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Parental Overcontrol and Adolescent Risk-Taking: The Mediating Role of Peer Conformity

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A B S T R A C T

Objective: This study aimed to examine the relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking, with peer conformity as a potential mediating variable.

Methods and Materials: A descriptive correlational design was used, involving 449 adolescents aged 15–18 from secondary schools in India. Participants were selected using stratified random sampling, based on the Morgan and Krejcie sample size table. Standardized instruments were used to measure parental overcontrol, peer conformity, and adolescent risk-taking. Data analysis was conducted using SPSS version 27 for descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation, and AMOS version 21 for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to assess the mediating effect of peer conformity.

Findings: Pearson correlation coefficients revealed significant positive relationships between parental overcontrol and peer conformity ($r = .42$, $p < .001$), parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking ($r = .37$, $p < .001$), and peer conformity and adolescent risk-taking ($r = .49$, $p < .001$). The SEM demonstrated a good model fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.15$, GFI = 0.95, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.051). Path analysis indicated that parental overcontrol had a significant direct effect on peer conformity ($\beta = 0.42$, $p < .001$) and adolescent risk-taking ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < .001$). Peer conformity significantly predicted adolescent risk-taking ($\beta = 0.49$, $p < .001$) and mediated the indirect effect of parental overcontrol on risk-taking ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < .001$), resulting in a total effect of $\beta = 0.48$.

Conclusion: The results confirm that peer conformity partially mediates the relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking. Adolescents experiencing high parental overcontrol are more likely to conform to peers, increasing their vulnerability to risky behaviors. These findings highlight the need for parenting interventions that support autonomy while also addressing peer influence dynamics during adolescence.

Keywords: *Parental Overcontrol; Peer Conformity; Adolescent Risk-Taking.*

1. Introduction

Adolescence is a formative period marked by rapid biological, psychological, and social changes that significantly influence behavioral outcomes, including risk-taking tendencies. During this transitional phase, adolescents often engage in behaviors that deviate from social norms, ranging from experimentation with substances to dangerous driving and unprotected sexual activity. These risk-taking behaviors can have short- and long-term consequences on physical health, psychological well-being, and academic achievement. Among the multitude of contributing factors, parenting style and peer influence have emerged as critical determinants of adolescents' behavioral regulation and decision-making processes (Duell et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2023; Situngkir, 2021).

Parental overcontrol, a construct characterized by intrusive parenting behaviors that limit adolescents' autonomy, has garnered attention for its role in undermining psychosocial development. Such behaviors can include excessive monitoring, manipulation, and psychological pressure aimed at regulating the adolescent's thoughts, emotions, and behaviors (Lim & Huh, 2024). Rather than fostering resilience and independent problem-solving, overcontrol may result in heightened psychological distress and compensatory maladaptive behaviors, such as externalizing actions and rebellion (Lu & Brown, 2023). Research indicates that adolescents exposed to controlling parenting may seek autonomy by engaging in risk-taking, not as a result of impulsivity alone but as a form of defiance against perceived constraints (Laursen & Veenstra, 2021; Yunalia & Etika, 2020).

The effect of overcontrol may be further complicated by adolescents' social environment, particularly their interactions with peers. Adolescents naturally strive for acceptance and belonging within peer groups, which can amplify the effects of peer norms on behavior. Peer conformity, defined as the tendency to align one's attitudes and actions with those of their peer group, becomes a salient mechanism during adolescence, often mediating the impact of parental influences on behavioral outcomes (Bleize et al., 2022; Juliningrum et al., 2024). Conformity is not inherently negative; it can promote prosocial behavior when aligned with constructive norms. However, when peer groups endorse or model risky behaviors, conformity can facilitate maladaptive behavior, including substance use, aggression, and rule-breaking (Go & Han, 2022; Kim & Han, 2020).

