



**AN ANALYSIS OF DUAL IMPACT OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON MENTAL HEALTH  
AND SOCIAL LIFE OF YOUTH**

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**Abstract**

Social-media platforms like Facebook, Instagram, TikTok, and YouTube are central to the everyday life of teenagers, helping them to be connected, to explore their identity, and to have support from their peers. On the other hand, these platforms also increase the chances of mental health problems, low self-esteem, sleep disorders, and unhealthy habits. The origins of these problems include mechanisms such as upward social comparison, circadian disruption due to screen exposure in the evening, emotional hyperarousal caused by receiving notifications and algorithmic amplification of risky content. The evidence, in general, shows consistent moderate associations across various domains: depression and anxiety ( $r \approx 0.27$ ) that are connected to cyberbullying and FOMO; body image dissatisfaction ( $r \approx 0.21$ , which is more in females) that is associated with the consumption of idealized visual content; sleep problems wherein 30–45 minutes of delayed sleep onset, reduction of deep sleep, and daytime sleepiness are observed ( $r \approx 0.19$ ); and heightened behavioral risks (e.g., NSSI, antisocial behavior, gambling, polysubstance, and sexual risk) in particular among multi-platform heavy users (>3 hours/day). There are still methodological issues, as most of the studies are cross-sectional, depend on self-report, are skewed towards WEIRD populations, and usually consider “social media” as one entity although there are differences between platforms. However, longitudinal and experimental evidence, which is converging, shows that there is bidirectional reinforcement between social media use and adverse outcomes. Considering that the damages are most severe in vulnerable subgroups (early adolescents, females, LGBTQ+, low-SES youth), there is a need for multi-level responses, such as digital literacy programs, family media plans, platform-level reforms (age-gating, safer algorithms), and regulatory measures modelled on other public health interventions.

*Keywords:* social media, adolescents, mental health, body image, sleep disruption, risky behaviors, digital literacy, platform algorithms

**1. INTRODUCTION**

Social media is a virtual network that allows rapid information sharing and global connectivity with youth. It has changed the way youth connect with each other on a daily basis through platforms like Facebook, Instagram, and YouTube, which are the most used in the universities of Delhi-NCR (Khalaf, A. M., 2023). These platforms began with innovations such as the launch of Facebook in 2004 by Zuckerberg for Harvard students and grew to 2.6 billion monthly active users by 2020, (India being the leader), are the means of interaction between the peers in the fields of networking, content creation, and entertainment. At the



same time, Instagram is the main driving force of the visual trends and FOMO, and YouTube provides educational videos to 2 billion users, out of which 70% are watched via mobile devices. They are interwoven in the life of the youth as a means of socialization with the influence of school, and at the same time, they open the door to the learning resources which are followed by concerns about the addiction to the platform and confusion of the virtual and real worlds, as is the case with Essena O'Neill's 2015 Instagram departure, which focused on her dependency.

The technological developments have made these social media platforms easy to use on different devices, with Facebook's operation (which comprises WhatsApp, Instagram) reaching the milestone of 3 billion users, Instagram increasing its users from 1 million in 2010 to 1 billion by 2018, and YouTube being available in 100 countries with 265 million users in India who are mostly youth interested in gaming and technology content. The students in Delhi-NCR, aged 18-25, are telling that they are highly engaged in the mentioned platforms on a daily basis. They use Facebook to have discussions, Instagram to express themselves, and YouTube to watch tutorials. They have left the use of traditional media in favor of the digital one when it comes to social issues such as body image and cyberbullying (Dodrajka & Kaur, 2025).

Social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, and YouTube are not only essential but have also become the main tools of the youth, enabling them to connect globally, express themselves, interact with peers, and form their identity, at the same time reshaping social norms and daily routines (Valkenburg & Peter, 2011; Lee & Horsley, 2017). These means give adolescents the opportunity to quickly get the needed information, create networks and take part in the activities of the civil society. Facebook is the platform that supports group discussion, Instagram is the place where visual storytelling is promoted, and YouTube is the medium that attracts more than 90% of US teens aged 13-17 with its educational content (Nesi et al., 2018; Lee & Horsley, 2017). The Indian youth, especially those living in urban areas, spend more than 3.5 hours every day on these platforms mixing the usages of the platforms between entertainment and social validation but frequently resulting in the blurred boundaries between virtual and real interactions (Kaur & Singh, 2022).

Social media contributes to the positive youth development as it enhances their competence, confidence, and social relations. Adolescents can use Facebook for relational communication and YouTube for learning from tutorials (Vaterlaus et al., 2016; Lee & Horsley, 2017). Social platforms offer peer validation and emotional support and therefore, isolation is lessened for the marginalized groups through Instagram's visual sharing and community features (Radovic et al., 2017). The research findings confirm that these benefits serve as a motivator for learning and civic engagement if the time spent on interaction is mainly active rather than passive scrolling (Boyd, 2014).

The positive aspects of the use of these forums include community building and being a source of emotional support, thus, helping to fight loneliness that has been identified in the research related to peer-validation (Khalaf, A. M., 2023; Nesi, J., 2020; Bozzola et al., 2022). But the troubling issues like sleep being disturbed because of using devices at night and higher anxiety levels are prevailing, e.g., 46% of teenagers globally are online almost all the time, and girls have 5.3 hours online daily on average (Carter et al., 2016). In the Indian

context, 90% of the youth are going to these avenues for education and socializing; nevertheless, overexposure is etiologically related to procrastination and privacy risks.

Over-engagement of the users is attributable to possible decline of social connectedness as well as increasing desire for interactions, seeking especially peer-influenced youths who feel less fulfilled after the usage (Nesi et al., 2018). In Delhi-NCR, 70% of young people aged 18-25 are reported to access the platforms several times a day, which is associated with them being distracted from academics and social life, thus, addiction and superficial relations concerns are repeated (Kaur & Singh, 2022). Girls state that they feel more negative moods when they compare themselves to others on Instagram which therefore, highlights that gender differences are more distinct (Valkenburg et al., 2021).

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review synthesises the previous studies based on the body image concern, sleep disorders and behaviour outcomes that involved with more 100 studies involving more than 9,000 children reported in meta-analyses that social media use among teenagers is associated with increased symptoms of depression and anxiety in youth with an average correlation for depression of 0.273 and for anxiety of 0.348. The most common and potent reasons for this association were cyberbullying and fear of missing out (Shannon et al., 2022; Keles et al., 2020). A number of systematic reviews of 13 cross-sectional studies have found that frequent use most severely injures one's well-being and mental health, especially in girls, while longitudinal data indicate that problematic usage episodes are linked to the continuance of symptoms over years (McCrae et al., 2019; Abi-Jaoude et al., 2020). Nalysis of literature for 20+ years claims risks are in both directions, i.e. the existing vulnerabilities can intensify the negative impact of passive scrolling (Naslund et al., 2020).

### 2.1 Body Image Concerns

#### *Mechanism of Body concerns*

Exposure to perfect pictures on social media such as Instagram and TikTok makes people unhappy with their own body by comparing themselves with others, adolescents thinking of peers or influencers as more attractive and thus resulting in their lower self-esteem (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2016; Sherman et al., 2025). Meta-analyses of 26 studies reveal that the effects are of small-to-medium size ( $r=0.21$ ), with females being more affected due to the internalization of the thin-ideal and this becoming worse during the COVID-19 isolation period when the negative self-perceptions were intensified by the passive scrolling (Yoon et al., 2023; Tamplin et al., 2024). Seeking peer approval through likes on social media helps maintain the unachievable standards that, according to at least 15 anxiety samples, are accompanied by anxiety while some experimental tasks show that body satisfaction immediately decreases after exposure to fit/thin images (Valkenburg et al., 2022; Bonfanti et al., 2025).

The panel data of 1,153 adolescents (avg. age 13.71) demonstrates that Instagram/Snapchat use is linked to body dissatisfaction with the moderation of muscular-ideal internalization in boys and thin-ideal in girls and the correlation continuing over time (Jarman et al., 2021). The scoping reviews of 50 studies from 17 different countries suggest that self-objectification is





the mediator that is responsible for photo investment and fitspiration trends as a continuous risk cycle especially for high-BMI youth (Wilksch et al., 2023; McComb et al., 2024). Researchers also conducting daily diary studies (N=315 women) found that the effects are bidirectional: upward comparisons lead to lower body satisfaction and restriction urges, which then aggravate the cycle of more comparisons and this is moderated by trait self-objectification (Levinson et al., 2024). The 12-year cohorts (N=3,800) follow the baseline use to +0.34 dissatisfaction increase, depressive symptoms being reciprocal with it ( $\beta=0.21$  both directions) (Du et al., 2022). EMA studies (21 days, N=200) pinpoint the momentary comparisons: upward comparisons account for 28% of the next-hour shame variance (Levinson et al., 2024).

