeness of the sample at the methodological level, but on the other hand will make it possible to include other realities usually ignored for that same reason. This will in turn allow to better grasp behavioural implications of the full spectrum of gender diversity in this field of study (Ging & Neary, 2019).

Another limitation was the low participation in the study of certain regions of Spain (CCAA), despite the recruitment efforts carried out jointly with UNICEF. Although the sample is large and has a low sampling error for the country as a whole, the reduced sub-samples of certain CCAA prevents comparative regional analyses to be carried out without compromising the representativeness of the results. More research will be needed in some CCAA if these regional differences are to be investigated. Moreover, this research can be further complemented by longitudinal and multivariate approaches. Even if it may be extremely difficult to conduct longitudinal research with a large sample size, a smaller-scale research following children and adolescents over a number of years could be considered, mainly looking for the point at which risk behaviours and gender differences start to emerge, seeking to

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confirm the hypothesis about gender intensification in the context of Internet usage (Galambos et al., 1990; Moreau et al., 2021). The cross-sectional nature of this research makes it difficult to establish causal relationships, and to interpret some variables as moderating the development of PIU. The present dissertation was intended to be exploratory and to constitute a first approach to a new line of study that would include the gender perspective, but this first work needs to be followed by further efforts including statistical techniques allowing to stablish causal relationships, such as structural equation models (Ruiz et al., 2010).

Finally, although a group of experts were consulted to try to improve the survey as much as possible, the study is based on a set of constructs and instruments that were defined by the researchers and undertake a limited version of the reality of adolescent life, and further qualitative research is required to gain a deeper understanding of the implications of the present data (Pichel et al., 2021). As stated by Choy (2014), using a complementary approach between qualitative and quantitative methodologies for the same research topic may provide better results than using only one of them. Due to time constraints and the limitations associated with the health situation arising from COVID-19, it has been impossible to carry out a qualitative study within the framework of the present dissertation, leaving it as a pending matter for future research.

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6 CONCLUSIONS

The need to take gender into account in research has been pointed out over and over again by several authors (Coen & Banister, 2012; Day et al., 2017; Heidari et al., 2016; Franconi et al., 2019; Touriño et al., 2010), and the most basic but fundamental way of doing this, is starting by analysing female and male behaviour separately. In doing so, it can be seen that some behaviours show little or no difference at all, while others appear to be fundamentally different, leading to a general conclusion that gender may continue to be a highly relevant variable in some aspects, but not necessarily in all.

One of the main findings of the present dissertation is that 1 in 3 (32.9%) Secondary students in Spain presented a Problematic Internet Use (PIU). It is not only an already prevalent problem, but it has increased in recent years compared to previous research (Gómez et al., 2014; Rial et al., 2018). Besides the problematic use, it has been detected a high Internet and smartphone usage, greater even than what was expected in comparison with the latest available reports from official sources. All of which, coupled with the low rates of parental control over the use of Internet of their children, the presence of depressive symptomatology and low psychological well-being, and the COVID-19 pandemic situation, constitute a risky background that may explain the high rate of PIU. Besides, PIU itself is not the only threat that adolescents face online that can affect both their mental and physical well-being. It has been found that there is a whole plethora of risky behaviours that adolescents are engaging in over the Internet, such as gambling, pornography consumption, sexting, or contacting strangers. Furthermore, adolescents are involved in cyberbullying, are being victims of sextortion and are receiving sexual solicitations from adults. Despite all these threats, they mostly report feeling positive emotions while online and have positive perceptions and expectations of the Network, implicating that risk-taking is worth it for them at the end of the day. All these results should have implications at both intervention and prevention levels.

On the one hand, preventive efforts must follow a mainstreaming gender approach with a strong psychosocial component, taking into account the

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differences in wich adolescents relate to each other on the Net and to the Net itself, and the divergence in terms of needs and emotions that are based on stereotypes and traditional gender roles (Atenea Foundation, 2016). Consequently, although part of the prevention should be universal, it is necessary to develop specific modules developed taking into account the needs of the gender to be worked with, moving away from the current androcentric approach (Baxter et al., 2016; Atenea Foundation, 2016).

On the other hand, a holistic approach should also be adopted, rather than focusing on specific risky behaviours (Beltrán-Catalán et al., 2018; Feijóo, Foody et al., 2021). Increasing online safety by improving the digital skills of young people is necessary, but not sufficient, given the anticipated positive outcome derived from the online experience. Emotional, social and human skills, such as empathy, assertiveness and self-regulation, also need to be improved (Rial et al., 2018). Furthermore, the results show that in Compulsory Secondary Education both PIU and online risk behaviours are already established, which reveals the need to start prevention earlier.

Finally, following a community-based approach is also proposed, with efforts at different social levels (UNICEF, 2020; Valkenburg & Peter, 2013). Families should be the main source of education in the safe and healthy use of technology, so parents and/or legal guardians may need to increase their own digital skills in order to better support and supervise their children in the online experience. Houselhod rules and limits need to be set for ICT use, so that it becomes another leisure activity among many others for young people. At the same time, educators and schools need to play a more active role. Beyond the scarcity of time and resources and the urgency to meet the academic objectives set in the curricula, school is an excellent scenario of opportunity to include transversal content to improve the digital and social skills of young people. Besides, schools are the natural context for interaction with peers and the place where adolescents spend most of their time every day. There is also a need for greater involvement on the part of institutions and the public administration itself, providing resources and programmes on a continuous basis over time, encouraging activities outside the Internet by offering alternative leisure, sport and physical activities and promoting a regulatory framework that protects underage people in the online environment.

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Annex 1. Original project

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ESTUDIO SOBRE EL IMPACTO DE LA TECNOLOGÍA EN LA ADOLESCENCIA

Una aproximación comprensiva e inclusiva hacia el uso saludable de las TiC

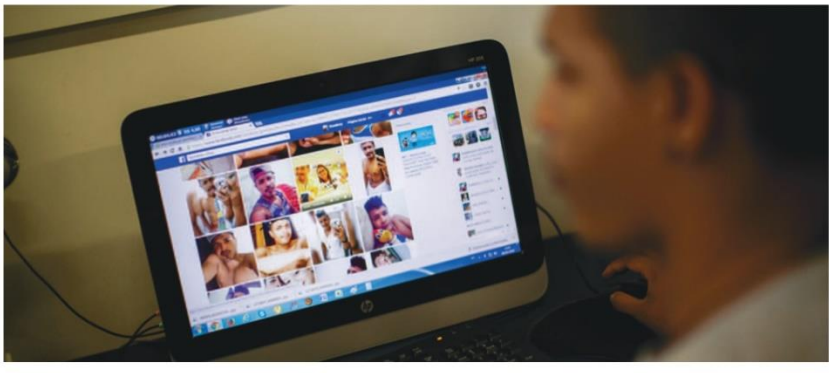
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EN UNA SOCIEDAD INTERCONECTADA, ¿QUÉ NOS ENCONTRAMOS DETRÁS DE LAS PANTALLAS?

En UNICEF somos conscientes de la presencia cada vez más significativa que tiene la tecnología y los dispositivos electrónicos en la vida de los niños, niñas y adolescentes. Consideramos fundamental **analizar los riesgos y conductas de riesgo que pueden estar afectando el ejercicio de los derechos de niños, niñas y adolescentes desde una perspectiva de protección, prevención, salud y educación**, que garanticen un uso saludable y equilibrado de la tecnología.

En el contexto actual, las clases en todos los niveles educativos se han realizado de manera online durante varios meses, lo cual nos ha situado ante **un nuevo panorama. Cobra fuerza en este sentido, hacer un análisis detallado** sobre los **nuevos riesgos, oportunidades, y nuevas relaciones** que se están desarrollando en el **entorno digital**.

Además, **persisten una serie de riesgos ligados al uso de las TIC por parte de los adolescentes que tienen que ver con su salud y bienestar, y en particular, con su papel potenciador de las denominadas "adicciones comportamentales"** o "adicciones sin sustancia". Nos referimos al **uso problemático de Internet y las adicciones comportamentales**. Entre ellas, la adicción a los videojuegos (recientemente reconocida por la OMS como un trastorno mental) o el *juego online,* tal y como aparece recogido en la *Estrategia Nacional sobre Adicciones 2017-2024* del Ministerio de Sanidad, Consumo y Bienestar español (Plan Nacional Sobre Drogas).



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¿POR QUÉ ES IMPORTANTE ACTUAR?

Prevalencia uso compulsivo de Internet (CIUS≥28)

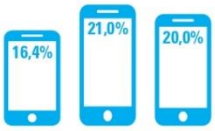


20%
14-18 años

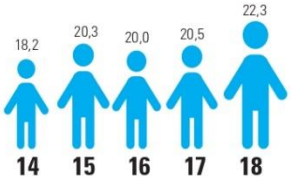
Distribución por sexo



Evolución prevalencia



Edad (%)



Estos son algunos datos que indican que es importante actuar

- En el último ESTUDES* (2018-2019) se cifra en un **20%**, el uso compulsivo de internet, en la franja **de 14 a 18 años**.

- En un artículo publicado en Computers in Human Behavior (Rial y colaboradores, Universidad Santiago de Compostela 2018), referido exclusivamente a adolescentes, se cifra en un **18,2% la tasa de usuarios problemáticos entre 12 y 17 años**, siendo del 20,1% en la franja de 14-15 años y del 23,4% en la de 16-17 años. Parece claro que al menos **1 de cada 5 menores en España estaría haciendo un uso problemático de la Red**.

*La Encuesta sobre uso de drogas en Enseñanzas Secundarias en España.

Alianzas para entender mejor el estado de la situación

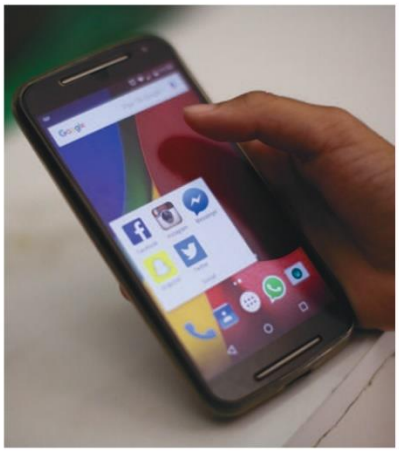
Para desarrollar este estudio hemos creado una alianza con expertos y entidades del ámbito académico y profesionales de la tecnología, de manera que podamos comprender la situación de una manera integral y holística. Uno de estos aliados es la Universidad de Santiago a través de la **Unidad de Psicología del Consumidor** (USC-PSICOM), quienes cuentan con una amplia experiencia especializada y trayectoria en el análisis de los aspectos relacionados al uso de las tecnologías entre los jóvenes, para conducir **un estudio especializado sobre hábitos de uso de las TIC entre los adolescentes e implicaciones para la salud y la Convivencia**.

