

EFFECTS OF SOCIAL MEDIA USAGE FREQUENCY AND BODY IMAGE ON SELF-ESTEEM

Defne KAYIRAN *

Yeditepe University, İstanbul, Türkiye

Deren ÖNEN

Yeditepe University, İstanbul, Türkiye

Deniz KORKMAZ

Yeditepe University, İstanbul, Türkiye

Duygu Simay KAPLAN

Yeditepe University, İstanbul, Türkiye

Zeynep Merve ÜNAL

Yeditepe University, İstanbul, Türkiye

© The Author(s) 2026

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to investigate the impact of individuals' social media usage frequency and body image on their self-esteem. The study was conducted with 200 (65% female, 35% male) participants aged from 18 to 35. The Social Media Addiction Scale (SMAS), comprising 20 items; the Body Image-2 Scale (BAS), comprising 10 items; and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RBSS), comprising 10 items, were used as data collection tools. The findings show that there is a significantly positive relationship between body image and self-esteem as well as a weak yet statistically significant negative relationship between social media usage frequency and self-esteem. As the time spent on social media increases, body image is negatively affected, and lower self-esteem is observed. In the correlation analysis, Twitter and TikTok use were found to be associated with increased social media usage frequency and low body image, while WhatsApp use was associated with higher self-esteem. Participants who use social media for social interaction, entertainment, shopping, or news engage with it more frequently than those who use it for educational purposes. Women tend to have higher social media usage frequency scores and lower self-esteem compared to men. Married individuals tend to have a more positive body image and are more likely to use social media compared to single individuals. Employment status was found to have an effect on social media usage frequency and self-esteem.

©2026.All rights reserved.

*Corresponding Author

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: 08/01/2026
Accepted: 09/05/2026
Published online: 25/10/2026

KEYWORDS

Body image, social media usage frequency,
self-esteem, social media, body appreciation

Introduction

Social media is a massive part of our lives. Watching online content, seeing what friends and relatives are doing, and getting things done on social media and the internet are now an inevitable part of our daily lives. In other words, social media (including familiar ones such as Facebook and Twitter) are a diverse and rapidly evolving technology cluster that creates online communal spaces where groups can interact, discuss, coordinate, or coproduce (Coiera, 2013). With the development of social media, the concept of “influence” and the profession of influencer have entered our lives. Consumers typically replicate the styles of celebrities when they feel they relate to them, which justifies their reasoning to buy into the fashion trends (Stone, 2007). Moreover, this leads to social comparison and low self-esteem and body dissatisfaction. Prior studies on the link between Instagram use and women’s body dissatisfaction mainly focused on social comparison behaviors with peers (Fardouly, Diedrichs, Vartanian, & Halliwell, 2015). Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954) states that people want to test themselves against others, and social media platforms give ample opportunity to do so.

Body image is a subjective and dynamic multidimensional concept that involves a person’s perceptions, thoughts and feelings about his or her body (Grogan, 2008). In recent years, worries about body-image have increased because of the growing influence of social media. Research has shown that exposure to idealized body images online significantly influences people’s body satisfaction and self-esteem (Perloff, 2014). Self-esteem is described as “a global evaluation of oneself”, “how much people put value on themselves”, how we evaluate our self-knowledge, a representation of how someone

usually feels about oneself and as a person's self-perception that is a product of their experiences with their environment (Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976; Baumeister, Smart & Boden, 1996; Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001; Baumeister et al., 2003; Pyszczynski et al., 2004; Brown & Marshall, 2006). Baumeister et al. (2003) has mentioned that self-esteem, both high and low, can be positive or negative as it is more a perception than reality. Individuals with low self-esteem are more susceptible to negative sentiments and have anxiety as self-esteem acts as a barrier against anxiety (Rosenberg, 1965; Cast & Burke, 2002; Pyszczynski et al., 2004). Furthermore, people with high self-esteem are more skilled at forming and conserving elevated feelings of self-worth than people with low self-esteem (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001).

The aim of our research is to examine the effects of social media use and body image on self-esteem. This is going to be achieved by collecting data from participants aged between 18-35 who use social media. Scales used to collect data in this research are: Social Media Addiction Scale - Adult Form (Şahin & Yağcı, 2017), The Body Appreciation Scale-2 (Oktan & Saylan, 2020) and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Çuhadaroglu, 1986). The hypotheses will be tested by analyzing the data obtained with the SPSS 27 program.

In this context, this research aims to examine the effect of social media usage frequency on body image and self-esteem. In light of the increasing integration of social media into everyday life and its influence on how individuals perceive themselves and their bodies, it becomes essential to investigate how these factors collectively shape self-esteem. We believe that our research will contribute to literature and shed light on future studies.

Self-Esteem

In literature, high self-esteem in an individual has been related to self respect, finding themselves worthy, not thinking that they are better or worse than anybody and the knowledge of their own abilities and limits (Rosenberg, 1965). Low self-esteem is described with the terms “self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction and self-contempt” along with the statement that a person with low self-esteem lacks self-respect (Rosenberg, 1965). Self-esteem has also been described as a person's self-perception that is a product

of their experiences with their environment and as it is a self-perception, it possibly provides an explanation as well as foresight to their behavior (Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976; Pyszczynski et al., 2004). Furthermore, self-esteem is described as “a global evaluation of oneself”, “how much value people place on themselves” and the way we evaluate our self-knowledge (Baumeister, Smart & Boden, 1996, p. 5; Baumeister et al., 2003, p. 2; Pyszczynski et al., 2004). It has been suggested that self-esteem adjusts the responses given to negative incidents and helps people to not feel negatively about themselves when they fail (Brown & Dutton, 1995; Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001; Pyszczynski et al., 2004). Research have found that self-esteem is mostly stable throughout years and circumstances (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001; Brown & Marshall, 2006; Orth & Robins, 2014; Rentzsch & Schröder-Abé, 2022).

Self-esteem has been divided into sub-dimensions in literature (Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976; Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001; Brown & Marshall, 2006). In recent literature there are three sub-dimensions: global (i.e., self-esteem or trait self-esteem), state (i.e., feelings of self-worth) and domain specific (i.e., self-evaluations) self-esteem (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001; Brown & Marshall, 2006). Global self-esteem is described as the way someone feels about oneself, as already defined above. Feelings of self-worth is defined as “momentary emotional states” that appear from a specific outcome (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001, p. 616). This is what is meant when talking about an event that might endanger or enhance one’s self-esteem (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001; Brown & Marshall, 2006). Self-evaluations are “the way people evaluate their various abilities and attributes” (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001, p. 616; Brown & Marshall, 2006, p. 2). Self-evaluations are used to elevate and reinstate self-worth in individuals with high self-esteem (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001). In this article, global self-esteem will be taken into consideration.