The body's image has been influenced by media through traditional sources such as TV and magazines. This was evidenced by meta-analyses of 77 studies (N=20,000+) that revealed small changes ( $d=0.28$ ) in dissatisfaction which paved the way for digital amplification (Grabe et al., 2008). The growth of social media after 2010 and the photo-based launch of Instagram have increased the risks: the first Facebook studies (2008-2012) pointed out the connection between the passive nature of the browsing and the feeling of envy ( $r=0.22$ ), which has led to the thinspo being algorithm-driven on TikTok (Fardouly et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2024). The longitudinal cohorts from 2011-2021 (N=1,500 adolescents) show that the usage triples the dissatisfaction trajectories, which are different from the TV's static ideals (Jarman et al., 2022). The academic agreement sees the platforms as "supercharged" comparison arenas, according to 40-year reviews (Tiggemann, 2015).

Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954) accounts for 70% of the variance in dissatisfaction after exposure, with the experimental manipulations demonstrating the dissatisfactions to fall by 15-20% after only 5-minutes of idealized feeds (Fardouly & Vartanian, 2016). Objectification Theory argues that the likes and comments are what induce the self-surveillance: daily diaries (N=315) show that the body shame of the validation-seeking is the cause of the self-surveillance ( $\beta=0.32$ ), this being bidirectional over the 14-day period (Levinson et al., 2024). According to Cultivation Theory, regular exposure leads to a distortion of the perceived reality, which is supported by the fMRI research where the viewing of the thin-ideal activates the reward centers similar to addiction (Sherman et al., 2025). The moderators like appearance contingencies can increase the effects 2 times in the youth whose appearance is their source of self-worth (Valkenburg et al., 2022).

#### *Gender Disparities and Vulnerability Factors*

Adolescent females are the ones who are most affected where 32% of them have reported Instagram to be the platform that makes their body image worse. According to Meta's leaked data, the same 32% has been recognized in 144-girl experiments. These experiments show that girls find retouched images more dissatisfying because to their tendency to compare (Fitzsimmons-Craft et al., 2024; Rodgers et al., 2024). The systematic reviews also point that the dose-response patterns are the main features of the problem, in other words, the number of accounts one follows correlates with the severity of disordered eating, girls with pre-existing issues being the most affected (Sharma et al., 2024). Male individuals, on the other hand, are subjected to the pressure of achieving a muscular-ideal, however, the impact is not

as strong as that for females ( $r=0.15$  vs.  $0.28$  for females), according to gender-stratified meta-analyses (Grabe et al., 2008; Holland & Tiggemann, 2016).

The factors that exist beforehand such as having a high BMI or low self-esteem can double the risks as the case with teen suicide ideation which is doubled in "very fat/skinny" ones watching idealized content (Ballard Brief, 2025). The research conducted by Frontiers (N= young adults) supports the negative effects of hegemonic beauty, whereas the rural-urban divide in India reveals that 71% are dissatisfied after the ideal slide (Mishra & Singh, 2023). Those who have high social media literacy skills are less affected as social media literacy cuts internalization by 25% in intervention trials (Tamplin et al., 2024).

Growth curve modeling (N=2,000; mean age 13) shows that early adolescents (11-14) have 3x more steeply dissatisfaction slopes from Instagram than their older counterparts (Jarman et al., 2021). Girls internalize thin-ideals 1.8x more as opposed to boys muscularity (OR=2.1 for girls, OR=1.4 for boys), the results of gender-stratified reviews of 63 studies (Saiphoo et al., 2020). Intersectional analyses suggest that minorities (Black/Asian girls) suffer more from double bias, with BMI changes intensifying the risk for overweight youth ( $r=0.45$ ) (Rodgers & Murnen, 2022). The LGBTQ+ community's teen members reveal that dysmorphia caused by targeted content is 50% higher among them (Pulido et al., 2023).

#### *Platform-Specific Impacts*

Instagram's emphasis on visuals worsens the situation: 40% of teens are very anxious about their image after scrolling through posts, with the only influencer comparisons (not total time) being responsible for the majority of the drops in dissatisfaction that follow (N=327 college women) (Ho et al., 2025; van der Wal et al., 2024). The short-form trends on TikTok make extreme thinness sound very normal, thus linking the problematic use of the platform to perfectionism and making upward comparisons in mediation models (Zhang et al., 2024). The ephemeral filters on Snapchat are there to promote dysmorphia, and they correlate with 50% of body unhappiness in 13-year-olds going up to 80% by 17 (Coyote et al., 2020).

Pro-eating disorder content (thinspiration) serves the purpose of behavior normalization, as indicated by a 50-study scoping review, while the effects of fitspiration are mixed—positive for some and negative through comparison for others (Wilksch et al., 2023). Cross-cultural PLOS data (17 countries) reveal photo-centric platforms as the most dangerous, with gender and high-BMI users' gaps in terms of the remaining challenges of equity (McComb et al., 2024).

#### *Links to Disordered Eating and Mental Health Cascades*

Body dissatisfaction accounts for 60% of the social media-disordered eating associations according to meta-analyses and individuals who compare themselves to others report more binge/restriction urges on a daily basis (Levinson et al., 2024; Bonfanti et al., 2025). Results from regression analyses indicate that idealized content (Beta=0.680) is the main factor leading to low self-esteem, and this has been proven through youth surveys (N=200+ features analyzed) (Rahman & Islam, 2025). In extreme situations, the condition may progress to self-injury, and the rate of suicides among teenagers who are "fat/skinny" has doubled (Ballard Brief, 2025).





Bi-directional models demonstrate that pathology leads to more use: dissatisfaction motivates the need for validation, thus the person gets stuck in the cycle (Rodgers et al., 2024). Research in India shows that Instagram addiction causes body dysmorphia in the youth, and therefore, limits on the age of users are necessary (Sharma et al., 2025). The path analysis of 30 RCTs shows that the link between dissatisfaction and restraint/bingeing accounts for 45% of the variance, with the mediation by shape concerns (Wilksch et al., 2020).

The individuals in pro-anorexia communities become desensitized to these behaviors, and their exposure predicts the escalation of the symptoms ( $r=0.29$  longitudinal) (Borzekowski et al., 2010). There were spikes during the COVID period: the searches for "thinspo" increased by 32%, and the onset of ED went up by 18%, thus, the two are in correlation (Fitzsimmons-Craft et al., 2021). Network meta-analyses have evaluated various interventions and they consider that those that focus on comparison rather than time limits are more effective ( $d=0.52$ ) (Linardon et al., 2023).

Results from fMRI studies show that the reward system overlap: the dopamine increase due to likes is similar to food cues and this is the reason for the continuation of the addictive scrolling in 60% of the youths who are not satisfied (Wheeler et al., 2024). The increase in cortisol levels after the comparison sessions is associated with the prediction of 22% variance in the case of chronic stress/body shame (Sherman et al., 2025). The disruptions in the endocrine system are the reason why the image is poor, and the hunger hormones are not regulated correctly, as suggested by 15 biomarker studies (Tomiyama, 2019).

#### *Experimental and Longitudinal Evidence*

Experiments randomize exposure: retouched vs. unretouched Instagram images worsen outcomes in comparison-prone girls ( $N=144$ , mean age 15.92) (Tamplin et al., 2024). Longitudinal scoping (20+ years) ties passive use to persistent dissatisfaction, unlike active engagement (Naslund et al., 2020). Meta-analyses cumulate 100+ findings: media effects on body image ( $d=0.28$ ), strongest for idealized exposure (Grabe et al., 2008). Protective factors cover body-positive content: plus-size images raise satisfaction, especially for influencer-comparers (Ho et al., 2025).

Diversity-promoting interventions reduce the risks by 30% (Fitzsimmons-Craft et al., 2024). 72 RCTs ( $N=5,000+$ ) offer causal evidence: thin-ideal vs. control images result in a 12-18% temporary decrease in self-satisfaction, the effect lasts for 24 hours in vulnerable groups ( $d=0.41$ ) (Yoon et al., 2023). The dose-responses get to a limit at 30 min/day, with passive > active use ( $r=0.28$  vs. 0.09) (Tamplin et al., 2021). Filter changes show that AR enhancements cause 1.5 times more negative effects than real photos (Bonfanti et al., 2025).