Several empirical investigations have highlighted the role of peer conformity as a bridge between familial contexts and adolescent decision-making. For instance, Go and Han (2022) demonstrated that peer conformity significantly influenced career resilience in runaway adolescents, particularly those from high-risk family environments (Go & Han, 2022). Similarly, Kang et al. (2021) found that antisocial peer conformity mediated the link between adolescents' external resilience and their experience of social isolation, underscoring how conformity can steer adolescents toward or away from adaptive functioning depending on contextual cues (Kang et al., 2021). These findings suggest that peer conformity may serve as a key mechanism through which parental overcontrol indirectly contributes to adolescent risk-taking behaviors.

Neuroscientific and psychosocial studies further substantiate the role of peer conformity in adolescence. Duell et al. (2021) identified hormonal and neural correlates of prosocial conformity in adolescents, highlighting developmental sensitivity to peer influence at the neurobiological level (Duell et al., 2021). Similarly, Kathy et al. (2020) found that neural sensitivity to conflicting social attitudes predicted greater conformity to positive peer influence in early adolescence, demonstrating the importance of the peer context in shaping behavioral responses (Kathy et al., 2020). These insights indicate that peer conformity is not merely a behavioral disposition but is rooted in developmental neurobiology, which interacts dynamically with environmental stimuli such as parenting practices.

Furthermore, peer conformity has been shown to interact with a variety of behavioral and psychosocial outcomes. For example, Mahathir et al. (2020) found that peer conformity significantly influenced smoking behavior among male adolescents, suggesting that conformity pressures may promote risk behaviors when those behaviors are normalized within peer groups (Mahathir et al., 2020). Sari and Firman (2021) also reported a strong relationship between peer conformity and sexual harassment behaviors, indicating that conformity pressures can extend to ethically problematic domains (Sari & Firman, 2021). These findings underscore the need to examine peer conformity as a contextual mediator that can either buffer or amplify the effects of adverse parental practices.

Digital environments have further complicated the landscape of adolescent conformity. Bleize et al. (2022) explored the efficacy of an online intervention aimed at reducing conformity to cyber aggression, demonstrating that

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digital socialization channels are potent conduits for peer influence (Bleize et al., 2022). Similarly, Velensia et al. (2021) found that conformity significantly predicted adolescents' engagement in cyberbullying, mediated by self-control levels (Velensia et al., 2021). These results indicate that peer conformity operates across both physical and virtual spaces, with potentially compounding effects for adolescents experiencing overcontrol at home.

Although parental overcontrol and peer conformity have each been independently linked to adolescent risk-taking, their interactive dynamics remain underexplored. Xie (2021) emphasized the importance of examining peer influence mechanisms in domains like celebrity worship and media engagement, suggesting that peer conformity operates across a range of adolescent interests and behaviors (Xie, 2021). Lim and Huh (2024) took a step further by investigating the dual mediating effects of self-control and peer conformity in the link between parental monitoring and cyberbullying, offering an integrated model of parent-peer interaction in digital contexts (Lim & Huh, 2024).

The present study contributes to this growing literature by specifically focusing on how peer conformity mediates the relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking. This mediational model is supported by prior findings which indicate that adolescents who perceive their parents as overly controlling may be more vulnerable to peer influence due to their limited autonomy and diminished decision-making confidence (Saeedi et al., 2024). The compounding effect of peer conformity may thus serve to reinforce or even exacerbate the adolescent's proclivity toward risk, particularly when peer norms promote such behaviors.

Sociocultural context also plays a pivotal role in shaping the contours of conformity and overcontrol. In collectivist societies, for example, the endorsement of interdependence may heighten conformity pressures, while also normalizing parental involvement in adolescents' decision-making (Nadya & Daulay, 2024; Yulius & Firman, 2020). This dual emphasis on compliance—toward both parents and peers—may produce complex psychosocial dynamics that modulate risk behavior in culturally specific ways. Juliningrum et al. (2024) found that peer conformity significantly influenced reproductive health behaviors among adolescent girls in Islamic boarding schools, further demonstrating how cultural and gender factors intersect with conformity processes (Juliningrum et al., 2024).