Por otro lado, contaremos también con la participación del **Consejo General de Colegios de Ingeniería Informática (CCII)**. El Consejo cuenta con una dilatada experiencia en actividades sobre el uso seguro de la tecnología dirigido a jóvenes y familias, en colaboración con distintas administraciones públicas y en el desarrollo de acciones de prevención y sensibilización entorno a la seguridad online.

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INFORMACIÓN DE VALOR PARA TOMAR DECISIONES

Contaremos con un **diagnóstico comprensivo sobre el actual uso que los adolescentes españoles hacen de Internet, las redes sociales y, por extensión las TIC, haciendo hincapié en las posibles conductas de riesgo y usos problemáticos y/o potencialmente adictivos**. De este modo será posible poner a disposición de los responsables de las diferentes instituciones, tanto a nivel estatal como autonómico, no sólo datos objetivos referidos a hábitos y patrones de uso, **sino también de motivaciones, creencias y expectativas, que ayuden a comprender mejor el papel que la tecnología ocupa en la vida de nuestras hijas e hijos y, en consecuencia, diseñar estrategias de prevención más eficaces**. Los datos recabados y su análisis se presentarán públicamente en 2021 y darán pie a acciones de sensibilización social que permitan promover los cambios y mejoras identificados.



Resultados esperados

1. Tener una muestra representativa a nivel estatal de **100.000 niños, niñas y adolescentes** de edades comprendidas entre los 11-17 años, acompañada de un análisis cualitativo de los datos. **Este estudio constituirá una de las muestras más significativas y representativas que se han podido hacer hasta la fecha en España sobre adolescentes y tecnología.**

2. Facilitar **informes individuales de cada centro educativo y de cada comunidad autónoma**. Identificaremos también los aspectos positivos, negativos, oportunidades y percepciones de los jóvenes durante la etapa de confinamiento y sobre su experiencia educativa a distancia, que sirva para desarrollar **mecanismos de apoyo y respuesta** en el entorno educativo.

3. Desde un enfoque **integral y de salud**, los datos deberían permitir desarrollar una **labor de prevención**, mirar las tendencias de uso y consumo de internet, videojuegos y redes sociales.

4. Atender la demanda social sobre **la necesidad de comprender claramente los riesgos y problemas derivados del uso continuado y excesivo de las tecnologías**. Para poder dar respuesta, hacen falta tener datos y un análisis de situación que permita **promover un cambio en actitudes, percepciones y actuación** entorno al uso de tecnología.

5. Promover una higiene digital. Contar con respuestas positivas a preguntas como: ¿Tus padres usan el móvil a la hora de comer/desayunar?, duplican y triplican el riesgo de caer en un uso abusivo por parte de niños y adolescentes. Hay muchas cosas que se pueden hacer desde el círculo más cercano para prevenir el problema.

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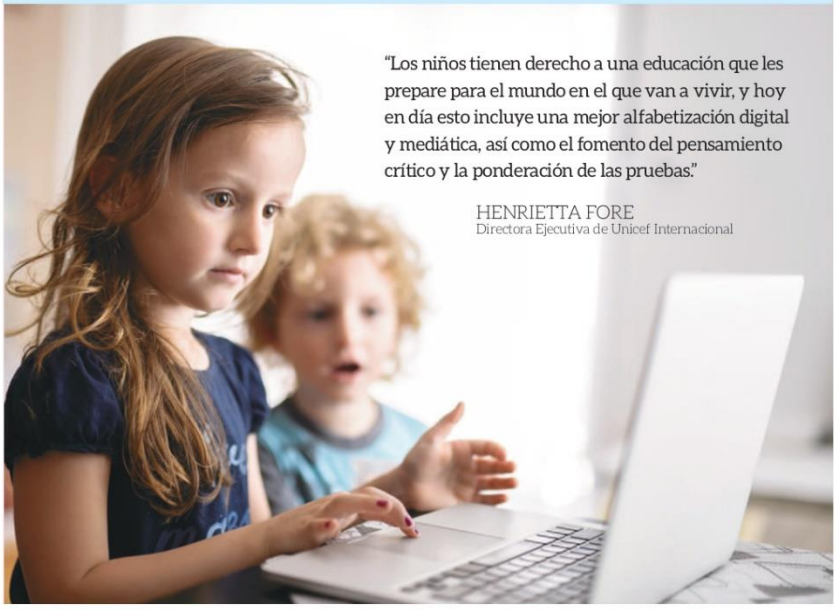
Claves para la acción

- Desde el **ámbito educativo**, en cuanto a la educación digital, consideramos que además de las competencias digitales, es importante seguir trabajando con un foco en las **competencias humanas** y soportar el sistema de valores y competencias para la vida.

- **El rol de las familias es también fundamental.** Es necesaria una mayor sensibilización sobre los **riesgos y oportunidades**, así como la necesidad de acompañar a niños y adolescentes en el uso de las tecnologías, teniendo en cuenta los límites de uso y la normativa en cuanto a las edades legalmente establecidas para el uso de cada aplicación, plataforma y red social.

- Cuando **nos dirigimos a los adolescentes**, tenemos que entender sus necesidades e inquietudes, por ello, esta recogida de datos **se centra en los derechos de niños y adolescentes a la participación, a la privacidad, a la protección y a la salud**; de manera que podamos actuar de manera coherente y efectiva, para poder garantizar el ejercicio de sus derechos.

- **El juego online y de apuestas,** así como el uso de la tecnología son aspectos que tienen ahora un foco de atención importante por parte de la sociedad y que ocupan cada vez un lugar más importante en la vida de niños y adolescentes. Por ello, tenemos la **oportunidad de promover un uso saludable y equilibrado**, generar un ambiente seguro entorno al uso de la tecnología, **y promover una actitud crítica y constructiva**.



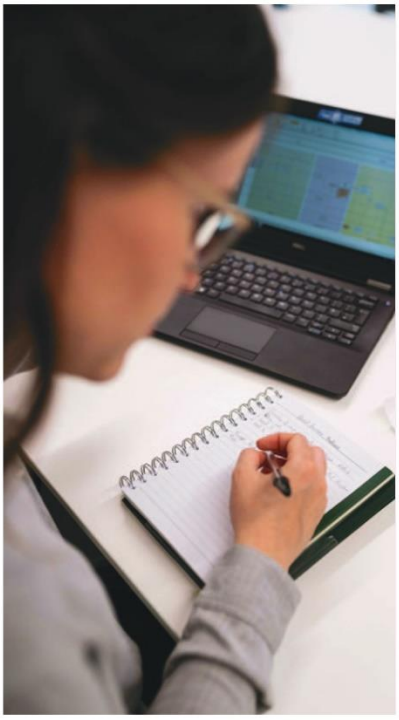
"Los niños tienen derecho a una educación que les prepare para el mundo en el que van a vivir, y hoy en día esto incluye una mejor alfabetización digital y mediática, así como el fomento del pensamiento crítico y la ponderación de las pruebas."

HENRIETTA FORE
Directora Ejecutiva de Unicef Internacional

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¿CÓMO LO HAREMOS?

Para responder a los objetivos planteados se propone recurrir a una **metodología cuantitativa**, que consistirá en la realización de una **encuesta entre los adolescentes españoles**. El universo objeto de estudio estará formado por todos aquellos escolares residentes en el territorio nacional que estén cursando Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria (N aproximado = 2.000.000 de individuos). La ficha técnica del estudio se recoge en el cuadro a la derecha de estas líneas.



Ficha técnica

Ámbito: Nacional

Universo: Infinito. Aprox. 2.000.000 de adolescentes de ambos sexos que están cursando actualmente estudios de Enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria (ESO) en centros públicos, privados o concertados del territorio nacional. Edad comprendida entre los 11 y los 17 años.

Tipo de muestreo: Bietápico. Por Conglomerados para la selección de las unidades de primer nivel (aprox. 320 centros educativos de todas las comunidades/ciudades autónomas) y Por Cuotas, según Comunidad/Ciudad Autónoma, Provincia, Género, Edad y Titularidad del centro, para la selección de las unidades de segundo nivel (aprox. 100.000 individuos). Se utilizará una afijación de compromiso, con un suelo muestral de 2.223 individuos por comunidad/ciudad autónoma, lo que permitirá fijar un error máximo a nivel desagregado del ±1,5%.

Tamaño de la muestra: 100.000 adolescentes

Nivel de significación: = 0.05

Error global de muestreo (para el conjunto de España): ±0,3%

Error máximo de muestreo para cada comunidad/ciudad autónoma: ±1,5%

Instrumento de recogida de datos: cuestionario ad hoc, que incluirá preguntas de diferentes estudios a nivel nacional e internacional, junto con ítems de elaboración propia y escalas de screening específicas (EUPI-a, GASA, BAGS, ECIP-Q y PHQ-9).

Procedimiento: cuestionario on line implementado en plataforma propia de la USC, alojada en el Centro de Supercomputación de Galicia. Supervisión técnica y legal por parte del Consejo General de Colegios Profesionales de Ingenieros Informáticos de España, acorde a la normativa vigente en materia de Protección de datos.

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ÁMBITO GEOGRÁFICO

	N	n	Nº aprox. de centros seleccionados*
ANDALUCÍA	397.573	9.915	30
ARAGÓN	50.626	4.659	15
ASTURIAS	33.177	4.256	14
BALEARS, ILLES	46.503	4.574	15
CANARIAS	89.992	5.343	17
CANTABRIA	22.402	3.904	13
CASTILLA Y LEÓN	84.575	5.269	17
CASTILLA-LA MANCHA	87.649	5.319	17
CATALUÑA	327.096	8.921	28
COMUNITAT VALENCIANA	212.441	7.290	23
EXTREMADURA	43.361	4.504	15
GALICIA	92.523	5.398	17
MADRID, COMUNIDAD DE	280.331	8.256	27
MURCIA, REGIÓN DE	72.202	5.060	16
NAVARRA, COMUNIDAD FORAL DE	27.606	4.088	14
PAÍS VASCO	85.142	5.277	17
RIOJA, LA	12.857	3.384	11
CEUTA	4.711	2.301	8
MELILLA	4.636	2.282	8
TOTAL ESPAÑA	**1.975.403**	**100.000**	-

**Centros estimados partiendo de 300-350 alumnos por centro*



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CLAVES PARA EL PROCESO

Fase 1

- Elaboración del cuestionario e implementación plataforma Online.
- Pilotajes

Fase 2

- Trabajo de campo. Los datos serán recogidos en los propios centros, en su aula de informática-biblioteca, en grupos reducidos (15- 20 niños y adolescentes), en los horarios de tutoría y de manera coordinada por el equipo de orientación psicopedagógica o la persona designadas en cada centro, que recibirá la formación específica para tal fin.

Fase 3

- Elaboración de Informes Individuales confidenciales (uno para cada centro participante), un Informe Global para cada Comunidad Autónoma y un Informe Global Estatal.
- Presentación pública de los resultados del informe.