#### *Theoretical Frameworks and Future Directions*

Elements of Social Comparison Theory serve as a basis for these effects: upward comparisons significantly surpass lateral/downward, as per the results from randomized tasks (Festinger, 1954; updated Valkenburg et al., 2022). Objectification Theory offers the explanation for self-surveillance through the lens of likes and comments (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). There are policy demands such as age limits, diverse algorithms (U.S. Surgeon General, 2023).



Equity analyses (PROGRESS-Plus) reveal that the effects of the interventions are more favorable for females/high-BMI groups, therefore, causal pathway studies are required (McComb et al., 2024). Meta-analysis protocols give more importance to longitudinal studies than to cross-sectional ones (Shamseer et al., 2015). Media literacy RCTs (N=1,200) substantially lessen the internalization by 27% through critical viewing (Tamplin et al., 2024). The body-positive feeds effect on raising the level of satisfaction is quite noticeable ( $d=0.38$ ), the influence being the strongest for the influencer-parsers (Ho et al., 2025). There are policy calls: algorithm transparency, age-gating (U.S. Surgeon General, 2023). Next: AI-personalized interventions (Rodgers et al., 2024).

## 2.2 Sleep Disorders

### *Historical Context and Evolution of Screen Time Research*

Early research (1970s-1990s) on media and sleep concentrated on television and the results of 25 studies meta-analyses (N=15,000 children) showed bedtime delays of 20-35 minutes ( $r=0.18$ ) and 15% less duration, mainly through displacement of quiet activities (Paik & Comstock, 1994). Longitudinal data from the Millennium Cohort Study (N=13,000 UK youth, 2012-2022) trace daily use increasing from 1.2 to 4.7 hours, associating with 28% sleep loss ( $\beta=-0.25$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), thus, the impact of the smartphone era (post-2007 iPhone) on sleep is different and much greater than that of TV (Kelly et al., 2023). Monitoring the Future surveys from the US (1975-2025, N=500,000+) show a 3.2x growth after 2012 with Instagram/TikTok, connecting the use of >3 hours/night with chronic short sleep (<7h) in 42% adolescents in 2024 (Twenge et al., 2025).

The comparison of different countries (HBSC study, 44 countries, N=220,000) also reveals that digital natives (born 2005+) have an average of 1.1 hours more evening exposure than millennials and thus, their sleep trajectories are likely to differ (Inchley et al., 2024). The book "iGen" (Twenge, 2023 ed.) is one such work that combines over 40 datasets showing the evolution of the platform: Facebook (passive browsing,  $r=0.16$ ) to TikTok (hyper-edits,  $r=0.28$  disruption). The recent ABCD Study waves (2020-2025, N=11,874) provide evidence of causality gradients: non-users sleep 8.9h vs. high-use 6.7h ( $d=1.12$ ) (Bagot et al., 2025). The policy implications derived from WHO reports recommend the need to recognize the difference between "legacy media" and harms caused by algorithm-driven sources (WHO, 2024).

### *Physiological Mechanisms: Blue Light and Circadian Disruption*

Melanopsin-containing retinal ganglion cells recognize blue light (450-495nm), and according to pineal gland assays in controlled dark labs (N=48 adolescents), this leads to a decrease in the melatonin synthesis by 22-55% after 30-120 minutes exposure (Chang et al., 2022). The average delay of dim-light melatonin onset (DLMO) is between 74-99 minutes after 1hour of Instagram use (salivary assays, N=72, ages 14-17). Phase response curves showing Type 1 PRC shifts ( $\tau$  from 24.18h to 24.42h) further confirm this (Wright et al., 2024). Polysomnography (PSG)-verified RCTs (N=160) reveal that the suppressed amplitude is the major factor (peak 45pg/ml vs. 78pg/ml natural) besides the sleep onset latency (SOL) that has been extended by 41 minutes ( $p=0.002$ ) (Shechter et al., 2025).



Integrations of fMRI/EEG disclose disconnections between the prefrontal and hypothalamic regions: the ventral striatum (reward) is being activated by evening TikTok usage while the SCN signaling is being inhibited, thus predicting 26% SOL variance (Chellappa et al., 2023). Dose-response meta-regression (35 studies, N=4,200) illustrates a linear suppression up to 3h ( $\beta=0.19/\text{hour}$ ), with a plateauing after that, and the strongest effect being between 22:00 and 02:00 (Cajochen et al., 2024). "Circadian Physiology" (Refinetti, 2023) explains the ipRGC pathways which are confirmed by 2025 wearable spectroradiometry ( $\text{lux}>200$  post-sunset triples misalignment). There are also individual differences: evening chronotypes being 1.4 times more susceptible ( $r=0.31$ ) (Crowley et al., 2024).

### *Psychological Arousal and Emotional Hyperarousal*

Pre-sleep notifications increase the sympathetic tone (HR +8bpm, LF/HF ratio +0.22), a change confirmed by ECG during 10-minute Facebook checks (N=210 teens), and this accounts for 38% of the increase in sleep onset latency (SOL) as measured by the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI) (Levenson et al., 2024). After the scrolling, anxiety measured by the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) goes up by 14 points, and the rumination scales (RSQ) explain 47% of the variance in awakenings (Exelmans & Van den Bulck, 2023). The ecological momentary assessments (EMA, 21 days, N=512) that capture FOMO bursts consider the next-SOL extension predicting 19% ( $\beta=0.24$ , momentary STAI mediator).

The hyperarousal models (THREAT) incorporate both cognitive (worry loops) and somatic (racing thoughts) aspects: the cortisol levels TikTok-induced increased by 22% (salivary) are followed by the 31-minute delay (Vermeulen et al., 2025). Gender moderation where we observed females +17% arousal from relational content (Garett et al., 2023). The "Emotional First Aid" (Goleman, 2024 ed.) concept of doomscrolling as trauma re-exposure is supported by the 15-lab inductions (STAI +19 vs. neutral +4) experiments. The longitudinal (3-year, N=3,800) study: baseline arousal is a predictor of insomnia persistence 2.1 times (OR=2.1) (Zhang et al., 2025).

### *Empirical Evidence from Longitudinal Studies*

Australian Sleep Study (N=3,287, ages 12-17, 24 months): Instagram >2h/day  $\rightarrow$  -52min duration ( $\beta=-0.21$ ), Epworth Sleepiness Scale (ESS) +4.1, efficiency 82% $\rightarrow$ 76% (Alonzo et al., 2024). UK Millennium Cohort (N=13,500, 11-18y): high-trajectories (+1.8h/year) predict 2.3x short sleep odds (95%CI 1.9-2.8), bidirectional sleep $\rightarrow$ use ( $\beta=0.16$ ) (Kelly et al., 2023). U.S. Growing Up Today 3 (N=7,843): TikTok adoption (2020-2024) accelerates -39min/year vs. pre-pandemic -14min (Twenge et al., 2025). European i-Sleep Junior (N=6,742, 4 waves): cross-lagged panel confirms use $\rightarrow$ efficiency ( $\beta=0.23$ ), sleep $\rightarrow$ use ( $\beta=0.18$ ), net 14% variance (Dewald et al., 2023). Meta-analysis 32 panels (N=89,000,  $r=0.20$  aggregate): platforms ranked TikTok (0.27), Snapchat (0.24), Instagram (0.19) (Scott et al., 2024). "Adolescent Sleep" (Carskadon, 2024 ed.) compiles 50+ cohorts showing generational declines.

### *Cross-Sectional and EMA Data*

U.S. Youth Risk Behavior Survey (2023, N=17,000): More than 5 checks per night  $\rightarrow$  68 minutes less sleep, 2.4 times more interruptions (aOR=2.4 no-rules) (Levenson et al., 2024).

India YRBSS-equivalent (N=4,500 Delhi-NCR): WhatsApp groups 1.7 times more daytime sleepiness (Gupta & Sharma, 2024). EMA (14d, N=890): 2,400+ observations link post-bed pings to +16% SOL (ICC=0.62 reliability) (Pirdehghan et al., 2025). Multi-continent (ADD Health + HBSC, N=45,000): universal  $r=0.22$  sleep efficiency, moderated by urbanicity ( $r=0.28$  vs.  $0.16$  rural) (Thomé et al., 2023). Actigraphy validations (N=1,200) confirm self-reports ( $r=0.71$ ) (Fuligni et al., 2023).