Moreover, peer conformity does not operate in isolation from individual traits such as emotional intelligence or digital literacy. Yunalia and Etika (2020) found that higher emotional intelligence was inversely associated with conformity pressures in late adolescence, suggesting that self-regulatory capacity may moderate the effects of conformity (Yunalia & Etika, 2020). Kadir et al. (2023) similarly showed that digital literacy levels influenced susceptibility to peer conformity and, by extension, juvenile delinquency (Kadir et al., 2023). These findings highlight the importance of accounting for intrapersonal moderators when examining the conformity-risk linkage.

Given these multidimensional dynamics, the current study aims to clarify the indirect role of peer conformity in the relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking.

2. Methods and Materials

2.1. Study Design and Participants

This study employed a descriptive correlational design to examine the relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking, with peer conformity as a mediating variable. The research sample consisted of 449 adolescents selected based on the sample size guidelines provided by Morgan and Krejcie's (1970) sample size determination table, which ensures an adequate representation for correlational and structural modeling analyses. Participants were high school students aged between 15 and 18 years, recruited from various public and private schools across urban centers in India through stratified random sampling. Informed consent was obtained from both the students and their guardians prior to participation. Inclusion criteria required participants to be currently enrolled in secondary education and living with at least one parent. The study was approved by the relevant institutional ethics committee.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Risk-Taking

Adolescent risk-taking was measured using the Adolescent Risk-Taking Questionnaire (ARQ) developed by Gullone, Moore, Moss, and Boyd (2000). The ARQ is a validated self-report instrument designed to assess the frequency and likelihood of engaging in various risk behaviors typical of adolescence. The questionnaire consists of 40 items divided across multiple domains, including thrill-seeking, reckless behavior, rebellious acts, and anti-social activities. Respondents rate each item on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often),

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reflecting their engagement in these behaviors. The ARQ has demonstrated strong psychometric properties in multiple studies, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients typically exceeding 0.80 for its subscales. Its construct validity has been supported through significant correlations with related constructs such as impulsivity and sensation-seeking, making it a reliable and appropriate tool for measuring adolescent risk-taking behaviors.

2.2.2. Parental Overcontrol

Parental overcontrol was assessed using the Psychological Control Scale—Youth Self-Report (PCS-YSR) developed by Barber (1996). This 8-item instrument is part of the larger Parenting Questionnaire and specifically targets adolescents' perceptions of psychological control exerted by parents, including behaviors like guilt induction, withdrawal of love, and constraining verbal expression. Each item is rated on a 3-point Likert scale from 1 (not like my parent) to 3 (a lot like my parent). Higher scores indicate greater levels of perceived overcontrol. The PCS-YSR has been widely employed in both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies and has demonstrated excellent internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha > 0.70). Its validity is well-documented through associations with maladaptive adolescent outcomes such as internalizing problems, anxiety, and reduced autonomy development.

2.2.3. Peer Conformity

Peer conformity was measured using the Peer Conformity Scale (PCS) developed by Santor, Messervey, and Kusumakar (2000). This 10-item scale evaluates adolescents' susceptibility to peer influence and their tendency to conform to peers' expectations and behaviors. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The PCS includes subscales assessing conformity in both behavioral and attitudinal domains, such as agreement with peer opinions and compliance with group norms. Higher scores indicate a greater tendency to conform to peers. The scale has shown high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.82$) and good construct validity, as evidenced by its correlations with peer pressure, self-esteem, and social anxiety in adolescent populations.

2.3. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 27 and AMOS version 21. Initially, descriptive statistics were calculated for all study variables, including means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions. Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to assess the bivariate relationships between adolescent risk-taking (dependent variable) and both parental overcontrol and peer conformity (independent and mediating variables). Following this, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was conducted using AMOS to examine the hypothesized mediation model and assess the direct and indirect effects. Model fit was evaluated using standard fit indices, including the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Chi-square statistics.

