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## Identifying Generative AI Use Profiles Among College Students Using Latent Profile Analysis: Associations with Depression and Anxiety

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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p><b>Background:</b> Generative artificial intelligence (GenAI) has become widely adopted among college students, yet its relationship with mental health remains poorly understood. Most existing studies treat AI users as a homogeneous group, failing to capture considerable heterogeneity in usage patterns. This study aimed to identify latent profiles of GenAI use among Chinese college students and examine their differential associations with depression and anxiety.</p> <p><b>Methods:</b> A cross-sectional survey was conducted with 5,748 Chinese college students. Participants completed measures of AI usage behaviors, motivations, AI literacy, dependency, depression (BDI-II), and anxiety (BAI). Latent profile analysis identified distinct usage patterns, and random forest classification with SHAP analysis validated the profiles and identified key distinguishing features.</p> <p><b>Results:</b> Four distinct profiles emerged: Rational-Instrumental, Adaptive-Compensatory, Problematic-Dependent, and Light-Exploratory. The Problematic-Dependent profile (15%) was characterized by high escapism motivation, low AI literacy, and high dependency, and was associated with significantly elevated depression and anxiety. In contrast, the Rational-Instrumental profile, marked by high AI literacy and instrumental motivation, showed the most favorable mental health outcomes. The random forest classifier achieved good performance (accuracy=.81; mean AUC=.894). SHAP analysis identified depression, smartphone addiction, and executive function deficits as key features of the Problematic-Dependent profile, whereas conscientiousness was most strongly associated with the Rational-Instrumental profile.</p> <p><b>Conclusions:</b> These findings reveal that GenAI usage patterns among college students vary considerably in their associations with depressive and anxiety symptoms. Interventions should target usage motivations and AI literacy rather than usage frequency alone, underscoring the importance of person-centered approaches for understanding technology use and psychological well-being.</p>
<b>Opposed Reviewers:</b>	

## *Highlights*

- Four distinct GenAI usage profiles were identified among Chinese college students.
- The Problematic-Dependent profile exhibited the highest levels of depression and anxiety.
- Escapism motivation was most strongly associated with depression and anxiety.
- AI literacy may serve as a protective factor for psychological well-being.
- Usage patterns, rather than frequency alone, differentiated mental health outcomes.

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## *Abstract*

**Background:** Generative artificial intelligence (GenAI) has become widely adopted among college students, yet its relationship with mental health remains poorly understood. Most existing studies treat AI users as a homogeneous group, failing to capture considerable heterogeneity in usage patterns. This study aimed to identify latent profiles of GenAI use among Chinese college students and examine their differential associations with depression and anxiety.

**Methods:** A cross-sectional survey was conducted with 5,748 Chinese college students. Participants completed measures of AI usage behaviors, motivations, AI literacy, dependency, depression (BDI-II), and anxiety (BAI). Latent profile analysis identified distinct usage patterns, and random forest classification with SHAP analysis validated the profiles and identified key distinguishing features.

**Results:** Four distinct profiles emerged: Rational-Instrumental, Adaptive-Compensatory, Problematic-Dependent, and Light-Exploratory. The Problematic-Dependent profile (15%) was characterized by high escapism motivation, low AI literacy, and high dependency, and was associated with significantly elevated depression and anxiety. In contrast, the Rational-Instrumental profile, marked by high AI literacy and instrumental motivation, showed the most favorable mental health outcomes. The random forest classifier achieved good performance (accuracy=.81; mean AUC=.894). SHAP analysis identified depression, smartphone addiction, and executive function deficits as key features of the Problematic-Dependent profile, whereas conscientiousness was most strongly associated with the Rational-Instrumental profile.

**Conclusions:** These findings reveal that GenAI usage patterns among college students vary considerably in their associations with depressive and anxiety symptoms. Interventions should target usage motivations and AI literacy rather than usage frequency alone, underscoring the importance of person-centered approaches for understanding technology use and psychological well-being.

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# Identifying Generative AI Use Profiles Among College Students Using Latent Profile Analysis: Associations with Depression and Anxiety

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## Author Notes

**CRedit authorship contribution statement.** **Haoyang Shi:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing – original draft. **Tongyi Zhang:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing – original draft. **Zihao Wang:** Data curation, Investigation, Methodology. **Xiaolong Yang:** Funding acquisition, Resources, Writing – review & editing. **Zixuan Shao:** Writing – review & editing. **Xiaofeng Ma:** Conceptualization, Project administration, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

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**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:



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Dear Editor, *Journal of Affective Disorders*

We are pleased to submit our manuscript entitled "**Identifying Generative AI Use Profiles Among College Students Using Latent Profile Analysis: Associations with Depression and Anxiety**" for consideration as an original research article in the *Journal of Affective Disorders*. This manuscript has not been published previously and is not under consideration elsewhere. All authors have reviewed and approved this final version, and the research adheres to the ethical standards required by your journal. The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Generative artificial intelligence has rapidly become part of the daily lives of college students, yet its relationship with mental health remains poorly understood. Existing research has produced mixed findings, with some studies highlighting therapeutic benefits and others raising concerns about dependency and social displacement. A key limitation of this literature is its reliance on variable-centered approaches that treat AI users as a homogeneous group, thereby obscuring considerable heterogeneity in how young people engage with these technologies. To address this gap, we conducted a cross-sectional survey of 5,748 Chinese college students and employed latent profile analysis to identify distinct patterns of generative AI use based on multiple dimensions, including usage behaviors, motivations, AI literacy, and dependency. We further validated the identified profiles using random forest classification with SHAP analysis.

Our analysis revealed four distinct profiles: *Rational-Instrumental* (27.99%), *Adaptive-Compensatory* (33.99%), *Problematic-Dependent* (15.00%), and *Light-Exploratory* (23.02%). These profiles showed clear differences in mental health outcomes. The *Problematic-Dependent* profile, characterized by high escapism motivation, low AI literacy, and high dependency, was associated with significantly elevated levels of depression and anxiety. In contrast, the *Rational-Instrumental* profile, marked by high AI literacy and instrumental motivation, showed the most favorable mental health outcomes. Machine learning analysis identified depression, smartphone addiction, and executive function deficits as key features of the *Problematic-Dependent* profile, whereas conscientiousness was most strongly associated with the *Rational-Instrumental* profile.

These findings have important implications for both research and practice. At the theoretical level, our results demonstrate the value of person-centered approaches in revealing heterogeneous effects that variable-centered methods cannot capture. At the practical level, the findings suggest that interventions should target usage motivations and AI literacy rather than usage frequency alone, and that prevention efforts for problematic AI use should be integrated within broader digital health frameworks. We believe this work is well-suited for the *Journal*



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*of Affective Disorders* given its focus on mental health implications of emerging technologies and its contribution to understanding risk and protective factors for depression and anxiety among young adults.

Thank you for considering our manuscript.

Sincerely,

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## 1. Introduction

Generative artificial intelligence (GenAI) has become increasingly integrated into the daily lives of young people. Text-based conversational agents and image generation systems are reshaping how people access information, acquire knowledge, and engage in social interactions. By 2024, the global user base of generative AI had reached hundreds of millions, with young people representing the majority and college students showing particularly high adoption rates (Liu et al., 2024; Strzelecki, 2024). This rapid uptake raises important questions about how GenAI use may relate to psychological well-being, particularly among college students who are navigating a critical developmental period.

The college years coincide with what Arnett (2000) termed "emerging adulthood"—a transitional period characterized by identity exploration, shifting social roles, and the development of autonomy. This developmental stage is also associated with heightened vulnerability to mental health difficulties (Arnett et al., 2014; Tanner & Arnett, 2016). Depression and anxiety are especially prevalent in this population, with approximately 31% of college students worldwide screening positive for one or both conditions (Auerbach et al., 2018). In China, a large-scale survey of over 40,000 students across 106 universities found prevalence rates of 9.8% for depression, 15.5% for anxiety, and 6.5% for comorbid presentations (Han et al., 2025). Given the well-documented associations between these conditions and impaired academic performance (Eisenberg et al., 2009), reduced quality of life, and suicidal ideation (Mortier et al., 2018), understanding how emerging technologies such as GenAI may influence mental health outcomes in this population is both timely and important. However, because GenAI is a relatively new technology, the nature of its relationship with mental health remains unclear.

### 1.1. Generative AI Use and Mental Health: Benefits and Risks

Research on the mental health implications of GenAI use is growing rapidly, revealing a complex picture of both potential benefits and risks. On the positive side, GenAI has

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32 shown promise as a tool for mental health support. In a qualitative study by Siddals et al.  
33 (2024), users who engaged with GenAI chatbots for mental health purposes reported  
34 positive experiences, including a sense of emotional refuge, insightful guidance, and  
35 meaningful connection. More recently, a clinical trial by Heinz et al. (2025) found that  
36 patients with major depressive disorder who used a purpose-built GenAI therapeutic chatbot  
37 experienced an average symptom reduction of 51%, while those with generalized anxiety  
38 disorder showed a 31% reduction. Although these findings pertain to AI systems specifically  
39 designed for therapeutic purposes rather than general-purpose conversational agents, they  
40 suggest that GenAI may serve as a supplementary channel for emotional support,  
41 particularly for individuals who face barriers to professional mental health services due to  
42 stigma or limited resources (Wang et al., 2025).

43 At the same time, a growing body of research has highlighted potential negative effects.  
44 Regarding social functioning, Yang et al. (2024) found that increased engagement with AI  
45 chatbots was associated with psychological dependence. When students rely on AI chatbots  
46 as their primary source of social support, they may reduce genuine interpersonal interactions,  
47 potentially leading to social isolation and weakened interpersonal skills (Chaudhry & Debi,  
48 2024). Similarly, Crawford et al. (2024) surveyed 387 college students and found that AI  
49 use was associated with reduced sense of belonging and increased loneliness. Other  
50 researchers have begun to conceptualize excessive GenAI use as a form of behavioral  
51 addiction. Yankouskaya et al. (2025) proposed that ChatGPT may foster user dependency  
52 through its capacity for instant gratification, personalized responses, and round-the-clock  
53 availability, potentially creating "parasocial bonds" that substitute for real interpersonal  
54 relationships. Sun et al. (2025) reported that high-frequency GenAI users exhibited more  
55 indicators of problematic use, including immersion, withdrawal symptoms, loss of control,  
56 and difficulties with emotional regulation. Yu et al. (2024) further found that AI use  
57 motivated by a desire to escape real-world stress was positively correlated with depression  
58 and anxiety symptoms, suggesting that usage motivation may be a key factor shaping mental  
59 health outcomes.