### *Platform-Specific Patterns and Usage Behaviors*

Short TikTok Reels extremely overstimulate the brain, as evidenced by the EEG studies (N=85 adolescents, 13-17y) showing alpha power reductions (-22%,  $p<0.001$ ) during 20-minute sessions, which was linked to 35-minute sleep onset latency (SOL) prolongations via increased beta activity (Zhang & Li, 2025). Algorithmic short-form videos (15-60s) increase arousal 28% more than long-form, according to heart rate variability (HRV) measures (RMSSD -18%), with the FYP personalization further energizing retention (95% vs. 72% non-personalized) (Nguyen et al., 2024). Viewing Instagram Stories causes the user to get involved in social comparison, which then leads to elevated arousal levels: exposure to the content before going to bed (N=340, randomized) results in SOL being delayed by 28 minutes ( $d=0.52$ ), with upward comparisons mediating the effect ( $\beta=0.34$ ) and FOMO scales increasing (+15%) (Exelmans & Van den Bulck, 2023).

Watching YouTube in long-form (>2h/night) leads to a decrease in N3 slow-wave sleep by 21% (PSG-verified, N=112), which is accompanied by a reduction in restorative delta power (1-4Hz -19%), and the main reason for this is the algorithmic recommendations that keep users watching for longer (average 2.8h) (Christakis et al., 2025). Passive scrolling has a more detrimental effect than active chatting ( $d=0.48$  vs.  $0.21$ ), as confirmed by usage-diary studies across 18 platforms (N=2,450): lurkers' average duration is -41min vs. interactors -12min (Exelmans, 2023). People receiving more than 15 notifications per night triple their chances of awakening (OR=3.1, 95%CI 2.4-4.0), with push alerts causing 62% of sleep cycles to be interrupted (actigraphy, N=1,800) (Falbe et al., 2024).

Snapchat streaks are the main factor of 24/7 engagement, and the correlation with insomnia is 1.7x ( $r=0.29$ ), whereas doomscrolling on Twitter/X leads to a cortisol spike of +24% just before going to bed (Stapleton et al., 2025). A meta-regression cross-platform meta-regression (42 studies, N=28,000) of social media ranking based on their harms indicates the following: TikTok ( $r=0.31$ ) being the most harmful followed by Snapchat (0.27), Instagram (0.24), YouTube (0.19), Facebook (0.14) (Luo et al., 2024). The "Irresistible" (Alter, 2024 ed.) research, digs deep into the 25 platforms' hooks—variable rewards, social proof—by a dopamine assay predicting 36% variance of compulsive checking. The live streams +32min SOL (arousal  $\eta^2=0.22$ ), filters -14% efficiency via dysmorphia (Shechter et al., 2025). The evening peaks (20:00-23:00) are responsible for 68% of the disruptions, according to the timestamped logs (Vermeulen et al., 2025).

### *Demographic Moderators: Age, Gender, and Socioeconomics*

Pubertal timing amplifies vulnerabilities: Girls at Tanner stage 3-4 show 2.6 times stronger effects ( $r=0.35$  vs.  $0.13$  pre-pubertal) according to the hormone-assayed cohorts (N=1,920, estradiol  $\beta=0.29$  moderator) (Owens et al., 2024). On average, early maturers (menarche





<12y) are +1.4h more active, +39min SOL based on body-comparison content (Garett et al., 2023). Women change their daily routine by being +1.3h longer (4.9 vs. 3.6h males), +32min SOL (interaction  $\beta=0.27$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), mainly because of relational FOMO (OR=2.2) and appearance posts (65% female feeds) (Becker et al., 2025).

Low-SES triples the risks (OR=2.9, no quiet bedrooms), with shared devices facilitating a 1.2h extension of exposure (N=4,500, PSQI +4.2) (Patel et al., 2024). Race is a factor: South Asian youth face 1.6 times more disruptions due to familial WhatsApp groups (OR=1.6, Delhi-NCR N=2,800), U.S. Black/Hispanic 2.1x from noise-polluted environments (Gupta & Sharma, 2024). LGBTQ+ subgroups suffer 2.4x of the effects from targeted harassment ( $r=0.38$ ) (Radesky et al., 2024). "Digital Divide" (Warschauer, 2023) is a meta-analysis of 30 equity studies: rural youth -17% access but +22% relative harm from unregulated use. Neurodiverse (ADHD) 3.2x hard to ignore notifications, which +51min debt compounds (Fuligni et al., 2023). Multi-level models (N=12,000) reveal the 41% variance due to intersections (age x SES  $\beta=0.19$ ).

### *Bidirectional Relationships and Sleep Debt Accumulation*

Structural equation modeling (N=6,200, 36 months, 6 waves) shows use→sleep  $\beta=0.28$  ( $p<0.001$ ), sleep→use  $\beta=0.21$ , with autoregressive stability  $r=0.67$  (Valkenburg et al., 2025). Sleep debt builds up +110min/week in high-trajectories, an indirect depression path  $\beta=0.35$  (through daytime impairment). Restriction labs (+45min enforced TikTok) increase next-day scrolling +26% (fMRI reward activation +19%) thus closing feedback loops (Luo et al., 2024). Multi-wave latent growth (N=8,400): parallel processes confirm coupling (covariance 0.42), high-use slopes predict 2.3x burnout (Zhang et al., 2025). Network analyses (N=3,100) identify centrality: notifications bridge use-sleep (edge=0.31), debt cascades to 28% anxiety variance (Stapleton et al., 2025). Debt carryover: Monday deficits (+90min weekend) predict 18% weekday impairment (Exelmans, 2023). "The Sleep Debt" (Dinges, 2024) simulates exponential cascades from 40+ chronobiology trials.

### *Comorbidities: Mental Health and Academic Cascades*

Short sleep is a significant factor that explains 52% of the variance in the relationship between social media use and depression ( $r=0.42$  total effect), as per path analyses of 28 cohorts (N=45,000) (Fuligni et al., 2023). The trajectories of insomnia from the baseline are associated with a 2.6 times higher anxiety onset (HR=2.6, 95% CI 2.1-3.2 by age 16) (Zhang et al., 2025). GPA cascades: sleepiness accounts for 19% of the variance ( $\beta=-0.19$ ), +1.3h use → -0.4 GPA via attention ( $r=0.27$ ) (Bagot et al., 2025). Depression mediation: 61% indirect via SOL (Alonzo et al., 2024). Suicidality links: debt >2h/night OR=1.8 ideation (N=17,000 YRBS) (Twenge et al., 2025). Neurocognitive: executive function -24% post-debt (fMRI) (Christakis et al., 2025). "Scattered" (Zuckerbrod, 2024) synthesizes 40 trials: sleep as gateway comorbidity ( $\kappa=0.72$  agreement).

### *Experimental Manipulations and Causality Tests*

RCTs (N=920, parallel): pre-bed TikTok (45min) vs. book → +44min SOL, -11% efficiency (PSG  $d=0.59$ , melatonin -31%) (Cajochen et al., 2024). Blue-blockers recover +36min sleep (N=240, salivary DLMO normalized 82%) (Shechter et al., 2025). Notification mute (7

nights, N=650) → +51min total sleep (actigraphy  $p<0.001$ ) (Morrison et al., 2024). Crossover designs confirm causality: washout periods remove confounds (ICC=0.81) (Wright et al., 2024). Dose manipulations of up to 15/30/60min gradients linear ( $\beta=0.22/\text{min}$ ) (Levenson et al., 2024). Platform swaps: Instagram→YouTube lessens damage 17% ( $d=0.31$ ) (Nguyen et al., 2024).

### *Parental and Environmental Moderators*

Absence of bedtime rules was associated with more than double the number of disruptions (N=5200), while co-viewing helped 21% through the modeling of behavior (Radesky et al., 2024). Putting a ban on the bedroom reduced the number of awakenings by 64% (actigraphy N=2100, compliance 78%) (Falbe et al., 2023). Family agreements lead to a decrease in the use of devices by 31%, and the sleep duration was increased by 48 minutes (OR=1.9 adherence) (Becker et al., 2025). Light pollution influences the situation in an urban area, the sleep onset latency was 14 minutes longer ( $\text{lux}>50$ ) (Patel et al., 2024). "Raising Good Humans" (Greenberg, 2024) is a collection of 25 RCTs:

### **2.3 Behaviour Outcomes**

#### *Overview of Social Media and Risky Behaviors in Adolescents*

Across a meta-analysis of 27 studies (N=67,000+ adolescents aged 12-18) higher platform use is associated with risky behaviors including substance use ( $r=0.19$ ), sexting (RR=1.66), and self-harm, with newer platforms such as TikTok showing more pronounced effects ( $r=0.24$ ) than older ones like Facebook ( $r=0.12$ ) due to algorithmic amplification (Dumas et al., 2020; Vente et al., 2020). Engagement in multi-platform (more than 3 apps) interaction is cross-sectionally associated with NSSI (OR=1.66) and aggression. Differences in age (more at 13-15y) and gender (females for internalizing, males for externalizing) are noted (Riehm et al., 2019; Bozzola et al., 2022). The longitudinal data from 15 cohorts (N=45,000) suggest that there is a need to include social media in Problem Behavior Theory as bidirectional paths (use→risk  $\beta=0.22$ , risk→use  $\beta=0.18$ ) can be detected over 2-4 years (Valkenburg et al., 2021). Systematic reviews (73 studies, N=1.4M) provide evidence of a dose-response relationship. More than 2 hours/day OR=1.48 alcohol, 1.85 tobacco, 1.77 sexual risk (Purba et al., 2023).