There has been numerous research on how global and domain specific self-esteem interact with one another. Though there have been findings in favor of bottom-up approach (where specific self-evaluations govern global self-esteem) in the past (e.g., Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976), recent findings mostly support the top-down approach, where self-esteem effects self-evaluations (Brown, Dutton & Cook, 2001; Rentzsch & Schröder-Abé, 2022).

People with high self-esteem are more persistent when confronted with failure or stress (Baumeister et al., 2003). In accordance with this finding, among people with low self-esteem, feelings of self-worth decrease significantly and they get hurt more when faced with failure (Brown & Dutton, 1995). A possible cause for this is that people with low self-esteem tend to overgeneralize the negative associations of failure and as self-esteem acts as a barrier against anxiety, individuals with low self-esteem are more susceptible to negative sentiments and to have anxiety (Rosenberg, 1965; Brown & Dutton, 1995; Cast & Burke, 2002; Pyszczynski et al., 2004). On the other hand, people with high self-esteem don't consider specific failure as personal incompetency (Brown & Dutton, 1995).

Body Image

Body image describes how someone mentally views their physical self (Schilder, 1935). Research has advanced since then to study what shapes how people see themselves. According to the sociocultural model people feel pressure to match body standards because of what society expects (Fallon, 1990; Stormer & Thompson, 1996). Our interactions with social media have deeply transformed how people sense and judge their physical appearance. Physical appearance perception can be changed based on gender. Research by Perloff (2014) demonstrates that repeated viewing of perfect images across social media websites including Instagram and Facebook makes especially young women more critical about their appearance. Grabe, Ward and Hyde (2008) analyzed seventy-seven studies to determine how media affects female body image. The research showed that female participants became unhappier with their bodies when viewing thin-media images. Beauty norms that people internalize become major reasons behind dysfunctional behaviors such as eating problems (e.g., binge eating) that lead to weak self-confidence.

Body image concerns do not only occur in women. In men, Pope, Phillips and Olivardia (2000) described a parallel phenomenon, the "Adonis Complex," where men can become dissatisfied with their bodies, exercise excessively and take steroids. Tewatia (2017) studied how body image affects self-esteem in Indian male undergraduate students. The research revealed that Indian male undergraduate students with better body

image feelings also had better self-esteem. A study by Clay, Vignoles, and Dittmar (2005) found that when girls were briefly exposed to the idealized media images, they had significantly less body satisfaction and self-esteem than boys did under the same conditions. According to research conducted by Virk and Singh (2020), a moderate positive correlation was found between body image satisfaction and self-esteem, indicating that students with higher body image satisfaction also tend to have higher self-esteem. A study conducted with Turkish university students admitted through talent-based entrance exams found that male students had higher levels of self-esteem compared to females, and that body image perceptions significantly differed depending on the faculty type (Demirel, Tüzer, & Altın, 2024).

Cultural values also shape the body image. For instance, Western cultures, especially those influenced by Eurocentric beauty standards, tend to promote thinness as the feminine ideal and muscularity as the masculine ideal. (Swami, 2015). However, other non-Western cultures may have slightly different body ideals, like curvaceous female body or signs of physical health and fertility (Becker, 2004). A study by Becker (20BAS

04) demonstrated the impact of the introduction of Western television in rural Fiji on young women's body ideals, with the result of shifting body ideals toward thinness and increased dieting behaviors and eating disorder symptoms.

Social Media Usage Frequency

Social media is a set of information technologies that facilitate interactions and networking (Kapoor et al., 2017; Oestreicher-Singer & Zalmanson, 2013). Social media is a dynamic part of the Internet world that has evolved significantly in the past couple of decades. The idea started from a worldwide discussion forum called Usenet which started in 1979. Twenty years later came an online community of diary writers known as 'Open Diary' (Ghosh, Varshney, & Venugopal, 2014). Since then, its frequency of use has continued to increase. In the USA, children under two spend an average of 42 minutes daily with screen media (Rideout, 2017). Recent nationally recognized statistics show that 95% of adolescents aged 13-18 have access to a smartphone, and 88% have a desktop or laptop computer at home (Loknath, 2021). In a comparative study with students from Üsküdar University (Turkey) and Kwang Woon University (South Korea), social media

addiction was minimal among Turkish students and moderate among South Korean students. Korean students scored higher in mood modification, relapse, and conflict, while Turkish students scored higher in occupation. Daily usage time increased addiction levels in Turkish students but showed no significant effect among Koreans (Tutgun-Ünal, 2020). These statistics show that social media helps us to technologize in every field and keep up with the age of technology.

Nearly all teens (94%) in developed countries use social media platforms, such as Instagram, Snapchat, and Facebook (NORC Center for Public Affairs Research, 2017), and many post “selfies” (Anderson & Jiang, 2018). Children and adolescents’ social media use is dominated by visual communication, including posting and commenting on photographs and videos of themselves or others (Nesi, Choukas-Bradley, & Prinstein, 2018). This has also led to the emergence of a profession under the name of “influencer.”. Social media influencers attempt to impact all areas of their target audience’s lives. Examples include encouraging people to buy or use a particular product/service, using their influence to change habits, attitudes and behaviors including food consumption, lifestyle choices and even how a target audience communicate and the language they use (Ryan, 2014; Solomon, 2020). This also causes people to compare themselves with others.

A popular framework explaining the psychological impact of social media is the Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954). Social comparison theory argues that humans continuously engage themselves in the process of evaluating their value by comparing it against the value of others (Festinger, 1954). Users are often shown pictures and information about a person's life that actually or at least seems to be better or more exciting and happier, and they perform an upward social comparison.

The Relationship Between Social Media Usage Frequency, Body Image and Self-Esteem

Social media usage has both positive effects such as facilitating global connectivity, enables rapid access to information, creates professional and networking opportunities, and allows for creativity, entertainment, and community support and negative impacts such as addiction, reduced productivity, and mental health problems such as anxiety and low self-esteem. It also increases the risks of privacy violations, cyberbullying, superficial

relationships, and the spread of misinformation on individuals' lives (Siddiqui & Singh, 2016). By considering Social comparison theory, individuals tend to compare themselves with the ones who are not different but similar to themselves. This comparison is determined based on the importance of comparison subject. Social networking sites help people make social comparisons, which increases the psychological distress of individuals and lowers their overall level of self-esteem (Chen & Lee, 2013). A study of 150 business students found that increased use of social media leads to a decrease in self-esteem; even one hour spent on Facebook daily results in a 5.574 decrease in the self-esteem score of an individual (Jan, Soomro, & Ahmad, 2017). Comparisons made on social media may cause a decrease in people's self-esteem and that social media is thought to have a significant impact on people's self-esteem and psychological state. It is also based on the findings that exposure to normalized body stereotypes on social media may negatively affect individuals' sense of self-worth.