Previsión del proceso de estudio, según evolución del COVID-19



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En pocas palabras

Consideramos que nos enfrentamos a un reto importante como sociedad de cara a la nueva relación con las tecnologías, y para ello, potenciar alianzas en la búsqueda de soluciones innovadoras, nos permitirá responder como sociedad a esta nueva realidad.

Contaremos con el estudio más amplio que se ha hecho en España, de escala nacional, sobre adolescentes y tecnología. La participación y colaboración en el proceso de recogida de datos y difusión, no supondrá ningún coste para las Consejerías de Educación.

El apoyo de las Consejerías de Educación nos permite implicar a la comunidad educativa en su conjunto hacia un mejor entendimiento de las interacciones de los jóvenes con las TIC, lo cual nos permitirá caminar en la transformación hacia una sociedad digital desde un enfoque de derechos, protegiendo la salud y el bienestar de niños y adolescentes.



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Publicado por UNICEF España
Dirección de Sensibilización y Políticas de Infancia
Área de Educación en Derechos de Infancia y Campañas
Mauricio Legendre, 36, 28046 Madrid, España
www.unicef.es

Julio de 2020

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Annex 2. Questionnaire

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Estudio sobre el impacto de la tecnología en la adolescencia



Presentación

Este cuestionario forma parte de un estudio que estamos realizando desde UNICEF para conocer de primera mano cuáles son las inquietudes y hábitos de ocio de las y los adolescentes españoles, especialmente en todo lo que tiene que ver con el uso de Internet, las redes sociales y la tecnología en general.

Lo que pretendemos es daros voz a las chicas y a los chicos. Tus respuestas se unirán, de manera totalmente **ANONIMA**, a las de más de 100.000 jóvenes de toda España. En ningún momento se os pedirá vuestro nombre, ni datos personales que permitan identificar a quien responde, por lo que nos gustaría que contestaras siempre con sinceridad.

Ten en cuenta que no se trata de ningún examen. No hay respuestas correctas e incorrectas, mejores o peores. Lo que nos interesa es únicamente contar con el punto de vista de todas y de todos. Tu opinión cuenta y es imprescindible para ayudar a quienes puedan estar sufriendo algún tipo de problema con el uso de Internet.

Los resultados obtenidos en este cuestionario servirán para elaborar informes y tener datos que nos permitan como sociedad promover un uso saludable y equilibrado de la tecnología.

Tu colaboración es muy importante, pero en todo caso **VOLUNTARIA**. Si por la razón que sea prefieres no participar, estás en tu derecho. Simplemente díselo a tu profesor/a o persona encargada y no cubras el cuestionario. Si alguna respuesta no se ajusta del todo a lo que piensas, elige la opción que más se aproxime. Si sigues teniendo dudas, consulta al profesor/a. Él/ella te ayudará a resolverlas.

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Antes de comenzar, necesitamos que nos indiques una serie de DATOS GENERALES.

Género (marca la opción con la que más te identifiques):
Masculino ☐ Femenino ☐ Otro ☐ _____

¿Cuántos años tienes? ☐

¿En qué curso estás actualmente?
1º ESO ☐ 2º ESO ☐ 3º ESO ☐ 4º ESO ☐

¿Has repetido curso en alguna ocasión? NO ☐ SÍ ☐

¿En qué mes naciste? ☐

¿Naciste en España? NO ☐ SÍ ☐ No lo sé/No aplica ☐

¿Tu madre nació en España? NO ☐ SÍ ☐ No lo sé/No aplica ☐

¿Tu padre nació en España? NO ☐ SÍ ☐ No lo sé/No aplica ☐

¿Qué estudios tienen tus padres? (lee las distintas opciones y marca la que consideres que más se ajusta a tu caso)

	No estudió, apenas sabe leer y escribir o lo hace con dificultad	Estudios primarios, terminados o sin terminar	Estudios secundarios (bachillerato o formación profesional), terminados o sin terminar	Estudios universitarios, terminados o sin terminar	No lo sé /No aplica
Mi madre	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mi padre	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Actualmente Vives con... (lee las distintas opciones y marca la que consideres que más se ajusta a tu caso)

☐Con mi madre y mi padre
☐Parte del tiempo con mi madre y parte con mi padre
☐Con mi madre y su pareja porque mis padres están divorciados o separados
☐Con mi padre y su pareja porque mis padres están divorciados o separados
☐Con mis padres y mis abuelos
☐Con mis abuelos
☐Con otros familiares
☐Con mis dos madres
☐Con mis dos padres
☐Sólo con mi madre
☐Sólo con mi padre
☐Con mi familia de acogida
☐En un centro de menores
☐Ninguna de las opciones anteriores

¿Tienes hermanas y/o hermanos? NO ☐ SÍ ☐→ **¿Cuántos?** ☐

¿Tienes pareja en este momento? NO ☐ SÍ ☐

¿Has tenido pareja antes (durante al menos 3 meses)? NO ☐ SÍ ☐

¿Cómo definirías tu orientación sexual? (marca la opción con la que más te identifiques)

Totalmente heterosexual	Mayoritariamente heterosexual	Bisexual	Mayoritariamente homosexual (lesbiana/gay)	Totalmente homosexual (lesbiana/gay)	Asexual	Otra /No lo sé
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Parte 1: Ocio y bienestar

Nos gustaría que nos dijeses cuál de las siguientes actividades realizas habitualmente en tu tiempo libre. Por favor, marca "NO" o "Sí" en cada actividad.

Practicar deporte	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Ver series o películas a través de Internet (Netflix, Amazon, HBO u otras plataformas)	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Escuchar Música	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Tocar algún instrumento	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Cantar	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Bailar	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Leer	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Escribir	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Usar las redes sociales	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Ir al cine	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Jugar a videojuegos	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Andar por ahí con mis amigas/os	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Estar con el móvil/*tablet*/ordenador	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Pasear	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Dibujar, pintar...	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
Ir de compras	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
¿Practicas deporte a nivel federado o con ficha en algún club deportivo?	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
¿Perteneces a alguna asociación juvenil o cultural (de teatro, música, baile ...)?	☐	NO	☐	SÍ
¿Participas en algún grupo o actividad de voluntariado?	☐	NO	☐	SÍ

De 0 a 10, siendo 0 "totalmente en desacuerdo" y 10 "totalmente de acuerdo", indica si estás de acuerdo o no con las siguientes afirmaciones

Me gusta ser como soy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Me resulta fácil cumplir con mis responsabilidades diarias	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
La gente que me rodea suele ser amable conmigo	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Tengo muchas cosas en las que emplear mi tiempo	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Siento que estoy aprendiendo mucho últimamente	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Soy optimista sobre mi futuro	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

De 0 a 10, siendo 0 "horrible" y 10 "excelente", cómo calificarías...

La relación con tus compañeros/as de instituto	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
La relación con tus profesoras y profesores	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
La relación con tus amigas y amigos	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
La relación con tus padres	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
La relación con el resto de tu familia	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Y de 0 a 10, siendo "La peor vida posible" y 10 "La mejor vida posible"...

¿Cómo calificarías tu vida en este momento?	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

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DURANTE LAS ÚLTIMAS SEMANAS ¿con qué frecuencia te ha sucedido que...?

	NUNCA	VARIOS DÍAS	MÁS DE LA MITAD DE LOS DÍAS	CASI TODOS LOS DÍAS
Te has sentido decaído/a, deprimido/a, desanimado o sin esperanza	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te has sentido con poco interés o sin ganas de hacer nada	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has tenido dificultades para dormir o, por el contrario, has dormido demasiado	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te has sentido muy cansado/a o con poca energía	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te has sentido con muy poco apetito, has perdido peso o justo lo contrario, has comido demasiado	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te has sentido mal contigo mismo/a, fracasado/a o has pensado que te has decepcionado a ti mismo/a o a tu familia	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has tenido dificultades para concentrarte a la hora de hacer las tareas escolares, leer, ver la televisión...	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has tenido la sensación de que te movías o hablabas muy lentamente o justo lo contrario, estabas demasiado inquieto/a o agitado/a y te movías más de lo normal	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has llegado a pensar que sería mejor estar muerto/a o has tenido ganas de hacerte daño	☐	☐	☐	☐

Parte 2: Internet y Redes Sociales

¿Tienes teléfono móvil con conexión a Internet/datos? ☐ NO ☐ SÍ

¿A qué edad tuviste tu primer móvil con conexión a Internet? _____ años

¿De qué volumen de datos sueles disponer al mes?

Hasta 2 Gb ☐ | Hasta 5 Gb ☐ | Hasta 10Gb ☐ | Hasta 25 Gb ☐ | Ilimitados ☐ | No Lo sé ☐

¿Tu conexión a Internet es por contrato o por Tarjeta Prepago? ☐ Contrato ☐ Prepago ☐ No lo sé

¿Dispones de WiFi en casa? ☐ NO ☐ SÍ

Generalmente ¿con qué frecuencia te conectas a Internet?

Nunca o casi nunca ☐ | Alguna vez al mes ☐ | Alguna vez a la semana ☐ | Todos o casi todos los días ☐

¿Cuánto tiempo sueles utilizar Internet un día de semana normal?

Menos de 1 hora ☐ | Entre 1 y 2 horas ☐ | Entre 2 y 3 horas ☐ | Entre 3 y 5 horas ☐ | Más de 5 horas ☐ | Todo el día ☐

¿Y durante el fin de semana?

Menos de 1 hora ☐ | Entre 1 y 2 horas ☐ | Entre 2 y 3 horas ☐ | Entre 3 y 5 horas ☐ | Más de 5 horas ☐ | Todo el día ☐

CON QUÉ FRECUENCIA...	Nunca o casi nunca	Alguna vez al mes	Alguna vez a la semana	Todos o casi todos los días	No aplica
¿Sueles dormir con el móvil, la *tablet* o la consola en tu habitación?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Sueles conectarte a Internet, utilizar el móvil o la *tablet* o la consola a partir de las 12 de la noche?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Sueles llevar el móvil a clase?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Durante las clases lo utilizas para cuestiones que no tienen que ver con los estudios?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Tus padres suelen utilizar el móvil o la tablet para enviar WhatsApps, consultar el correo o redes sociales a la hora de comer o de cenar?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Sueles tener discusiones en casa por el uso de Internet, el móvil, la tablet o la consola?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Suelen castigarte sin usar el móvil, la tablet o la consola?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Señala qué tipo de actividades sueles hacer en Internet. Por favor, marca "NO" o "SÍ" en cada caso

Usar las redes sociales	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Ver series / Películas	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Escuchar Música	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Buscar información de todo tipo	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Realizar tareas escolares	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Whatsappear, chatear con mis contactos	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Enviar y recibir correos	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Apostar, jugar al póker online, ruletas...	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Ligar, buscar pareja...	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Seguir a gente que me gusta	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Jugar a videojuegos	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Ver partidos y otros eventos deportivos	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Ver pornografía (películas, videos o fotos)	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Comprar o vender cosas	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Subir fotos, vídeos y cosas mías	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Ver vídeos en YouTube o Twitch	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
"Stalkear" o curiosear sobre otras personas	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Hacer o ver Tik Toks	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Hacer videollamadas con mis amigos/as	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Leer	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Otras _____	☐ NO	☐ SÍ

Por lo general, sientes que...