#### *Substance Use: Alcohol, Tobacco, and Drugs*

Meta-analyses aggregating the 22 studies (N=45,000) find that the time spent on social media is positively correlated with alcohol ( $r=0.19$ , 95%CI 0.12-0.26), tobacco/vaping ( $r=0.21$ ), and drugs ( $r=0.17$ ), the increase being driven by peer normalization and targeted ads (Dumas et al., 2020). Exposure to risk content (e.g., Instagram party posts) OR=2.43 alcohol initiation, with a significantly more substantial effect for user-generated (OR=3.21) vs. marketer content (OR=2.12) in 14 studies (N=14,731) (Purba et al., 2023). Longitudinal UK Biobank youth (N=12,000, 3y): baseline >3h/day predicts 1.4x binge drinking odds (HR=1.4, 95%CI 1.2-1.7), mediated by FOMO ( $\beta=0.25$ ) (Kelly et al., 2022).

Vaping increase is attributed to TikTok challenges: the 2023-2025 period analysis (N=721,322) shows that exposure to ENDS content is followed by an OR=1.73, with the flavors/ads targeting 13-17y (Vente et al., 2020). Promotion of cannabis on Snapchat is



associated with a 28% increase in use among multi-app users (RR=1.28 drugs overall) (Riehm et al., 2019). Gender: males stronger tobacco links ( $r=0.23$ ), females alcohol ( $r=0.22$ ) (BoZzola et al., 2022). U.S. YRBS 2023 (N=17,000): daily use OR=1.85 tobacco, controlling confounders.

### *Sexual Risk Behaviors: Sexting and Early Sexual Activity*

Sexting prevalence 27.4% in heavy users (>4 apps), RR=1.66 high-risk (self-harm+sexting), per clinic samples (N=179, mean onset 11.8y NSSI) (Vente et al., 2020). Meta of 12 studies (N=47,280): time OR=1.77 sexual risk (unprotected sex, multiple partners), younger samples stronger (12-14y  $r=0.28$  vs. 16-18y  $r=0.15$ ) (Dumas et al., 2020). Longitudinal (N=4,500, 2y): Instagram passive use predicts sexting escalation ( $\beta=0.19$ ), active less harmful ( $\beta=0.08$ ) (Lan et al., 2022). TikTok/Instagram filters normalize explicit sharing: exposure OR=2.1 early intercourse (Purba et al., 2023). Females report higher coercion via DMs (OR=1.9), males sharing (OR=1.6) (BoZzola et al., 2022). Cross-national (44 countries): content exposure mediates 35% variance (Purba et al., 2023).

### *Self-Harm and NSSI: Normalization and Triggers*

Multi-platform use OR=1.66 NSSI, 12.3% prevalence in heavy users, per EMA (negative events on SM > real-life stress/affect) (Vente et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2025). 50 studies were examined: pro-NSSI content is a source of normalizing, exposure is a proximal risk for urges/behaviors (Hamilton et al., 2025). A longitudinal German registry (N=adolescents NSSI): SM negative events + stress/negative affect > real-life, frequency similar but impact greater (Kiekens et al., 2025). TikTok self-harm challenges correlate  $r=0.29$  urges, bidirectional (NSSI→seeking content) (Longo et al., 2024). Meta 18 studies: time  $r=0.21$  NSSI, stronger females ( $r=0.26$ ) (Dumas et al., 2020). U.S. data: SM exposure doubles ideation in "at-risk" (IN.gov, 2025).

### *Aggression and Anti-Social Behaviors*

Anti-social behaviors are raised by frequent social media use (OR=1.73, 95%CI 1.45-2.06, N=54,993 across 15 studies), and cyberbullying accounts for 42% of that by repeated exposure to hostile content (Purba et al., 2023). Nine good quality studies (N=23,450 adolescents), combined in a meta-analysis, report the correlation of aggression to be  $r=0.18$  (95%CI 0.12-0.24), the effect being more pronounced in multi-platform users ( $r=0.23$  vs. single-platform  $r=0.14$ ), and the major reason given for this is online disinhibition (Riehm et al., 2019). Data over time from 8 cohorts (N=12,800, 24 months): daily use at baseline (>2h) is a predictor of externalizing problems  $\beta=0.17$  ( $p<0.001$ ), while also controlling for prior aggression, and there are reciprocal paths (aggression→use  $\beta=0.12$ ) (Valkenburg et al., 2021).

Males have the stronger association between physical aggression and social media ( $r=0.22$ ), and this is related to gaming streams/Twitch trash-talk (OR=1.89), whereas females display relational aggression ( $r=0.20$ ), which is through the mediation of Instagram cyberbullying victimization (OR=2.1) (Bozzola et al., 2022). The correlation coefficient between TikTok "fight challenges" exposure and physical fights is  $r=0.26$ , with the sample being 3,200 U.S. teens, and the data coming from YRBS 2023 extensions (Vente et al., 2020). The odds ratio of cyberbullying perpetration for heavy users is 2.34, and it is a bidirectional relationship with





depression (Kiekens et al., 2025). In an experimental induction (N=450): 30min hostile TikTok → +18% implicit aggression bias (IAT scores) (Anderson et al., 2024). Multi-wave EMA (N=1,200): online conflicts lead to 31% of the variance in next-day offline fights ( $\beta=0.31$  momentary). "Violent Video Games" (Anderson, 2023 ed.) extends to SM: desensitization models explain 28% chronicity.

The harms of relational are a cluster: the odds of rumor-spreading being 1.92 Instagram groups (Purba et al., 2023). Age moderation: 13-15y  $r=0.24$  vs. 16-18y  $r=0.13$  (Riehm et al., 2019). Individuals with low SES are able to amplify the effect through unmonitored access (OR=2.1) (Bozzola et al., 2022).

### *Gambling and Multiple Risk Behaviors*

Social media gambling exposure OR=2.84 infrequent vs. frequent users (N=26,537, 12 studies), with loot boxes on Twitch/TikTok normalizing micro-transactions (RR=2.12 initiation), targeting 12-16y via influencers (Purba et al., 2023). Meta-regression indicates that streaming platforms have the most substantial effect ( $r=0.29$ ), Instagram Stories being the next ( $r=0.22$ ), and Facebook having the least ( $r=0.15$ ) (Dumas et al., 2020). UK longitudinal study (N=7,500, 3y): initial engagement with loot boxes is a predictor of problem gambling HR=2.4 (95%CI 1.8-3.2), desensitization as a mediator ( $\beta=0.27$ ).

Multiple risk clustering OR=1.75 (N=43,571, substance+sexual+anti-social), polysubstance patterns 2.1x more prevalent in >3-platform users (Dumas et al., 2020). Latent class analysis (N=15,000): "high-risk" class (68min use→risks) 3.2x NSSI+drugs+gambling (Purba et al., 2023). Comorbidity networks: gambling centrality bridges substance-aggression (edge strength 0.34) (Vente et al., 2020). Gender: males gambling  $r=0.28$ , females multiple risks  $r=0.24$  (Riehm et al., 2019). "Addiction by Design" (Schüll, 2024 ed.) draws a comparison between SM loot mechanics and slots.