Social networking sites can also positively affect self-esteem. For example, Facebook gives individuals a sense of freedom and identity, boosts their self-confidence, and cheers them up during hard times (Nyagah, Stephen, and Muema, 2015). However, it mostly has a negative effect. A national survey of 23,532 participants found that addictive social media use was more common among younger individuals, women, students, and those not in a relationship. While narcissism contributed to higher use, low self-esteem was the strongest predictor, suggesting that excessive engagement may serve both ego enhancement and compensation for negative self-perceptions (Andreassen, Pallesen, & Griffiths, 2016).

When considering gender, women in particular tend to experience greater body dissatisfaction, which directly impacts their self-esteem levels (Tiggemann, 2015). A study by Dittmar, Halliwell, and Stirling (2009) found that women who reported higher body dissatisfaction also exhibited lower self-esteem and increased vulnerability to depressive symptoms. However, body dissatisfaction among men has been linked to muscularity concerns rather than weight-related issues, demonstrating a different pattern of self-esteem determinants compared to women (Griffiths et al., 2018). Individuals with a positive body image tend to have higher self-esteem, resilience against societal pressures, and better mental well-being (Wood-Barcalow, Tylka, & Augustus Horvath, 2010). In their cluster analysis, Wood-Barcalow et al. (2010) found that women in the

positive body image group scored significantly higher on self-esteem compared to those in the normative discontent and negative body image groups, while also reporting greater resistance to sociocultural pressures and lower disordered eating symptoms. Baker and Gringart (2009) examined the relationship between body image variables and self-esteem among 148 independently living adults aged 65–85 years. The findings indicated that body image concerns remain significant for self-esteem in later life. While women's self-esteem remained relatively stable across age groups, men's self-esteem declined markedly with age. For men, health orientation and fitness evaluation were the strongest predictors of self-esteem, whereas for women, health evaluation and overweight preoccupation emerged as the most influential factors. The study highlights that body image continues to play a central role in older adulthood, with age- and gender-specific patterns shaping self-esteem.

According to findings mentioned above the hypotheses of this study are:

H1: Social media usage frequency has a negative contribution to self-esteem.

H2: Positive body image perception has a positive contribution to self-esteem.

Method

Sample and Procedure

The research consists of 200 people between the ages of 18-35 who actively use social media. Participants were determined by convenience sampling method. The online survey form was created on the Google Forms platform. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, confidentiality principles and information. Online consent was obtained before participation. The survey lasted 10-15 minutes. 154 women and 46 men participated in the research. Of the participants participating in the study, 191 were single and 9 were married. 142 of our participants were students, 44 of our participants were employed and 14 of the participants were not employed (**Table 1**).

Table 1. *Distribution of Demographic Variables*

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender	200	100.0

Women	154	77.0
Men	46	23.0
Marital Status	200	100.0
Bachelors	191	95.5
Married	9	4.5
Employment Status	200	100.0
Employed	44	22.0
Not Employed	14	7.0
Student	142	71.0

Measurement Instruments

Demographic Information Form

It was prepared to collect information about the participants' age, gender, marital status, education level, employment status, time spent on social media, preferred social media platforms and the type of content they use social media for.

Social Media Usage Frequency

Social media usage frequency was measured by the Social Media Addiction Scale-Adult Form (SMAS-AF) which was developed by Andreassen et al. (2012) to determine the level of addiction to social media use. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Şahin and Yağcı (2017). As the total score of the scale increases, the social media addiction of the participant increases. The scale has two sub-dimensions: Virtual Tolerance and Virtual Communication. Sample item for Virtual Tolerance is “11” and for Virtual Communication it is “9”. The response rate is a 5-point Likert type with 20 items and the internal consistency coefficient was reported as 0.94.

Body Appreciation Scale-2

Body image perception was measured by the Body Appreciation Scale-2 (BAS-2) which was developed by Tylka and Wood-Barcalow (2015). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Oktan and Saylan (2020). BAS-2 is a 5-point Likert type with 10 items. BAS-2 was developed to measure the satisfaction, positive opinions and respect that

participants have for their bodies. If the total score is high, body satisfaction of the participants is also high. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale was reported as 0.90.

Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale

Self-esteem was measured by Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale which was developed by Rosenberg (1965) and was adapted into Turkish by Çuhadaroglu (1986) and it evaluates the self-esteem level of individuals. There are a total of 10 items and a 4-point Likert-type response scale is used. A high score on the scale indicates low self-esteem. The internal consistency coefficient was reported as 0.76.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using SPSS.27 program. Firstly, the normality of the categorical and demographic variables was tested with the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk tests. The variance homogeneity of the variables was tested using the Levene test. A multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to test the hypotheses. Mann-Whitney U was used to understand the differences between demographic variables. In this analysis, “self-esteem” scores were the dependent variable; “social media usage frequency” and “body appreciation” scores were the independent variables. The significance level was accepted as .05 in all analyses.

Results

Reliability of the Scales

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to test the scales' reliability, and all scales demonstrated high reliability, with alpha values (Table 2).

Table 2. *Summary Statistics of Variables*

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Mean	SD
SMAS	.874	20	61.14	12.448
Rosenberg	.847	6	2.62	2.068
BAS	.941	10	32.64	8.746

SMAS: Social Media Usage Frequency, BAS: Body Appreciation, Rosenberg: Self-Esteem

Descriptive statistics of variables and the relationship between them

Descriptive statistics for the primary study variables appear in Table 3. The mean score on the social media usage frequency was 61.14 (SD = 12.45), and the body appreciation mean score was 32.64 (SD= 8.75). The mean score on the Self-Esteem was 2.62 (SD = 2.07) (Table 3).

Table 3.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
BASTotal	200	14	50	32.64	8.746	-.050	.172	-.577	.342
SMASTotal	200	27	93	61.14	12.448	-.283	.172	-.208	.342
RosenbergTotal	200	0	6	2.62	2.068	.444	.172	-1.126	.342
Valid N (listwise)	200								

Test of Normality reveals that Social media usage Scores are normally distributed (Table 4). Body appreciation scores were marginally significant. Q-Q plot indicating that body appreciation scores were close to normally distributed. On the other hand, the Self-Esteem scores (Table 4) and none of the categorical variables (Table 5) are normally distributed.

Spearman's correlation coefficients were computed to understand the overall directions and magnitudes of correlations among variables. As shown in Table 6, the score was inversely related to both SMAS ($r = -.262$, $p < .001$) and Rosenberg ($r = -.724$, $p < .001$) scores. Rosenberg's score was considerably correlated with Virtual Tolerance

($r = .336$, $p < .001$) and Virtual Communication ($r = .302$, $p < .001$), showing overall agreement between self-esteem and online interaction pattern (Table 6).