¿Tienes algún tipo de dificultad o barrera para acceder a Internet o las redes sociales?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Tienes algún tipo de dificultad o barrera para utilizar los diferentes dispositivos tecnológicos (ordenador, tablet, consola...)?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Internet y las redes sociales te ayudan a no sentirte sola/o?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Internet y las redes sociales te ayudan a hacer amigas/os?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Internet y las redes sociales te ayudan a ser popular?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Internet y las redes sociales te ayudan a ser más aceptado por las/os demás?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Internet y las redes sociales te ayudan a mostrarte como realmente eres?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ

Marca en cuales de estas redes sociales estás registrado y utilizas habitualmente

Instagram ☐	Tik Tok ☐	Facebook ☐	Pinterest ☐	Youtube ☐		Twitter ☐
Tinder ☐	Tumblr ☐	Twitch ☐	Peoople ☐		Otras ☐	Ninguna ☐

¿En alguna de ellas tienes más de una cuenta o perfil? ☐ NO ☐ SÍ

Marca cuáles de estas aplicaciones de mensajería instantánea utilizas habitualmente

WhatsApp ☐	MD Instagram ☐	Messenger Facebook ☐	Snapchat ☐	Skype ☐		WeChat ☐
Telegram ☐	Line ☐	Discord ☐	Zoom ☐	Meet ☐	Otras ☐	Ninguna ☐

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Parte 3: Conductas online

Señala si ALGUNA VEZ te has visto en alguna de estas situaciones utilizando Internet, el móvil, la tablet o la consola

	Nunca	Alguna vez en la vida	Alguna vez en los últimos 12 meses	Alguna vez en los últimos 30 días
¿Alguien te ha enviado alguna vez mensajes de contenido erótico o sexual?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Alguien te ha enviado alguna vez fotos o vídeos de sí mismos/as de carácter erótico o sexual?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Alguien te ha enviado fotos o vídeos de otras chicas o chicos de tu entorno de carácter erótico o sexual?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Y tú has enviado alguna vez mensajes de contenido erótico o sexual?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Y fotos o vídeos de ti misma/o de carácter erótico o sexual?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Alguien te ha presionado o intentado chantajear para que le enviases fotos o vídeos tuyos de carácter erótico o sexual?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Alguien te ha chantajeado con publicar, difundir o reenviar fotos o vídeos tuyos de carácter erótico o sexual?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Has contactado con desconocidos a través de Internet, chats, redes sociales o videojuegos?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Has aceptado en las redes sociales a alguien que no conocías de nada?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Has quedado en persona con gente que conociste exclusivamente a través de Internet, chats, redes sociales o videojuegos?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Algún adulto te ha hecho alguna vez una proposición sexual a través de Internet, chats, redes sociales o videojuegos?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Has entrado en páginas web de contenido erótico o pornográfico?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Sabes lo qué es la Dark Web?		☐ NO		☐ SÍ
¿Has entrado alguna vez?		☐ NO		☐ SÍ
¿Has utilizado buscadores del tipo TOR o DuckDuckGo?		☐ NO		☐ SÍ

¿Con qué frecuencia has sentido alguna de estas emociones en Internet?

	Nunca	Casi nunca	A veces	Muy a menudo	Siempre
Miedo	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alegría, risa	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Soledad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Angustia	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Apoyo y comprensión	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Inseguridad, inquietud	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tranquilidad, relajación	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Exclusión, rechazo, discriminación	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Placer, diversión	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Energía, euforia, "subidón"	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Conexión con otra persona	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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¿Y con qué frecuencia en los últimos meses te ha ocurrido que...?

	Nunca	Casi nunca	A veces	Muy a menudo	Siempre
Cuando te conectas sientes que el tiempo vuela y pasan las horas sin darte cuenta	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has intentado controlar o reducir el uso que haces de Internet, pero no has sido capaz	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has descuidado algunas tareas escolares o rendido menos en los exámenes por conectarte a Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has necesitado pasar cada vez más tiempo conectada/o a Internet para sentirte a gusto	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te has irritado o te has puesto de mal humor por no haber podido conectarte a Internet o por haber tenido que desconectarte	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has mentido a tus padres o a tu familia sobre el tiempo que pasas conectada/o a Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has dejado de hacer cosas que antes te interesaban (hobbies, deportes, etc.) para poder conectarte a Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te has conectado a Internet a pesar de que sabías que no debías o que podría incluso traerte problemas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te ha molestado mucho pasar horas sin conectarte a Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has tenido la sensación de que si no te conectabas podrías estar perdiéndote algo realmente importante	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Has hecho o dicho cosas por Internet que no harías o dirías en persona	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Señala si en tu caso son ciertas cada una de estas afirmaciones

	Nada	Poco	Bastante	Mucho
Cuando uso Internet, mis padres me vigilan y echan un vistazo a la pantalla	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mis padres conocen las claves de acceso a mis cuentas de correo electrónico, redes sociales o programas de mensajería y aplicaciones	☐	☐	☐	☐
En casa me han puesto algunas normas sobre lo que puedo o no puedo hacer en Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐
En casa me limitan los contenidos a los que puedo acceder en Internet, mediante filtros en el ordenador	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mis padres me limitan las horas de uso de Internet (ya sea de palabra o configurando el ordenador)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mis padres revisan mis perfiles en las redes sociales (Tuenti, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, por ejemplo).	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mis padres están al tanto de mis contactos en las redes sociales	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Parte 4: Videojuegos

Hablemos ahora de VIDEOJUEGOS (bien sea mediante el móvil, la tablet, la consola o el ordenador)

¿Con qué frecuencia sueles jugar a videojuegos?	Nunca ☐	Casi nunca ☐	Alguna vez al mes ☐	Alguna vez a la semana ☐		Todos o casi todos los días ☐
¿Por lo general cuántas horas sueles pasar a la semana jugando a videojuegos?				horas		
¿A través de que dispositivos sueles jugar? (puedes marcar varios)	Consola ☐	Tablet ☐	Móvil ☐	Ordenador ☐	Otros ☐	
¿Cuánto sueles gastar al mes en videojuegos, skins, gemas…?	Nada ☐	Menos de 10€ ☐	Entre 11€ y 30€ ☐	Entre 31€ y 50€ ☐	Entre 51€ y 100€ ☐	Más de 100€ ☐

Marca de la siguiente lista aquellos videojuegos a los que juegas habitualmente

Fortnite	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Valorant	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Call of Duty	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Animal Crossing	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
League of Legends (LoL)	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
GTA/Red Dead Redemptiom	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Minecraft	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
FIFA/ Pro Evolution Soccer (PES)	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Candy Crush	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Clash Royal / Clash of Clans/Brawl Stars	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Counter-Strike	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
DotA 2	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
World of Warcraft (WoW)	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Among Us	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Fall Guys	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Just Dance	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
Otros	☐ NO	☐ SÍ

¿Sueles fijarte en el PEGI de los videojuegos?	☐ NO	☐ Sí	☐ No sé lo que es
¿Sueles jugar con videojuegos no recomendados para tu edad?		☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Tus padres se fijan en el PEGI de los videojuegos?	☐ NO	☐ Sí	☐ No lo sé
¿Te ponen algún problema en casa si juegas a videojuegos no recomendados para tu edad?		☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Crees que podrías llegar a convertirte en *Gamer* profesional?	☐ NO	☐ Sí	☐ No lo sé
Señala si alguna vez…			
¿Has conocido a gente nueva a través de videojuegos online?		No ☐	Sí ☐
E28. Alguna/o de ellos/as mayor de edad?		No ☐ Sí ☐	No lo sé ☐
¿Has hecho amigas/os a través de videojuegos online?		No ☐	Sí ☐
E30. Alguna/o de ellos/as mayor de edad?		No ☐ Sí ☐	No lo sé ☐
¿Te has sentido intimidada/o, amenazada/o o acosada/o a través de videojuegos online?		No ☐	Sí ☐

Señala si en ESTOS ÚLTIMOS MESES te suele ocurrir que…

	Nunca	Casi nunca	A veces	A menudo	Muy a menudo
A lo largo del día piensas en varios momentos en jugar a videojuegos	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sientes que dedicas cada vez más tiempo a los videojuegos	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Juegas para olvidarte de los problemas del día a día y evadirte	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te dicen que debes dedicar menos tiempo a los videojuegos	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Te sientes mal por no poder jugar a videojuegos	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discutes con tus padres, familia o amigas/os por el tiempo que dedicas a los videojuegos	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dejas de atender actividades importantes (estudios, familia, deportes…) por jugar a videojuegos	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Parte 5: Juego online

Cambiando de tema...

¿Alguna vez has jugado o apostado DINERO en juegos de azar *online* o webs de apuestas (Póker *online*, apuestas deportivas *online, etc.*)			**NO** ☐	**SÍ** ☐
En caso afirmativo... ¿Con qué frecuencia apuestas online?	Nunca o casi nunca ☐	Alguna vez al mes ☐	Alguna vez a la semana ☐	Todos o casi todos los días ☐
¿En qué tipo de juegos o apuestas online sueles participar? (marca la opción u opciones que proceda)	Póker online ☐	Tragaperras o ruleta online ☐	Bingo online ☐	Rasca online ☐
	Apuestas deportivas online ☐	Apuestas no deportivas online ☐	Blackjack online ☐	Otros ☐
¿A través de qué medios acostumbras a jugar o apostar online (marca la opción u opciones que proceda)	Webs de apuestas ☐	Redes sociales ☐	Aplicaciones móviles ☐	Videojuegos ☐
				Otros ☐
¿A través de qué medios sueles pagar? (marca la opción u opciones que proceda)	Tarjeta de crédito ☐	Cuenta bancaria ☐	Cuenta PayPal/Skrill ☐	Tarjeta prepago/Paysafe ☐
				Otros ☐
¿Con QUIÉN sueles jugar o apostar online? (marca la opción u opciones que proceda)	Yo solo/a ☐	Con amigos/as ☐	Con mis padres ☐	Con otros familiares ☐
				Otros ☐
¿Por qué MOTIVOS sueles jugar o apostar online? (marca la opción u opciones que proceda)	Para divertirme ☐	Ganar dinero ☐	Porque lo hacemos entre amigas/os ☐	Otros ☐
				No lo sé ☐
¿Aproximadamente CUÁNTO dinero sueles emplear al mes en jugar o apostar online?	Nada ☐	Menos de 10€ ☐	Entre 11€ y 30€ ☐	Entre 31€ y 50€ ☐
				Más de 50€ ☐
¿Cómo te has ENTERADO de este tipo de juegos o apuestas online? (marca la opción u opciones que proceda)	Por amigos/as o familiares ☐	Publicidad (TV, radio) ☐	Por Internet ☐	Lo vi en la calle ☐
				Otros ☐
¿Crees que es fácil o PROBABLE ganar dinero jugando o apostando online?	Nada probable ☐	Poco probable ☐	Bastante probable ☐	Muy probable ☐
¿Cuántas VECES has ganado algún premio jugando o apostando online?	Nunca Casi nunca ☐	Alguna vez ☐	Bastantes veces ☐	Casi siempre Siempre ☐

EN LOS ÚLTIMOS MESES...