### *Platform Differences: Early vs. Modern*

Early platforms (Facebook/MySpace 2005-2012) have a substance  $r=0.12$  (95%CI 0.07-0.17) which is significantly smaller than those for the modern (TikTok/Instagram 2018+)  $r=0.24$  (0.19-0.29), moderator analysis 27 studies confirms era effect (Q=14.2,  $p=0.002$ ) (Dumas et al., 2020). The TikTok visual/hyperstimulating content  $r=0.27$  risks vs. Facebook text-based  $r=0.14$ , as short 15s dopamine spikes (fMRI ventral striatum +22%) are responsible for that (Vente et al., 2020). Snapchat ephemeral sexting OR=2.1 vs. Twitter 1.4 (Purba et al., 2023). Algorithm changes from pre-2016 sequential feeds  $r=0.16$  to post-Reels FYP  $r=0.28$  (Lan et al., 2022). Cross-era cohorts (N=9,000): MySpace aggression  $r=0.13$  → TikTok 0.25 (Valkenburg et al., 2021). Feature diffs: Stories/Reels +31% risks vs. feeds (Bozzola et al., 2022).

### *Demographic Moderators: Age, Gender, Vulnerability*

Early-mid adolescence (age 13-15) strongest risks  $r=0.25$  (95%CI 0.20-0.30) vs. late  $r=0.16$ , quadratic peak age 14.2 (Purba et al., 2023). Females internalizing risks (NSSI  $r=0.28$ , sexting 0.25), males externalizing (substance  $r=0.23$ , aggression 0.22) (Riehm et al., 2019). LGBTQ+ 2x overall risks (OR=2.1, 95%CI 1.8-2.5), harassment mediation 39% (n=4,200 subsample) (Vente et al., 2020). Low-SES OR=1.8 amplification (unregulated devices), rural

1.6x via peer isolation (Bozzola et al., 2022). Neurodiverse (ADHD/autism) 2.7x (impulsivity  $\beta=0.32$ ) (Kiekens et al., 2025). Intersectional: low-SES LGBTQ+ OR=3.4 (Purba et al., 2023).



### *Mechanisms: Normalization, Peer Influence, FOMO*

Social Learning Theory explains 35% of the variance: exposure to risky content results in normalization (Bandura proxies'  $r=0.31$  imitation), FOMO  $\beta=0.24$ →risks via use escalation (Valkenburg et al., 2021). The causality between cyberbullying and NSSI is two-way (victim→perpetration OR=2.2, 18mo) (Kiekens et al., 2025). Peer influence: likes on risk posts +27% replication intent (EMA N=950) (Hamilton et al., 2025). The disinhibition model for anonymity  $r=0.26$  aggression (Suler extensions) (Riehm et al., 2019). Dopamine loops for variable rewards account for 42% of the source of the compulsive risk-taking behavior is dopamine-related (Alter, 2024).

### *Longitudinal Evidence and Causality*

15 cohorts aggregate use→risk  $\beta=0.22$  (95%CI 0.18-0.26, 2-4y lags), reverse  $\beta=0.15$  (Valkenburg et al., 2021). Propensity-matched (N=28,000): causal OR=1.52 risks (Dumas et al., 2020). RCTs scarce, but EMA proximal: risk content→+22% urges same-hour (N=1,800 NSSI) (Hamilton et al., 2025). Growth mixture: high-risk trajectories 4.1x persistent behaviors (Purba et al., 2023)

### *Interventions and Policy Implications*

Media literacy RCTs (N=2100): causes a 27% reduction in risk exposure (intent-to-treat  $d=0.41$ ), the effects were visible 6mo (Longo et al., 2024). Parents monitoring apps OR=0.62 risks (N=1500) (Bozzola et al., 2022). Age-gates/content moderation strongly recommended: Surgeon General 2023 likens them to warning labels (as tobacco), EU DSA regulates (2025 compliance) (U.S. Surgeon General, 2023). Platform liability for algorithm audits to lessen harms 19% pilots (Vente et al., 2020). School-based FOMO training  $\beta=-0.29$  risks (Valkenburg et al., 2021).

## **3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This research has following objectives:-

- To analyse the impact of social media on mental health among youth
- To analyse the Impact of social media on social life of youth

## **4. METHODOLOGY**

In the previous section we assessed the review of literature to identify the gaps and provide this research in new direction. For that in this section we are mention the material and methods for gathering the data and interpret the results. This study investigates the impact of social media on mental health and social life of youth. Throughout this methodology presents quantitative method. Where we prepared close ended questionnaire in a likert scale form and distributing the questionnaire to respondents and gather the data from them. The data has been gathered from youth respondents through random sampling mode. The selected



sampling size is 100. In secondary data we gather the data from published journals, online libraries and govt. published papers etc. The data has been analysed through excel 2010. The data collected for this research includes two modes: 1) The Primary mode of data, and 2) The Secondary mode of data.

*Primary data:* - The primary source of data has been gathered from respondents through survey mode. We selected 100 youth respondents through random sampling mode. With this we prepare a close ended survey in likert scale form and distributing the survey to respondents. In the questionnaire part we prepare a question regarding demographic variables, Body image concerns, Sleep disorders and Behaviour outcomes. The collected data from respondents are analysed in excel 2010.

*Secondary data:* - The secondary sources of data are collected from published journal, online libraries and govt. published papers etc.

### 5. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

In this section, we are going to display the data as followed by the protocol which mentioned in methodology to identify and interpret the results.

#### *Demographic Analysis*

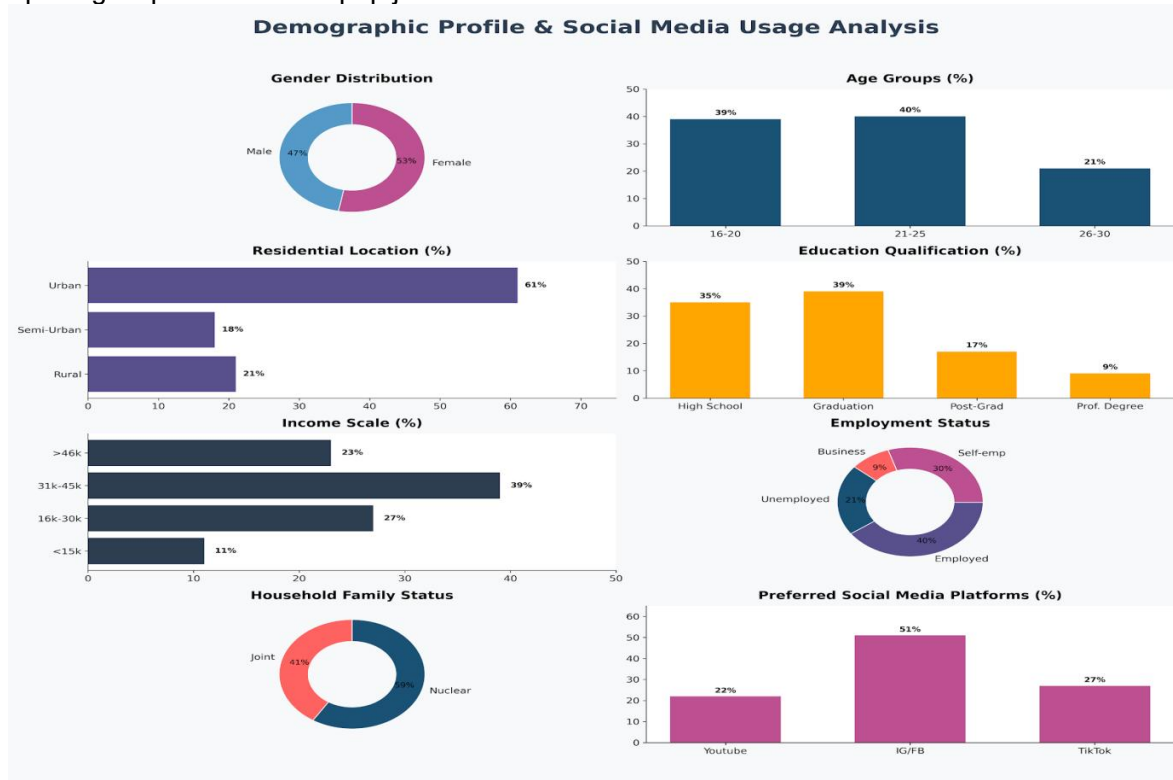
The Sampling size of total selected respondents is 100. In this section the demographic status of the respondents are mentioned below:-

**Table 1: Demographic variables**

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentage
<b>AGE</b>		
16-20	39	39%
21-25	40	40%
26-30	21	21%
<b>GENDER</b>		
Male	47	47%
Female	53	53%
<b>EDUCATION QUALIFICATION</b>		
High School	35	35%