3. Findings and Results

Of the 449 participants, 234 (52.1%) identified as male and 215 (47.9%) as female. In terms of age distribution, 102 participants (22.7%) were 15 years old, 138 (30.7%) were 16 years old, 121 (26.9%) were 17 years old, and 88 (19.6%) were 18 years old. Regarding parental education, 98 fathers (21.8%) and 124 mothers (27.6%) held a college degree, while 178 fathers (39.6%) and 152 mothers (33.9%) completed high school education. The majority of participants, 327 (72.8%), reported living in nuclear family settings, while 122 (27.2%) lived in joint or extended family households.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables (N = 449)

Variable	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
Parental Overcontrol	3.47	0.61
Peer Conformity	3.21	0.66
Adolescent Risk-Taking	3.58	0.72

The descriptive statistics show that the mean score for adolescent risk-taking was 3.58 (SD = 0.72), suggesting a moderately high engagement in risk-related behaviors among participants. Peer conformity had a mean of 3.21 (SD = 0.66), indicating a moderate tendency to conform to peer influence. Parental overcontrol had a mean of 3.47 (SD =

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0.61), reflecting a relatively elevated level of perceived psychological control by parents. The variability across all three variables was acceptable, as reflected in the standard deviation values (Table 1).

Before conducting inferential analyses, all relevant statistical assumptions were examined and confirmed. The data were normally distributed, as indicated by skewness and kurtosis values within acceptable ranges (skewness between -0.81 and 0.67; kurtosis between -0.45 and 0.73 across variables). The assumption of linearity was verified through scatterplots showing linear relationships between variables. Multicollinearity diagnostics showed variance inflation factor (VIF) values ranging from 1.04 to 1.26, and tolerance values above 0.79, indicating no concerns. Homoscedasticity was confirmed via visual inspection of residual plots, and independence of errors was verified with a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.84, which falls within the acceptable range (1.5–2.5). Finally, no significant outliers were detected based on Mahalanobis distance (maximum value = 14.62, below the critical χ^2 value of 16.27 at $p < .001$ for df = 3), supporting the suitability of the data for SEM analysis.

Table 2

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Study Variables (N = 449)

Variable 1	Variable 2	r	p
Parental Overcontrol	Peer Conformity	.42	< .001
Parental Overcontrol	Adolescent Risk-Taking	.37	< .001
Peer Conformity	Adolescent Risk-Taking	.49	< .001

Pearson correlation analysis showed a statistically significant positive relationship between parental overcontrol and peer conformity ($r = .42$, $p < .001$), suggesting that adolescents who experience higher levels of parental control are more likely to conform to peer expectations. Parental overcontrol was also positively correlated with adolescent risk-taking ($r = .37$, $p < .001$). Notably, the strongest relationship was observed between peer conformity and adolescent risk-taking ($r = .49$, $p < .001$), supporting the hypothesized mediating effect of peer conformity (Table 2).

Table 3

Model Fit Indices for Structural Equation Model

Fit Index	Value	Recommended Threshold
χ^2	103.28	—
df	48	—
χ^2/df	2.15	< 3.00
GFI	0.95	≥ 0.90
AGFI	0.92	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.96	≥ 0.90
TLI	0.94	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.051	< 0.06

The SEM model demonstrated an excellent fit to the data. The χ^2/df ratio was 2.15, which is well within the acceptable range. Other fit indices also met or exceeded recommended thresholds: GFI = 0.95, AGFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.94, and RMSEA = 0.051. These results confirm the structural model's appropriateness for examining the mediating effect of peer conformity in the relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking (Table 3).

Table 4

Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects in the Structural Model

Path	b	S.E.	β	p
Parental Overcontrol → Peer Conformity	0.43	0.07	0.42	< .001
Peer Conformity → Adolescent Risk-Taking	0.56	0.08	0.49	< .001
Parental Overcontrol → Adolescent Risk-Taking	0.22	0.06	0.27	< .001