60 These mixed findings—with some studies demonstrating benefits and others  
61 highlighting risks—suggest that the relationship between GenAI use and mental health is  
62 not uniform across users. Notably, GenAI differs from traditional digital technologies in  
63 several important ways: it can generate human-like conversational content, provide  
64 immediate emotional responses, and simulate social interaction to a degree not previously  
65 possible. Prior research has established that excessive social media use is associated with

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66 increased depressive and anxiety symptoms (Twenge et al., 2018), and that smartphone  
67 addiction predicts higher levels of depression and anxiety (Elhai et al., 2017). The unique  
68 interactive capabilities of GenAI may produce different patterns of association with mental  
69 health than those observed with other digital technologies. To make sense of the  
70 contradictory findings in the literature, a more systematic theoretical framework is needed  
71 to understand how different usage patterns may lead to different mental health outcomes.

## 72 **1.2. Theoretical Framework for Understanding Generative AI Use and** 73 **Mental Health**

74 The heterogeneous findings reviewed above suggest that the relationship between  
75 GenAI use and mental health cannot be adequately characterized by examining usage  
76 frequency or duration in isolation. Rather, a comprehensive understanding requires  
77 consideration of why individuals use GenAI (motivations), how they engage with it  
78 (competencies), and who is most vulnerable to adverse outcomes (individual differences).  
79 To address these distinct but interrelated questions, we integrate three complementary  
80 theoretical frameworks.

81 Uses and Gratifications Theory (Katz et al., 1973) posits that individuals are active  
82 media users who select and use specific technologies to satisfy diverse psychological and  
83 social needs, including cognitive, affective, social integrative, and tension release needs  
84 (Ruggiero, 2000). In the context of GenAI, research has identified differential associations  
85 between various usage motivations and mental health outcomes. For example, a latent  
86 profile study by Ling et al. (2025) on TikTok users identified four motivation profiles, with  
87 users in the "escapist addiction and novelty motivation" profile showing the poorest mental  
88 health outcomes. Similarly, social media use primarily motivated by escapism has been  
89 associated with higher addiction risk and poorer mental health (Kardefelt-Winther, 2014).  
90 Drawing on this framework, we distinguish among four dimensions of usage motivation—  
91 instrumental, entertainment, social, and escapism—to capture how different need-  
92 satisfaction patterns may lead to different mental health outcomes.

93 Beyond motivations, individual cognitive resources also shape the quality of  
94 technology engagement. The extended Technology Acceptance Model (Venkatesh et al.,  
95 2003) emphasizes the role of individual cognitive factors in shaping technology use patterns.  
96 Accordingly, we incorporate AI literacy as a key variable. AI literacy has been defined as  
97 "the competencies that enable individuals to critically evaluate AI technologies,  
98 communicate and collaborate effectively with AI, and use AI as a tool" (Long & Magerko,

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99 2020). Ng et al. (2021) proposed a multidimensional framework for AI literacy  
100 encompassing understanding and using AI, evaluating and creating AI, and AI ethics.  
101 Research has found that higher levels of AI literacy are associated with greater self-efficacy  
102 in AI use (Laupichler et al., 2022), while lower digital literacy is associated with increased  
103 psychological burden during technology use (Bansal & Choudhary, 2024). These findings  
104 suggest that AI literacy may serve a protective function in the relationship between AI use  
105 and mental health.

106 Finally, stable individual characteristics may predispose certain users toward adaptive  
107 or maladaptive usage patterns. Person-Environment Fit Theory (Edwards, 1991) proposes  
108 that the degree of match between individual characteristics and the environment determines  
109 adaptive outcomes. Applied to GenAI use, individuals with different personality traits and  
110 emotion regulation strategies may develop different usage patterns. A meta-analysis by  
111 Andreassen et al. (2012) found that neuroticism was positively correlated with social media  
112 addiction, while conscientiousness showed a negative correlation. Wilson et al. (2010)  
113 similarly demonstrated that conscientiousness was negatively associated with social media  
114 use and addiction tendencies. Additionally, Pentina et al. (2023) found that among AI  
115 chatbot users, individuals high in neuroticism were more likely to develop emotional  
116 dependency over time. Research has also established that sleep quality is closely linked to  
117 both technology use behaviors and mental health: poor sleep is associated with increased  
118 problematic technology use (Scott & Woods, 2018) and is both a risk factor for and  
119 consequence of depression and anxiety (Alvaro et al., 2013). Executive function deficits  
120 have likewise been implicated in the development of problematic technology use patterns  
121 (Oh et al., 2021). Taken together, these findings suggest that highly conscientious  
122 individuals may be more likely to develop rational, goal-directed usage patterns, while  
123 highly neurotic individuals or those with self-regulation difficulties may be more prone to  
124 escapist or problematic use.

125 These three theoretical frameworks can be integrated to provide a comprehensive  
126 understanding of GenAI use and mental health. Uses and Gratifications Theory explains  
127 why individuals use GenAI (motivations); the Technology Acceptance Model addresses  
128 how cognitive resources such as AI literacy shape the quality of technology engagement;  
129 and Person-Environment Fit Theory illuminates which individual characteristics predispose  
130 users toward adaptive versus maladaptive usage patterns. Importantly, these frameworks  
131 may operate interactively: individuals with low AI literacy may be more likely to use GenAI  
132 for escapism rather than instrumental purposes, and personality traits such as

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133 conscientiousness may influence both usage motivations and the capacity to maintain  
134 controlled use. By integrating these perspectives, we construct a multidimensional  
135 framework that captures behavioral, motivational, cognitive, and individual difference  
136 factors in GenAI use.

### 137 **1.3. Variable-Centered versus Person-Centered Research Perspectives**

138 As noted above, the relationship between GenAI use and mental health is complex and  
139 characterized by inconsistent findings. A key limitation of existing research lies in its  
140 methodological approach. Most studies have employed variable-centered analytical  
141 strategies that treat AI users as a homogeneous group, estimating "average effects" by  
142 calculating correlations between usage frequency or duration and mental health indicators.  
143 This approach implicitly assumes that all individuals follow the same use-outcome pattern,  
144 thereby overlooking inter-individual heterogeneity (Laursen & Hoff, 2006). Moreover,  
145 existing research has typically examined single dimensions of AI use—such as frequency  
146 or duration—without considering how multiple dimensions including usage motivations, AI  
147 literacy, and dependency may combine to form distinct usage patterns. In reality, individuals  
148 may develop distinctly different AI usage patterns based on their characteristics, needs, and  
149 contextual factors, and the associations between these patterns and mental health may differ  
150 substantially.

151 Latent Profile Analysis (LPA), as a person-centered analytical approach, can identify  
152 latent subgroups with similar characteristics based on multiple observed indicators, thereby  
153 revealing heterogeneous structures within populations (Nylund et al., 2007). This method  
154 has been widely applied in research on technology use and mental health. For example,  
155 Bányai et al. (2017) used LPA to analyze social media addiction among 5,961 European  
156 adolescents, identifying three groups: high-risk, low-risk, and no-risk. Similarly, Cheng et  
157 al. (2025) employed LPA to identify low-risk, medium-risk, and high-risk latent classes of  
158 social media addiction, finding significant differences in comorbidity patterns with  
159 depression and anxiety across classes. Wang et al. (2024) analyzed data from 7,422  
160 adolescents using LPA to identify four internet addiction profiles and found significant  
161 differences in their prediction of depression and anxiety. Collectively, these studies  
162 demonstrate that person-centered approaches can more precisely reveal the heterogeneous  
163 effects of technology use. However, no study to date has applied this approach to GenAI  
164 use specifically. Identifying different user subgroups based on multidimensional  
165 characteristics of AI use and examining the differential associations of each subgroup with

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166 anxiety and depression is therefore an important next step for understanding the  
167 heterogeneous effects of GenAI use.

## 168 **1.4. The Present Study**

169 In summary, GenAI use has become prevalent among young people, and research focus  
170 has gradually shifted from "whether AI affects mental health" to "*how AI use can be more*  
171 *beneficial for mental health.*" However, the relationship between GenAI use and mental  
172 health appears to be heterogeneous, and the methodological limitations of existing research  
173 make it difficult to fully characterize the mental health implications of different AI usage  
174 patterns. To address these gaps, the present study aimed to: (1) employ latent profile analysis  
175 to identify heterogeneous subgroups of GenAI use among college students based on  
176 multidimensional AI use characteristics (i.e., usage motivation, AI literacy, and usage  
177 behavior); (2) examine differences in depression and anxiety levels across profiles; and (3)  
178 validate the identified profiles using machine learning classification and identify key  
179 features associated with profile membership based on demographic characteristics,  
180 personality traits, emotion regulation strategies, and sleep quality. These findings are  
181 intended to contribute to a deeper understanding of the heterogeneous effects of GenAI use  
182 and to provide empirical evidence for the development of targeted prevention and  
183 intervention strategies.

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## 185 **2. Methods**

### 186 **2.1. Participants**

187 This study employed a combination of stratified random sampling and conveni  
188 ence sampling to recruit participants from four universities in western China, includ  
189 ing comprehensive universities, science and technology institutions, and normal univ  
190 ersities. The target population consisted of undergraduate and graduate students enro  
191 lled in mainland Chinese universities. Inclusion criteria were as follows: (1) current  
192 enrollment in a full-time undergraduate or graduate program; (2) use of generative  
193 AI tools within the past three months; (3) ability to independently understand and  
194 complete the questionnaire; and (4) voluntary participation with provision of inform  
195 ed consent. Exclusion criteria were: (1) currently receiving psychotherapy or taking  
196 psychiatric medication; (2) presence of a serious physical illness affecting daily aca  
197 demic or personal functioning; and (3) experience of a major life event within the

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198 past six months.