	Nunca	A veces	A menudo	Siempre o Casi Siempre
¿Con qué frecuencia has ocultado a tu familia que jugabas o apostabas?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Con qué frecuencia has llegado a pensar que podías tener un problema con el juego o con las apuestas?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Con qué frecuencia has evitado pasar tiempo con amigos/as que no jugaban o apostaban para pasarlo con otros/as que sí lo hacían?	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Parte 6: Acoso escolar y Ciberacoso

En este apartado te preguntamos sobre tus posibles experiencias relacionadas con el cyberbullying en tu entorno (centro escolar, amigos o conocidos). Tus respuestas serán totalmente anónimas y confidenciales.

En los ÚLTIMOS DOS MESES ¿con qué frecuencia has vivido algunas de las siguientes situaciones? (marca la opción que mejor se corresponda con tu caso)	No	Sí, una o dos veces	Sí, una o dos veces al mes	Sí, alrededor de una vez a la semana	Sí, más de una vez a la semana
Alguien me ha dicho palabras malsonantes o me ha insultado usando Internet o el teléfono móvil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha dicho a otras palabras malsonantes sobre mí usando Internet o el teléfono móvil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien me ha amenazado a través de mensajes en Internet o el teléfono móvil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha pirateado mi cuenta de correo y ha sacado mi información personal (email o red social)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha pirateado mi cuenta y se ha hecho pasar por mí (a través de mensajería instantánea o cuentas en las redes sociales)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha creado una cuenta falsa en una red social para hacerse pasar por mí	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha colgado información personal sobre mí en Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha colgado videos o fotos comprometidas mías en Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha retocado fotos mías que yo había colgado en Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He sido excluido o ignorado de una red social o de chat	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha difundido rumores sobre mí por Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
RECUERDA QUE TUS RESPUESTAS SON TOTALMENTE ANÓNIMAS					
YO MISMA/O					
He dicho palabras malsonantes a alguien o le he insultado usando internet o el teléfono móvil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He dicho palabras malsonantes sobre alguien a otras personas usando internet o el teléfono móvil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He amenazado a alguien a través de mensajes en internet o el teléfono móvil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He pirateado la cuenta de correo de alguien y he robado su información personal (a través de email o red social)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He pirateado la cuenta de alguien y me he hecho pasar por ella o él. (mensajería instantánea o cuenta en red social)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He creado una cuenta falsa en una red social para hacerme pasar por otra persona	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He colgado información personal de alguien en Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He colgado videos o fotos comprometidas de alguien en internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He retocado fotos o videos de alguien que estaban colgados en Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He excluido o ignorado a alguien en una red social o chat	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He difundido rumores sobre alguien en Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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A continuación, te haremos preguntas muy parecidas, pero referidas en este caso a tu experiencia CARA A CARA, no a través de Internet o las redes sociales. Tus respuestas serán totalmente anónimas y confidenciales

En los ÚLTIMOS DOS MESES ¿con qué frecuencia has vivido algunas de las siguientes situaciones? (marca la opción que mejor se corresponda con tu caso)	No	Sí, una o dos veces	Sí, una o dos veces al mes	Sí, alrededor de una vez a la semana	Sí, más de una vez a la semana
Alguien me ha golpeado, me ha pateado o me ha empujado	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien me ha insultado	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien les ha dicho a otras personas palabras malsonantes sobre mí	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien me ha amenazado	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien me ha robado o roto mis cosas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He sido excluido o ignorado por otras personas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Alguien ha difundido rumores sobre mí	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
RECUERDA QUE TUS RESPUESTAS SON TOTALMENTE ANÓNIMAS					
YO MISMA/O... He golpeado, pateado o empujado a alguien	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He insultado y he dicho palabras malsonantes a alguien	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He dicho a otras personas palabras malsonantes sobre alguien	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He amenazado a alguien	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He robado o estropeado algo de alguien	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He excluido o ignorado a alguien	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He difundido rumores sobre alguien	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

En definitiva, dirías que...

	NO, NUNCA	SÍ, ALGUNA VEZ EN LA VIDA	SÍ, ALGUNA VEZ EN EL ÚLTIMO AÑO	SÍ, EN LA ACTUALIDAD
¿Has sufrido acoso escolar cara a cara?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Y a través de las redes sociales, foros, chats, videojuegos o del teléfono móvil?	☐	☐	☐	☐

En caso de haber sufrido alguna vez acoso escolar o ciberacoso o de sufrirlo en la actualidad, por lo general...

¿Cuántas personas te acosan o acosaban?

Una ☐ Entre 2 y 5 ☐ Entre de 6 y 10 ☐ Más de 10 ☐ No lo sé ☐

Son o eran sobre todo...

Chicos ☐ Chicas ☐ Tanto chicos como chicas ☐ No lo sé ☐

¿A través de que medios suelen o solían acosarte? (puedes marcar varias opciones)

Redes sociales ☐ Mensajería (Whatsapp, Direct, Messenger...) ☐ Videojuegos ☐ Cara a cara ☐

Otro ☐ Indica cuál_____

Quien/es te acosaban son o eran... (puedes marcar varias opciones)

De tu clase ☐ De otra clase, pero de tu instituto ☐ De otros institutos ☐ Tu pareja o expareja ☐ No lo sé ☐

¿Durante cuanto tiempo te acosaron o llevan acosándote?

Varios días ☐ Varias semanas ☐ Varios meses ☐ Más de un año ☐

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¿Cuáles crees que son o eran los motivos por los que te acosan o acosaban? (puedes marcar varias opciones)							
Por mi físico	☐	Porque me tenían o tienen manía	☐	Porque soy tímida/o, introvertida/o...	☐	Por envidia	☐
Por el color de mi piel	☐	Por hacer una broma, por divertirse	☐	Por mi origen, cultura o religión	☐	Por mi orientación sexual o identidad de género	☐
Por venganza	☐	Porque soy diferente	☐	Por celos	☐	Por mis notas	☐
Por tener sobrepeso	☐	Por tener anorexia/bulimia	☐	Por otras razones	☐	No lo sé	☐
¿A quién se lo contaste inicialmente? (puedes marcar varias opciones)							
A mis padres	☐	A mis hermanas o hermanos	☐	A una amiga o amigo	☐	A un familiar	☐
A una profesora o profesor	☐	A nadie	☐	Otros	☐	Indica a quién_____	
¿Cuánto tardaste en contarlo?							
Menos de una semana	☐	Varias semanas	☐	Varios meses	☐	Más de un año	☐
No he llegado a contarlo nunca	☐						

El hecho de sufrir acoso o ciberacoso crees que ha podido afectar negativamente a...

	Nada	Poco	Bastante	Mucho
A la relación con tu familia (padres, hermanas/os...)	☐	☐	☐	☐
A la relación con tus amigas/os, compañeras/os...	☐	☐	☐	☐
A tus notas, rendimiento académico	☐	☐	☐	☐
A tus hábitos alimenticios (comes menos/más, a deshora...)	☐	☐	☐	☐
A tus hábitos de sueño (duermes menos/más, tienes pesadillas...)	☐	☐	☐	☐
A tu autoestima, a cómo te sientes contigo misma/o	☐	☐	☐	☐
A tus ganas de hacer cosas, tu estado de ánimo, tus ilusiones....	☐	☐	☐	☐
A tus ganas de ir al colegio/instituto, a actividades extraescolares...	☐	☐	☐	☐

Nos gustaría que nos dieses tu opinión acerca de los problemas de discriminación o acoso que una chica o chico de tu edad podría sufrir EN INTERNET, las redes sociales, foros o chats, por el hecho de...

	Menos problemas que los demás	Los mismos problemas	Más problemas que los demás	No lo sé
Tener algún tipo de discapacidad	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tener creencias religiosas diferentes a los demás	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ser de etnia gitana	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ser Lesbiana, Gay o Bisexual	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ser Transexual o Intersexual	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ser hiperactivo/a o tener TDAH	☐	☐	☐	☐
Por el color de su piel	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ser inmigrante o hijo/a de inmigrantes	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ser mujer	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sacar mejores notas que los demás	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tener problemas de sobrepeso u obesidad	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tener anorexia o bulimia	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tener pocos recursos económicos	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ser diferente	☐	☐	☐	☐

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Parte 7: Educación online

Durante el curso pasado o en lo que llevamos de éste....

¿Has tenido clases online?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Te ha resultado fácil seguirlas?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿En casa cuentas con los medios necesarios para seguirlas adecuadamente, entregar las tareas a tiempo, etc.? (conexión, datos suficientes, programas, ordenador...)	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Tus conocimientos informáticos te parecen suficientes para seguirlas?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Tienes o has tenido algún problema para hacer los exámenes online, entregar las tareas o trabajos?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Te has sentido en algún momento desbordada/o o sobrecargada/o de tareas?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Has tenido en algún momento la sensación de que no era seguro conectarte activando la cámara?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Te ha llegado a preocupar que los vídeos de clase en los que puedieras salir fuesen tratados de manera poco segura o que tu imagen se expusiese en la Red?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Te parece una buena forma de aprender?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ
¿Crees que realmente has aprendido lo necesario?	☐ NO	☐ SÍ

	Muy Mala	Mala	Regular	Buena	Muy Buena
¿Cómo valoras la experiencia de la EDUCACIÓN ONLINE?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

YA HEMOS TERMINADO

En general el cuestionario te ha parecido ...

	Nada	Poco	Bastante	Mucho
¿Largo?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Aburrido?	☐	☐	☐	☐

Y las preguntas te han parecido...

