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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Negotiating identity across cultures: A cross-national study of youth self-representation in online communication

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ABSTRACT

The role of social media in developing youth identity, self-representation, and cross-cultural interactions is highly significant, especially for users of diverse backgrounds. The goal of this research project was to investigate the influence of cultural context – specifically China, the USA, and the UK – on active social media users aged 15-24 in relation to self-representation practices, self-exposure behaviors, privacy management, and identity negotiation strategies. The participants were recruited through a stratified purposive sampling frame and required to have updated or posted on their social media profile in the previous three months. The study collected a total of 450 valid responses using online surveys (Google Forms for the USA and the UK, and Wenjuanxing for China). The data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and Multiple Linear Regression (MLR). Participants had a balanced demographic distribution across age groups, gender, and countries. The findings reported moderate agreement (across behavioral measures) and weak correlations across variables, indicating that each dimension operates relatively independently of the others. Differences in preferences for platforms, with Facebook preferred most (22.2%) and TikTok/Douyin second (20.2%); WeChat was the lowest (17.8%). Daily usage indicated 26.9% spend less than 1 hour and 23.1% spend more than 4 hours each day online. The findings begin to expose differences in practice in relation to cultural differences in online identity practices. The findings also affirm that valuing culturally responsive processes is meaningful.

Keywords: Social media; youth identity; self-representation; privacy behavior, cultural differences, cross-cultural communication.

1. Introduction

The rapid growth of social media has been a fundamental transformation for the young generation in self-presentation, information-sharing, and identity negotiation processes across cultures [1]..In the digital era, cultural values still remain influential when it comes to online self-representations, privacy behaviors, or self-exposure practices [2]. Helping identify these dissimilarities would be key to creating safer, more culturally sensitive online spaces. Study of youths aged 15-24 should be warranted, for they are also the heaviest users of shift in computer-mediated communication, while simultaneously undergoing the developmental phase crucial to the formation of a mature identity [3]. Cross-cultural studies between a

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collectivistic society like China and individualistic societies like the United States and Britain yield rich insights into culture-conditioned digital behaviors. The building blocks are four core constructs: self-representation, self-exposure, privacy behaviors, and identity negotiation [4]. By measuring these four constructs with standard tools and a balanced sample across countries, this study attends to the growing need for culturally informed digital literacy programs. Such knowledge is, indeed, well needed for policy decisions, educational interventions, and platform design tuned to different cultural and theoretical contexts [5].

The framework proposed rests on the behavioral-culture set that determines the online behavior of the youths [6]. Collectivism in countries such as China emphasizes harmony in a group and communication in a community-oriented fashion, accompanied by limited self-disclosure [7]. The individualistic cultures like the USA or UK encourage self-vindication, personal expression, and presentation of openness in commercial websites. Privacy concerns arise depending upon the cultural setting and platform policies that govern a user's discretion as to what extent he wants to maintain privacy in his online presence [8]. Socio-economic status, ability to utilize technology, and the characteristics of a certain platform mark further engagement patterns. [9]. The higher the intensity of daily social media usage, the more chances there are of performing risky behaviors or privacy control practices. Peer pressure and online social capital prevail over youths' self-presentation across cultures. Educational background and exposure to cross-cultural communication would contrast in means of identity negotiation. At last, differing governments' regulatory policies for the internet will deviate indirectly on the type(s) of content to be shared and, consequently, on how often privacy settings are used [10].

Multiple studies have been conducted on cross-cultural differences in online behavior using frameworks such as the Hofstede Cultural Dimensions Model, Goffman's Self-Presentation Theory, and Social Identity Theory [11]. Measuring self-representation, privacy behaviors, and identity negotiation usually involves quantitative-survey-based methods. Other studies even use Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), or Cluster Analysis to identify patterns of behavior [12]. However, most existing research is limited by the way they either study only a single country or compare two cultures at most [13]. Many surveys have never been culturally adapted or back-translated, and potentially they introduce semantic bias [14]. The existing body of research tends to put a lot of emphasis on privacy concerns to the exclusion of other important constructs like identity negotiation. Some methods rely exclusively on qualitative interviews, which lack statistical generalizability. The past comparative studies rarely tackled the issue of scale reliability in cross-cultural settings [15].

The proposed framework avoids these limitations by including a multi-country, balanced sample of youths from China, the United States, and the United Kingdom for purpose of cross-cultural comparability. The MLR with control variables is employed to isolate culture effects. The study tested culture-adapted questionnaires and then back-translated them for semantic equivalence across languages. Instead of engaging with one dimension of interaction, it touches upon the four major interlinked constructs: self-representation, self-exposure, privacy behavior, and identity negotiation. Once these four constructs have been developed, the reliability of the items forming each construct is established using Cronbach Alpha methodology to ascertain internal consistency. Differences that arise are: integrated culture-behavioral framework, multivariate control, and lastly, identity negotiation as an ongoing process in a multicultural cyberspace.

1.1. Research Objective

- To learn the differences in social media self-representation patterns between Chinese, American, and British youths.

- To analyze variations of disclosure of personal information among youths, which could be considered as self-exposure, by means of level and type across these three cultures.
- To study the varied privacy behaviors across cultures in terms of adoption of privacy settings and controlling audiences.
- To study how online identity negotiation enters among Chinese, American, and British youth in interaction with persons from other cultures.

1.2. Research Question

- **RQ1:** In what ways do Chinese, American, and British youths differ in their self-representation patterns on social media?
- **RQ2:** What are the differences across the three cultures with regard to the level and type of personal information (self-exposure) shared by the youths?
- **RQ3:** How do the privacy behaviors such as privacy settings and audience control differ among Chinese, American, and British youths?
- **RQ4:** How do youths from these cultures negotiate their online identity when interacting with persons from other countries?

1.3. Research Hypothesis

- **H1:** Chinese youth will display more group-oriented and less individual-focused self-representation on social media compared to American and British youth.
- **H2:** Chinese youth will share less personal information (self-exposure) publicly than American and British youth.
- **H3:** Chinese youth will use privacy settings more frequently than American and British youth.
- **H4:** Youth from all three countries will adjust their online identity when interacting with people from other cultures, but Chinese youth will show greater changes in language, topics, or content style than American and British youth.

The structure of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 – Literature Review relevant to social media, cultural influences, and youth identity formation. Section 3 – Methodology: Details the research design, sampling strategy, data collection tools, preprocessing, and analytical methods. Section 4 – Results and Discussion: Presents statistical findings with interpretations, supported by tables and figures. Section 5 – Conclusion and Future Work: Summarizes key findings, highlights implications, and proposes directions for further research

2. Literature Survey

2.1. Self-Representation in social media

Hernández-Serrano *et al.,* [16] analyzed self-presentation practices by Spanish adolescents on Instagram and TikTok involving visual content, audience targeting, and image control. Exploratory and descriptive analyses allowed identification of three major self-presentation factors: social validation, authenticity, and image control. Findings indicate that with time, adolescent users tend to hold truthfulness over social feedback metrics. This is exactly where safe and sustainable practices concerning identity creation. Bij de

Vaate *et al.,* [17]presents whether globalization and digitalization promote either convergence or divergence in online self-presentation. By studying Instagram selfies using facial recognition to infer externally imposed ethno-racial identity, the study found evidence of convergence but more conspicuous patterns of divergence. The results indicate that while there remain some similarities in online self-presentation due to global digital culture, ethno-racial identity still strongly constrains these distinctions. According to Veum *et al.,* [18] teaching critical media literacy to secondary school students in Norway through multimodal analysis and production of self-representations. Based on social semiotics, multimodality, and critical literacy, teachers led the study in deconstruction, questioning, and creation of digital texts. The study reveals that, given a structured framework, students attain meta-semiotic competence required to critically engage with and produce complex multimodal texts that differ from conventional social media-type images and thus provide an analytical frame for a deeper engagement with online content.

2.2. Self-Exposure in Cross-cultural contexts

Al-Shatti *et al.,* [19] explored how impression management concerns may impact acts of unethical workplace behavior within the stressor–strain–outcome framework. Using Instagram as the basis, the study found that impression management might trigger a state of fatigue which in turn increases unethical behavior at work. Gender differences were observed in Kuwait with stronger effects felt by women, whereas no such differences were observed in the UK. Cui *et al.,* [20] presents collectivistic culture, the online self-presentation of Chinese adolescents in physical activities. As a qualitative study utilizing focus groups, it explored cultural norms, motivations, and perceived risks employing Goffman's dramaturgical approach coupled with Boyd's notion of digital self-representation. The study implied that adolescents attempt to be perceived as active, modest, and safe while dealing with such issues as body dissatisfaction, social comparison, and privacy concerns, thus engaging in on-the-spot negotiations between the adolescent's personal value system and the broader sociocultural expectations. Rebello *et al.,* [21] presents the consequences of information-sharing behavior on social media in terms of “revealing” and emotional “healing” experiences. Employing a mixed-methods approach, they analyses how the sense of self and intentions frame self-disclosure patterns. It is shown in the findings that depending on whether one has a secure, insecure, or asocial sense of self, a posting might be considered adaptive or maladaptive, with the positive formulation of healing linked to positive online communities, building resilience, and constructive self-disclosure arising from the meaningful social motives.