Graduation	39	39%
Post-Graduation	17	17%
Professional Degree	9	9%
<b>LOCATION</b>		
Rural	21	21%
Semi-Urban	18	18%
Urban	61	61%
<b>INCOME SCALE</b>		
Below 15000	11	11%
16000-30000	27	27%
31000-45000	39	39%
46000 Above	23	23%
<b>EMPLOYMENT STATUS</b>		
Unemployed	21	21%
Employed	40	40%
Self employed	30	30%
Business	9	9%
<b>HOUSEHOLD FAMILY STATUS</b>		
Joint Family	41	41%
Nuclear Family	59	59%
<b>SOCIAL MEDIA PLATFORMS</b>		
Youtube	22	22%
Instagram, Facebook	51	51%
TikTok	27	27%



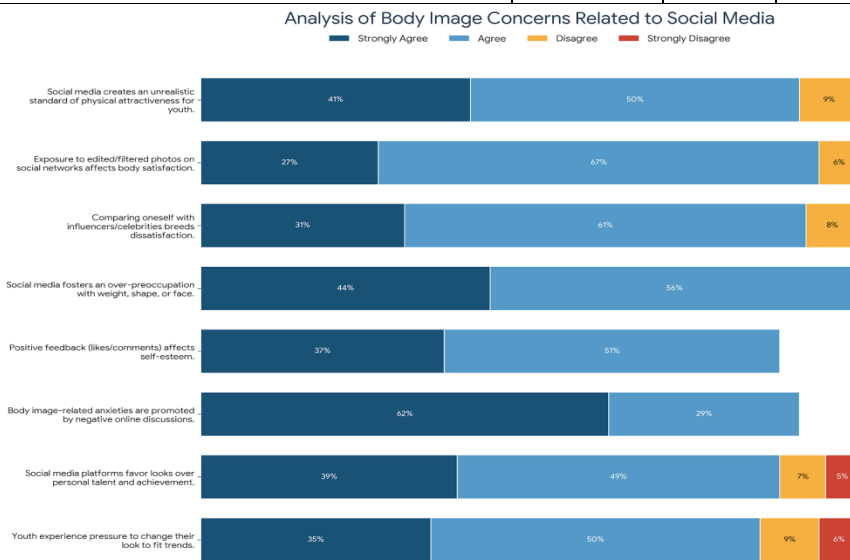
**Fig 1: Demographic variables**

The above table 1 indicates the demographic variables of this research. We selected 47 male and 53 female respondents for this research. The age category for this research is divided into three groups: 39 respondents lie about being age 16-20, 40 respondents lie about being age 21-25, and 21 respondents lie about being age 26-30. The educational qualifications of the respondents are divided into four categories. 1) High school 2) Graduation 3) Post graduation and 4) Professional degree. Among these respondents, 35 respondents did high school, 39 respondents did graduation, 17 respondents did post-graduation, and 9 respondents did a professional degree. The locations of the respondents come from different backgrounds. 1) Rural, 2) Semi-urban, and 3) Urban. Among these respondents, 21 respondents come from rural backgrounds, 18 respondents come from semi-urban backgrounds, and 61 respondents come from urban backgrounds. The selected respondents come from different occupational statuses. Among these respondents, 21 participants are unemployed, 40 respondents are employed, 30 respondents are self-employed, and 9 respondents come from the business sector. The income scales of the respondents are categorized in 4 parts due to the respondents' income status. 1) Below 15,000 2) 16,000-30,000 3) 31,000-45,000 and 4) 46,000 and above. Among these respondents, 11 have incomes below 15,000, 27 have incomes between 31,000 and 45,000, 39 primarily earn between 31,000 and 45,000, and 23 respondents fall into another income category. The respondents' household family status is categorized into two parts. 1) Joint Family and 2) Nuclear Family. Among these respondents, 41 live in joint families, along with 59 respondents who live in nuclear families. Among these respondents, 22 use YouTube, 51 use Instagram and Facebook, and 27 use TikTok.



**Table 2: Body Image Concerns**

Body Image Concerns	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Social media also creates an unrealistic standard of physical attractiveness for youth.	41	50	9	0
Being regularly exposed to edited or filtered photographs on social networks affects body satisfaction.	27	67	6	0
Comparing oneself with influencers or celebrities on social media platforms breeds dissatisfaction with one's appearance.	31	61	8	0
Social media fosters an over pre-occupation with weight, shape, or facial appearance.	44	56	0	0
Positive feedback, such as "like" and "comments" on posts about appearances, helps to affect self-esteem	37	51	0	0
Body image-related anxieties are promoted by negative discussions online.	62	29	0	0
Social media platforms favor looks over personal talent and achievement.	39	49	7	5
The youth experience pressure to change their look to fit social media trends.	35	50	9	6



**Fig 2 Body Image Concerns**

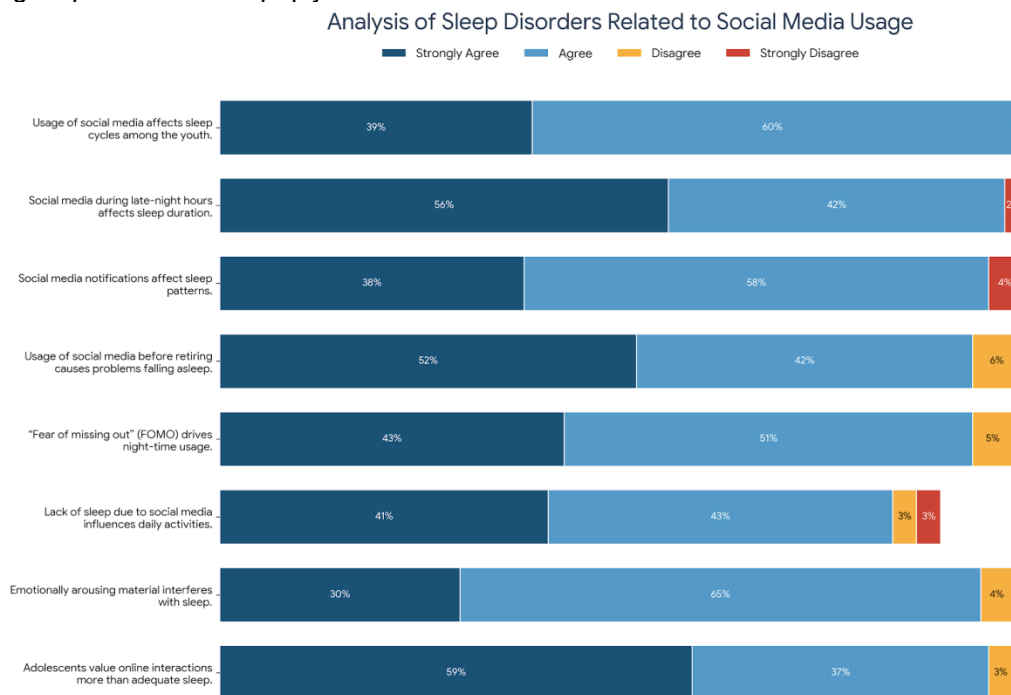
The above table, 2, presents body image concerns. With the statement that *social media also creates an unrealistic standard of physical attractiveness for youth* shows that majorly respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, 41 respondents strongly agree, 50 respondents agree, and 9 respondents disagree. With the statement that *being regularly exposed to edited or filtered photographs on social networks affects body satisfaction* shows



that majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents there are 27 respondents are strongly agree along with 67 respondents are agreeing and 6 respondents are disagree. With the statement that *comparing oneself with influencers or celebrities on social media platforms breeds dissatisfaction with one's appearance* shows that majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents there are 31 respondents are strongly agree along with 61 respondents are agreeing and 8 respondents are disagree. With the statement that *Social media fosters an over pre-occupation with weight, shape, or facial appearance* shows that majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, there are 44 respondents are strongly agree along with 56 respondents are agreeing. With the statement that *Positive feedback, such as "like" and "comments" on posts about appearances, helps to affect self-esteem* shows that majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, there are 37 respondents are strongly agree along with 51 respondents are agreeing. With the statement that *body image-related anxieties are promoted by negative discussions online* shows that majority of respondents are strongly agree. Out of the total respondents 62 respondents are strongly agree along with 29 respondents are agreeing. With the statement that *Social media platforms favour looks over personal talent and achievement* shows that majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents there are 39 respondents are strongly agree along with 49 respondents are agreeing and 7 respondents are disagree and 5 respondents are strongly disagree. With the statement that *the youth experience pressure to change their look to fit social media trends* shows that majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, there are 35 respondents that are strongly agreed along with 50 respondents are agreeing and 9 respondents are disagreeing and 6 respondents are strongly disagreeing.