199 Initial recruitment yielded 5,923 students who expressed willingness to particip  
200 ate. Following eligibility screening, 142 responses were excluded for not meeting t  
201 he inclusion criteria, and an additional 33 questionnaires were removed due to exce  
202 ssively short completion times or obvious response patterns indicative of careless re  
203 sponding. The final analytic sample comprised 5,748 valid responses, yielding an ef  
204 fective response rate of 97.05%. Sample size determination was guided by recomm  
205 endations from Nylund et al. (2007), who suggested a minimum of 50–100 observa  
206 tions per latent class. Given that the present study anticipated identifying four to si  
207 x latent profiles, the obtained sample size was deemed sufficient for latent profile  
208 analysis. This study was conducted in accordance with the ethical principles of the  
209 Declaration of Helsinki and received approval from the Ethics Review Committee o  
210 f [For Blind Review].

## 211 **2.2. Measures**

### 212 ***2.2.1. Demographic Information***

213 Demographic information was collected using a researcher-developed questionnaire  
214 that assessed age, gender, academic discipline, place of origin (urban vs. rural), only-child  
215 status, and body mass index (BMI). Family socioeconomic status (SES) was assessed using  
216 a scale developed by Zhao et al. (2022), which includes four dimensions: material wealth,  
217 monthly household income per capita, parental education level, and parental occupational  
218 status. Total scores range from 4 to 20. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for this scale in the present study  
219 was .87.

### 220 ***2.2.2. Generative AI Use Assessment***

221 Generative AI use was assessed across multiple dimensions.

222 *AI use behaviors.* Usage behaviors were measured using a researcher-developed  
223 questionnaire that assessed usage frequency (on a 5-point scale) and average daily usage  
224 duration (measured continuously in hours).

225 *AI usage motivation.* Motivation for AI use was assessed using the AI Usage  
226 Motivation Scale revised by Huang et al. (2024). Based on the Uses and Gratifications  
227 framework, this scale comprises 12 items across four dimensions: instrumental motivation,  
228 entertainment motivation, social motivation, and escapism motivation. Items are rated on a  
229 4-point Likert scale. In the present study, Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .88, and confirmatory factor

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230 analysis indicated good structural validity.

231 *AI literacy.* AI literacy was measured using the Artificial Intelligence Literacy Scale  
232 for Chinese College Students (AILS-CCS) developed by Ma and Chen (2024). This scale  
233 consists of 15 items across four dimensions: cognitive, usage, evaluative, and ethical. Items  
234 are rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .91, and confirmatory factor analysis  
235 supported the four-factor structure.

236 *AI dependency.* AI dependency was measured using a researcher-developed scale based  
237 on the theoretical frameworks of internet addiction and smartphone dependency research.  
238 The scale comprises five items rated on a 5-point Likert scale, with a Cronbach's  $\alpha$  of .89.

### 239 ***2.2.3. Depression, Anxiety, and Sleep Quality Assessment***

240 Depressive symptoms were assessed using the Chinese version of the Beck Depression  
241 Inventory–Second Edition (BDI-II; Wang et al., 2011). This scale consists of 21 items with  
242 total scores ranging from 0 to 63. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .92. Anxiety symptoms were assessed  
243 using the Chinese version of the Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI; Liang et al., 2018). This  
244 scale comprises 21 items with total scores ranging from 0 to 63. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .93. Sleep  
245 quality was assessed using the Chinese version of the Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index (PSQI;  
246 Liu et al., 2005). Total scores range from 0 to 21, with higher scores indicating poorer sleep  
247 quality. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .83.

### 248 ***2.2.4. Other Psychological Measures***

249 *Emotion regulation.* Emotion regulation strategies were assessed using the Chinese  
250 version of the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ; Gross & John, 2003). This scale  
251 consists of 10 items measuring two dimensions: cognitive reappraisal and expressive  
252 suppression. Items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficients were .86  
253 and .79 for the two subscales, respectively.

254 *Executive function.* Executive function deficits were assessed using the Chinese  
255 version of the Executive Function Index–Short Form (EFI-S; Spinella, 2005). This scale  
256 comprises 14 items rated on a 5-point scale, with higher scores indicating greater executive  
257 function deficits. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .88.

258 *Smartphone addiction.* Smartphone addiction was assessed using the Chinese version  
259 of the Mobile Phone Addiction Index (MPAI; Leung, 2008). This scale consists of 17 items  
260 rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  was .90.

261 *Personality traits.* Personality traits were assessed using the Chinese version of the Big  
262 Five Inventory–Short Form (BFI-S; Zhang et al., 2019). This scale comprises 15 items

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263 measuring five dimensions: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism,  
264 and openness. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficients for the  
265 five subscales ranged from .74 to .82.

## 266 **2.3. Procedure**

267 Data collection was conducted between September and November 2025. The survey  
268 was administered on a class-by-class basis using standardized procedures with uniform  
269 instructions. Students who agreed to participate signed an electronic informed consent form  
270 and then completed the online questionnaire in a computer laboratory. Data collection was  
271 overseen by graduate students in psychology who had received standardized training. The  
272 questionnaire took approximately 30 minutes to complete. Upon completion, participants  
273 received a small gift as compensation.

## 274 **2.4. Data Analysis**

### 275 *2.4.1. Preliminary Analyses*

276 Missing value analysis indicated that the missing rate for all variables was below 5%.  
277 Missing data were handled using full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation.  
278 Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to examine bivariate associations among  
279 study variables, with the Benjamini–Hochberg method applied to control the false discovery  
280 rate (FDR). Preliminary analyses were performed using SPSS version 27.0 and R version  
281 4.3.2.

### 282 *2.4.2. Latent Profile Analysis*

283 Latent profile analysis (LPA) was conducted using the tidyLPA package in R (version  
284 4.3.2) to identify heterogeneous patterns of generative AI use among college students. Based  
285 on theoretical considerations and prior literature, eight variables were selected as profile  
286 indicators: AI usage frequency, daily usage duration, four types of usage motivation  
287 (instrumental, entertainment, social, and escapism), total AI literacy score, and AI  
288 dependency level. Together, these indicators capture the behavioral, motivational,  
289 competency, and dependency dimensions of AI use. Prior to analysis, all profile indicators  
290 were standardized ( $z$ -score transformation) to ensure comparability across different  
291 measurement scales (Li et al., 2026).

292 Model estimation began with a single-profile model and proceeded sequentially up to  
293 six-profile models. Parameter estimation was conducted using the mclust package (Scrucca

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294 et al., 2016), with equal variance–covariance matrices assumed across profiles (EEI model).  
295 The optimal number of profiles was determined based on the following criteria: (1)  
296 *Information criteria*: The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), Bayesian Information  
297 Criterion (BIC), and sample-adjusted BIC (aBIC) were examined, with lower values  
298 indicating better model fit. The BIC is considered the most reliable indicator (Nylund et al.,  
299 2007). (2) *Classification accuracy*: Classification accuracy was evaluated using entropy,  
300 which ranges from 0 to 1, with values exceeding 0.80 generally indicating reliable  
301 classification. (3) *Likelihood ratio tests*: The Lo–Mendell–Rubin adjusted likelihood ratio  
302 test (LMR-LRT) and the bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLRT) were used to compare nested  
303 models. A significant  $p$ -value ( $< .05$ ) indicates that a  $k$ -profile model fits better than a  $k - 1$   
304 profile model. (4) *Practical considerations*: Each profile was required to contain at least 5%  
305 of the total sample (Lubke & Muthén, 2005). (5) *Interpretability*: The final model was  
306 required to be theoretically meaningful and practically interpretable.

307 Once the optimal number of profiles was established, one-way analysis of variance  
308 (ANOVA) was used to examine differences across profiles on continuous variables, and chi-  
309 square tests ( $\chi^2$ ) were used to examine differences in the distribution of categorical variables.  
310 Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD test, with correction for  
311 multiple comparisons using the Benjamini–Hochberg method (Benjamini et al., 2001).

### 312 **2.4.3. Machine Learning Classification**

313 To examine the robustness of the latent profile solution and identify key predictive  
314 features, a random forest classification model was constructed (Breiman, 2001). Model  
315 development was performed using the scikit-learn library in Python (Pedregosa et al., 2011).  
316 The identified AI usage profiles served as classification targets, with mental health  
317 indicators, executive function, smartphone addiction, emotion regulation strategies,  
318 personality traits, and family SES serving as predictive features. The sample was split into  
319 training ( $n = 4,024$ ) and testing ( $n = 1,724$ ) sets at a 70:30 ratio. Hyperparameter  
320 optimization was conducted using  $5 \times 3$  nested cross-validation combined with the Optuna  
321 framework (Akiba et al., 2019). To enhance model interpretability, feature importance was  
322 analyzed using SHAP values (Lundberg et al., 2020) to quantify the contribution of each  
323 feature to classification outcomes.

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## 325 3. Results

### 326 3.1. Sociodemographic Characteristics and Correlation Analysis

327 The final analytic sample comprised 5,748 Chinese college students.  
328 Sociodemographic characteristics and descriptive statistics for all study variables are  
329 presented in Table 1. The mean age of participants was 20.73 years ( $SD = 2.51$ ), with  
330 females comprising the majority (67.86%). Regarding mental health indicators, 15.41% of  
331 students reported moderate or greater depressive symptoms, and 17.30% exhibited  
332 moderate or greater anxiety.