2.3. Privacy behaviors and online safety

Dempsey *et al.,* [22]studied children's understanding and design of warning messages to prevent the disclosure of private information online. Basing their study on school children aged 7 to 13 in the UK, they worked with personas and privacy risk scenarios to elicit drawings of warning messages and later analyzed these warnings by way of content analysis. The study aims at contributing toward establishing design guidelines for creating an effective warning message that is child friendly so as to provide better protection for privacy online and encourage safe digital interactions for children. According to Jang and Ko [23] it pertains to children and online safety, under the framework of 4Cs typing of risk: contact, content, conduct, and contract; a comparative study was done to see governance, institutions, and government programs in Australia, Canada, and the UK. The paper highlights the urgency of legislating across multiple levels of polity and policy due to the urgency of countering associated risks being experienced while on the Internet. It proposes that such issues be addressed through setting up dedicated agencies, digital literacy education, and collaboration of educators, parents, and digital firms to enable children and youth to participate in the online world safely and productively. Chatlani *et al.,* [24] created Teenovate-a participatory intergenerational design program for creating teen-centered online safety interventions. They analyze limitations of parent-

centric approaches and place teens as authorities over their own online safety employing a restorative justice frame. It is seen that teens value career experience, diverse perspectives, and meaningful contribution but must have supportive educational spaces to help build their design and research skills. The study envisions a research-apprenticeship model to amplify teens as co-contributors to sustaining agreed-upon online safety solutions.

2.4. Identity negotiation in online communication

Fang *et al.,* [25] considered the creation of multilingual identities of Chinese university students before, during, and after study abroad from an ELF perspective. The research has adopted semi-structured interviews to examine the overseas experiences which link with language use, attitudes, and emotions. The findings point out huge differences in the identity constructions at the various stages of study abroad, with ELF communication aiding in the negotiation of such a multilingual identity. These authors further emphasize the need to incorporate an ELF-based and multilingual pedagogy into language teaching. According to Czakon *et al.,* [26]One would expect mixed methods to be at play when talking about articles examining the development of companies' digital identities in social media. As the basis, the researchers evaluated communications existing among stakeholders and corporations, undertaking an analysis of over 113,000 posts made by major Polish firms. The study highlighted interaction styles differing mostly along the dimensions of control, direction, values, and consciousness. The results concluded that the corporate involvement itself is formed by mostly short-lived micro-interactions and that there is little emphasis placed on the enduring traits of identity in the digital sphere. Novak *et al.,* [27]observed and recorded the online religious activities of young urban Instagram users belonging to diverse religions. The qualitative studies reveal that the mechanism forms content bubbles that are religiously homogeneous but thematically superdiverse. Interreligious exchanges are not frequently practiced, whereas intrareligious boundaries tend to blur more, especially if minorities seek out like-minded people online. The research points out that social media affirm religious belonging and diminish those differences existing within traditions while retaining sharp differences between traditions on the other side.

2.5. Research gap

Earlier studies observe different facets of self-representation, self-exposure, privacy practices, and identity negotiations in the online arena, and yet most studies remain single-country-dominant, platform-specific, or age-group-specific, hence constraining the potential of making cross-national comparisons [19]. Past research discusses adolescents and children as if in isolated cases and without confronting collectivist and individualistic cultural frameworks in the same scheme [22]. Another uncovered gap lies somewhat in second-order integration analyses on the impact of culture on privacy methods of adaptation-to-self-representation, self-exposure, privacy behaviors, and identity negotiation-across multiple countries. There is further scarcely any study focusing on young people between 15 and 24, exploring both collectivist (such as China) and individualistic (such as the USA and UK) cultures to examine how cultural values imprint online identity in a globally linked social media environment [25].

3. Materials and methods

Data collection includes recruiting 450 youth 15–24 from China (Wenjuanxing) and the USA and UK (Google Forms). Data preprocessing includes screening data for eligibility, coding variables into numerical form, and translating with back-translation. This project has made distinctions on independent variables (country/culture), dependent variables (self-representation, self-exposure, privacy, identity negotiation), and control variables (age, gender, platform, time per day). In building the model, the MLR technique will be

used to investigate noticed cultural effects on online practices, while controlling for other factors for systematic cross-cultural comparisons of social media identity practices in **Figure 1**.

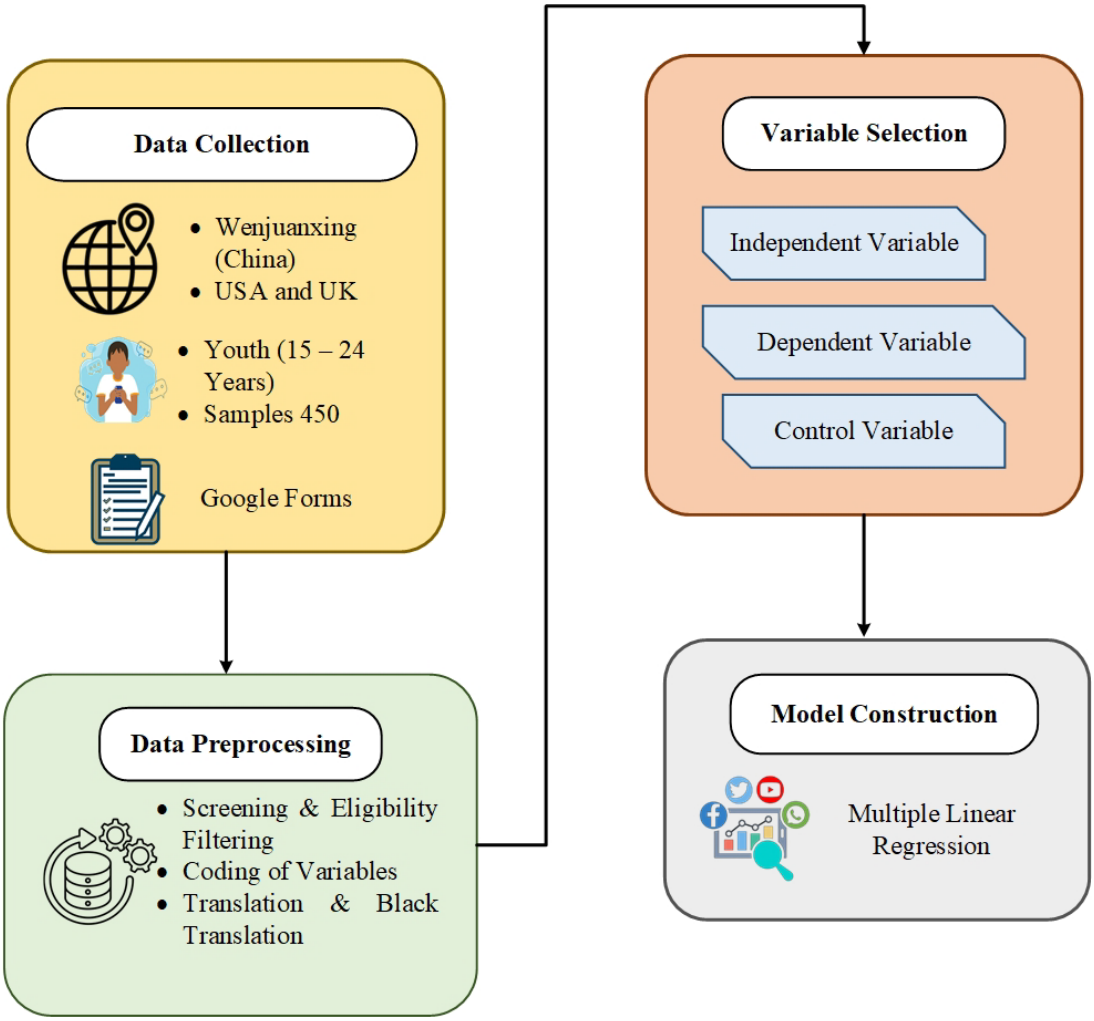

Figure 1. Overall Proposed Framework

3.1. Research design

A descriptive and comparative research design will be employed in this study to investigate the differences between youth from entirely different cultural settings in representing themselves, in exposing themselves to others, in privacy management, and in negotiating identities on social networking sites. In this study, independent variables are country or culture. Data will be generated by a structured questionnaire in an online environment, whereby attitudes and behaviors will be measured on a five-point Likert scale. Becomes crucial in the context of systematic cross-cultural comparison of patterns for understanding the similarities as well as the differences in identity-related practices that occur in the realm of the digital in terms of band culture backgrounds that influence digital strategies for self-presentation.