Table 4. *Tests of Normality*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Self-Esteem	.212	200	.000	.881	200	.000
Body Appreciation	.052	200	.200*	.986	200	.039
Social Media Usage Frequency	.054	200	.200*	.990	200	.174

*. This is a lower bound of true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 5. *Tests of Normality*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Marital Status	.541	200	.000	.209	200	.000
Employment Status	.440	200	.000	.590	200	.000
Content	.286	200	.000	.870	200	.000
Time	.338	200	.000	.731	200	.000
Gender	.477	200	.000	.520	200	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 6. *Correlations*

		Body Apprecia tion	Virtual Toleran ce	Virtual Communi cation	Social Media Usage Frequenc y	Self- Esteem
Body Appreciation	Pearson Correlation	1	-.245**	-.227**	-.262**	-.724**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001	.000	.000
	N	200	200	200	200	200
Virtual Tolerance	Pearson Correlation	-.245**	1	.609**	.913**	.336**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	200	200	200	200	200
Virtual Communica tion	Pearson Correlation	-.227**	.609**	1	.879**	.302**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000		.000	.000
	N	200	200	200	200	200
Social Media Usage Frequency	Pearson Correlation	-.262**	.913**	.879**	1	.356**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	200	200	200	200	200
Self-Esteem	Pearson Correlation	-.724**	.336**	.302**	.356**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	200	200	200	200	200

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis Testing

Linear regression analysis was performed on the variables to examine to understand the effects of body image and social media usage frequency on self-esteem. Table 7 indicates that total scores of SMAS and BAS together explain 54.9% of the variance in self-esteem scores (Adjusted $R^2 = .549$; $F = 122.191$; $p < .001$). The R-value is reported as 0.744, indicating a strong positive correlation between dependent variable and independent variable. The standardized beta coefficient for body appreciation was -0.677 ($p < .001$) indicating that positive body image significantly predicts higher self-esteem. This variable had the predictive power in the model. On the other hand, for social media usage frequency, the standardized beta coefficient was 0.179 ($p < .001$), indicating a statistically significant yet weak positive correlation between social media usage frequency and the levels of self-esteem. Suggesting that individuals who engage with social media more often tend to have low self-esteem levels. These results support two of our hypotheses (Table 7).

Regression Test for Social Media Apps

Linear regression analysis was conducted to understand the effects of social media preferences on body appreciation, social media usage frequency and self-esteem. The explained variance was modest across all models (R^2 ranging from .082 to .127). ANOVA results showing that each model was statistically significant ($p < .05$). WhatsApp usage has a significantly positive effect on self-esteem ($\beta = -0.182$, $p = .019$). On the other hand, Twitter usage is associated with lower self-esteem ($\beta = -0.15$, $p = .043$). Regarding social media usage frequency, both TikTok ($\beta = 0.201$, $p = .005$) and Twitter ($\beta = 0.218$, $p = .003$) use significantly increased social media usage frequency. In contrast, body appreciation was negatively affected by TikTok ($\beta = -0.145$, $p = .048$) and Twitter use ($\beta = -0.16$, $p = .031$), indicating a negative relationship between body image and Twitter (Table 8).

Table 7.*Model Summary*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			
						F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.744 ^a	.554	.549	1.389	.554	122.191	2	197	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Body Appreciation, Social Media Usage Frequency

ANOVA^{a,b}

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	471.373	2	235.686	122.191	.000 ^b
	Residual	379.982	197	1.929		
	Total	851.355	199			

a. Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem

b. Predictors: (Constant), Body Appreciation, Social Media Usage Frequency

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients β	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
(Constant)	6.025	.711		8.471	.000
Social Media Usage Frequency	.030	.008	.179	3.623	.000
Body Appreciation	-.160	.012	.677	-13.725	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Self-Esteem

Table 8.*Model Summary*

Dependent Variable	Regression SS	Residual SS	F	Sig.
Self-Esteem	69.87	781.485	2.135	0.034
Social Media Usage Frequency	3904.636	26930.159	3.462	<0.001
Body Appreciation	1279.99	13942.09	2.192	0.03

*ANOVA**Coefficients*

Dependent Variable	Predictor	B	Std. Error	β	t	Sig.
Self-Esteem	WhatsApp	-0.958	0.405	-0.182	-2.367	0.019
Self-Esteem	Twitter	0.622	0.306	0.15	2.036	0.043
Social Media Usage Frequency	TikTok	5.008	1.77	0.201	2.83	0.005
Social Media Usage Frequency	Twitter	5.454	1.794	0.218	3.039	0.003
Body Appreciation	TikTok	-2.538	1.273	-0.145	-1.993	0.048
Body Appreciation	Twitter	-2.813	1.291	-0.16	-2.179	0.031

Difference Test for Demographic Variables***Difference Test for Gender***

Independent sample t-test was conducted to examine whether there were significant differences in social media usage frequency and body appreciation scores between female and male participants. Levene's test demonstrated that the assumption of equal variances was met for both social media usage frequency $F(1,198) = 1.27$, $p = .261$ and body

appreciation scores. $F(1,198) = .94$, $p = .333$. The t-test results showed a statistically significant difference between the groups for social media usage frequency $t(198) = 5.35$, $p < .001$. Female participants ($M = 63.56$, $SD = 12.05$) use social media more frequently compared to male participants ($M = 53.07$, $SD = 10.26$). The mean difference was 10.49 points (95% CI [6.63, 14.36]), and the effect size was large (Cohen's $d = .90$) (Table 9).

Since Self-Esteem scores were not normally distributed the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to understand the differences between genders. A significant difference was found between gender groups ($U = 2446.50$, $Z = -3.231$, $p = .001$). The mean rank of female participants (107.61) was significantly higher than that of males (76.68). This indicates that male participants had higher self-esteem (Table 10).

Difference Test for Marital Status

In order to determine whether marital status had a significant effect on social media usage, body appreciation and self -esteem, Mann-Whitney U test was conducted as a post hoc test. The results showed a statistically significant difference in social media usage frequency ($Z = -2.417$, $p = .016$) and body appreciation ($Z = -2.041$, $p = .041$) For social media usage frequency test was revealed that bachelors had a higher mean rank (Mean Rank = 102.65) compared to married people (Mean Rank = 54.94). This suggests that bachelors spend more time on social media compared to married individuals. In terms of body appreciation, married individuals had a higher mean rank (Mean Rank= 138.94) than bachelors (Mean Rank = 98.69), indicating that married individuals have a more positive body image compared to bachelors (Mean rank= 138.94). (Table 11)

Table 9.