	Nada	Poco	Bastante	Mucho
¿Complicadas o difíciles de entender?	☐	☐	☐	☐
¿Incómodas o violentas?	☐	☐	☐	☐

GRACIAS POR TU COLABORACIÓN

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Annex 3. Procedure Manual

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MANUAL DE PROCEDIMIENTO

Estudio sobre el impacto de la tecnología en la adolescencia

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PRESENTACIÓN

La globalización de Internet y el avance experimentado en el campo tecnológico a lo largo de las dos últimas décadas, más allá de los **indudables beneficios** que ha reportado, está generando no pocas interferencias, especialmente en el caso de los más jóvenes, por lo que queda **pendiente una verdadera integración de la tecnología en la sociedad y en la vida de las personas**. Lejos de demonizar a la tecnología, conviene tener presente que no se trata de una moda o algo pasajero (tampoco exclusivo de los adolescentes), sino que evoluciona de forma vertiginosa, tiene un componente económico extraordinario y ha sabido conectar con las necesidades de los individuos, cambiando nuestra manera de vivir y llegando en ocasiones a convertirse en un problema. El uso de las **"pantallas"** posee importantes implicaciones en términos de salud, de ocio, de interacción social y de convivencia, afectando especialmente a la adolescencia a menudo sobreexpuesta en las redes sociales y marcada por la hegemonía de la imagen en la construcción de la identidad personal, teniendo efecto también sobre su salud mental.

Desde UNICEF somos conscientes de este nuevo panorama. Por ello hemos querido dar un paso adelante y planteamos el desarrollo de un **ESTUDIO SOBRE EL IMPACTO DE LA TECNOLOGÍA EN LA ADOLESCENCIA**, que nos proporcione una **visión comprensiva e inclusiva del problema, conociendo de primera mano las inquietudes y hábitos de ocio de las y los adolescentes españoles, especialmente en todo lo relacionado con el uso de Internet, las redes sociales, los videojuegos o el ciberacoso**. De la mano de la **Universidad de Santiago de Compostela y del Consejo General de Colegios de Ingeniería Informática y bajo la supervisión de un panel de expertos internacionales**, hemos diseñado una encuesta muy ambiciosa, con la que esperamos llegar a más de **100.000 adolescentes españoles**, y contar con un estudio pionero a nivel internacional.

Más allá de los elementos científico-técnicos que rodean este tipo de estudios, **contar con la colaboración activa y la implicación de toda la comunidad educativa en su desarrollo, especialmente en la recogida de datos, es sin lugar a dudas una de las claves del éxito.**

Por eso os pedimos que **leer con atención el contenido de este manual** y consultar a los coordinadores del estudio en caso de tener cualquier tipo de dificultad o duda.

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¿Qué es este Manual?

Se trata de un *Manual de Procedimiento* que debe servirnos a todas y a todos **de guía para la recogida de datos,** no sólo haciéndonos la tarea más sencilla, sino también ayudándonos a **estandarizar el procedimiento, unificar criterios, resolver posibles dudas y minimizar los posibles sesgos**.

¿A quién va dirigido este Manual?

Este Manual está dirigido a los **coordinadores del estudio en cada centro**. Su papel durante la recogida de datos es de una importancia capital, puesto que son las personas encargadas de organizar y supervisar la cumplimentación del cuestionario online por parte de sus alumnas/os, garantizando que se lleva a cabo con rigor y seriedad.

Objetivo

El objetivo de este manual es hacer **explicitas las instrucciones o pautas a seguir** para la recogida de datos. Su lectura detenida contribuirá a **estandarizar el procedimiento** y solventar de forma ágil las dificultades o dudas más comunes, proporcionando al alumnado participante siempre las mismas respuestas.

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PASOS A SEGUIR

Paso 1

ORGANIZACIÓN DE LA RECOGIDA DE DATOS: elaboración de un calendario

Cada centro debe **elaborar su propio calendario** de recogida de datos, **estableciendo los grupos de alumnos** que participan en el estudio, así como los **turnos** para la cumplimentación del cuestionario online. Se **sugiere preferentemente utilizar los propios grupos naturales o "clases" y las horas de tutoría**, si bien cada centro podrá organizarse de manera particular, en función de su actividad docente y sus condiciones logísticas.

Paso 2

PRUEBA INICIAL Y COPIA DEL ACCESO DIRECTO

Dos o tres días antes de iniciar la recogida de datos, el coordinador de cada centro deberá realizar una **prueba** de cumplimentación del cuestionario online, con la finalidad de familiarizarse con las diferentes preguntas y apartados, así como de comprobar que todo funcione correctamente. A continuación, deberá **copiar el archivo de Acceso Directo recibido por e-mail y copiarlo en el escritorio de cada equipo (PC o portátil)** ubicado en la sala donde se prevé cumplimentar la encuesta (aula informática, sala de ordenadores, biblioteca...), comprobando que el acceso directo funciona en todos ellos.

Paso 3

INFORMAR DE LA FECHA PREVISTA DE INICIO

Remitir un correo electrónico al coordinador del estudio (antonio.rial.boubeta@usc.es) informando del día en que se prevé iniciar la recogida de datos. **Rogamos envío ese mismo día un segundo correo de confirmación.**

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Paso 4

INSTRUCCIONES AL ALUMNADO

Una vez en el aula de informática (o similar) es necesario que **2-3 minutos antes de empezar** la cumplimentación del cuestionario se proporcione al alumnado una serie de instrucciones básicas.

1. **Finalidad del estudio**: *"Este cuestionario forma parte de un estudio que está realizando UNICEF para conocer de primera mano cuáles son las inquietudes y hábitos de ocio de las y los adolescentes españoles en todo lo que tiene que ver con el uso de Internet, las redes sociales y la tecnología en general"*
2. **Anonimato**: *"Vuestras respuestas se unirán, de manera totalmente anónima, a las de más de 100.000 jóvenes de toda España. En ningún momento se os pedirá vuestro nombre, ni datos personales que permitan identificaros"*
3. **No se trata de ningún examen**: *"No hay respuestas correctas ni incorrectas. Se pretende saber vuestra opinión, no es ningún examen"*.
4. **Carácter voluntario**: *"Vuestra colaboración es muy importante, pero en todo caso es voluntaria. Si por la razón que sea alguno de vosotros prefiere no participar, está en tu derecho. Puede volver al aula y continuar estudiando"*.
5. **Individual, sinceridad y seriedad**: *"El cuestionario debe cubrirse de forma individual, cada uno el suyo. Os pedimos sinceridad y seriedad. Si tenéis alguna duda, levantad la mano y preguntad"*.

Paso 5

AMBIENTE EN EL AULA

Durante la cumplimentación del cuestionario es **necesario garantizar silencio y orden**. El coordinador debe estar presente en el aula para resolver posibles dudas, aunque en un plano secundario. Es importante que los alumnos no se sientan observados ni juzgados en ningún momento, puesto que podría afectar a la sinceridad de sus respuestas.

Paso 6

TIEMPO DE CUMPLIMENTACIÓN

Si bien no hay un límite establecido, el tiempo de cumplimentación **aproximado es de 30 minutos**. No obstante, se debe tener en cuenta que factores como la edad o cualquier dificultad, puede provocar que este tiempo se vea aumentado. Por ello, es conveniente considerar un margen de 10 minutos, por lo que el tiempo de permanencia en el aula puede alcanzar los 45 minutos. Se recomienda que los alumnos permanezcan en sus puestos hasta que todos finalicen de cumplimentar el cuestionario.

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¿QUÉ DEBES SABER SOBRE LA PLATAFORMA?

¿CÓMO ENTRAR EN EL CUESTIONARIO?

El **acceso directo** facilitado a cada centro y **copiado en el escritorio de cada equipo permitirá entrar directamente en la encuesta**. El alumnado únicamente deberá hacer doble clic sobre éste y visualizará la ventana de presentación. No es necesario introducir ningún nombre de usuario ni contraseña, ni el alumnado, ni el coordinador.



TIPOS DE PREGUNTAS

Las preguntas que se incluyen en este cuestionario tienen diferente formato de respuesta. Por lo general, se trata de **preguntas de diferentes alternativas o categorías de respuesta (dicotómicas o politómicas)**, donde sólo es posible marcar o seleccionar una de ellas. En otras ocasiones se ha optado por **preguntas de respuesta o alternativa múltiple, en las que sí es posible marcar más de una opción**. Se han incluido también escalas de respuesta tipo Likert donde se pregunta por la frecuencia con la que se han visto en diferentes situaciones o el grado de acuerdo con diferentes afirmaciones. Por último, excepcionalmente **se incluyen también preguntas abiertas**, en las que el alumnado puede escribir directamente para expresar sus opiniones.

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Aunque se han intentado unificar en la medida los diferentes formatos de respuesta, en ocasiones no ha sido posible, dada la obligatoriedad de respetar el formato original de algunas escalas internacionales, ya que de lo contrario podría verse afectada su fiabilidad y validez.

Es importante instar al alumnado a leer con detenimiento los enunciados de cada apartado ya que el marco temporal puede diferir para cada bloque de preguntas. Ello es debido a los criterios técnicos de las propias escalas, las cuales establecen sus propias referencias temporales (los últimos "*dos últimos meses*", las *"últimas semanas"*, etc.).

Un último elemento que puede generar dudas en la cumplimentación del cuestionario es **que las opciones de respuesta pueden no ser siempre exhaustivas**. En esos casos, el/la adolescente **debe seleccionar la respuesta que más se aproxime a su situación u opinión personal**.

- **Preguntas de única respuesta o selección única.** Se puede seleccionar una única opción de respuesta.



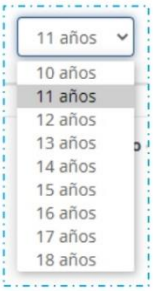


- **Preguntas de selección múltiple.** Se pueden seleccionar varias opciones de respuesta.



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- **Preguntas desplegables.** Se debe seleccionar una de las opciones de respuesta que se muestran en el menú desplegable.



- **Preguntas de respuesta abierta.** Se puede escribir la respuesta que considere oportuna.



¿CÓMO AVANZAR O RETROCEDER EN EL CUESTIONARIO?

El cuestionario está formado por un **máximo de 12 ventanas temáticas y cuenta con dos botones que sirven para avanzar a la ventana siguiente o retroceder a la anterior**. Estos están **localizados al principio y final de cada ventana** (con excepción de la primera y última). Cada vez que se pasa a la siguiente ventana las respuestas son guardadas de forma automática por el sistema, aunque **pueden ser modificadas retrocediendo** en cualquier momento.



PREGUNTAS OBLIGATORIAS

Cada apartado o bloque temático cuenta con una serie de preguntas que se deben responder de forma obligatoria (marcadas con un asterisco). De no responderlas, en el momento en que se pase a la siguiente ventana, el sistema lo advertirá con un mensaje y **le remitirá a la pregunta que ha dejado sin cumplimentar, marcándola en color rojo**.



¿CÓMO ENVIAR EL CUESTIONARIO?

Al final del cuestionario aparece el botón "Enviar". Si se han respondido a todas las preguntas obligatorias podrán hacer "clic" sobre dicho y el cuestionario será grabado en la base de datos y cerrado definitivamente.



¿ES POSIBLE SALIR Y COMENZAR DE NUEVO?

En la parte superior derecha de cada ventana puedes encontrar el botón "Salir y empezar de nuevo". En el caso de que alguien quiere volver a comenzar desde el principio, o simplemente no quiera continuar con el cuestionario puede clicar en este botón y salir.