3.2. Data collection procedure

The study recruited active social media users aged 15–24 from China, the USA, and the UK, defined as users having posted or updated profiles during the past three months. Through stratified purposive sampling balanced for age and gender, participants will be garnered from urban/semi-urban (China) and urban/suburban (USA, UK) areas through schools, youth organizations, online communities, and ads on

social media. The data collection will be through Google Forms (USA, UK) and Wenjuanxing (China) to maintain accessibility and platform familiarity.

3.2.1. Participation

Youth aged 15–24 with active online lives on social media. Such persons have posted or updated their profile on any social media platform within the last three months. It is required that they must have internet access and actively use any major social media platform, including Instagram, TikTok/Douyin, Facebook, and WeChat, and accept to give their informed consent. Those who do not use social media or fall outside these age boundaries will be excluded from this study, filtering the sample to the population that presents and interacts online on today's systems.

3.2.2. Sample size

The study's sample size consists of 450 active social media users aged 15–24, with an equal distribution across China, the USA, and the UK. Each country contributes 150 participants, balanced by age group and gender, ensuring demographic diversity for reliable cross-cultural comparisons in online behavior analysis.

3.2.3. Geographical area

The study intent is to select participants from varying geographical locations for contrasted patterns in social media use. In China, participants will mainly be recruited from major urban and semi-urban-suburban misunderstood periphery areas across Mainland provinces. In the US and UK, selection will target large highly urban scenarios as well as selected suburban areas.

3.2.4. Data collection tool

The data-gathering instrument will be an internet-based questionnaire, with distribution in the United States and the United Kingdom through Google Forms and distribution in China via Wenjuanxing. The choice of platforms was made after careful consideration of the ease of accessibility, user familiarity, and ability to complete the questionnaire on different devices, while at the same time not disregarding regional platform preferences. The questionnaire has been designed to allow easy distribution, wide accessibility, and acceptance by all major operating systems and devices. The copy of the questionnaire that is created through Google Forms.

3.2.5. Recruitment method

Several recruitment strategies were employed so as to reach out to and involve larger segments of the potential diversity in the target population. Invitation mails will be sent via emails from collaborating educational institutions, youth organizations, and community groups. Furthermore, recruitment posts and advertisements will also be circulated upon popular social media platforms to attract the attention of potential respondents. At times, a direct approach might be made via school administrators, teachers, or coordinators of the respective organization to solicit responses. Such intertwining approaches should make increases in the response rate possible, besides representing all demographic and cultural constituents.

3.3. Data Preprocessing

The data preprocessing happened through three primary steps to maintain accuracy, consistency, and comparability. By extracting any valid, complete responses, the requirements of inclusion criteria and removing any invalid, incomplete, duplicate responses, bots, or disengaged responses, a log of cleaning, data cleaning. The second step, variable coding, is transforming categorical and or text responses into numerical data ensuring consistency to coding categories.

3.3.1. Data screening & eligibility filtering

From the date of application to eligibility screening, only responses from participants aged 15–24 who had posted or updated at least one social media profile in the past three months will be retrieved as valid, relevant, and complete. A threshold completion of forms will be removed, as will entries have identified as duplicates or bot-generated by means of IP addresses, timestamps, and precisely the same textual pattern. Disengaged answers will also be discarded, including those with unrealistic completion times, all-one response on Likert scales, or rand answer patterns. These procedures shall be treated as enhancing the earlier recorded validations occurring during the step of the procedure.

3.3.2. Coding of variables

This stage involves converting raw categorical and textual responses into numerical ones, appropriate for statistical computation. To ensure consistency and traceability, a codebook will be developed containing all questionnaire items, listing their variable names, possible response options, types of measurement and the coding one will adopt for value assignment if applicable. Nominal variables thus coded propose no order the integer codes will be assigned. Items of orders or Likert scales indicate ordered categories; hence, such items will be coded consistently with regard to the direction of measurement. Until options can be used by more than one response, each one would be transformed into a binary variable according to Eq (1):

$$D_{ij}=\begin{cases}1 & \text{if option } j \text{ is selected by participant } i\\ 0 & \text{otherwise}\end{cases} \tag{1}$$

Reverse-coded items were processed by using the Eq (2):

$$X_{\text{rev}}=(k+1)-X \tag{2}$$

where k represents the highest possible scale value. Composite scores for multi-item constructs will be computed as either a mean or sum are expressed in Eq (3):

$$\text{Score}_i=\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{ij}}{n} \tag{3}$$

Internal consistency of scales will be checked according to Cronbach's alpha in Eq (4)

$$\alpha=\frac{k}{k-1}\left(1-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k}\sigma_{Y_i}^2}{\sigma_X^2}\right) \tag{4}$$

where k is number of items, $\sigma_{Y_i}^2$ is variance of each item, and σ_X^2 is variance of the total score. Missing values will be treated according to a set of prescribed rules and appropriate missing-value codes will be applied. All original data files will be preserved, unmodified, for traceability purposes.

3.3.3. Translation & back-translation

Translation and back-translation of answers will be achieved for semantic equivalence between two languages, so cross-cultural comparisons may be made reliably. In the forward translation, a professional bilingual translator shall translate from Chinese to English. A comparison of the two Chinese versions will be made to have discrepancies resolved through consensus among the translators and an expert in the subject, thereby preserving the original meaning and cultural nuances. A glossary of agreed translations for all key terms should always be maintained to ensure consistency throughout the dataset. For qualitative coding, bilingual coders are going to code in the original language whenever possible; if English is selected to perform such coding, then the coding of two independent coders shall proceed, for which intercoder reliability will be calculated by Cohen's kappa in Eq (5):

$$\kappa=\frac{P_o-P_e}{1-P_e} \quad (5)$$

Where, P_o is the proportion of observed agreement between coders, whileP_e is the proportion of agreement one should expect by chance. If the κ obtained from the analysis is more than 0.80, then it will be termed as excellent agreement; accordingly, those between 0.60 and 0.79 will be accepted for this study.

3.4. Study Hypotheses and Variables

3.4.1. Study hypotheses

H1: *Chinese youths will show a more group-oriented and less individualistic self-representation as compared to youths in America and Britain on social media.*

The cultural values will exert a strong influence concerning young people in forging self-presentation on the social web. When analyzed from a collectivist cultural vantage point, Chinese youths will tend to stress shared group identity and experiences that are oriented toward their community, rather than pointing to the achievements of the self or engaging in self-promotion. Contrarywise, the youth in America and Britain being of individualistic cultures would gravitate towards personal expression, results, and the branding of self. This differentiation can be analyzed in the survey items that measure the thematic focus, tone, and visual style of posts and allow for entertainment across these three cultural configurations.

H2: *Chinese youth will share less personal information (self-exposure) publicly than American and British youth.*

Another way of deepening this hypothesis is to propose that the Chinese youths will have lesser self-exposure publicly on social media platforms compared with American-British youths. Being a culture with residue values on the respect of privacy, being humble, and maintaining personal boundaries, Chinese individuals are expected to constrain the amount and sensitivity of information they share. Such information may range from personal photos or descriptions of their intimate relationships to even real-time sharing of their location. The inter-cultural difference shall be measured using survey questions related to how frequently personal information, since authenticated by concrete types shared, is published on public profiles.

H3: *Chinese youth will use privacy settings more frequently than American and British youth.*

It is suggested that Chinese youths tend to be more cautious about privacy settings on social media and thus much more active than their American and British counterparts. The very nature of this propensity lies in the ever-increasing level of privacy consciousness and a culture surrounding the control of the flow of information of a private nature, combined with some awareness of platform functions that accommodate private sharing. Consequently, these Chinese youngsters would be inclined to be quite active in audience selection and in restricting certain users from viewing their profiles. To test this, the study will observe the participants' frequency and types of privacy control used on the various social media.

H4: *Youth from all three countries will adjust their online identity when interacting with people from other cultures, but Chinese youth will show greater changes in language, topics, or content style than American and British youth.*

This premise proposes that youths, in China, the United States, and the United Kingdom, will practice an amount of identity transformation online when interacting with foreign-cultural counterparts, with Chinese youth exerting a greater degree of change. Guided by their collectivistic cultural values that highly prize social harmony, Chinese youths are presumed to actualize some modification in aspects such as language preference, topic of discussion, and style of content in accordance with that culture's expectations. Data to test this hypothesis will be based on survey responses from Chinese youths regarding surveys that

probe into their own perceptions of change in communication style, visual presentation, and thematic content while undergoing cross-cultural online interactions.