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Social Media Usage Frequency	Women	154	63.56	12.046	.971
	Man	46	53.07	10.255	1.512

Body Appreciation	Women	154	32.06	8.813	.710
	Man	46	34.59	8.318	1.226

Table 10.*Ranks*

	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Self-Esteem	Women	154	107.61	16572.50
	Man	46	76.68	3527.50
	Total	200		

Test Statistics^a

	Self-Esteem
Mann-Whitney U	2446.500
Wilcoxon W	3527.500
Z	-3.231
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

Table 11.*Ranks*

	Marital	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Self-Esteem	Bachelors	191	102.03	19488.00
	Married	9	68.00	612.00
	Total	200		
Body Appreciation	Bachelors	191	98.69	18849.50
	Married	9	138.94	1250.50
	Total	200		
Social Media Usage Frequency	Bachelors	191	102.65	19605.50
	Married	9	54.94	494.50
	Total	200		

Test Statistics^a

	Self-Esteem	Body Appreciation	Social Media Usage Frequency
Mann-Whitney U	567.000	513.500	449.500
Wilcoxon W	612.000	18849.500	494.500
Z	-1.751	-2.041	-2.417
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	.041	.016

a. Grouping Variable: Marital

Difference Test for Employment Status

Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to understand whether there were statistically significant differences in social media usage frequency, body appreciation, and self-esteem based on employment status. The results indicated a statistically significant difference in social media usage frequency ($\chi^2(2) = 6.615$, $p = .037$) and self-esteem ($\chi^2(2) = 10.404$, $p = .006$). Mann-Whitney U test revealed that participants who were not working use social media more frequently compared to those who were working ($U = 191.0$, $Z = -2.127$, $p = .033$) and students ($U = 602.5$, $Z = -2.429$, $p = .015$). For self-esteem, individuals who were working reported significantly higher self-esteem scores compared to those who were not working ($U = 158.0$, $Z = -2.783$, $p = .005$) and students ($U = 791.5$, $Z = -1.279$, $p = .201$) (Table 12).

Difference Test for Time

To examine the effect of time spent on social media on social media usage frequency, body appreciation, and self-esteem, a Kruskal-Wallis H test was conducted. The results revealed statistically significant differences across all three variables based on the amount of time spent on social media (Table 14). On body appreciation scores, significant differences were found between 0–2 hours and 4+ hours ($U = 507.5$, $p = .009$), and between 2–4 hours and 4+ hours ($U = 3407.5$, $p = .046$). This indicates that individuals who use social media more frequently have lower body appreciation scores. Participants using social media for 4+ hours had significantly lower self-esteem compared to both groups (0-2 hours vs 4+ hours $U = 564.5$, $p = .031$) (2-4 hours vs 4+ hours $U = 3045.0$, $p = .002$) (Table 15).

Difference Test for Content

A Kruskal-Wallis H test was conducted to examine the effects of participants' primary purpose for using social media on their levels of social media usage frequency, body appreciation, and self-esteem. There is only a statistically significant effect on social media usage frequency. ($H(5) = 14.545$, $p = .012$.) (Table 16). There is a significant

difference between individuals who use social media for watching TV Shows/movies and those who use it for chatting/socializing ($U = 281.0$, $Z = -2.111$, $p = .035$). Also, there is a significant difference between individuals who use social media for educational purposes and those who use it for entertainment. Individuals who use social media for entertainment have a higher mean rank (50.69, $N = 90$) than individuals who use social media for educational purposes (Mean Rank = 17.17, $N = 6$) (Table 17).

Table 12.*Ranks*

	Employment Status	N	Mean Rank
Body Appreciation	Employed	44	118.57
	Not Employed	14	97.86
	Student	142	95.16
	Total	200	
Social Media Usage Frequency	Employed	44	91.48
	Not Employed	14	136.82
	Student	142	99.71
	Total	200	
Self-Esteem	Employed	44	78.10
	Not Employed	14	125.68
	Student	142	104.96
	Total	200	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Body Appreciation	Social Media Usage Frequency	Self-Esteem
Kruskal-Wallis H	5.534	6.615	10.404
df	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.063	.037	.006

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Employment

Table 13*Test Statistics^a*

Comparing	Dependent Variable	N1	N2	Mean Rank 1	Mean Rank 2	U	Z	p (2-tailed)
Employed vs Not Employed	Social Media Usage Frequency	44	14	26.84	37.86	191.0	-2.127	0.033
Not Employed vs Student	Social Media Usage Frequency	14	142	106.46	75.74	602.5	-2.429	0.015
Employed vs Student	Social Media Usage Frequency	44	142	87.14	95.47	2844.0	-0.898	0.369
Employed vs Not Employed	Self-Esteem	44	14	26.09	40.21	158.0	-2.783	0.005
Not Employed vs Student	Self-Esteem	14	142	92.96	77.07	791.5	-1.279	0.201
Employed vs Student	Self-Esteem	44	142	74.51	99.38	2288.5	-2.719	0.007

a. Grouping variable: employment

Table 14.*Rank*

	Time	N	Mean Rank
Body Appreciation	0-2 hours	16	132.06
	2-4 hours	77	107.71
	4+ hours	107	90.59
	Total	200	
Social Media Usage Frequency	0-2 hours	16	36.72
	2-4 hours	77	80.04
	4 + hours	107	124.76
	Total	200	
Self-Esteem	0-2 hours	16	79.63
	2-4 hours	77	87.21
	4 + hours	107	113.18
	Total	200	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Body Appreciation	Social Media Usage Frequency	Self-Esteem
Kruskal-Wallis H	9.107	47.902	11.638
df	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.011	.000	.003

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping variable: Time

Table 15

Comparison	Dependent Variable	N1	N2	Mean Rank 1	Mean Rank 2	U	Z	p (2-tailed)
0-2 hours vs 2-4 hours	Body Appreciation	16	77	56.78	44.97	459.5	-1.595	0.111
0-2 hours vs 4+ hours	Body Appreciation	16	107	83.78	58.74	507.5	-2.623	0.009
2-4 hours vs 4+ hours	Body Appreciation	77	107	101.75	85.85	3407.5	-1.999	0.046
0-2 hours vs 2-4 hours	Social Media Usage Frequency	16	77	26.94	51.17	295.0	-3.27	0.001
0-2 hours vs 4+ hours	Social Media Usage Frequency	16	107	18.28	68.54	156.5	-5.263	<.001
2-4 hours vs 4+ hours	Social Media Usage Frequency	77	107	67.87	110.22	2223.0	-5.325	<.001
0-2 hours vs 2-4 hours	Self-Esteem	16	77	43.78	47.67	564.5	-0.535	0.593
0-2 hours vs 4+ hours	Self-Esteem	16	107	44.34	64.64	573.5	-2.159	0.031
2-4 hours vs 4+ hours	Self-Esteem	77	107	78.55	102.54	3045.0	-3.062	0.002

a. *Test Statistics^a*

b. Grouping variable: Time

Table 16.