333 Correlation analysis results are presented in Table 2. With respect to associations  
334 among AI use variables, AI usage frequency was moderately positively correlated with daily  
335 usage duration ( $r = .54, p_{FDR} < .001$ ), and both were significantly positively correlated with  
336 all usage motivations, with the strongest associations observed for escapism motivation. AI  
337 literacy was moderately positively correlated with instrumental motivation ( $r = .39, p_{FDR}$   
338  $< .001$ ) but significantly negatively correlated with escapism motivation ( $r = -.21, p_{FDR}$   
339  $< .001$ ), suggesting that individuals with higher AI literacy tend to use AI primarily as a  
340 productivity tool. AI dependency showed the strongest correlation with escapism motivation  
341 ( $r = .58, p_{FDR} < .001$ ) and was negatively correlated with AI literacy ( $r = -.24, p_{FDR} < .001$ ).

342 Regarding associations between AI use variables and mental health indicators, daily  
343 usage duration showed stronger correlations with depression ( $r = .28, p_{FDR} < .001$ ) and  
344 anxiety ( $r = .24, p_{FDR} < .001$ ) than did usage frequency, suggesting that daily usage duration  
345 is more closely linked to mental health outcomes than is usage frequency. Among the four  
346 usage motivations, escapism motivation showed the most pronounced correlations with  
347 depression ( $r = .41, p_{FDR} < .001$ ) and anxiety ( $r = .36, p_{FDR} < .001$ ), whereas instrumental  
348 motivation showed weak negative or nonsignificant correlations with both outcomes. AI  
349 literacy was negatively correlated with depression ( $r = -.19, p_{FDR} < .001$ ) and anxiety ( $r =$   
350  $-.16, p_{FDR} < .001$ ), suggesting that it may serve as a protective factor for mental health.  
351 Additionally, AI dependency was moderately positively correlated with depression, anxiety,  
352 and smartphone addiction, indicating that problematic AI use may be associated with  
353 broader patterns of technology dependence.

### 354 3.2. Latent Profile Analysis Results

#### 355 3.2.1. Model Fit and Determination of the Optimal Number of Profiles

356 Latent profile analysis was conducted using eight profile indicators: AI usage

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357 frequency, daily usage duration, four types of usage motivation (instrumental, social,  
358 entertainment, and escapism), total AI literacy score, and dependency level. Models  
359 specifying one to six profiles were fitted sequentially, and fit indices for each solution are  
360 presented in Table 3.

361 The four-profile model demonstrated optimal fit characteristics across multiple criteria.  
362 First, the BIC value reached its minimum at the four-profile solution (BIC = 102,970.17),  
363 representing a substantial improvement over the three-profile model ( $\Delta$ BIC = 835.06).  
364 Although AIC continued to decrease with additional profiles, BIC increased for the five-  
365 profile solution (BIC = 103,147.91), indicating diminishing returns in model parsimony.  
366 Second, entropy for the four-profile model was .81, reflecting good classification precision.  
367 Third, both the LMR-LRT and BLRT were significant ( $p < .01$ ), supporting the superiority  
368 of the four-profile solution over the three-profile alternative. In contrast, neither the five-  
369 nor the six-profile model demonstrated significant improvement on these likelihood ratio  
370 tests. Finally, from a practical standpoint, the sample distribution across the four profiles  
371 was well-balanced, with the smallest profile (Problematic-Dependent) comprising 15.0% of  
372 the total sample—well above the commonly recommended 5% threshold for profile viability.  
373 Based on statistical fit indices, practical distributional criteria, and theoretical  
374 interpretability, the four-profile model was selected as the optimal solution.

### 375 ***3.2.2. Characteristics of the Four AI User Profiles***

376 Based on the classification results of the four-profile model, the 5,748 college students  
377 were categorized into four distinct AI use profiles. Standardized score patterns on the eight  
378 profile indicators for each profile are displayed in Figure 1A, with specific values and  
379 between-group differences presented in Table 4.

380 *Profile 1: Rational-Instrumental* ( $n = 1,609, 27.99\%$ ) exhibited a "high literacy–low  
381 dependency–tool-oriented" usage pattern. This profile showed moderately low usage  
382 frequency and daily duration, the highest instrumental motivation scores among all four  
383 profiles, and the lowest scores on all other motivations. This profile also demonstrated the  
384 highest AI literacy and the lowest dependency levels.

385 *Profile 2: Adaptive-Compensatory* ( $n = 1,954, 33.99\%$ ) represented the largest group,  
386 characterized by a "moderate frequency–affect-oriented–gradual dependency" pattern. This  
387 profile showed moderate levels of usage frequency, daily duration, AI literacy, and  
388 dependency. The distinguishing feature of this profile was relatively elevated entertainment  
389 and social motivation.

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390 *Profile 3: Problematic-Dependent* ( $n = 862, 15.00\%$ ) comprised the smallest  
391 proportion but represented the high-risk group warranting the most attention. This profile  
392 exhibited a "high frequency–high dependency–low literacy–escapism-oriented"  
393 problematic usage pattern. Specifically, this profile showed the highest usage frequency,  
394 daily duration, and escapism motivation among all four profiles, while demonstrating the  
395 lowest instrumental motivation and AI literacy. AI dependency levels were markedly  
396 elevated.

397 *Profile 4: Light-Exploratory* ( $n = 1,323, 23.02\%$ ) represented individuals with minimal  
398 engagement with generative AI, characterized by a "low frequency–low engagement–low  
399 dependency" pattern. This profile showed the lowest usage frequency and daily duration  
400 among all profiles, with all motivation types and dependency at relatively low levels.

### 401 **3.2.3. Between-Group Differences Among the Four AI User Profiles**

402 Table 4 presents between-group differences in sociodemographic characteristics,  
403 mental health indicators, and other psychological variables across the four AI use profiles.

404 *Sociodemographic characteristics.* Rational-Instrumental users were the oldest,  
405 significantly older than Problematic-Dependent users ( $F = 7.84, p < .001$ ). Gender  
406 distribution differed significantly across profiles ( $\chi^2 = 31.24, p < .001$ ), with females  
407 comprising the highest proportion in the Problematic-Dependent profile (75.68%). Family  
408 socioeconomic status also differed significantly ( $F = 38.92, p < .001$ ), with Rational-  
409 Instrumental users reporting the highest levels and Problematic-Dependent users reporting  
410 the lowest levels.

411 *Mental health indicators.* As shown in Figures 1B and 1C, significant between-group  
412 differences were observed for depressive symptoms ( $F = 142.67, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$ ), with  
413 Problematic-Dependent users scoring highest (mild to moderate range) and Rational-  
414 Instrumental users scoring lowest (minimal range). Anxiety symptoms ( $F = 124.58, p < .001,$   
415  $\eta^2 = .06$ ) and sleep quality ( $F = 108.34, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$ ) showed similar patterns.

416 *Executive function and behavioral addiction.* Problematic-Dependent users showed the  
417 highest scores on executive function deficits ( $F = 134.21, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$ ) and smartphone  
418 addiction ( $F = 156.78, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$ ), whereas Rational-Instrumental users showed the  
419 lowest scores on both measures.

420 *Emotion regulation and personality traits.* Cognitive reappraisal scores ( $F = 87.45, p$   
421  $< .001, \eta^2 = .04$ ) followed the pattern: Rational-Instrumental > Light-Exploratory >  
422 Adaptive-Compensatory > Problematic-Dependent, with expressive suppression showing

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423 the reverse pattern. Neuroticism ( $F = 124.87, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$ ) and conscientiousness ( $F$   
424  $= 118.47, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$ ) showed the most pronounced between-group differences, with  
425 Problematic-Dependent users exhibiting the highest neuroticism and lowest  
426 conscientiousness, and Rational-Instrumental users showing the opposite pattern.

### 427 **3.3 Machine Learning Classification Model**

428 To examine the robustness of the latent profile analysis results and identify key features  
429 distinguishing different AI usage patterns, a random forest classification model was  
430 constructed. The classifier achieved an overall accuracy of 81.0% on the test set, with a  
431 macro-average AUC of .894 (Figure 2). Classification performance varied across profiles:  
432 Problematic-Dependent users were identified most accurately (AUC = .938), followed by  
433 Rational-Instrumental users (AUC = .893), whereas Adaptive-Compensatory (AUC = .873)  
434 and Light-Exploratory (AUC = .872) users showed relatively lower but still acceptable  
435 classification accuracy.

436 SHAP analysis was subsequently conducted to examine the contribution of each  
437 feature to classification prediction (Figure 3). For Rational-Instrumental users,  
438 conscientiousness was the most important predictive feature, followed by executive  
439 function and smartphone addiction (negative association). For Adaptive-Compensatory  
440 users, smartphone addiction was the most important predictive feature, followed by  
441 depression and anxiety. For Problematic-Dependent users, depression emerged as the most  
442 important predictive feature, followed by smartphone addiction and executive function  
443 deficits, indicating that problematic AI use is closely associated with depressive symptoms,  
444 broader technology dependence patterns, and executive function impairment. For Light-  
445 Exploratory users, conscientiousness was the most important predictive feature, followed  
446 by smartphone addiction (negative association) and depression (negative association).

447

## 448 **4. Discussion**

449 This study identified four distinct patterns of generative AI use among 5,748 Chinese  
450 college students and systematically examined their associations with depression and anxiety.  
451 The findings revealed significant heterogeneity in AI use, with the four profiles showing  
452 marked differences in usage motivation, AI literacy, and dependency levels. The  
453 Problematic-Dependent profile exhibited significantly higher levels of depression and  
454 anxiety compared to the other profiles, whereas the Rational-Instrumental profile

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455 demonstrated the most favorable mental health outcomes. The machine learning  
456 classification model validated the reliability of the latent profiles and identified depression,  
457 smartphone addiction, and executive function deficits as key features associated with the  
458 Problematic-Dependent profile, while conscientiousness was closely associated with the  
459 Rational-Instrumental profile.