3.4.2. Study variables

Groupings on the basis of nationality or first culture to compare with online behavior in **Figure 2**: the independent variable is Country/Culture (China, USA, and UK). Dependent variables might include Patterns of Self-Representation (group-oriented versus individual presentation, tone of content, or style of imagery), Level of Self-Exposure (how much and how sensitive is the personal information that is shared publicly), Privacy-Related Behavior (setting use, audience restriction, blocking, deletion), and Identity Negotiation (altering language, topics, and style for cross-cultural audience-members). Control variables would be Age (15–24 years), Gender Identification (male, female, non-binary, prefer not to say), Primary Social Media Channel (Instagram, TikTok/Douyin, WeChat, Facebook), and Average Daily Time Spent on social media (< 1 hr; 1 to 2 hrs; 3 to 4 hrs; > 4 hrs).

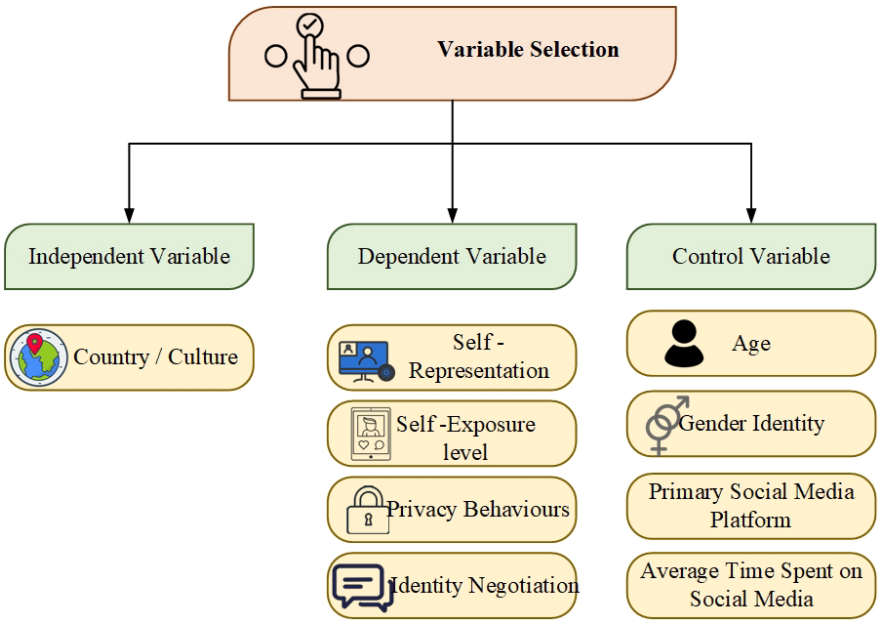

Figure 2. Variable Selection

❖ ***Independent Variable (IV)***

In this research, the independent variable is Country/Culture (China, USA, UK), grouping participants by their nationality or main cultural identification. This is the primary factor for comparison, for it establishes one cultural context within which youths engage with social media. The working hypothesis is that the different cultural backgrounds will potentially weigh upon the online behaviors with regard to self-aggrandizements, self-exposal, privacy concerns, and the negotiation of identities to identify and compare trends cross-nationally, while contrasting the divergences originating from collectivist and individualistic cultural orientations.

Country/Culture: China, USA, UK

- The independent variable is Country/Culture, which places participants in three separate groups. The groups for the variable are based on nationality or the primary cultural affiliation of the subject: China, the United States, and the United Kingdom.

- The variable stands as the main factor of comparison, wherein culture serves as the contextual framework in which youth respond to social media.
- It is expected that these variants of cultural backgrounds would impact important reflections of online behavior-formulations such as self-representation, self-exposure, privacy practices, and identity negotiation-that could help cross-national identification and comparison of patterns and divergences.

Dependent Variables (DV)

Study variables comprise dependent variables: Self Representation Patterns describe whether the acting participants portray themselves online in group-oriented or individualistic terms; these are cultural values and are measured through questionnaires with Likert-scale answers. Privacy behaviors look at how personal control is exercised over information through their settings, or by limiting the audience, or removal of content itself-these are measured using Likert scales or binary segmentations. Identity Negotiation deals with adaptation in language, topic, and style so as to be suitable for cross-cultural audiences, again measured on Likert scales and qualitative self-reports.

1. Self-Representation Patterns

- Means forms that participant present themselves on social media or outlets (group-facing or individual-focus).
- Tone of content, imagery style (selfies, group photos, symbolic images), and personal brandability index of sorts are all considered here.
- There are some cultural values at play underlining these representations, i.e., collectivism or individualism.
- Likert items assessed the participant's agreement to statements pertaining to self-representation.

2. Self-Exposure Level

- Measures the sensitivity and volume of personal information widely available (e.g., personal photos, location, and relationship status).
- Covers the quantity and the type of information shared publicly.
- Gives a glimpse into whether a subject tends to be open or cautious online.
- Measured with a frequency scale ("never" to "always") and with some categorical questions ("yes"/"no").

3. Privacy Behaviors

This pertains to how people try to seek control to the access over their personal information and visibility with respect to the audience.

- It includes changing privacy settings, choosing a limitation of audiences, blocking users, deleting content, and so on.
- Could be an awareness about online risks and general cultural attitudes about privacy.
- Often measured with Likert frequency items and dichotomous yes/no items (e.g., "do you have a private account?").

4. Identity Negotiation

- Focuses on negotiating for targeted cross-cultural identity.
- Includes alterations for language, topics, and style in content to target audiences from different cultures.
- Represents cultural sensitivity and adaptability across online communication.
- Measured using Likert-scaled items and allowing for self-reports of examples for qualitative context.

Control Variable

The study include age (viz., 15–24 years) to represent the particular youth segment among which social media use culminates, with the underlying assumption that the respondents are all in roughly the same developmental stage in life; gender identity attempts to account for possible differential behavior in self-presentation, self-exposure, and privacy choices rooted in gendered social norms, measured nominally and thus converted into numerical codes; primary social media platform used since different platforms recorded as multi-select responses and then dummy coded; and average time spent on social media in a typical day, corresponding to the person-level measure of intensity, and hence possible exposure levels to cross-cultural interactions-they may be treated as continuous in hours or categorical (<1 hour, 1–2 hours, 3–4 hours, and >4 hours).

1. Age (15–24 years)

- This age group represents the targeted youth for the study, thereby ensuring that the participants are of the same developmental stage where social media use is generally very high.
- An estimate could be made that a person who is 10 years older could already have a different way of perceiving behavior or an altogether different kind of behavior when it comes to online behavior.
- Typically collected as a continuous variable (exact age in years) or grouped into age ranges (e.g., 15–17, 18–20, 21–24).

2. Gender Identity

- States how a given participant self-identifies in terms of gender identity (e.g., male, female, non-binary, prefer not to say).
- Controlling for gender would control for differing behavior concerning self-presentation, self-exposure, and privacy that may be rooted in gendered social norms.
- It was measured as a nominal variable and then numerically coded for analysis (Male = 1, Female = 2, non-binary = 3, Prefer not to say = 4).

3. Primary social media means

- The main social media platforms, like Instagram, TikTok/Douyin, WeChat, Facebook, engaged in by participants most frequently.
- The choice of platform still determines the style of content generated, levels of exposure, and, therefore, privacy attitudes, as each platform is different in terms of characteristics and audience norms.

- Received as a multi-select question and then transformed into dummy variables for the purpose of analysis (e.g., TikTok = 1 if used, and 0 if otherwise).

4. Average Time Spent on social media on a Daily Basis

- While measuring the variable, respondent involvement is taken as the measure of degree that an individual participates in social networking activities on a day-to-day basis.
- High usage could create the greater possibilities of posting instances, risk-taking perception, or opportunities for interaction among the cultures.
- It can be measured either as a continuous variable or as an ordinal variable such as <1 hour, 1-2 hours, 3-4 hours, >4 hours.