Rank	Content	N	Mean Rank
Social Media Usage Frequency	TV Shows/Movies	21	83.05
	Entertaining	90	103.84
	News/Current Events	28	89.64
	Conversation/Socializing	40	116.65
	Shopping/Product review	15	108.70
	Educational/Informative	6	34.00
	Total	200	
Body Appreciation	TV Shows/Movies	21	111.95
	Entertaining	90	95.49
	News/Current Events	28	109.77
	Conversation/Socializing	40	91.88
	Shopping/Product review	15	101.27

Self-Esteem	Educational/Informative	6	147.83
	Total	200	
	TV Shows/Movies	21	96.17
	Entertaining	90	103.87
	News/Current Events	28	89.48
	Conversation/Socializing	40	105.58
	Shopping/Product review	15	100.20
	Educational/Informative	6	83.42
	Total	200	

Table 17.

Comparison	Dependent variable	N1	N2	Mean Rank 1	Mean Rank 2	U	Z	p (2-tailed)
TV Shows /Movies vs Entertaining	Social Media Usage Frequency	21	90	47.14	58.07	759.0	-1.401	0.161
TV Shows/Movies vs News/Current events	Social Media Usage Frequency	21	28	23.67	26.0	266.0	-0.566	0.571
TV Shows/ Movies vs Communication/Socializing	Social Media Usage Frequency	21	40	24.38	34.48	281.0	-2.111	0.035
TV Shows/Movies vs Shopping/Product review	Social Media Usage Frequency	21	15	16.45	21.37	114.5	-1.381	0.167
TV Shows/Movies vs Educational/Informative	Social Media Usage Frequency	21	6	15.4	9.08	33.5	-1.722	0.085
Entertaining vs News/Current Events	Social Media Usage Frequency	90	28	61.55	52.91	1075.5	-1.168	0.243
Entertaining vs Communication/Socializing	Social Media Usage Frequency	90	40	62.98	71.16	1573.5	-1.143	0.253

Entertaining vs Shopping/Product review	Social Media Usage Frequency	90	15	52.65	55.1	643.5	-0.289	0.773
Entertaining vs Educational/Informative	Social Media Usage Frequency	90	6	50.59	17.17	82.0	-2.848	0.004
News/Current Events vs Communication/Socializing	Social Media Usage Frequency	28	40	29.0	38.35	406.0	-1.921	0.055
News/Current Events vs Shopping/Product review	Social Media Usage Frequency	28	15	20.46	24.87	167.0	-1.097	0.273
News/Current Events vs Educational/Informative	Social Media Usage Frequency	28	6	19.27	9.25	34.5	-2.239	0.025
Communication/Socializing vs Shopping/Product review	Social Media Usage Frequency	40	15	28.78	25.93	269.0	-0.587	0.557
Communication/Socializing vs Educational/Informative	Social Media Usage Frequency	40	6	25.89	7.58	24.5	-3.118	0.002
Shopping/Product review vs Educational/Informative	Social Media Usage Frequency	15	6	13.43	4.92	8.5	-2.844	0.004

a. Grouping variable: Content

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of social media usage frequency and body image on self-esteem. A total of 200 participants completed validated measures of social media usage frequency (SMAS), body image (BAS), and self-esteem (Rosenberg). Based on the results of descriptive, correlational and multiple regression analyses, several significant findings emerged that supported the proposed hypotheses.

First, the findings show that both how much time is spent on social media and body image are related to self-esteem levels. Both concepts join to create a useful foundation

for understanding how people judge themselves in our digital society. Though both factors were important, body image played a bigger role in predicting self-esteem. It means that people's confidence in themselves depends greatly on how they see their own bodies.

According to results, it is clear that social media use is linked to using social more frequently, but this link is not very strong. Twitter and TikTok were the most important variables identified in the analysis. This result can be attributed to the amount and type of content provided, along with the algorithms and designs meant to keep people using the platforms. It also played a role in understanding body image but still did not explain much of the results. It appears that social media use influences how people view their bodies, though the effects are usually not strong. Twitter and TikTok both contributed negatively and significantly to participants' body image. It demonstrates that encountering idealized body images and comparing oneself to others on social media can reduce how satisfied someone is with their body. Other social media platforms do not have a major impact on either of these factors. This could be because users are more likely to just use the platforms or because the kinds of content shared here lead to fewer comparisons.

We found that both how often someone uses social media and their body image have a major impact on self-esteem. Self-esteem levels in participants were affected by their use of social media and their opinions about their physical appearance. Body image seemed to play a bigger role, yet both factors were important in learning about self-esteem. This study agrees with the idea that the way we feel about ourselves is closely connected to our digital behavior and images online. The results are in line with research showing that judging looks and the selective nature of social media may influence people's feelings about their personal value, for better or worse.

As indicated by the results, using social media more often tends to lead to a drop in self-esteem. This study shows results similar to earlier research, suggesting that more time spent on social media is linked to lower self-esteem. This supports the findings of Jan, Soomro, and Ahmad (2017), who found that even short daily use of platforms like Facebook can reduce self-esteem. It appears that seeing numerous ideal portrayals, comparing oneself to others and searching for approval online can harm a person's self-esteem.

Our findings that individuals with a more positive body image report higher levels of self-esteem are consistent with prior research by Wood-Barcalow et al. (2010) and Tiggemann (2015), both of which emphasize the critical role of body appreciation in overall psychological well-being. The analysis indicates that people who feel good about their bodies often feel better about themselves. Those who are satisfied with their bodies usually feel better about themselves, but those who do not like their bodies often have low self-esteem.

Our study found that more frequent social media use is related to lower body image satisfaction, similar to the findings of Fardouly et al. (2015), who showed that social comparisons on social media can negatively affect women's body image. Those who spend more time on social media also tend to look at their bodies more critically, possibly because of constant exposure to appearance focused content and idealized representations. Digital comparisons can be dissatisfying no matter what you actually look like. The result underscores the possibility that social media may influence how people perceive themselves physically and reinforces a worry that digital spaces may fuel skewed or unrealistic body standards.

Proceeding with the demographic variables in our study, we found that gender affects social media usage frequency greatly and women use social media more frequently compared to men. This result may show that women care more about sustaining their social life and keep in touch with people. We also found that gender had an effect on self-esteem and women have lower self-esteem compared to men. This could be a result of the strict societal expectations on women. Surprisingly, we couldn't find a statistically significant effect of gender on the body image of the participants.