#### 460 **4.1. Heterogeneous Patterns of Generative AI Use**

461 The identification of four distinct generative AI use profiles extends previous research  
462 on the heterogeneity of digital technology use to the emerging domain of generative AI.  
463 Prior studies have demonstrated significant individual differences in internet use among  
464 young people (Wang et al., 2024), smartphone use (Yang et al., 2022), and social media use  
465 (Akbari et al., 2023), yet traditional variable-centered approaches have difficulty capturing  
466 such within-group heterogeneity (Spurk et al., 2020). The present findings demonstrate that  
467 college students' AI use patterns differ significantly across multiple dimensions, including  
468 usage motivation, AI literacy, and dependency levels, suggesting that assessing the  
469 adaptiveness of AI use based solely on single indicators such as usage duration or frequency  
470 is insufficient. These results support the Differential Susceptibility to Media Effects Model  
471 (Valkenburg & Peter, 2013), which posits that the impact of technology use on mental health  
472 depends on the interaction among user characteristics, usage patterns, and environmental  
473 factors rather than on inherent properties of the technology itself.

474 Regarding the number of profiles, different studies have yielded varying results due to  
475 differences in sample characteristics and measurement instruments. The findings of the  
476 present study are consistent with those of Xie et al. (2024) and Daniilidou and Antoniadou  
477 (2025), although Kim and Song (2022) and Wu et al. (2025) each identified three profiles.  
478 This discrepancy may reflect the present study's simultaneous inclusion of usage motivation,  
479 AI literacy, and dependency as analytical dimensions, whereas previous studies have often  
480 focused on single-dimension addiction symptom measures. Furthermore, college students  
481 are at a critical stage of identity exploration and career preparation (Arnett, 2000), and their  
482 AI usage motivations may be more diverse than those of other age groups.

483 Each of the four profiles exhibited unique usage characteristics. The Rational-  
484 Instrumental profile was characterized by high AI literacy, high instrumental motivation,  
485 and low dependency. This group primarily views AI as a tool for enhancing efficiency and  
486 is capable of critically evaluating AI-generated content. From the perspective of Uses and  
487 Gratifications Theory, this pattern primarily satisfies cognitive needs and reflects a clear

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488 goal orientation (Katz et al., 1973). The Adaptive-Compensatory profile represented the  
489 largest group (33.99%), showing diverse usage motivations including instrumental,  
490 entertainment, and social needs. This pattern may reflect attempts by some individuals to  
491 compensate for unmet needs in real-world interpersonal interactions by turning to AI  
492 (Kardefelt-Winther, 2014). Although smallest in proportion (15.00%), the Problematic-  
493 Dependent profile represented the highest-risk group, exhibiting high usage frequency, high  
494 dependency, low AI literacy, and strong escapism motivation. Notably, escapism motivation  
495 is considered a key predictor of technology addiction (Chang et al., 2018), and longitudinal  
496 studies have demonstrated its strong within-person effects on excessive gaming and internet  
497 use (Zhou et al., 2020). The characteristics of this group align with perspectives that  
498 conceptualize excessive AI use as a novel behavioral addiction (Yankouskaya et al., 2025).  
499 The Light-Exploratory profile represented individuals with minimal engagement with  
500 generative AI (23.02%), showing the lowest usage frequency and duration among all groups.  
501 Previous research has also identified similar "low engagement" groups, whose mental health  
502 outcomes typically fall between those of problematic users and healthy users (Moreno et al.,  
503 2022).

#### 504 **4.2. Associations Between Generative AI Use Patterns and Depression and** 505 **Anxiety**

506 The four profiles demonstrated significant gradient differences in depression and  
507 anxiety, with the Problematic-Dependent profile showing the highest symptom levels and  
508 the Rational-Instrumental profile showing the lowest. Depression scores in the Problematic-  
509 Dependent profile reached clinically significant levels (mild to moderate range), whereas  
510 scores in the Rational-Instrumental profile fell within the minimal range. This gradient  
511 pattern is consistent with findings from studies of adolescent internet addiction (Wang et al.,  
512 2024) and smartphone addiction (Kim et al., 2023).

513 The social displacement hypothesis (Kraut et al., 1998) provides one possible  
514 explanation for these results. Individuals who spend substantial time in digital interactions  
515 may spend less time in face-to-face communication, and the resulting lack of social support  
516 may contribute to depressive symptoms. Although recent research has questioned the  
517 universal applicability of this hypothesis (Beyens et al., 2020), displacement effects may be  
518 more pronounced for technology use motivated by escapism (Meier & Reinecke, 2020).  
519 Individuals in the Problematic-Dependent profile may immerse themselves in AI interaction  
520 to temporarily avoid real-world stress, but this avoidance behavior neither effectively

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521 addresses underlying problems nor facilitates the development of adaptive coping strategies.

522 For anxiety, the four profiles showed a similar gradient pattern. From the perspective  
523 of behavioral addiction, problematic AI use can be viewed as a maladaptive coping strategy  
524 in which individuals attempt to alleviate anxiety through AI interaction (Stavropoulos et al.,  
525 2017). However, individuals highly dependent on AI may experience anxiety resembling  
526 withdrawal effects when unable to access AI (Yankouskaya et al., 2025). Prior longitudinal  
527 research on technology use has demonstrated bidirectional relationships between mental  
528 health problems and technology dependency, with psychological distress predicting  
529 increased dependency, which in turn exacerbates subsequent mental health difficulties  
530 (Coyne et al., 2020; Houghton et al., 2018). Although direct longitudinal evidence for  
531 generative AI remains limited given its recent emergence, similar reciprocal patterns are  
532 likely to characterize the relationship between AI dependency and mental health.

533 Correlation analysis revealed that among the four usage motivations, escapism  
534 motivation showed the strongest associations with depression and anxiety, whereas  
535 instrumental motivation showed weak or negative associations with these outcomes. This  
536 pattern is consistent with prior research demonstrating that escapism-motivated social media  
537 use more strongly predicts mental health problems than does instrumental use (Bányai et al.,  
538 2017). From a theoretical perspective, escapism motivation reflects a maladaptive coping  
539 style. Escape theory (Baumeister, 1990) proposes that when self-awareness becomes  
540 aversive, individuals seek relief from this state, and technology use provides a convenient  
541 avenue for such escape—yet this strategy provides only temporary relief rather than lasting  
542 improvement.

543 The executive function deficits observed in the Problematic-Dependent profile also  
544 warrant attention. Executive function represents the core cognitive foundation of self-  
545 regulation (Hofmann et al., 2012), and deficits in this area may make it difficult for  
546 individuals to control AI use behavior, flexibly switch between activities, and inhibit  
547 impulses toward AI dependence. Neurobiological research provides mechanistic  
548 explanations: internet gaming disorder is associated with reduced prefrontal cortex function  
549 and decreased functional connectivity in cognitive control networks (Dong & Potenza,  
550 2014). The I-PACE model (Brand et al., 2019) suggests that executive function deficits may  
551 impair individuals' ability to monitor and regulate their technology use behavior. However,  
552 the cross-sectional nature of our data precludes causal inference regarding whether  
553 executive function deficits precede or follow problematic AI use patterns.

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### 554 4.3. Features Associated with Different AI Use Profiles

555 The machine learning classification model achieved good predictive accuracy (AUC =  
556 0.81), and SHAP analysis revealed distinct feature importance patterns across the four  
557 profiles. Depression emerged as the most important feature associated with the Problematic-  
558 Dependent profile, indicating a close association between psychological distress and  
559 problematic AI use patterns. Individuals experiencing depression may be more inclined to  
560 seek temporary emotional comfort or escape from negative emotions through AI interaction.

561 However, a complex bidirectional relationship likely exists between AI use and  
562 depression. Compensatory internet use theory posits that people go online to escape real-  
563 world problems or alleviate negative emotions, but this may ultimately contribute to  
564 problematic technology use (Kardefelt-Winther, 2014). Problematic AI use may not only be  
565 associated with depression but may also exacerbate depressive symptoms through pathways  
566 such as reduced real-world social interaction and sleep disruption. Of note, the unique  
567 characteristics of generative AI may amplify this risk. Unlike traditional social media, AI  
568 chatbots can provide highly personalized, instantly responsive "conversation partners,"  
569 which may hold particular appeal for individuals who feel lonely or depressed. De Freitas  
570 et al. (2024) found that users described AI chatbots as an "emotional refuge," while  
571 Yankouskaya et al. (2025) identified multiple features of ChatGPT addiction, including  
572 instant gratification, parasocial bonding, loss of control, and withdrawal symptoms—all  
573 characteristics similar to those of traditional behavioral addictions.

574 Smartphone addiction emerged as the second most important feature associated with  
575 the Problematic-Dependent profile, suggesting that problematic AI use may be embedded  
576 within a broader pattern of technology dependence behaviors. This finding is consistent with  
577 the comorbidity of multiple technology addiction behaviors observed in previous research  
578 (Hussain et al., 2020; Toklu Baloglu & Caferoglu Akin, 2024). From a neurobiological  
579 perspective, different forms of technology dependence may share similar neural circuits and  
580 psychological mechanisms, particularly those related to reward processing, impulse control,  
581 and habit formation (Brand et al., 2019).

582 With respect to personality traits, the associations of neuroticism and conscientiousness  
583 with profile membership were consistent with expectations from Person-Environment Fit  
584 Theory. Individuals high in neuroticism have lower emotional stability and higher stress  
585 sensitivity, making them more likely to adopt avoidant coping strategies when facing  
586 challenges. Multiple meta-analyses have found that neuroticism shows the strongest

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587 positive correlation with technology addiction among the Big Five personality traits  
588 (Marciano et al., 2022). Conversely, conscientiousness was associated with the Rational-  
589 Instrumental profile, consistent with the view of conscientiousness as a protective factor  
590 against problematic technology use (Marciano et al., 2022). Individuals high in  
591 conscientiousness typically demonstrate stronger self-control and higher self-discipline,  
592 which may help maintain healthy technology use boundaries.