3.5. Multiple linear regression

The study will utilize the statistical machinery of MLR to understand if culture (China, USA, UK) plays any role in the extent of changes in the four dependent variables Self-Representation, Self-Exposure, Privacy Behaviors, and Identity Negotiation and while holding other important covariates constant, including age, gender, major social media platform, and average time of use per day for social media. Here, Country/Culture is treated as a categorical independent variable and dummy coded so that China is used as the reference category. This coding allows the coefficients for the USA and UK variables to be interpreted as the expected change in the dependent variable relative to the Chinese baseline, holding all other predictors constant. The general mathematical form of the MLR model in Eq (6):

$$Y_i=\beta_0+\beta_1(USA)+\beta_2(UK)+\beta_3(\text{ Age })+\beta_4(\text{ Gender })+\beta_5(\text{ Platform })+\beta_6(\text{ DailyTime })+\epsilon_i \quad (6)$$

Where, Y_i= score of the dependent variable for participant i, β_0= intercept-the predicted score for a Chinese participant with baseline characteristics, β_1= estimated difference between USA and China, β_2= estimated difference between UK and China, β_3 to β_6= effects of the continuous or categorical control variables, ϵ_i= residual error term reflecting the variance not explained by the predictors Separate regression models will be made for each dependent variable so that analysis in its focused form can remain concerned with specific effects of culture on particular behaviors. For analyses, all predictors entered at once into the model (enter method), thereby accounting for any possible confounding effects. Levels of tolerance for statistical significance will be set at $p<0.05$, and the standardized beta coefficients (β^*) will be used to compare the predictors directly in terms of their importance. Model assumptions will be checked to verify the validity of the results, such as linearity, independence of residuals, normality of errors, homoscedasticity, and no multicollinearity. In the event that culture is seen to have a significant overall effect, post-hoc pairwise comparisons (USA-China, UK-China, USA-UK) will facilitate identifying cultural contrasts most pertinent to the present study. This will allow for an elevated position regarding the understanding of national cultural contexts as having bearing much farther upon the shaping of online identity-related behavior against common demographic or platform usage variables.

4. Result and discussion

The survey responses also included full demographic data, with an equal sample across age groups and a fairly even sample of gender identity.The sample of individuals in the survey was diverse across countries and social media use was across different platforms and times of use per day. The average level of engagement for self-representation, privacy, and cross-cultural adaptation behaviors across the sections was defined as "moderate". Reliability analyses showed weak inter-item and item-total correlations for a larger

pool of items and exploratory factor analyses revealed only one or two components that were interesting. Correlations within sections were very low, only discovered a weak, statistically significant positive correlation within one section.

Table 1. Completeness of Demographic Data Across Key Variables

Statistics						
		What is your age?	**What is your gender identity?**	**Which country do you currently live in?**	**Which social media platform do you use most frequently?**	**How much time do you spend on social media each day?**
N	Valid	450	450	450	450	450
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0

Table 1 shows that a total of 450 participants responded to their five key demographic aspects, namely age, gender identity, current country of residence, most frequently used social media platform, and average daily time spent on social media. Without any missing responses, this resulted in a fully complete data set; such a 100% response rate implies that no case was excluded from the sample containing any incomplete demographic information, maintaining the sample's integrity. The greater the completeness, the more reliable and valid are statistical analyses carried out later; hence, this allows for accurate cross-cultural comparisons while minimizing potential biases resulting from missing demographic data.

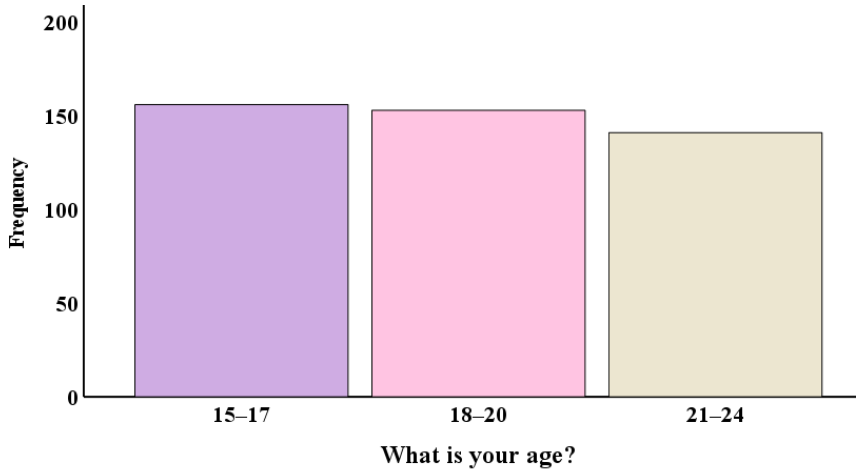

Figure 3. Age Distribution of Participants

Figure 3 shows the age distribution of the 450 participants surveyed. While the largest group is 15–17 years with 34.7% (n=156), a nearly equal number of participants, 34.0% (n=153), are in the 18–20 group. The 21–24 age group trails the furthest at 31.3% (n=141), yet it is still comparable in size with the other groups. This relative balance in the age distribution among the three groups maintains adequate demographic diversity and prevents sampling bias from creeping in due to age. The sample has a solid representation for subsequent work in cross-group comparisons, wherein patterns of social media behavior across different age groups of youth are examined.

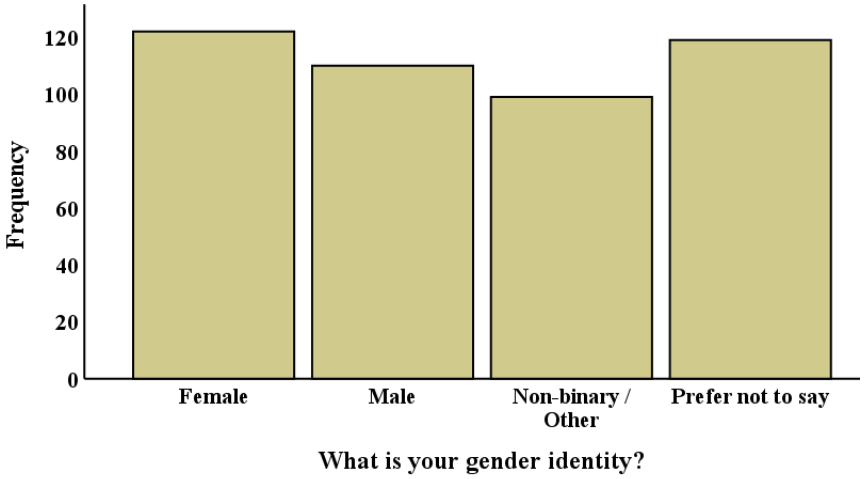

Figure 4. Gender Identity Distribution of Participants

The distribution of gender identity among the presented 450 respondents was an almost-even one. Hence, as they set out to capture the sample, females with 27.1 percent (n=122) were the most prominent group, those with no disclosure of their gender identity were at 26.7 percent (120). Males stood at 24.4% (n=110), while non-binary/other ranked last at 22.2% (n=100). Representation across categories is fairly spread and ensures the dataset appreciates a diverse set of perspectives. Such a representation of gender identities sets an initial premise for delving into whether gender groups may differ within the cross-cultural, identity-oriented research framework on social media behavior that the study has set for itself shown in **Figure 4**.

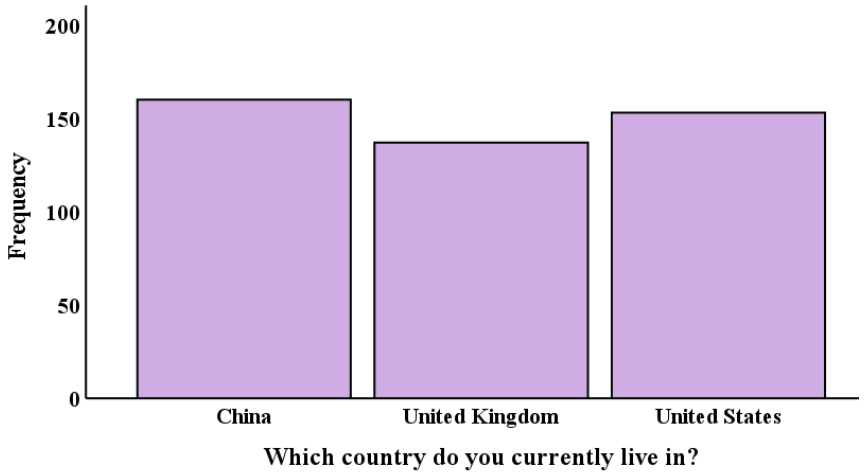

Figure 5. Country of Residence Distribution of Participants

Figure 5 shows the distribution of residence of 450 participants the 35.6 percent (n=160) reside in China, 33.8 percent (n=152) in the United States, and 30.7 percent (n=138) in the United Kingdom. The proportions are balanced to a reasonable extent, China being the most populous group, closely followed by the United States, while the United Kingdom is the smallest. With almost equal representations from all three nations, the members assure a good representation for each country. Hence, cross-national studies can be conducted using this method. An equal split of the sample across the three countries is necessary for making any valid conclusions about cultural differences in social media use and online identity-related behaviors.

