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Impact of Parental Monitoring on Risk Behaviors: The Mediating Role of Moral Identity

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A B S T R A C T

Objective: This study aimed to investigate the relationship between parental monitoring and adolescent risk behaviors, examining the mediating role of moral identity in this association.

Methods and Materials: A descriptive correlational design was used with a sample of 414 high school students from China, selected based on the Krejcie and Morgan sample size determination table. Data were collected using three standardized instruments: the Parental Monitoring Scale (Stattin & Kerr, 2000), the Moral Identity Questionnaire (Aquino & Reed, 2002), and the Risk Involvement and Perception Scale (Benthin et al., 1993). Descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated using SPSS-27 to assess bivariate relationships, and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was conducted with AMOS-21 to evaluate direct, indirect, and total effects among the variables and test model fit indices.

Findings: Descriptive results indicated moderate levels of parental monitoring (M = 35.62, SD = 5.13), moral identity (M = 38.47, SD = 6.29), and relatively low levels of risk behaviors (M = 24.18, SD = 7.64). Pearson correlations revealed significant associations: parental monitoring positively correlated with moral identity ($r = .42$, $p < .001$) and negatively with risk behaviors ($r = –.51$, $p < .001$); moral identity was also negatively associated with risk behaviors ($r = –.47$, $p < .001$). SEM results confirmed that moral identity partially mediated the relationship between parental monitoring and risk behaviors, with a good model fit ($\chi^2/df = 1.97$, CFI = 0.96, RMSEA = 0.048). The total effect of parental monitoring on risk behaviors was significant ($\beta = –0.57$, $p < .001$), including both direct ($\beta = –0.43$) and indirect effects through moral identity ($\beta = –0.14$).

Conclusion: Parental monitoring significantly reduces adolescent risk behaviors both directly and indirectly through the development of moral identity, highlighting the importance of fostering both external regulation and internal value systems in youth.

Keywords: *Parental Monitoring, Risk Behaviors, Moral Identity, Adolescents, Structural Equation Modeling, China*

1. Introduction

Adolescence is a pivotal developmental period characterized by rapid cognitive, emotional, and social transitions that often coincide with increased vulnerability to engagement in risk behaviors. These behaviors, including substance use, unprotected sex, and delinquency, are major public health concerns due to their immediate and long-term consequences. The search for autonomy and identity formation, combined with heightened sensitivity to peer influence and neurological immaturity in behavioral regulation, contributes to a developmental environment ripe for risk-taking. Research has increasingly focused on the social and psychological mechanisms that either exacerbate or mitigate adolescent risk involvement, with parental monitoring emerging as a consistent and influential protective factor (Wang et al., 2015).

Parental monitoring, commonly defined as parents' knowledge of their children's whereabouts, activities, and associations, has long been recognized as a critical component of adolescent development. Higher levels of parental monitoring are associated with lower incidences of delinquent behaviors, substance use, and risky sexual practices (Dittus et al., 2023). Effective monitoring fosters a sense of accountability in adolescents and signals parental engagement, which can shape adolescents' internal regulation systems (Aziz et al., 2023). Studies conducted in different cultural contexts suggest the universality of this protective effect, although the degree and style of monitoring may vary depending on socio-environmental and cultural norms (Suwarni et al., 2015). In a study conducted among Bahamian adolescents, parental monitoring significantly predicted lower sexual risk behaviors, even after accounting for peer influences and environmental risk factors (Wang et al., 2015). Similarly, adolescents in the U.S. with higher perceived monitoring by parents reported fewer risk behaviors and emotional difficulties (Dittus et al., 2023).

However, parental monitoring does not operate in a vacuum. Its effectiveness may depend on a range of individual and contextual variables. For instance, some evidence suggests that the adolescent's own behavior can elicit varying levels of parental monitoring, highlighting the dynamic and reciprocal nature of this relationship (Jaggers et al., 2021). Other findings indicate that neighborhood characteristics and broader ecological stressors can moderate the effects of monitoring on youth outcomes (Herman et al., 2020). In communities with high exposure to violence or deviant peer norms, even high parental oversight may not fully insulate adolescents from risky trajectories (Udell et al., 2017). Therefore, it is essential to explore the internal psychological mechanisms that might mediate the association between parental monitoring and adolescent risk behaviors.