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¿QUÉ DEBES SABER SOBRE EL CUESTIONARIO?

El cuestionario está formado por 10 bloques distribuidos en 12 ventanas.

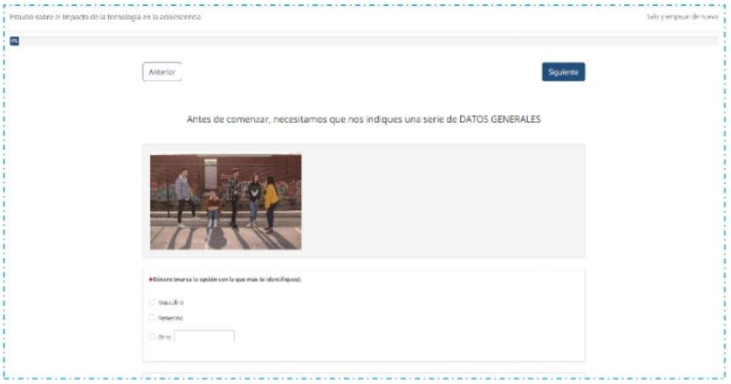
Bloque 1: Presentación (VENTANA 1)

En esta primera ventana se describe brevemente la finalidad del estudio y se informa de los derechos de la encuestada o encuestado (voluntariedad y anonimato). Asimismo, se **destaca la importancia de la participación de cada adolescente y se les ruega sinceridad y seriedad en sus respuestas**.



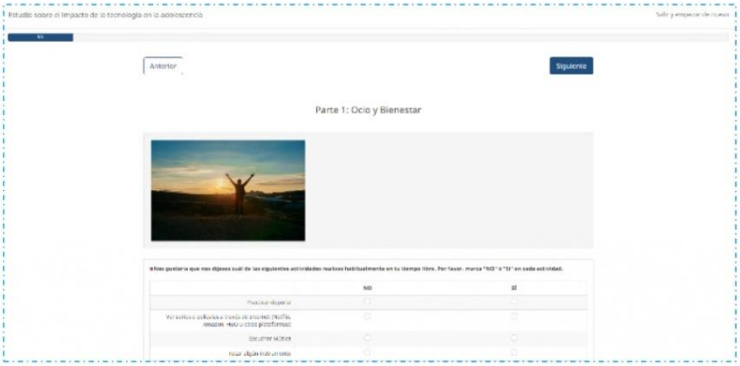
Boque 2: Datos sociodemográficos (VENTANA 2)

Se incluyen diferentes preguntas referidas a **características sociodemográficas, tales como Género, Edad, Curso Académico,** etc. También se incluyen preguntas sobre la unidad familiar que serán de utilidad para posteriores análisis.



Bloque 3: Ocio y Bienestar (VENTANA 3)

Incluye **preguntas sobre actividades de ocio, práctica deportiva, vinculación a asociaciones juveniless..., así como sobre bienestar personal e integración escolar**. Se ha incorporado la escala *Psychological Well-Being* (de Rees y Main), utilizada en el estudio *Children's views on their lives and well-being in 15 countries: A report on the Children's Worlds survey*, así como el *Patient Health Questionnnaire* [PHQ-9], recomendada por la *American Academy of Pediatrics*. Su función es evaluar el bienestar emocional del adolescente y ayudar al cribado de una posible depresión infanto-juvenil.



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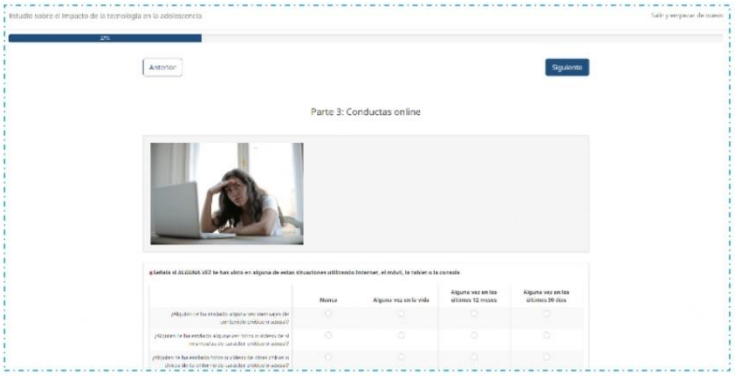
Bloque 4: Internet y redes sociales (VENTANA 4)

Este bloque incluye diferentes preguntas referidas a la **frecuencia y hábitos de uso de Internet y el *smartphone*,** así como de la redes sociales y aplicaciones de mensajería.



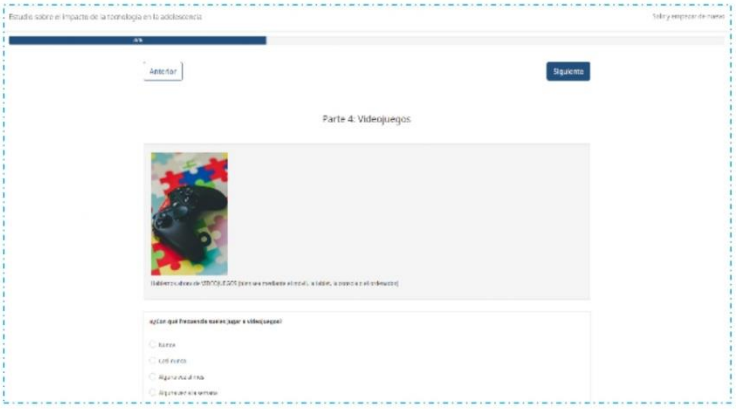
Bloque 5: Conductas de riesgo online y Uso Problemático de Internet (VENTANA 5)

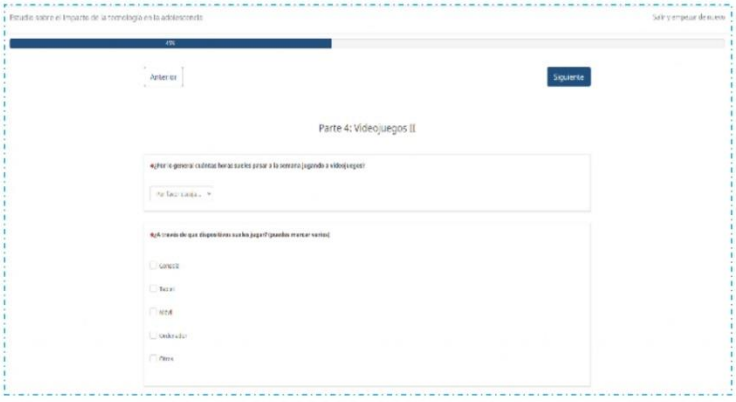
Lo conforman preguntas referidas a posibles **conductas de riesgo online**, tales como *sexting, sextorsión, contacto con desconocidos*… y se exploran diferentes emociones experimentadas en Internet. En este bloque se incluye también a Escala de Uso Problemático de Internet para adolescentes [EUPI-a], de Rial et al. (2015) utilizada en diversos estudios nacionales e internacionales y en pediatría de Atención Primaria. Por último, se incluye el *Cuestionario de* ***Control Parental del Uso de Internet durante la Adolescencia***, de Álvarez et al. (2019).



Bloque 6: Videojuegos (VENTANAS 6 y 7)

En este bloque se incluyen **preguntas sobre la frecuencia y hábitos de uso de videojuegos**, tipología, adecuación al PEGI, contacto con adultos a través de este canal, etc. Además, se incluye la *Game Addiction Scale for Adolescents* [GASA] de Lemmens et al. (2009), para detectar un posible uso problemático de videojuegos.

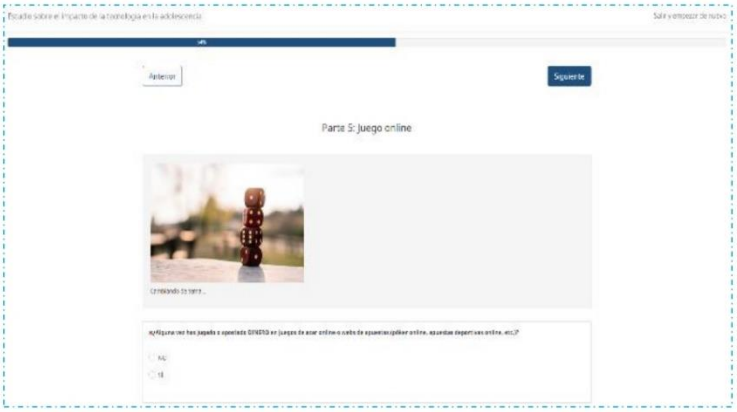


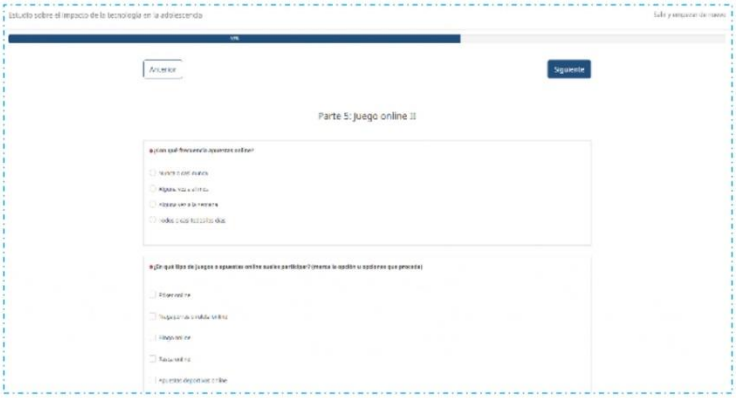


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Bloque 7: Juego Online (VENTANAS 8 y 9)

Pretende recoger la **frecuencia, tipología, medios y motivos por los que los adolescentes pueden llegar a invertir dinero en apuestas o juegos de azar online**. Se incluye también la *Brief Adolescent Gambling Screen* [BAGS] de Stinchfield et al. (2017). Se trata de una escala breve y sencilla, con unas propiedades psicométricas muy satisfactorias, y que permite detectar la posible existencia de Juego Problemático en adolescentes.