593 Differences in emotion regulation strategies across profiles further illuminate the  
594 psychological mechanisms underlying problematic AI use. The Problematic-Dependent  
595 profile used cognitive reappraisal—an adaptive emotion regulation strategy—less  
596 frequently while relying more heavily on expressive suppression—a maladaptive strategy  
597 (Gross & John, 2003). Research by Liang et al. (2021) among Chinese adolescents found  
598 that cognitive reappraisal had a significant direct negative effect on internet addiction, and  
599 negative emotions mediated the relationship between expressive suppression and internet  
600 addiction. A lack of effective emotion regulation strategies may lead individuals to rely more  
601 heavily on AI as an external tool for emotion regulation, thereby forming a maladaptive  
602 pattern of substituting technology for self-regulation. This finding suggests that cultivating  
603 emotion regulation skills may be an important intervention target for preventing problematic  
604 AI use.

#### 605 **4.4. Implications**

606 At the theoretical level, the findings demonstrate the value of adopting person-centered  
607 approaches when examining AI use among college students. Traditional variable-centered  
608 approaches focus on average associations between variables and have difficulty revealing  
609 within-group heterogeneity, whereas latent profile analysis can identify subgroups with  
610 similar characteristic combinations, providing a more nuanced perspective for  
611 understanding the complexity of the relationship between AI use and mental health. The  
612 present study integrated multiple theoretical frameworks, including Uses and Gratifications  
613 Theory, Person-Environment Fit Theory, and behavioral addiction theory, to construct a  
614 multidimensional analytical framework encompassing usage motivation, AI literacy, and  
615 dependency levels. In addition, machine learning methods validated the robustness of the  
616 latent profile analysis results and provided empirical evidence for identifying high-risk  
617 individuals.

618 At the practical level, the findings highlight the necessity of differentiated interventions.  
619 Different AI use patterns are underlain by different psychological mechanisms, making

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620 uniform educational or intervention strategies unlikely to achieve optimal results. For the  
621 Problematic-Dependent profile, intervention efforts might focus on cultivating adaptive  
622 emotion regulation strategies, enhancing AI literacy, and improving executive function,  
623 while also attending to elevated levels of depression and anxiety and referring individuals  
624 to professional mental health services when necessary. For the Adaptive-Compensatory  
625 profile, interventions might emphasize guiding individuals to develop diversified sources of  
626 social support and strengthening real-world interpersonal connections. For the Light-  
627 Exploratory profile, appropriate education and guidance on AI use could help individuals  
628 better leverage the positive functions of AI.

629 Furthermore, the present study found that AI literacy was negatively correlated with  
630 mental health problems and that the Rational-Instrumental profile scored highest across all  
631 dimensions of AI literacy, providing empirical support for the importance of AI literacy  
632 education. Universities and educational institutions might consider incorporating AI literacy  
633 into curricula to help students understand the basic principles and limitations of AI  
634 technology, develop the ability to critically evaluate AI-generated content, and establish  
635 awareness and boundaries for appropriate AI use. Naamati-Schneider and Alt (2025) found  
636 that distrust and ethical concerns about generative AI were common among medical students,  
637 suggesting that AI literacy education should encompass not only technical skills but also  
638 ethical discussion and critical thinking training. Finally, the finding that problematic AI use  
639 was highly correlated with smartphone addiction suggests that prevention and intervention  
640 efforts need to be conducted within a broader digital health framework, helping college  
641 students establish healthy technology use habits and lifestyles.

#### 642 **4.5. Limitations and Future Directions**

643 Several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the cross-sectional design precludes  
644 causal inference. Although we found associations between the Problematic-Dependent  
645 profile and poorer mental health outcomes, the temporal direction of these relationships  
646 cannot be determined. Future research should employ longitudinal designs, such as latent  
647 transition analysis, to explore dynamic changes in profiles over time and examine temporal  
648 relationships between usage patterns and mental health outcomes. Second, the exclusion of  
649 students currently receiving psychotherapy or psychiatric medication may have resulted in  
650 underrepresentation of individuals with severe mental health problems. Additionally, the  
651 sample was drawn from four universities in western China, which may limit generalizability  
652 to other regions or educational contexts. Future research should expand geographic

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653 coverage and include more diverse institutional types to enhance external validity. Third,  
654 this study relied primarily on self-report measures, which may be subject to social  
655 desirability bias and recall bias. Future research could incorporate objective behavioral data,  
656 such as app usage logs, and combine neurocognitive testing to enhance measurement  
657 objectivity. Qualitative methods could also provide deeper understanding of the subjective  
658 experiences underlying different usage patterns. Fourth, this study did not differentiate  
659 among specific types of AI applications. Generative AI encompasses multiple application  
660 types, including text generation, image generation, and AI companions, which may have  
661 different implications for mental health. Future research could examine heterogeneous  
662 patterns across different AI application types.

## 663 **5. Conclusions**

664 This study identified four distinct generative AI use profiles among Chinese college  
665 students: Rational-Instrumental, Adaptive-Compensatory, Problematic-Dependent, and  
666 Light-Exploratory. These profiles showed gradient differences in mental health indicators,  
667 with the Problematic-Dependent profile exhibiting the highest levels of depression and  
668 anxiety symptoms and the Rational-Instrumental profile demonstrating the most favorable  
669 mental health outcomes. Machine learning analysis identified key features associated with  
670 different usage patterns: depression, smartphone addiction, and executive function deficits  
671 were closely associated with the Problematic-Dependent profile, while conscientiousness  
672 and higher AI literacy were associated with the Rational-Instrumental profile. Taken  
673 together, these findings suggest that the association between AI use and mental health  
674 depends more on usage patterns and individual characteristics than on usage frequency  
675 alone. These findings provide empirical evidence for identifying high-risk individuals and  
676 developing differentiated intervention strategies.

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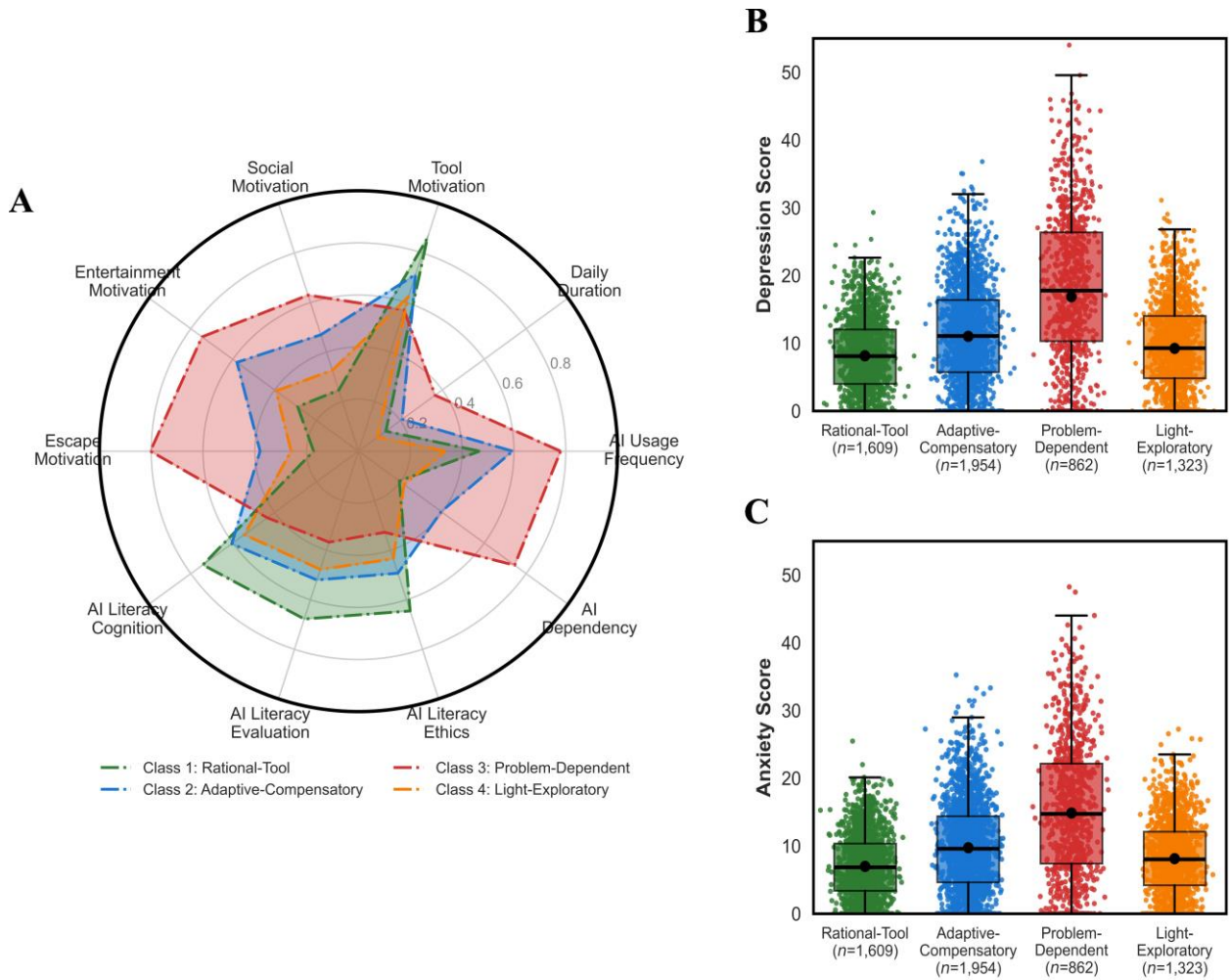
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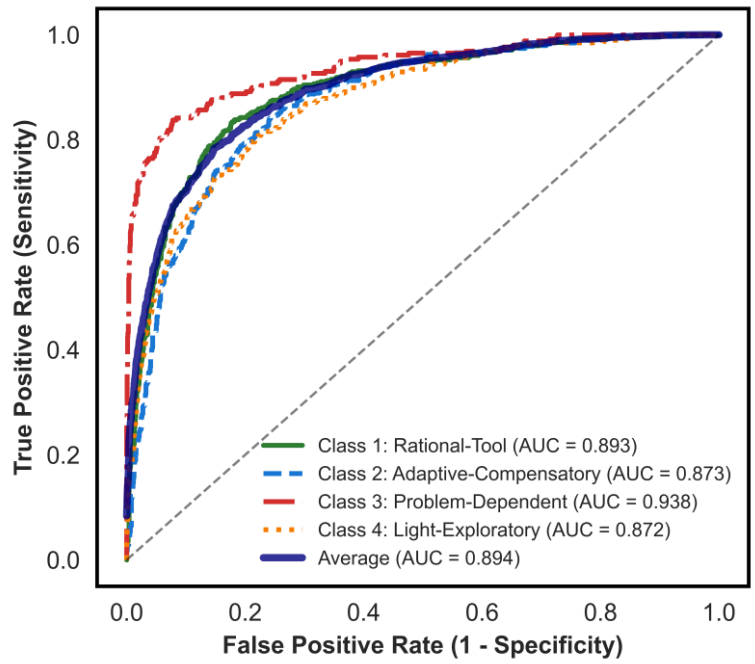
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978