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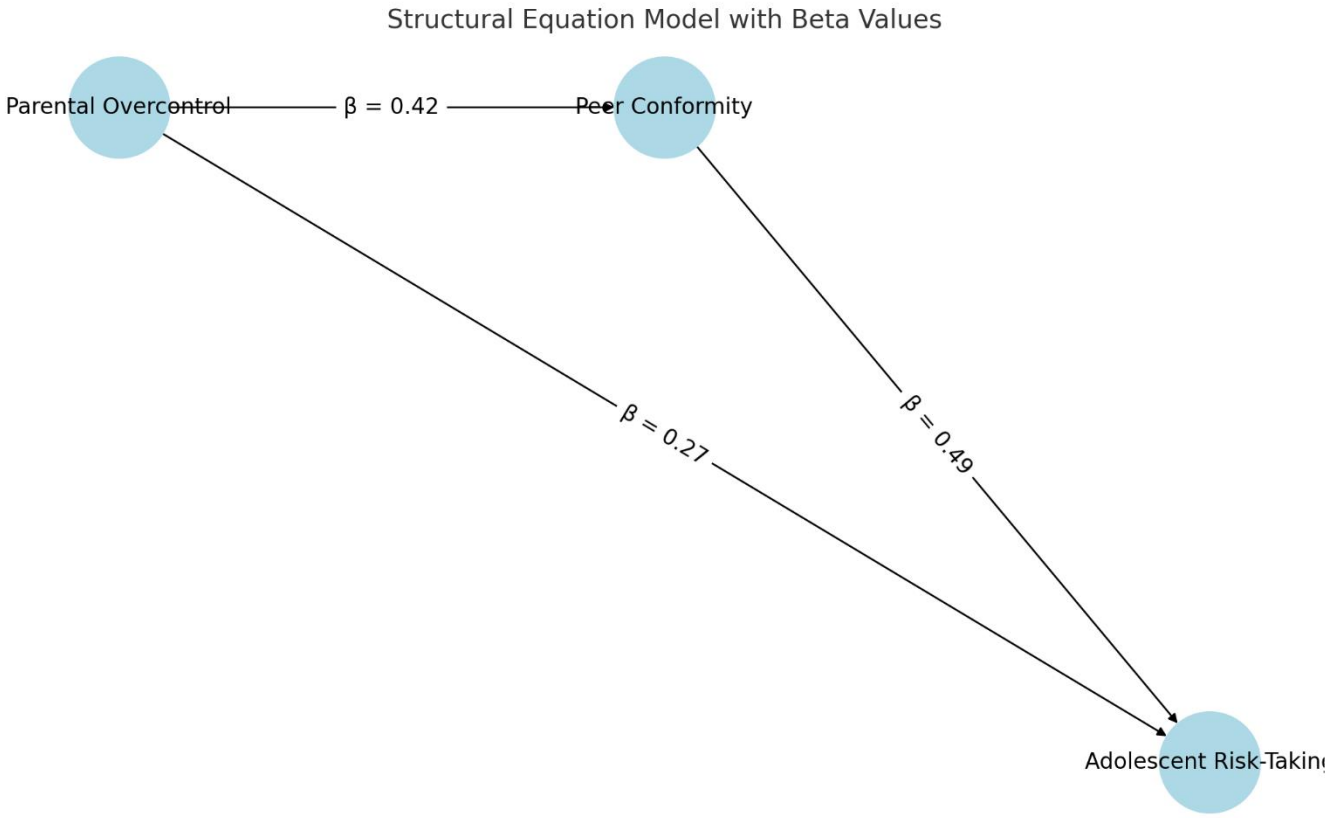
Parental Overcontrol → Risk-Taking (Indirect)	0.24	0.05	0.21	< .001
Parental Overcontrol → Risk-Taking (Total)	0.46	0.07	0.48	< .001

The path coefficients show that parental overcontrol significantly predicted peer conformity (β = 0.42, p < .001), and peer conformity significantly predicted adolescent risk-taking (β = 0.49, p < .001). Parental overcontrol also had a direct effect on adolescent risk-taking (β = 0.27, p < .001), as well as a significant indirect effect through peer conformity (β = 0.21, p < .001). The total effect of parental overcontrol on risk-taking (β = 0.48) indicates a strong overall influence, confirming that peer conformity partially mediates this relationship (Table 4).