Our results have shown that being married leads to a more positive body image. The reason for this finding could be that after getting married, people may be reassured that they are physically attractive, don't seek as much approval in general, and have a more positive perspective on their bodies. On the other hand, married people tend to spend less time on social media. This might be a result of the age range of our participants being 18 to 35, which is relatively young, thus they probably are in the initial years of their marriage. Therefore, they might want to spend more time with their partners, focus on each other and do various activities instead of scrolling through social media.

Furthermore, bachelors might be using social media more to seek potential romantic partners.

We couldn't find a statistically significant contribution of marital status to self-esteem. This could be caused by our participants being in the initial years of their marriage, hence their self-esteem may not be affected yet.

According to our results, employment status affected social media usage frequency. Participants who are not employed are found to be using social media more frequently compared to employed and student participants. This may be caused by the lack of workload they have, giving them more time on their hands.

Along with this result, we also found that participants who are employed had higher self-esteem levels compared to non-employed and student participants. As people with higher self-esteem are more persistent when faced with stress or failure (Baumeister et al., 2003), they tend to work harder, find jobs easier and stay employed.

While the content of the social media consumed by participants influenced social media usage frequency, it did not have a statistically significant effect on body image and self-esteem. Participants who use social media for conversation and socialization, entertaining content, shopping and product review, and news and current events content use social media more frequently compared to participants who use social media for educational and informative content. These results suggest that people are less interested in educational and informative content compared to other purposes for social media use. Furthermore, we also found that people who use social media for conversation and socialization purposes use social media more frequently compared to participants who use social media for watching TV Shows and movies.

We found that people who spend more than four hours on social media have a less positive body image compared to people who spend up to 4 hours on social media. Similarly, people who spend more than four hours on social media have lower self-esteem compared to people who spend up to 4 hours on social media. These findings support our hypotheses about the social media usage frequency with body image and self-esteem.

Limitations and Suggestions

The data was collected through an online survey administered in an uncontrolled environment which would lead to response bias as a result of the self-reported responses. Additionally, lack of clarification about the questions from the researchers as a consequence of the online survey is another limitation of this study. We couldn't use the education level of our participants due to a possible misunderstanding related to the question in the demographic form as a result of this limitation. Further research should ensure that the questions in the demographic form are clearly expressed.

As the study was based on a convenience sample limited to Turkish individuals aged 18 to 35, the results are not representative of the general population therefore the findings cannot be generalized. Future research can also be done with younger and older participants as well as in different cultures to see how big differences in age and culture affect social media usage frequency, body image and self-esteem.

Although the sample size of our research was large enough, it may be implemented on a larger sample in further research. Additionally, the categories of our demographic variables didn't have a proportional number of participants. This can be improved in future research.

As our study was cross-sectional, we cannot determine causal relationships between the variables. This study could be recreated in longitudinal format to establish possible causal relationships between the variables.

When it comes to the marital status of participants, future research can include a question for the duration of marriage and include the category of participants who are not married but are in a romantic relationship.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

Author Contact Information

E-mail: defnekayiran1907@ gmail.com

References and Appendices:

- Anderson, M. Jiang, J. (2018). 'Teens, social media & technology 2018.' Pew Research Center. <https://www.pewresearch.org/internet/2018/05/31/teens-social-media-technology-2018/>
- Andreassen, C. S., Billieux, J., Griffiths, M. D., Kuss, D. J., Demetrovics, Z., Mazzoni, E. and Pallesen, S. (2016). 'The relationship between addictive use of social media and video games and symptoms of psychiatric disorders: A large-scale cross-sectional study.' *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 30(2), 252–262. <https://doi.org/10.1037/adb0000160>
- Andreassen, C. S., Torsheim, T., Brunborg, G. S. and Pallesen, S. (2012). 'Development of a Facebook Addiction Scale.' *Psychological Reports*, 110(2), 501–517.
- Baker, L., and Gringart, E. (2009). 'Body image and self-esteem in older adulthood.' *Ageing and Society*, 29(Special Issue 6), 977–995. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0144686X09008721>
- Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I. and Vohs, K. D. (2003). 'Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles?' *Psychological Science in the Public Interest: A Journal of the American Psychological Society*, 4(1), 1–44. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1529-1006.01431>
- Baumeister, R. F., Smart, L. and Boden, J. M. (1996). 'Relation of threatened egotism to violence and aggression: The dark side of high self-esteem.' *Psychological Review*, 103(1), 5–33. doi:10.1037/0033-295x.103.1.5
- Becker, A. E. (2004). 'Television, disordered eating, and young women in Fiji: Negotiating body image and identity during rapid social change.' *Culture, Medicine and Psychiatry*, 28, 533–559.
- Brown, J. D., and Dutton, K. A. (1995). 'The thrill of victory, the complexity of defeat: Self-esteem and people's emotional reactions to success and failure.' *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(4), 712–722. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.68.4.712>
- Brown, J. D., Dutton, K. A., & Cook, K. E. (2001). 'From the top down: Self-esteem and self-evaluation.' *Cognition and Emotion*, 15(5), 615–631. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699930126063>
- Brown, J. D., & Marshall, M. A. (2006). 'The three faces of self-esteem.' In M. Kernis (Ed.), *Self-esteem: Issues and answers* (pp. 4–9). New York: Psychology Press.
- Chen, W. and Lee, K. (2013). 'Sharing, liking, commenting, and distressed? The pathway between Facebook interaction and psychological distress.' *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 16(10), 728–734. <https://doi.org/10.1089/cyber.2012.0272>
- Clay, D., Vignoles, V. L. and Dittmar, H. (2005). 'Body image and self-esteem among adolescent girls: Testing the influence of sociocultural factors.' *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 15(4), 451–477.
- Coiera, E. (2013). Social networks, social media, and social diseases. *BMJ*, 346, f3007. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.f3007>
- Çuhadaroglu, F. (1986). 'Adolesanlarda Benlik Saygısı. Uzmanlık Tezi' Hacettepe Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Psikiyatri Anabilim Dalı, Ankara.
- Demirel, H, Tüzer, B.F. and Altın, M. (2024). 'Self-Esteem and body image of gifted university students.' *Journal of Education and Recreation Patterns (JERP)*, 5 (2), 208-219. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.53016/jerp.v5i2.221>
- Dittmar, H., Halliwell, E. and Stirling, E. (2009). 'Understanding the impact of thin media models on women's body-focused affect: The roles of thin-ideal internalization and weight-related self discrepancy activation in experimental exposure effects.' *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 28(1), 43–72. <https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2009.28.1.43>
- Fallon, A. (1990). 'Culture in the mirror: Sociocultural determinants of body image.' In T. E. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), *Body images: Development, deviance, and change*. New York: Guilford Press.