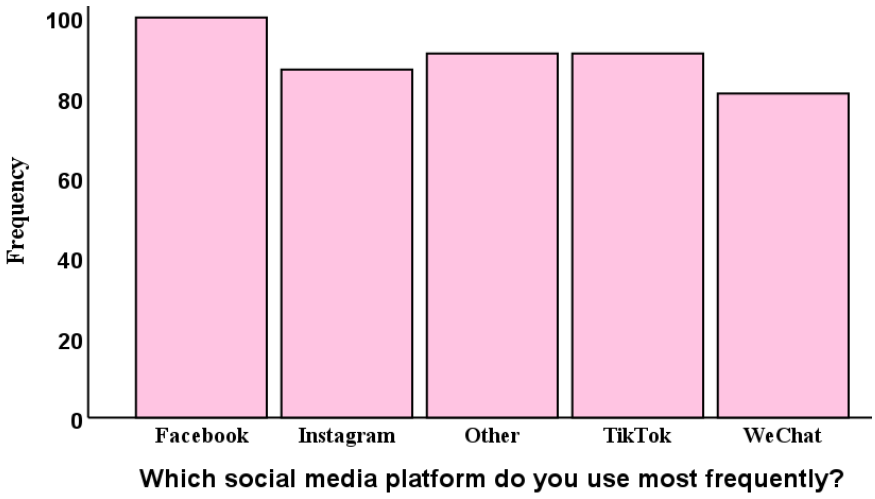

Figure 6. Most Frequently Used Social Media Platforms

The distribution of 450 participants by their most frequently used social media platform. Facebook had the highest proportion with 22.2% (n=100), TikTok/Douyin and Other platforms were both at 20.2% (n=91) in **Figure 6**. There were 87 participants (19.3%) used Instagram most frequently. WeChat was the social media platform of the least frequent use with 80 participants (17.8%) using it most frequently. Overall, the data appears to show a relatively even spread across social media platforms, with Facebook (22.2%) in the lead, TikTok/Douyin (20.2%) and Other (20.2%) close behind, and then Instagram (19.3%) and WeChat (17.8%) having slightly less frequency of use amongst participants of the survey.

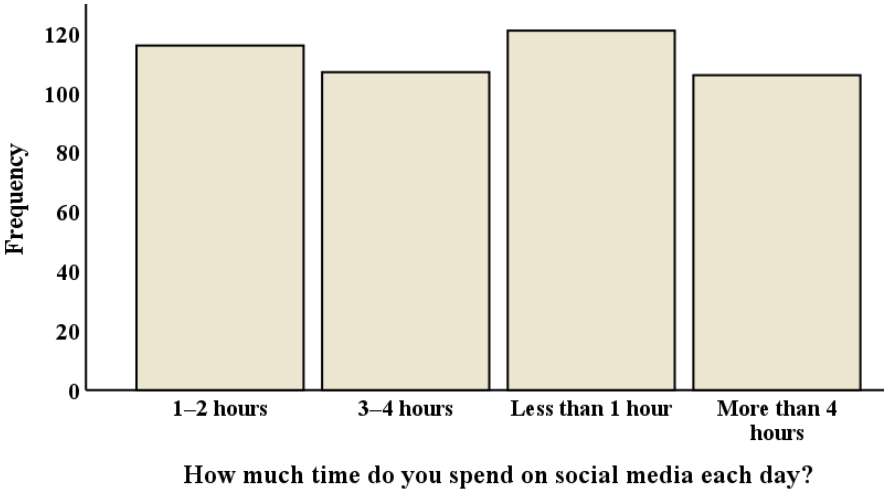

Figure 7. Daily Time Spent on social media

The social media usage of 450 survey participants in **Figure 7**. The largest segment of participants spends less than 1 hour on social networking daily (26.9%, n=121), followed closely by 1-2 hours (25.1%, n=113). Daily usage of social media for 3-4 hours is 23.8% (n=107), with the remaining 23.1% (n=104) reporting daily usage of more than 4 hours. The overall distribution across multiple time periods suggests that while a number of participants engage with social media for shorter periods of time, almost half spend 3 or more hours on social media daily, demonstrating the intensity of usage in this sample.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Self-Representation Patterns on social media

Statistics					
Section		**My posts focus more on group activities than on myself.**	**I often post photos that include friends or family rather than just me.**	**My captions or posts emphasize collective achievements over personal ones.**	**I use symbols or imagery that reflect my cultural identity.**
N	Valid	450	450	450	450
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.06	2.98	2.88	3.02
Std. Error of Mean		.065	.068	.067	.066
Std. Deviation		1.369	1.436	1.420	1.402
Variance		1.874	2.062	2.018	1.966
Minimum		1	1	1	1
Sum		1375	1342	1298	1361
Percentiles	25	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
	50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00

Four self-representation questions were presented before valid responses of 450 participants, with no missing score is shown in **Table 2**. Analyzing the descriptive statistics indicates a moderate agreement among respondents on all modes of self-representation. To elaborate: engaging in group activities (M = 3.06, SD = 1.369), posting pictures of oneself with friends/family (M = 2.98, SD = 1.436), discussing collective accomplishments (M = 2.88, SD = 1.420), and using cultural symbols/imagery (M = 3.02, SD = 1.402). Finally, the variances range between 1.874 and 2.062 and are of similar spread, with minimum responses of 1 and 75th percentile values of 4 for all items, suggesting that high endorsement of these behaviors is made by at least a quarter of the participants.

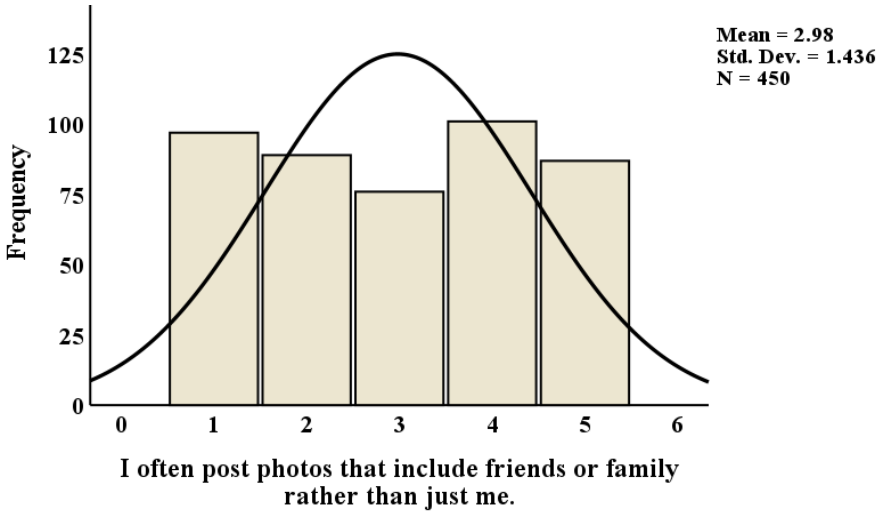

Figure 8. Frequency Distribution of Posting Photos Featuring Friends or Family

The responses of 450 respondents on the statement I often post photos that include friends or family rather than just me in **Figure 8**. The mean is 2.98 with a standard deviation of 1.436, which indicates perhaps

some moderate level of agreement but with considerable variability. The frequency distribution looks quite even, with distinct peaks on 1 and 4, both with above 100 respondents, against mid scores (3) with just about 75 respondents. This goes to prove a diverse behavior in posting, as the participants remain split among low, medium, and high inclusion of others in their photos.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Self-Exposure and Privacy Behaviors on social media

Statistics							
		I post updates about my daily life.	**I share my location in real-time on social media.**	**I post about my relationships (e.g., dating, family).**	**I avoid sharing sensitive personal details online. (Reverse coded)**	**I post personal information publicly rather than in private messages.**	**I regularly change my privacy settings.**
N	Valid	450	450	450	450	450	450
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.97	3.02	3.10	3.00	3.04	2.95
Std. Error of Mean		.068	.068	.065	.065	.065	.068
Std. Deviation		1.445	1.435	1.389	1.381	1.389	1.449
Variance		2.088	2.060	1.930	1.906	1.929	2.100
Minimum		1	1	1	1	1	1
Sum		1338	1359	1395	1352	1369	1328
Percentiles	25	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
	50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.00
	75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00

The responses of 450 individuals regarding self-disclosure and privacy behaviors on social media in **Table 3**. Posting about relationships garnered the highest score (3.10, SD = 1.389), followed by "sharing location in real-time" (M = 3.02, SD = 1.435), and "avoiding sensitive personal details" (M = 3.00, SD = 1.381, reverse-coded). "Posting updates about daily life" scored M = 2.97 (SD = 1.445), "posting personal information publicly" scored M = 3.04 (SD = 1.389), and "regularly changing privacy settings" scored M = 2.95 (SD = 1.449). Agreement ranged from 1 to 5 for each item, with variance values ranging between 1.906 and 2.100, describing the differing behaviors across the participants.