979 **Figure 1. Latent Profiles of Generative AI Use and Mental Health**  
 980 **Comparisons Across Profiles**



981  
 982 *Note.* (A) Standardized scores (z-scores) on eight profile indicators across the four latent  
 983 profiles of AI use. (B) Distribution of depression severity (BDI-II) across the four profiles.  
 984 (C) Distribution of anxiety severity (BAI) across the four profiles.  
 985

986 **Figure 2. Random Forest Classification Performance for Four AI User**  
987 **Profiles**



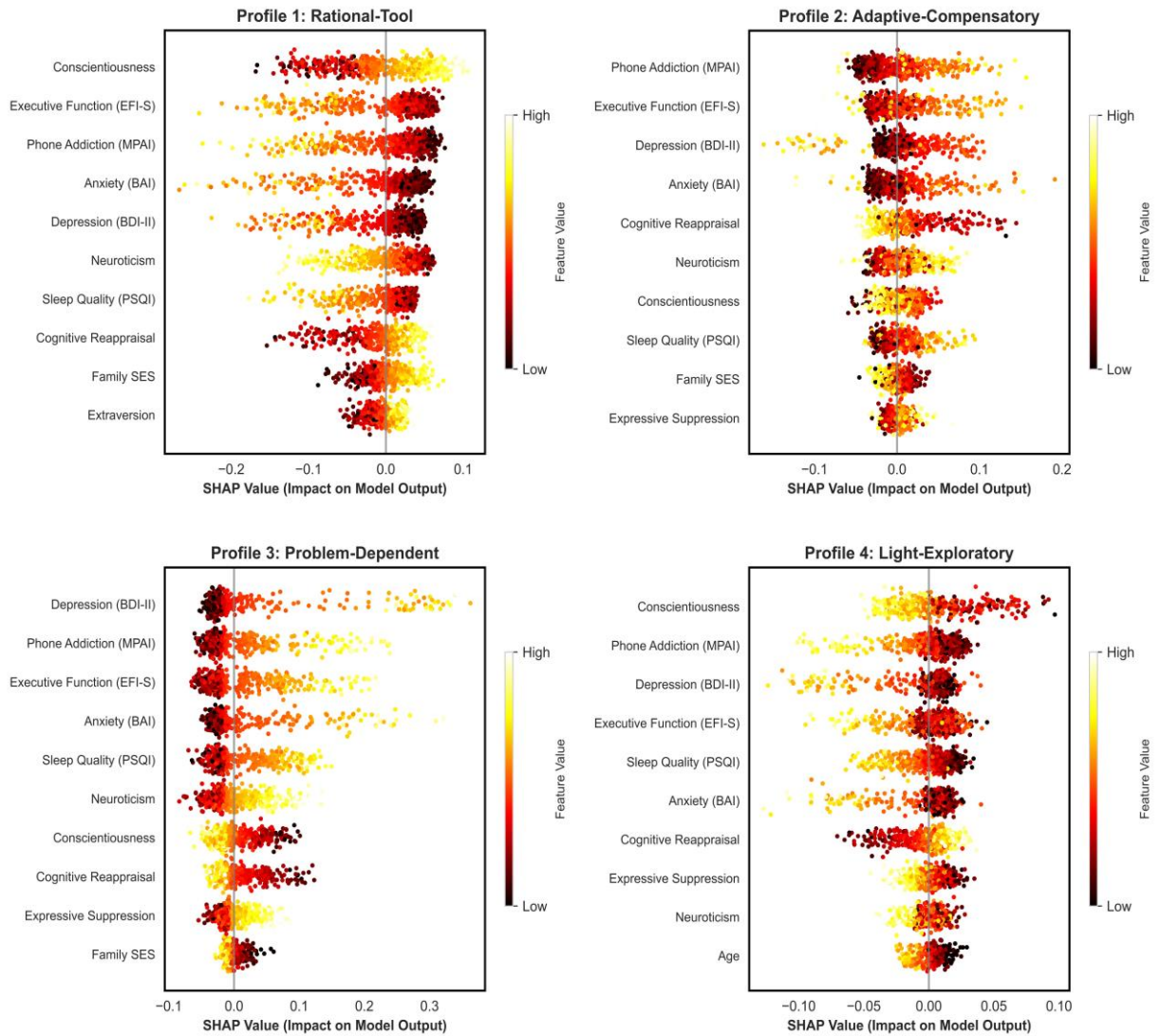
988

989 *Note.* Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves and area under the curve (AUC)  
990 values for each AI user profile. The diagonal dashed line represents chance-level  
991 classification (AUC = 0.50).

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994 **Figure 3. SHAP Feature Importance for AI User Profile Classification**



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 996 *Note.* SHAP summary plots displaying the contribution of each feature to profile  
 997 classification. Bar length represents the mean absolute SHAP value. Features are ranked by  
 998 importance within each profile.  
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 1000

1001 **Table 1. Sociodemographic Characteristics and Descriptive Statistics for**  
 1002 **Study Variables**

Variable	<i>n</i> (%) / <i>M</i> ± <i>SD</i>	Range
<b>Demographic Characteristics</b>		
Age (years)	20.73 ± 2.51	17–35
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	1,847 (32.14%)	
Female	3,901 (67.86%)	
<b>Academic Discipline</b>		
Humanities	1,724 (29.99%)	
Engineering	1,983 (34.50%)	
Science	2,041 (35.51%)	
<b>Only Child</b>		
Yes	2,156 (37.51%)	
No	3,592 (62.49%)	
<b>Place of Origin</b>		
Urban	3,967 (69.01%)	
Rural	1,781 (30.99%)	
Family Socioeconomic Status (SES)	11.08 ± 3.74	4–20
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	21.42 ± 3.27	14.8–41.2
<b>AI Use Characteristics</b>		
Usage Frequency (1–5)	3.14 ± 1.18	1–5
Daily Usage Duration (hours)	1.79 ± 1.61	0–9.5
<b>AI Usage Motivation</b>		
Instrumental Motivation	3.11 ± 0.74	1–4
Social Motivation	2.24 ± 0.91	1–4
Entertainment Motivation	2.58 ± 0.87	1–4
Escapism Motivation	2.07 ± 0.96	1–4
<b>AI Literacy</b>		
Cognitive Dimension	3.38 ± 0.86	1–5
Usage Dimension	3.26 ± 0.91	1–5
Evaluative Dimension	3.04 ± 0.89	1–5
Ethical Dimension	2.91 ± 1.04	1–5
AI Literacy Total Score	3.15 ± 0.78	1–5
AI Dependency Level	2.41 ± 1.07	1–5
<b>Mental Health Indicators</b>		
Depression (BDI-II)	10.84 ± 8.76	0–54
Minimal (0–13)	3,856 (67.09%)	
Mild (14–19)	1,006 (17.50%)	
Moderate (20–28)	598 (10.40%)	
Severe (29–63)	288 (5.01%)	
Anxiety (BAI)	9.47 ± 7.89	0–53
Minimal (0–7)	2,978 (51.81%)	
Mild (8–15)	1,776 (30.90%)	
Moderate (16–25)	701 (12.20%)	
Severe (26–63)	293 (5.10%)	
Sleep Quality (PSQI)	6.67 ± 3.44	0–19
<b>Other Psychological Variables</b>		
Executive Function Total Score	35.21 ± 10.84	14–71
Smartphone Addiction	41.23 ± 13.58	17–85
<b>Emotion Regulation Strategies</b>		
Cognitive Reappraisal	4.48 ± 1.27	1–7
Expressive Suppression	4.11 ± 1.29	1–7
<b>Personality Traits</b>		

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Extraversion	3.18 ± 0.94	1–5
Agreeableness	3.61 ± 0.78	1–5
Conscientiousness	3.28 ± 0.89	1–5
Neuroticism	2.97 ± 0.91	1–5
Openness	3.39 ± 0.81	1–5

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*Note:* BMI = body mass index; SES = socioeconomic status; BDI-II = Beck Depression Inventory–Second Edition; BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory; PSQI = Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index. Depression severity was categorized according to BDI-II clinical cutoffs: minimal (0–13), mild (14–19), moderate (20–28), and severe (29–63). Anxiety severity was categorized according to BAI clinical cutoffs: minimal (0–7), mild (8–15), moderate (16–25), and severe (26–63).