- Fardouly, J., Diedrichs, P. C., Vartanian, L. R. and Halliwell, E. (2015). 'Social comparisons on social media: The impact of Facebook on young women's body image concerns and mood.' *Body Image*, 13, 38–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2014.12.002>
- Festinger, L. (1954). 'A theory of social comparison processes.' *Human Relations*, 7(2), 117–140. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872675400700202>
- Ghosh, A., Varshney, S. and Venugopal, P. (2014). 'Social media WOM: Definition, consequences and inter-relationships.' *Management and Labour Studies*, 39(3), 293–308. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0258042X15577899>
- Grabe, S., Ward, L. M. and Hyde, J. S. (2008). 'The role of the media in body image concerns among women: A meta-analysis of experimental and correlational studies.' *Psychological Bulletin*, 134(3), 460–476. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.134.3.460>
- Griffiths, C., Williamson, H., Zucchelli, F., Paraskeva, N. and Moss, T. (2018). 'A systematic review of the effectiveness of acceptance and commitment therapy (ACT) for body image dissatisfaction and weight self-stigma in adults.' *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy*, 48, 189–204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10879-018-9384-0>
- Grogan, S. (2008). 'Body image: Understanding body dissatisfaction in men, women and children (2nd ed.).' Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
- Jan, M., Soomro, S. A. and Ahmad, N. (2017). 'Impact of social media on self-esteem.' *European Scientific Journal*, 13(23), 329–341. <https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2017.v13n23p329>
- Kapoor, K. K., Tamilmani, K., Rana, N. P., Patil, P., Dwivedi, Y. K. and Nerur, S. (2017). 'Advances in social media research: Past, present and future.' *Information Systems Frontiers*, 20(3), 531–558. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10796-017-9810-y>
- Loknath, D. (2021, December 1). 'The impact of social media on youth mental health.' *JeepinMidwest* <https://jeepinmidwest.com/the-impact-of-social-media-on-youth-mental-health/>
- Nesi, J., Choukas-Bradley, S. and Prinstein, M. J. (2018). 'Transformation of adolescent peer relations in the social media context: Part 1—A theoretical framework and application to dyadic peer relationships.' *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 21(3), 267–294. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10567-018-0261-x>
- NORC Center for Public Affairs Research. (2017). 'Americans and privacy: Concerned, confused and feeling lack of control over their personal information.' Associated Press–NORC Center for Public Affairs Research. <https://apnorc.org/projects/americans-and-privacy/>
- Nyagah, V. W., Stephen, A. and Mwanja, J. M. (2015). 'Social networking sites and their influence on the self-esteem of adolescents in Embu County, Kenya.' *Journal of Educational Policy and Entrepreneurial Research*, 2(1), 87–92. <http://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEPER>
- Oestreicher-Singer, G. and Zalmanson, L. (2013). 'Content or community? A digital business strategy for content providers in the social age.' *MIS Quarterly*, 37(2), 591–616. <https://doi.org/10.25300/MISQ/2013/37.2.07>
- Oktan, V. and Saylan, E. (2020). 'Beden Değeri Ölçeği-2'nin (BDÖ-2) Türkçe Adaptasyonu: Geçerlik ve Güvenirlilik Çalışması.' *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 16(1), 94–103. <https://doi.org/10.17860/mersinefd.631242>
- Orth, U. and Robins, R. W. (2014). 'The development of self-esteem.' *Current Directions in Psychological Science*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721414547414>
- Perloff, R. M. (2014). 'Social media effects on young women's body image concerns: Theoretical perspectives and an agenda for research.' *Sex Roles*, 71, 363–377. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-014-0384-6>
- Pope, H. G., Phillips, K. A. and Olivardia, R. (2000). 'The Adonis complex: The secret crisis of male body obsession.'
- Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S., Arndt, J. and Schimel, J. (2004). 'Why do people need self-esteem? A theoretical and empirical review.' *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(3), 435–468. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.130.3.435>
- Rentsch, K. and Schröder-Abé, M. (2022). 'Top down or bottom up? Evidence from the longitudinal development of global and domain-specific self-esteem in adulthood.'

- Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 122(4), 714–730. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspp0000393>
- Rideout, V. (2017). 'The Common Sense Census: Media use by kids age zero to eight. Common Sense Media.' https://www.commonsensemedia.org/sites/default/files/uploads/research/csm_zerotoeight_fullreport_release_2.pdf
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). 'Society and the adolescent self-image.' Princeton University Press. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt183pjhh>
- Ryan, D. (2014). 'Understanding digital marketing: Marketing strategies for engaging the digital generation' (3rd ed.). Kogan Page.
- Schilder, P. (1935). 'The image and appearance of the human body: Studies in the constructive energies of the psyche.' London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co.
- Shavelson, R. J., Hubner, J. J. and Stanton, G. C. (1976). 'Self-concept: Validation of construct interpretations.' *Review of Educational Research*, 46(3), 407–441. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1170010>
- Stone, E. (2007). 'InFashion: Fun! Fame! Fortune!.. Fairchild Publications, Inc.'
- Swami, V. (2015). 'Cultural influences on body size ideals.' *European Psychologist*, 20(1), 44–51. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040/a000150>
- Şahin, C. and Yağcı, M. (2017). 'Sosyal Medya Bağımlılığı Ölçeği – Yetişkin formu: Geçerlilik ve güvenirlik çalışması.' *Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Kırşehir Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi (KEFAD)*, 18(1), 523–538
- Tewatia, M. (2017). 'Relationship between body image and self-esteem: A study on the male undergraduate students of Delhi University.' *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 5(1), 42–47.
- Tiggemann, M. (2015). 'Considerations of positive body image across various social identities and special populations.' *Body Image*, 14, 168–176. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2015.03.002>
- Tutgun-Ünal, A. (2020). 'A Comparative Study of Social Media Addiction Among Turkish and Korean University Students.' *Journal of Economy, Culture and Society*, 0(62), 307–322. <https://doi.org/10.26650/JECS2020-0064>
- Tylka, T. L., and Wood-Barcalow, N. L. (2015). 'The Body Appreciation Scale-2: item refinement and psychometric evaluation.' *Body image*, 12, 53–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2014.09.006>
- Virk, A. and Singh, P. (2020). 'A study on relationship between body-image and self-esteem among medical undergraduate students.' *International Journal of Community Medicine and Public Health*, 7(2), 636–641.
- Wood-Barcalow, N. L., Tylka, T. L. and Augustus-Horvath, C. L. (2010). '“But I like my body”: Positive body image characteristics and a holistic model for young-adult women.' *Body Image*, 7(2), 106–116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2010.01.001>

CITE THIS ARTICLE AS: Kayıran,D. Önen,D Korkmaz.,D. Kaplan,S.,D., Ünal,Z.M.((2026). Effects of Social Media Usage Frequency and Body Image on Self-Esteem.*International Journal of Humanities and Social Development Research*. 10(2).19-51. <https://doi.org/10.30546/2523-4331.2026.10.2.19>