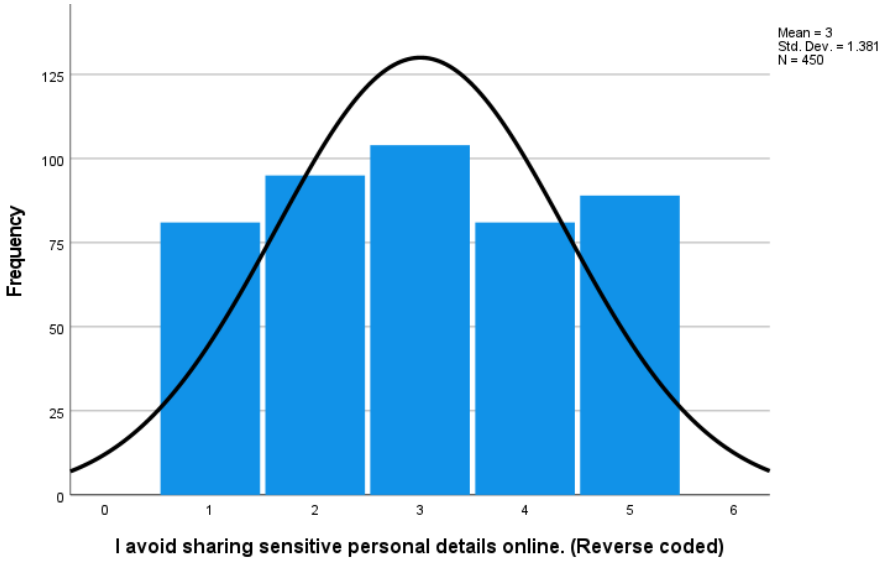

Figure 9. Distribution of Responses on Avoiding Sensitive Personal Detail Sharing

The frequency of responses from 450 participants when questioned about the sharing of sensitive personal information via the Internet in **Figure 9**. Measured on a Likert Score of 1 to 5, and hence reversed, the mean score is 3.00 with an SD of 1.381, implying that the common person generally tends to avoid such disclosures. Most of the respondents gave a frequency rating of 3, followed by one of 2 and 5, showing that personalities tend to have different privacy modes. At the other end of the spectrum, relatively lower frequencies observed for extremes 1 and 4, with the curve almost tracing a normal curve of responses along the scale.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Privacy Management and Cross-Cultural Communication Behaviors

Statistics							
Section		**I limit the audience for some of my posts.**	**I block or restrict people from viewing my profile.**	**I delete posts if I feel uncomfortable with them being online.**	**I prefer to keep my account private rather than public.**	**I review my friends or followers list regularly.**	**I change my language style when interacting with people from other cultures.**
N	Valid	450	450	450	450	450	450
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.06	3.06	2.95	2.84	2.94	3.00
Std. Error of Mean		.067	.066	.064	.068	.066	.068
Std. Deviation		1.422	1.407	1.365	1.438	1.403	1.436
Variance		2.021	1.978	1.862	2.068	1.968	2.062
Minimum		1	1	1	1	1	1
Sum		1377	1378	1329	1278	1325	1352
Percentiles	25	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
	50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00

The descriptive statistics for six dimensions of cross-cultural communication and privacy management behaviors for 450 participants, without any missing cases. The means range between 2.84 ("I prefer to keep my account private rather than public") and the tie of 3.06 ("I limit the audience for some of my posts" and "I block or restrict people from viewing my profile"). It seems there is little inclination to engage in these behaviors. Standard deviations range between 1.365 and 1.438, which describes an average variation. There is a median of 3.00 for all items that is practically neutral to slightly positive among the participants as most of the ratings are mostly located between 2.00 and 4.00 on the Likert scale shows in **Table 4**.

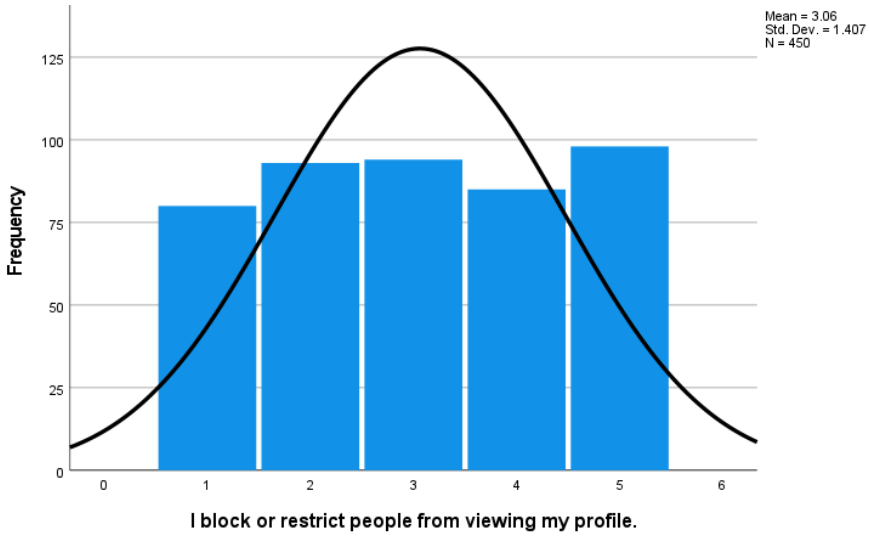

Figure 10. Frequency Distribution of Blocking or Restricting Profile Viewers

The recapitulates the feelings of 450 respondents, in response to the prompt saying I have blocked or restricted people from viewing my-profile. The mean response value was 3.06 (SD = 1.407), thus suggesting slight use of blocking/restricting features. A fairly balanced response curve reveals a distinct hump around the mid-level at score 3, with almost equal representation at all five points of the Likert scale. This means that on one side, a small majority may be formed by respondents who, generally, do not engage much in privacy, while on the other side, responses are nearly symmetrical in equal numbers who do. Thereby, these samples categorize different tendencies toward privacy management is shown in **Figure 10**.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for Cross-Cultural Identity Adaptation

Statistics							
		I adapt my choice of topics depending on who I am communicating with online.	**I modify my posting style to suit different audiences.**	**I use culturally neutral content when posting for a global audience.**	**I avoid topics that might be controversial in other cultures.**	**I change the type of photos or media I post when interacting with international friends.**	**I feel comfortable adjusting my online identity for cross-cultural interactions.**
N	Valid	450	450	450	450	450	450
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.99	3.06	3.01	2.98	2.91	3.08
Std. Error of Mean		.068	.067	.065	.068	.066	.068
Std. Deviation		1.434	1.418	1.373	1.451	1.395	1.441

Statistics							
		I adapt my choice of topics depending on who I am communicating with online.	**I modify my posting style to suit different audiences.**	**I use culturally neutral content when posting for a global audience.**	**I avoid topics that might be controversial in other cultures.**	**I change the type of photos or media I post when interacting with international friends.**	**I feel comfortable adjusting my online identity for cross-cultural interactions.**
Variance		2.058	2.010	1.884	2.104	1.945	2.076
Minimum		1	1	1	1	1	1
Sum		1344	1376	1356	1341	1309	1387
Percentiles	25	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
	50	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
	75	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00

Table 5. (*Continued*)

Descriptive statistics depict individual cross-cultural adaptations emerging from 450 good and valid responses in **Table 5**. Mean scores oscillated between 2.91 for changing photos/media for international friends and 3.08 for `comfortably adjusting online identity, implying some levels of agreement on the 5-point scale. Other mean values include; 2.99 (adapting topics), 3.06 (modifying posting style), 3.01 (using culturally neutral content), and 2.98 (avoiding controversial topics). Standard deviations ranged from 1.373 to 1.451, implying disagreement among responses. The median values consistently sat at 3.00, with most participants moderately practicing identity negotiation strategies across cultural contexts.