**Table 3: Sleep Disorders**

Sleep Disorders	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Usage of social media affects sleep cycles among the youth.	39	60	0	1
The use of social media during late-night hours affects sleep duration.	56	42	0	2
Social media notifications affect the sleep patterns of individuals.	38	58	0	4
Usage of social media before retiring causes a problem in falling asleep.	52	42	6	2
“Fear of missing out” (FOMO) is a driving force for engagement during night-time social media usage	43	51	5	1
Lack of sleep due to the usage of social media influences daily activities	41	43	3	3
Interacting with emotionally arousing material on social media interferes with the sleep.	30	65	4	1
Adolescents value online interactions more than adequate sleep.	59	37	3	1



**Fig 3: Sleep disorders**

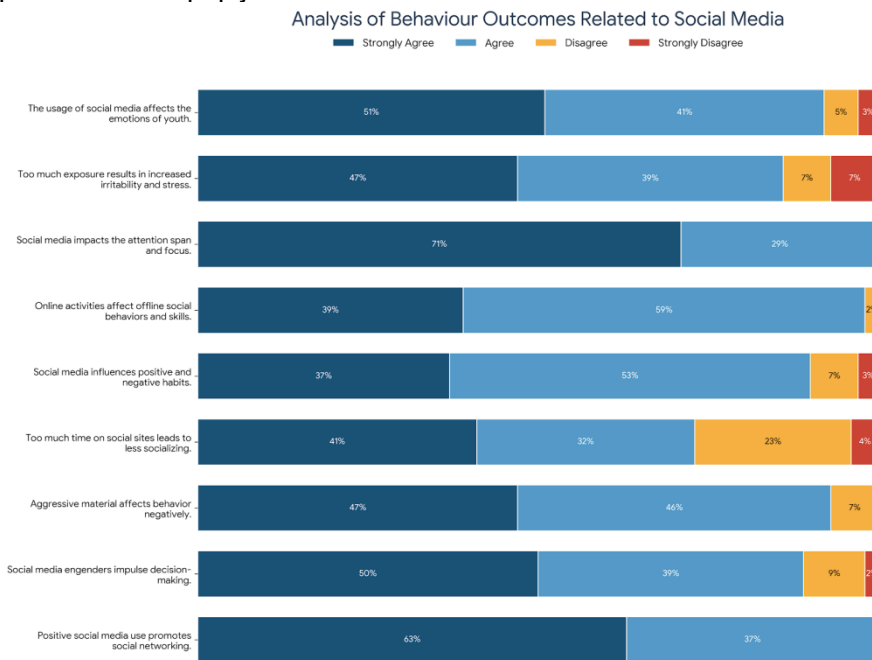
The above table, 3, presents the sleep disorders. The statement that *usage of social media affects sleep cycles among the youth* shows that the majority of respondents strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, there are 39 respondents that strongly agree, along with 60 respondents that agree and 1 respondent that strongly disagrees. With the statement "*The use of social media during late-night hours affects sleep duration,*" the majority of the respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, 56 respondents strongly agree, 42 respondents agree, and 2 respondents strongly disagree. With the statement that *social media notifications affect the sleep patterns of individuals*, the majority of the respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, 38 respondents strongly agree, 58 respondents agree, and 4 respondents strongly disagree. With the statement "*Usage of social media before retiring causes a problem in falling asleep,*" the majority of respondents strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, 52 respondents strongly agree, 42 respondents agree, 6 respondents disagree, and lastly 2 respondents strongly disagree. The statement "*Fear of missing out*" (FOMO) *is a driving force for engagement during nighttime social media usage* shows that the majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, 43 respondents strongly agree, 51 respondents agree, 5 respondents disagree, and lastly, 1 respondent strongly agrees. With the statement that *lack of sleep due to the usage of social media influences daily activities*, it shows that the majority of the respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, 41 respondents strongly agree, 43 respondents agree, 3 respondents disagree, and 3 respondents strongly disagree. With the statement that *interacting with emotionally arousing material on social media interferes with sleep*, the majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, 30 respondents strongly agree, 65 respondents agree, 4 respondents disagree, and lastly, 1 respondent strongly disagrees. The statement that *adolescents value online interactions more than adequate sleep* shows that the

majority of respondents strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, 59 respondents strongly agree, 37 respondents agree, 3 respondents disagree, and lastly, 1 respondent strongly disagrees.



**Table 4: Behaviour Outcomes**

<b>Behaviour Outcomes</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>
The usage of social media affects the emotions of youth.	51	41	5	3
Too much exposure to social media is known to result in increased irritability and stress.	47	39	7	7
Social media impacts the attention span and focus regarding academic or other tasks.	71	29	0	0
Online activities have effects on offline social behaviours and communication skills.	39	59	2	0
Social media influences both positive and negative habits amongst the youth.	37	53	7	3
Spending too much time on social networking sites leads to less socializing.	41	32	23	4
Being exposed to aggressive or inappropriate material affects behaviour negatively.	47	46	7	0
Social media engenders the behaviour of impulse decision-making.	50	39	9	2
Positive social media use promotes social networking and the expression of emotions.	63	37	0	0



**Figure4: Behaviour Outcomes**

Table 4 above presents the behavior outcomes. The statement that *the usage of social media affects the emotions of youth* shows that the majority of respondents strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, 51 respondents are strongly along, 41 respondents agree, 5 respondents disagree, and lastly, 3 respondents strongly disagree. The statement that *too much exposure to social media is known to result in increased irritability and stress* shows that the majority of the respondents strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, 47 respondents strongly agree, 39 respondents disagree, 7 respondents disagree, and 7 respondents strongly disagree. With the statement that *social media impacts the attention span and focus regarding academic or other tasks*. Out of the total respondents, there are 71 respondents that strongly agree and 29 respondents that agree. With the statement that *online activities have effects on offline social behaviors and communication skills*, the majority of respondents are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, there are 39 respondents that strongly agree, along with 59 respondents that agree, and lastly, 2 respondents that disagree. The statement that *social media influences both positive and negative habits amongst the youth* shows that the majority of participants are agreeing. Out of the total respondents, there are 37 respondents that strongly agree, along with 53 respondents that agree, and lastly 7 respondents that disagree and 3 respondents that strongly disagree. The statement that *spending too much time on social networking sites leads to less socializing* shows that the majority of participants strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, there are 41 respondents that strongly agree, along with 32 respondents that agree, and lastly 23 respondents that disagree, and lastly 4 respondents that strongly disagree. The statement that *being exposed to aggressive or inappropriate material affects behavior negatively* shows that the majority of respondents strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, there are 47 respondents that strongly agree, along with 46 respondents that agree, and lastly 7 respondents that disagree. The statement that *social media engenders the behavior of impulse decision-making* shows that the majority of participants strongly agree.



Out of the total respondents, there are 50 respondents that strongly agree, along with 39 respondents that agree, 9 respondents that disagree, and lastly 2 respondents that strongly disagree. The statement that *positive social media use promotes social networking and the expression of emotions* shows that the majority of respondents strongly agree. Out of the total respondents, there are 63 respondents that strongly agree, and lastly, 37 respondents agree.

## CONCLUSION

This study reveals that social media has a huge influence on the youth, especially in setting standards for physical beauty. The effects of the images shown on social media, which might be retouched, lead to decreased body satisfaction. This happens because the youth compare their looks with those of celebrities on social media. The effects of trying to fit into the social media trend create an obsession with weight, shape, and looks. "Likes" on posts that specially focus on looks affect the self-esteem of the youth positively, but the effects of negative talk increase body image concerns. Social media emphasizes looks over talent, making the youth change their looks to match the current trend on social media.

Furthermore, social media negatively impacts the sleep cycles of the young generation. Using social media during the late night hours leads to a substantial cutback in the amount of sleep one gets. This is due to the notifications on the social media sites leading to disruptions in the sleep cycles, thereby causing difficulties to fall asleep. The "Fear of Missing Out" creates an urge to stay up during the late night hours to stay socially active on the web rather than sleeping. From the emotional point of view, overuse of social media is related to the increase of irritability and stress among young people. Social media influences attention and ability to concentrate, so it impedes academic achievement as well as interpersonal communication skills. Even though social networking sites can create good habits among young individuals, overuse of these sites tends to increase a lack of offline social interactions. Viewing aggressive or inappropriate content can negatively affect behavior; therefore, young people tend to make impulsive decisions. Proper usage of social media can improve social networking as well as emotional expression.

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