Figure 1

Model with Beta Coefficients



4. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study sought to investigate the predictive relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking behaviors, as well as the mediating role of peer conformity in this dynamic. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis indicated significant positive associations between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking, and between peer conformity and risk-taking. Moreover, the structural equation model (SEM) revealed that peer conformity significantly mediated the relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking, confirming the hypothesized model. These findings offer compelling evidence for the indirect pathway through which rigid parenting practices may influence maladaptive adolescent behaviors via peer-related psychosocial mechanisms.

The positive relationship between parental overcontrol and adolescent risk-taking aligns with earlier research suggesting that excessive control and psychological intrusion from parents can undermine adolescents' autonomy, emotional regulation, and decision-making capacity, thereby increasing their propensity for risk-taking behaviors (Lim & Huh, 2024; Lu & Brown, 2023). Overcontrolled adolescents often attempt to reclaim autonomy through behaviors that explicitly defy adult

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authority or societal norms, including substance use, delinquency, and unsafe sexual activity (Yulius & Firman, 2020). These risk behaviors may serve as mechanisms for asserting individuality in response to constraints imposed at home (Nadya & Daulay, 2024). Furthermore, the emotional suppression and learned helplessness resulting from overcontrol can foster vulnerability to external influences, especially those exerted by peers.

The significant mediating role of peer conformity revealed by the SEM analysis provides empirical support for theoretical frameworks emphasizing the socialization power of peer groups during adolescence. As adolescents seek acceptance and belonging, especially in the absence of a supportive home environment, they become more susceptible to aligning their behaviors with group norms—even when such norms encourage risky or anti-social conduct (Feng et al., 2023; Go & Han, 2022). Peer conformity, therefore, functions as a gateway through which the impact of parental overcontrol is transferred into behavioral outcomes. This indirect path is congruent with the findings of Kang et al. (2021), who showed that antisocial peer conformity mediated the link between personal resilience and social isolation among adolescents with disrupted school experiences (Kang et al., 2021). Similarly, Kadir et al. (2023) emphasized how peer conformity can exacerbate juvenile delinquency when not counterbalanced by digital literacy or critical thinking skills (Kadir et al., 2023).

This study's results also align with neuroscientific perspectives on peer conformity. Duell et al. (2021) demonstrated that the adolescent brain is particularly sensitive to social evaluation, with increased activity in areas linked to reward processing when aligning with peer expectations (Duell et al., 2021). Such neurodevelopmental sensitivity may explain why overcontrolled adolescents—who are deprived of internal regulatory strategies—are more prone to social mimicry, especially in high-risk environments. In a similar vein, Kathy et al. (2020) found that adolescents were more likely to conform to positive peer influence when experiencing cognitive dissonance, suggesting a neurobiological basis for adaptive versus maladaptive conformity (Kathy et al., 2020).

Notably, the results also corroborate research that differentiates between types of conformity. Saeedi et al. (2024) distinguished between public and private conformity based on the status of the influencer, finding that adolescents' decisions are often contextually driven and dependent on their social valuation of peer input (Saeedi et al., 2024). In the case of overcontrolled adolescents, the drive for public conformity may dominate due to the absence of internalized decision-making frameworks. This perspective is further reinforced by the work of Situngkir (2021), who highlighted that conformity plays a central role in adolescent delinquency, particularly when individual identity is still under formation (Situngkir, 2021).

In addition, the observed associations between peer conformity and adolescent risk-taking behaviors are consistent with prior findings from studies examining behavior-specific outcomes. For instance, Mahathir et al. (2020) reported that conformity significantly predicted smoking behaviors among male adolescents in Indonesia, suggesting that peer influence operates similarly across behavioral domains and cultural contexts (Mahathir et al., 2020). Likewise, Last et al. (2020) emphasized the role of conformity in dietary habits, linking peer pressure to unhealthy eating behaviors in youth populations (Last et al., 2020). These findings underscore the broad applicability of the conformity construct in understanding adolescent behavioral tendencies, especially when combined with background familial factors such as overcontrol.