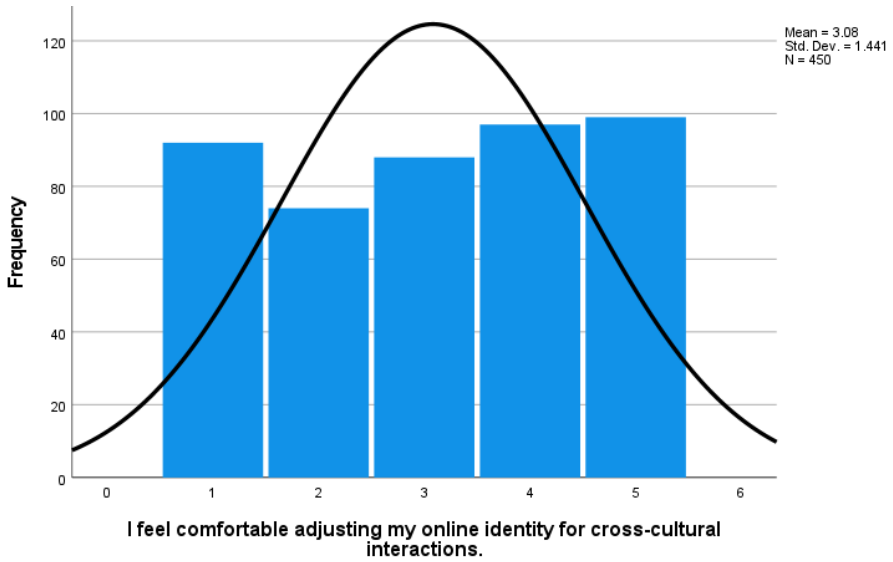

Figure 11. Comfort in Adjusting Online Identity for Cross-Cultural Interactions

To express their feelings about modifying their online identity in cross-cultural interaction in **Figure 11**. The mean value is reported as 3.08 with a standard deviation of 1.441. This is indicative of a moderate agreement with varied responses. The distribution shows spikes in the lower (1–2) and upper (4–5) ends of the scale, indicating widely varied levels of comfort. The two highest frequency ratings are 4 and 5, though the greatest number of participants indicate being comfortable with such adjustments, while a minority remains uncomfortable adjusting their online identities for cross-cultural interactions.

Table 6. Item-Total Statistics for Scale Reliability Analysis

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	**Scale Variance if Item Deleted**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Squared Multiple Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
section1	8.9807	.975	-.035	.007	.113
section2	8.9766	.954	.021	.001	.019
section3	9.0155	.908	.056	.013	-.039[a]
section4	8.9793	.918	.026	.019	.010

The Item-Total Statistics table analyses the impact of deleting single items from the index in **Table 6**. The Scale Mean if Item Deleted ranges from 8.9766 to 9.0155 with only minor differences as a possible range in total scoring if any one item were deleted. Scale Variance if Item Deleted ranges from 0.908 to 0.975. Corrected Item-Total Correlation suggests the items in this index are added very weakly (–0.035 to 0.056) to the overall scale for a given participant's measurement. Cronbach's Alpha using if Item Deleted suggests are deleting a future item number not likely to increase internal consistency (–0.039 to 0.113).

Table 7. Inter-Item Correlation Matrix Analysis

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix				
	section1	**section2**	**section3**	**section4**
section1	1.000	.031	-.013	-.078
section2	.031	1.000	-.009	.013
section3	-.013	-.009	1.000	.115
section4	-.078	.013	.115	1.000

The inter-item correlation matrix provides one or more indicators about the inter-correlation that may exist among factors in **Table 7**. Dropped within that range of –0.078 and 0.115 as per the types of exercises, the values point to very low inter-correlations. Section1 is very weakly and positively correlated with section2 (0.031) but is weakly and negatively correlated with section3 (–0.013) and section4 (–0.078). Section2 has almost no correlation with section3 (–0.009) or section4 (0.013). Section3 correlates best with section4 (0.115), albeit weakly. With all correlations being close to zero, there are extremely weak linear connections between items, which suggests that the sections measure rather different aspects of the construct.

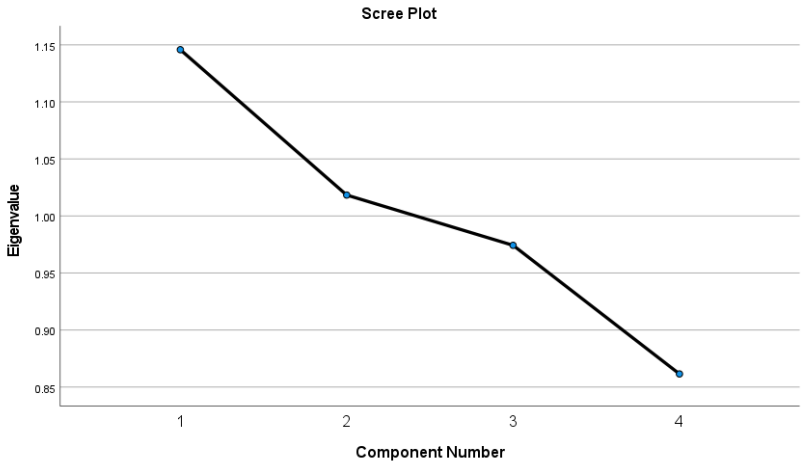

Figure 12. Scree Plot of Principal Components

Component 1 has the highest value of 1.15 in eigenvalue, followed by Component 2 at 1.02, Component 3 at 0.98, and Component 4 at 0.86. The sharpest drop occurred between Component 1 and Component 2, denoting that the first component explains the largest variance space. The subsequent components explain less and less with values falling below 1 and thus only suggests little explanation from them. Hence, this pattern means that from the factor analysis perspective, only the first one or two components are useful is shown in **Figure 12**.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics of Survey Sections

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	**Std. Deviation**	**N**
section1	3.0033	.57234	450
section2	3.0074	.53619	450
section3	2.9685	.54533	450
section4	3.0048	.56247	450

The descriptive statistics show that means for each of the four sections were around the 3.0 mark, indicating that the participants had a moderate level of agreement. Section 1 had a mean of 3.0033 (SD = 0.57234), too close to Section 2's 3.0074 (SD = 0.53619), which had the highest score. Section 3 had the lowest mean at 2.9685 (SD = 0.54533), and Section 4 had a mean of 3.0048 (SD = 0.56247). The standard deviations were quite low and ranged between 0.53619 and 0.57234, showing very low variation in that among the 450 participants, there were only minor differences in results in **Table 8**.

Table 9. Correlation Analysis of Survey Sections

Correlations					
		section1	**section2**	**section3**	**section4**
section1	Pearson Correlation	1	.031	-.013	-.078
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.518	.791	.097
	N	450	450	450	450
section2	Pearson Correlation	.031	1	-.009	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.518		.857	.782
	N	450	450	450	450
section3	Pearson Correlation	-.013	-.009	1	.115*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.791	.857		.015
	N	450	450	450	450
section4	Pearson Correlation	-.078	.013	.115*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.097	.782	.015	
	N	450	450	450	450

The correlation matrix presents mostly feeble correlations among the four sections. Section 1 entertains almost no positive relationship with Section 2 ($r = 0.031$, $p = 0.518$), whereas it possesses a weakly negative correlation against Sections 3 and 4, with $r = -0.013$, $p = 0.791$ and $r = -0.078$, $p = 0.097$ respectively. Section 2 shows a weak positive correlation with Section 4 ($r = 0.013$, $p = 0.782$) and negative correlation with Section 3 ($r = -0.009$, $p = 0.857$). Section 3 and Section 4 show a weak but statistically significant positive correlation ($r = 0.115$, $p = 0.015$), suggesting a slight association in **Table 9**.

5. Conclusion and future work

The study examined the manner in which youth from different cultures navigate online self-representation, self-disclosure, privacy management, and identity negotiation. It was found that culture matters; there were differences in their ability to show group-oriented or collective self-presentation, self-disclosure practices, amounts of personal information shared, and privacy management strategies. Cross-cultural adaptability emerged as a moderate practice among respondents. According to the respondents, many changed their content and styles according to different audiences, but this type of practice was not universally common. The findings of this study indicate representation across a variety of demographic groups, aged 15–17 *n*=156,34.7%, 18–20 *n*=153,34.0%, and 21–24 *n*=141,31.3%.Gender identity had variability: 27.1% were female (n=122), 24.4% were male (n=110), 22.2% were non-binary/other (n=100), and 26.7% characterized the unused choice, "prefer not to say" (n=120). Participants engaged with social media in the country of China (35.6%, n=160), the USA (33.8%, n=152), and the UK (30.7%, n=138). Participants reported spending time on social media and time usage indicated participants would spend less than one hour (n=121, 26.9%) and more than four hours (n=104, 23.1%) using social media. Future work may want to extend the sample to additional countries, explore trends around specific platforms with greater depth, and use qualitative methods to describe why youths engage in certain online behaviors.Future longitudinal work might consider investigating the shift in use patterns as they try to adapt to the changes in technology and culture.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest

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