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1004 **Table 2. Pearson Correlation Matrix of AI Use Variables and Mental Health Indicators**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Usage Frequency	—														
2. Daily Usage Duration	.54***	—													
3. Instrumental Motivation	.29***	.21***	—												
4. Entertainment Motivation	.35***	.41***	.08*	—											
5. Social Motivation	.31***	.36***	.11**	.49***	—										
6. Escapism Motivation	.38***	.44***	-.04	.53***	.45***	—									
7. AI Literacy	.18***	.06	.39***	-.11**	-.07*	-.21***	—								
8. Dependency Level	.49***	.55***	.08*	.46***	.41***	.58***	-.24***	—							
9. Depression	.21***	.28***	-.08*	.32***	.27***	.41***	-.19***	.38***	—						
10. Anxiety	.18***	.24***	-.05	.29***	.24***	.36***	-.16***	.34***	.62***	—					
11. Sleep Quality	.16***	.23***	-.04	.24***	.19***	.31***	-.13***	.28***	.46***	.42***	—				
12. Executive Function	.15***	.21***	-.11**	.22***	.18***	.27***	-.18***	.26***	.39***	.34***	.32***	—			
13. Smartphone Addiction	.36***	.43***	.02	.38***	.33***	.45***	-.15***	.49***	.36***	.32***	.28***	.31***	—		
14. Cognitive Reappraisal	-.09**	-.12***	.19***	-.14***	-.11**	-.21***	.26***	-.18***	-.26***	-.22***	-.18***	-.14***	-.12***	—	
15. Expressive Suppression	.11**	.15***	-.01	.18***	.16***	.22***	-.08*	.21***	.22***	.18***	.15***	.13***	.17***	-.06	—

Note: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; All p-values were corrected using the Benjamini–Hochberg method.

1006 **Table 3. Model Fit Indices for Latent Profile Analysis of Generative AI Use Patterns**

Number of Profiles	LL	AIC	BIC	aBIC	Entropy	LMR-LRT	BLRT
1	-54,123.47	108,278.94	108,385.21	108,325.87	—	—	—
2	-52,487.63	105,031.26	105,218.73	105,115.42	.71	3,241.18***	3,271.68***
3	-51,734.28	103,536.56	103,805.23	103,658.95	.74	1,486.92***	1,506.70***
<b>4</b>	<b>-51,267.15</b>	<b>102,620.30</b>	<b>102,970.17</b>	<b>102,780.92</b>	<b>.81</b>	<b>921.34***</b>	<b>934.26***</b>
5	-51,089.42	102,272.84	103,147.91	102,871.69	.76	347.82	355.46*
6	-50,978.31	102,058.62	103,258.89	102,895.70	.73	216.54	222.22

Note:  $.^*p < .05$ ,  $^{**}p < .01$ ,  $^{***}p < .001$ ; LL = log-likelihood; AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; aBIC = sample-adjusted BIC; LMR-LRT = Lo-Mendell-Rubin adjusted likelihood ratio test; BLRT = bootstrap likelihood ratio test (5,000 resamples). The bolded row indicates the selected model. Although AIC continued to decrease with additional profiles, BIC reached its minimum at the four-profile solution. The four-profile model also demonstrated adequate entropy (.81), significant LMR-LRT and BLRT ( $p < .01$ ), and all profile proportions exceeded 5%, supporting its selection as the optimal solution.

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1009 **Table 4. Comparisons of Sociodemographic, AI Use, and Psychological Variables Across Four AI User Profiles**

Variable	Rational-Instrumental (n=1,609)	Adaptive-Compensatory (n=1,954)	Problematic-Dependent (n=862)	Light-Exploratory (n=1,323)	F/ $\chi^2$	$\eta^2/V$	Post-hoc
<b>Sociodemographics</b>							
Age (years)	21.02 ± 2.47	20.81 ± 2.53	20.34 ± 2.71	20.58 ± 2.44	7.84***	.004	1 > 3
Gender					31.24***	.07	—
Male	36.22%	30.87%	24.32%	33.41%			
Female	63.78%	69.13%	75.68%	66.59%			
Academic discipline					19.87**	.04	—
Humanities	27.18%	31.54%	34.12%	29.21%			
Engineering	37.86%	33.19%	30.58%	35.67%			
Science	34.96%	35.27%	35.30%	35.12%			
Only child					14.67**	.05	—
Yes	40.14%	37.23%	31.64%	38.08%			
No	59.86%	62.77%	68.36%	61.92%			
Place of origin					22.41***	.06	—
Urban	73.51%	68.04%	61.28%	69.78%			
Rural	26.49%	31.96%	38.72%	30.22%			
Family SES	12.04 ± 3.56	10.97 ± 3.71	9.84 ± 3.98	11.21 ± 3.61	38.92***	.02	1 > 2, 4 > 3
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	21.34 ± 3.18	21.47 ± 3.29	21.58 ± 3.41	21.38 ± 3.24	0.89	<.001	—
<b>AI Use Characteristics<sup>a</sup></b>							
Usage frequency (1–5)	2.87 ± 0.81	3.38 ± 0.87	4.12 ± 0.64	2.34 ± 0.76	487.24***	.20	3 > 2 > 1 > 4
Daily duration (hours)	1.24 ± 0.71	1.98 ± 1.14	3.47 ± 1.68	0.87 ± 0.54	521.38***	.21	3 > 2 > 1 > 4
<b>Usage Motivation</b>							
Instrumental (1–4)	3.58 ± 0.52	3.14 ± 0.68	2.71 ± 0.84	2.87 ± 0.74	142.18***	.07	1 > 2 > 4, 3
Entertainment (1–4)	1.87 ± 0.72	2.74 ± 0.81	3.24 ± 0.71	2.18 ± 0.84	298.56***	.13	3 > 2 > 4 > 1
Social (1–4)	1.74 ± 0.68	2.41 ± 0.87	2.89 ± 0.82	1.98 ± 0.81	198.42***	.09	3 > 2 > 4 > 1
Escapism (1–4)	1.52 ± 0.64	2.14 ± 0.81	3.41 ± 0.67	1.78 ± 0.74	512.34***	.21	3 > 2 > 4 > 1
<b>AI Literacy</b>							
Cognitive	3.97 ± 0.68	3.42 ± 0.81	2.74 ± 0.94	3.18 ± 0.87	201.45***	.10	1 > 2 > 4 > 3
Usage	3.84 ± 0.71	3.31 ± 0.88	2.58 ± 0.97	3.08 ± 0.91	187.32***	.09	1 > 2 > 4 > 3
Evaluative	3.71 ± 0.74	3.08 ± 0.86	2.47 ± 0.92	2.91 ± 0.88	178.56***	.09	1 > 2 > 4 > 3

Ethical	3.58 ± 0.84	2.97 ± 0.98	2.31 ± 1.02	2.74 ± 0.97	154.23***	.07	1 > 2 > 4 > 3
Total score (1–5)	3.78 ± 0.62	3.20 ± 0.76	2.53 ± 0.87	2.98 ± 0.82	267.89***	.12	1 > 2 > 4 > 3
Dependency (1–5)	1.78 ± 0.71	2.58 ± 0.87	3.98 ± 0.74	1.87 ± 0.78	578.42***	.23	3 > 2 > 1, 4
<b>Mental Health</b>							
Depression (BDI-II)	8.14 ± 5.87	11.02 ± 8.14	16.87 ± 11.54	9.24 ± 6.78	142.67***	.07	3 > 2 > 4, 1
Anxiety (BAI)	6.98 ± 5.12	9.74 ± 7.21	14.87 ± 10.24	8.12 ± 5.89	124.58***	.06	3 > 2 > 4, 1
Sleep quality (PSQI)	5.54 ± 2.81	6.87 ± 3.42	9.18 ± 4.14	6.14 ± 3.21	108.34***	.05	3 > 2 > 4, 1
<b>Other Psychological Variables</b>							
Executive function (EFI-S)	31.24 ± 8.14	35.47 ± 10.24	43.87 ± 13.47	33.18 ± 9.24	134.21***	.07	3 > 2 > 4 > 1
Smartphone addiction (MPAI)	35.14 ± 10.87	42.18 ± 13.14	52.47 ± 16.87	38.24 ± 11.87	156.78***	.08	3 > 2 > 4 > 1
<b>Emotion Regulation (ERQ)</b>							
Cognitive reappraisal	4.91 ± 1.18	4.42 ± 1.31	3.58 ± 1.47	4.67 ± 1.24	87.45***	.04	1 > 4 > 2 > 3
Expressive suppression	3.78 ± 1.21	4.14 ± 1.28	4.87 ± 1.41	3.91 ± 1.24	64.32***	.03	3 > 2, 4 > 1
<b>Personality (BFI-S)</b>							
Extraversion	3.41 ± 0.87	3.14 ± 0.94	2.78 ± 1.04	3.24 ± 0.91	42.18***	.02	1 > 4, 2 > 3
Agreeableness	3.71 ± 0.74	3.58 ± 0.78	3.47 ± 0.84	3.64 ± 0.77	8.42***	.004	1 > 3
Conscientiousness	3.74 ± 0.78	3.28 ± 0.87	2.71 ± 0.98	3.24 ± 0.89	118.47***	.06	1 > 2, 4 > 3
Neuroticism	2.68 ± 0.84	3.04 ± 0.91	3.71 ± 0.97	2.84 ± 0.88	124.87***	.06	3 > 2 > 4, 1
Openness	3.54 ± 0.78	3.37 ± 0.82	3.24 ± 0.87	3.41 ± 0.79	12.47***	.006	1 > 3

Note: .<sup>\*</sup>*p* < .05, <sup>\*\*</sup>*p* < .01, <sup>\*\*\*</sup>*p* < .001. PPost-hoc comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD test (*p* < .05). ANOVA (F) was used for continuous variables; chi-square tests ( $\chi^2$ ) were used for categorical variables. Profile 1 = Rational-Instrumental; Profile 2 = Adaptive-Compensatory; Profile 3 = Problematic-Dependent; Profile 4 = Light-Exploratory. SES = socioeconomic status; BDI-II = Beck Depression Inventory–Second Edition; BAI = Beck Anxiety Inventory; PSQI = Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index; EFI-S = Executive Function Index–Short Form; MPAI = Mobile Phone Addiction Index; ERQ = Emotion Regulation Questionnaire; BFI-S = Big Five Inventory–Short Form.

<sup>a</sup> Variables under "AI Use Characteristics" served as profile indicators in the latent profile analysis. Large effect sizes for these variables are expected, as between-group differences on profile indicators are maximized by design in LPA.