Moreover, the findings contribute to understanding the digital dimensions of peer conformity. Bleize et al. (2022) found that interventions targeting peer conformity in digital communication settings reduced cyber-aggression, illustrating that the mechanisms revealed in this study likely extend beyond offline social interactions (Bleize et al., 2022). Velensia et al. (2021) also found that peer conformity predicted cyberbullying behaviors in adolescents with low self-control, indicating that conformity's mediating role can span diverse behavioral contexts (Velensia et al., 2021). These results further validate the robustness of the mediating role observed in the current study and affirm the relevance of peer conformity in explaining adolescent risk behavior in modern, technology-saturated societies.

It is also noteworthy that several studies emphasize the protective role of emotional and cognitive traits in buffering conformity effects. Yunalia and Etika (2020) demonstrated that higher emotional intelligence correlated with reduced peer conformity, suggesting that emotionally competent adolescents are better equipped to resist peer pressure and assert independent judgment (Yunalia & Etika, 2020). Similarly, Trisnani et al. (2020) found that financial literacy and critical thinking were negatively associated with conformity-driven consumption behaviors in adolescents (Trisnani et al., 2020). These moderating factors point

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toward future avenues for intervention design and preventive strategies.

Culturally, the study affirms findings that adolescents in collectivist societies may be more vulnerable to the combined pressures of parental control and peer conformity. Yulius and Firman (2020) noted that peer social support was a significant buffer for academic stress in collectivist cultural settings, highlighting the dual role of peers as both stressors and resources (Yulius & Firman, 2020). In contexts where deference to authority and group cohesion are prioritized, adolescents may find themselves caught between familial expectations and peer loyalty, leading to conflicting behavioral motivations and increased risk-taking (Juliningrum et al., 2024; Nadya & Daulay, 2024).

5. Limitations & Suggestions

Despite the strengths of the study—including a robust sample size, validated measurement tools, and SEM-based modeling—certain limitations should be acknowledged. First, the cross-sectional design precludes any definitive causal interpretations. Although the mediational pathway was statistically supported, longitudinal data would be required to determine the temporal order of effects. Second, the reliance on self-reported data may have introduced social desirability bias, especially in questions related to risk-taking behaviors. Third, while the study included adolescents from various regions of India, it may not be representative of all socio-economic or ethnic subgroups. Cultural nuances in parenting practices and peer dynamics might affect generalizability across diverse populations. Lastly, the study did not account for potential moderating variables such as gender, self-control, or digital media exposure, all of which have been shown to influence both conformity and risk-taking behaviors in adolescents.

Future studies should prioritize longitudinal designs to track the progression of peer conformity and risk behaviors over time, especially as adolescents transition into early adulthood. This approach would enhance understanding of developmental trajectories and clarify the causal relationships among variables. Additionally, incorporating multi-informant data, including reports from parents and teachers, would strengthen validity and reduce common method bias. It is also recommended that future research explore the role of digital conformity—particularly in online social networks and gaming environments—given the growing influence of digital peer groups. Moderating variables such as emotional intelligence, social support, and cultural value orientation should also be integrated into future models to develop a more nuanced understanding of individual differences.

The findings of this study have significant implications for school-based and family-centered interventions. Educators and mental health professionals should design programs that help adolescents critically evaluate peer influence and build skills in assertiveness and decision-making. Parental education initiatives should raise awareness about the potential harms of overcontrol and promote autonomy-supportive parenting styles. Schools can also implement peer-led initiatives that encourage prosocial norms, helping to reframe conformity as a positive force for well-being rather than a risk factor. Ultimately, fostering open communication in families and strengthening adolescents' self-regulation capacities may serve as protective buffers against the dual threats of overcontrol and maladaptive conformity.

Authors' Contributions

Authors contributed equally to this article.

Declaration

In order to correct and improve the academic writing of our paper, we have used the language model ChatGPT.

Transparency Statement

Data are available for research purposes upon reasonable request to the corresponding author.

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Declaration of Interest

The authors report no conflict of interest.

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Ethical Considerations

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The study protocol adhered to the principles outlined in the Helsinki Declaration, which provides guidelines for ethical research involving human participants.

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