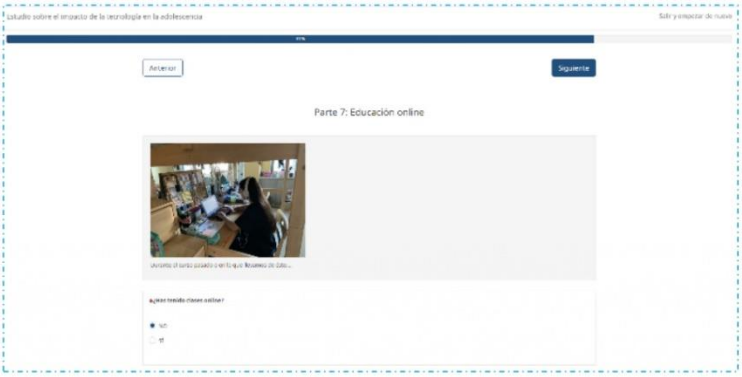
Bloque 8: Acoso y Ciberacoso (VENTANA 10)

Recoge todas aquellas **preguntas relacionadas con el acoso escolar (*bullying*) y ciberacoso (*cyberbullying*)**. Se incluyen dos instrumentos validados a nivel internacional, como son el *European Ciberbullying Intervention Project Questionnaire* [ECIP-Q] y el *European Bullying Intervention Project Questionnaire* [EBIP-Q], desarrollados por Del Rey et al. (2015). El primero se emplea para identificar conductas de ciberacoso realizadas en los dos últimos meses, mientras que el segunda detecta conductas de acoso "cara a cara" en el mismo periodo temporal. Ambas identifican tres posibles perfiles: víctimas, agresores y víctimas-agresoras. Finalmente, se añaden preguntas relacionadas con las consecuencias de haber sufrido *bullying* o *cyberbullying* y los problemas de discriminación percibidos por los adolescentes en su entorno.



Bloque 9: Educación online (VENTANA 11)

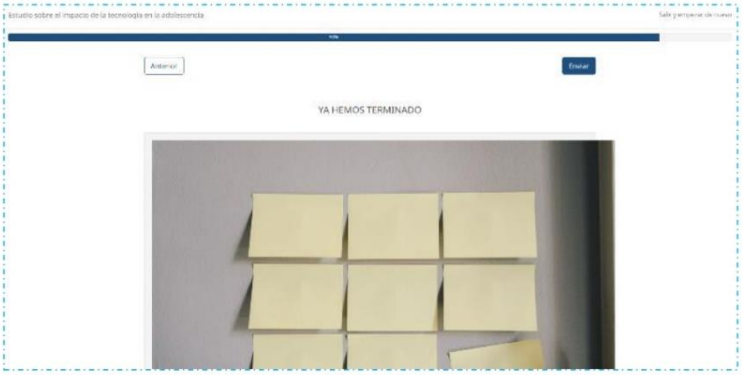
En este bloque se pretende conocer **cómo está siendo valorada por las y los adolescentes la docencia *online***, instaurada fruto de la COVID-19.



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Bloque 10: Valoración de la encuesta (VENTANA 12)

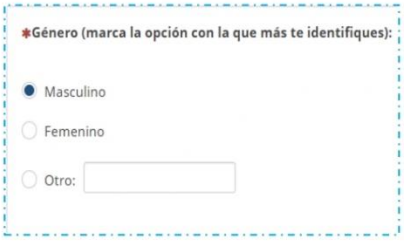
En este último apartado se recogen **preguntas relacionadas con el propio cuestionario *online***, tales como su longitud o la complejidad de las preguntas.

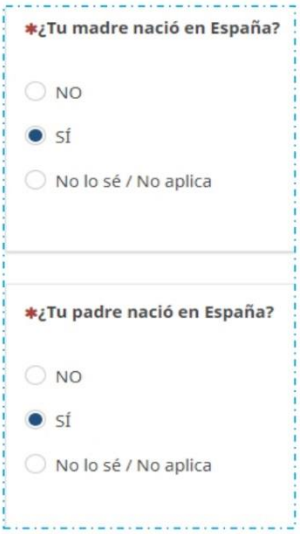


¿Qué preguntas pueden generar dudas?

¿A qué nos referimos con Género?

Es probable que se confunda el género con el sexo. El género se refiere a las ideas, normas y comportamientos que la sociedad ha establecido para cada sexo y el valor y significado que se les asigna, no simplemente una característica biológica. **Lo importante, en este caso, es que manifiesten cómo se ven a sí mismos**, más allá de que biológicamente su sexo sea el de un hombre o una mujer. En la opción "Otro" puede ser habitual encontrar términos válidos como "transgénero", "género binario", "género fluido", etc. Debemos dejar plena libertad para que cada uno/a responda lo que estime oportuno.

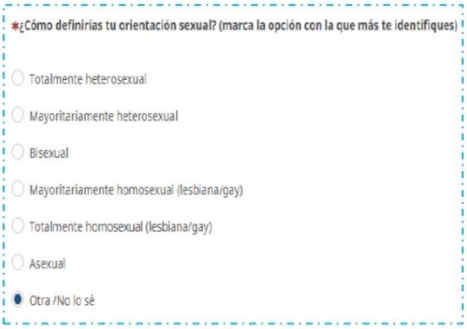




En relación con las preguntas referidas a madres/padres…

La etiqueta madre/padre se refiere al CONCEPTO SOCIAL y no biológico. Ante adolescentes adoptados o en el caso de que el papel de madre/padre lo ejerza otra persona (por ejemplo, tutora o tutor legal), debe responder refiriéndose esta.

En el caso de que no conozcan a su madre o padre por razones diversas, debe indicar la opción "*No lo sé/no aplica*".
En el caso de familias con dos padres o dos madres, se puede indicar indistintamente una/o de ellas/os arriba y otra/o debajo.



Orientación sexual

Pregunta controvertida que según los expertos es importante incorporar en los estudios con adolescentes. Las definiciones de partida son:

Heterosexual: personas que se sienten atraídas por otras del sexo contrario al suyo.

Bisexual: personas que se sienten atraídas tanto por otras del mismo sexo, como del sexo distinto al suyo.

Homosexual: personas que se sienten atraídas sexualmente por otras del mismo sexo.

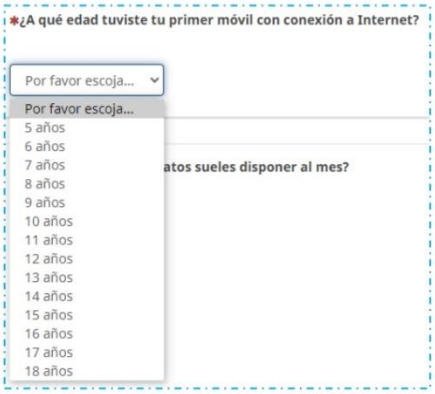
Asexual: personas que no se sienten atraídas sexualmente por otras personas.

Debemos dejar libertad para que cada uno/a responda lo que estime oportuno. En el caso de no sentirse identificados con alguna de estas opciones, deben elegir la opción "Otra/No lo sé".

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Edad primer teléfono móvil

En el caso de no saber con exactitud qué años tenía cuando dispuso del primer móvil con acceso a internet, deben contestar de la forma más aproximada posible.



La Dark Web

Se considera como *Dark Web* o *Deep Web* las redes de Internet que se superponen a la Internet pública, no indexadas en los buscadores tradicionales. Para acceder es necesario el uso de software específico y configuraciones o autorizaciones de administrador. Suelen utilizarse para fines ilícitos. Algunos ejemplos de los buscadores más habituales son los propios TOR y DuckDuckGo, así como Onion, I2P, not Evil, Torch...



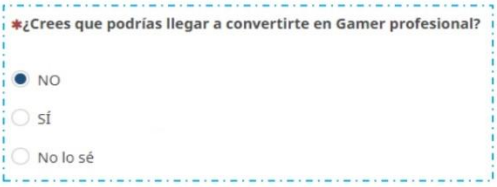


Gasto mensual en videojuegos

Esta pregunta se refiere a **cualquier tipo de gasto mensual en videojuegos**, incluye el precio del propio videojuego, pero también los micropagos para conseguir recompensas, contenido exclusivo, armas, *skins*, objetos o personajes

***Gamer* profesional**

Hace referencia a un jugador experto, capaz de ganar dinero de forma regular jugando a videojuegos llegando incluso a vivir de ello.



Jugo online y apuestas con dinero

La pregunta alude a apuestas con dinero REAL, no ficticio. Las monedas propias de juegos de azar que no tienen valor monetario no se tendrían en cuentan.



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PREGUNTAS FRECUENTES (FAQS)

¿Qué hacer mientras cumplimentan el cuestionario?
La función del coordinador o coordinadora es la de **supervisar o controlar que la cumplimentación se esté llevando a cabo con seriedad y resolver las posibles dudas**. No se deben observar las respuestas del alumnado. Es recomendable mantenerse "accesible", pero en un segundo plano. **El cuestionario es totalmente anonimato, por lo que es importante que no se sientan en ningún momento observados/as**.

¿Cómo responder a las posibles dudas?
Así como no hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas, tampoco hay preguntas más válidas que otras. Lo que para nosotros/as puede ser una obviedad, tal vez no lo sea para un adolescente. Debemos **mostrar en todo momento una actitud comprensiva** e intentar responder las posibles dudas de la manera más discreta posible.

¿Qué hacer si alguien tarda más tiempo de lo habitual en cubrir el cuestionario?
Siempre que sea posible, debemos permitir que finalice el cuestionario dejándole un tiempo extra. **Si no es posible, hacer clic en el botón "Salir y empezar de nuevo". De ese modo el sistema guardará toda la información registrada hasta ese momento**.

¿Qué hacer si alguien se niega a continuar con el cuestionario una vez iniciado?
Los adolescentes están en su derecho de negarse en cualquier momento a cumplimentar el cuestionario. Por lo tanto, pueden salir cerrando el navegador. De esta forma el sistema no registrará sus respuestas.

¿Qué hacer si alguien muestra una conducta inadecuada?
Se entiende como conducta inadecuada, por ejemplo, hablar continuamente entre ellos, observar las pantallas de sus compañeras o compañeros, comentar continuamente sus respuestas en voz alta o hacer preguntas fuera de contexto. En estos casos, se intentará hacerles entender que sus compañeros tienen derecho a cubrir el cuestionario en silencio y de forma anónima. Si la conducta se mantiene se les pedirá que cierren el navegador y se desechará su información.

¿Qué hacer si tengo algún problema técnico o una duda que no sé cómo resolver?
Si por cualquier razón la plataforma se bloquea, se puede intentar salir y comenzar de nuevo, o bien probar en otro equipo. Si el problema persiste, tienes algún tipo de problema técnico o alguna duda que no sepas bien cómo resolver, puedes ponerte en contacto con la dirección técnica del estudio.

Contacto/Consultas

Antonio Rial Boubeta: antonio.rial.boubeta@usc.es / adolescentesTRIC@ccii.es (647344428)

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This dissertation has been carried out in the framework of a research team with a line of work started more than a decade ago and aimed to analyse and understand the use that adolescents are making of Information and Communication Technologies [ICTs]. The integration of the gender perspective as an analytical approach should contribute to a greater understanding of how females and males relate to the ICTs, which results in many cases in a maladaptive use, may it be through a Problematic Internet Use itself or the occurrence of a range of online risky behaviours. To achieve the objectives of this thesis, a sample of 41,137 students was collected in collaboration with UNICEF Spain. The results obtained will favour the development of evidence-based prevention measures taking into account the specific needs of females.