One such mechanism is moral identity—a self-schema organized around moral traits such as honesty, fairness, and compassion. Moral identity serves as a cognitive-emotional framework that influences behavior by integrating moral standards into the self-concept (Zhang et al., 2021). When adolescents view morality as central to who they are, they are more likely to act in ways that align with ethical and prosocial values and avoid actions that could damage this moral self-image (Rostami et al., 2023). In this context, parental monitoring may promote moral identity by creating an environment of structure, guidance, and value transmission. Adolescents who are aware of consistent parental oversight may internalize the standards upheld by their parents, leading to a stronger sense of moral identity that subsequently discourages engagement in risk behaviors.

Research exploring the intersection of moral identity and parenting practices is expanding. A study by Zhang et al. (2021) found that parenting styles significantly influenced moral identity among Chinese youth and that this construct served as a buffer against engagement in cyber-aggressive behaviors (Zhang et al., 2021). Moreover, Rostami et al. (2023) highlighted the mediating role of identity in the relationship between moral perfectionism and prosocial behavior, underscoring the importance of identity-related mechanisms in youth behavioral outcomes (Rostami et al., 2023). These findings suggest that moral identity not only promotes prosocial behavior but also suppresses risk behaviors, potentially acting as a mediator between parental influences and adolescent outcomes.

The idea that internalized values can mediate environmental influences on behavior is consistent with broader developmental theories. For instance, Social Control Theory posits that strong emotional bonds to parents and alignment with societal norms reduce the likelihood of delinquency (Schieber et al., 2024). Parental monitoring, as a behavioral manifestation of parental investment, may strengthen such bonds and encourage value internalization. Furthermore, self-determination theory suggests that when youth experience parental involvement that respects autonomy while providing structure, they are more likely to internalize moral norms and develop a cohesive identity. Thus, adolescents who are both closely monitored and

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morally engaged may exhibit the lowest levels of risk behavior.

Despite these theoretical insights, empirical studies examining the specific mediating role of moral identity in the link between parental monitoring and adolescent risk behavior remain scarce. Most existing research has independently confirmed the protective role of monitoring (Cottrell et al., 2015; Trucco et al., 2015) and the deterrent function of moral identity (Zhang et al., 2021), but few studies have integrated these constructs into a single predictive framework. Moreover, some scholars caution against viewing parental monitoring as a monolithic construct. For example, distinctions between active parental tracking versus adolescent self-disclosure can yield differential outcomes (Metzger et al., 2012). Adolescents who voluntarily share information with their parents may exhibit stronger moral development than those whose behaviors are merely surveilled.

Cultural factors also play a crucial role in shaping the dynamics of parental monitoring and adolescent outcomes. In collectivist societies, where family cohesion and interdependence are emphasized, the impact of parental monitoring may be more pronounced or perceived differently than in individualist cultures. For example, Shanti and Gryselda (2021) observed that among Indonesian adolescents, parental monitoring significantly predicted lower involvement in risk behaviors, suggesting that parental authority carries substantial moral weight in these contexts (Shanti & Gryselda, 2021). Similarly, a study in Malaysia found that both monitoring and communication were significant predictors of reduced deviance among adolescents (Aziz et al., 2023). These findings reinforce the notion that parental influence—especially when embedded in warm, communicative relationships—can serve as a moral anchor during adolescence.

Parental responsiveness and consistency also matter. Brooker and Buss (2014) demonstrated that harsh or inconsistent parenting may interact with child temperament to increase the risk of maladaptive emotional and cognitive development (Brooker & Buss, 2014). This underscores the importance of not only monitoring but also the emotional quality of parent-child interactions. Research on parenting interventions has shown promising results; for instance, Child Parent Relationship Training (CPRT) has been found to enhance the parent-child bond and reduce behavioral issues among youth, including those from military families (Jensen-Hart et al., 2012). Such interventions point to the broader ecosystem in which monitoring occurs and where moral development is either fostered or hindered.

It is also important to acknowledge the evolving context in which adolescent development occurs. Digital technology, for example, introduces both new risks and new opportunities for parental monitoring. Studies have linked social media exposure to increases in adolescent sexual behavior (Landry et al., 2017), while other research has suggested that digital parental monitoring can serve as a partial buffer (Smith et al., 2021). Yet, the effectiveness of such strategies may depend on the degree to which adolescents perceive their parents as involved and trustworthy rather than invasive or punitive (Meutuah et al., 2023). Adolescents who view parental guidance as supportive are more likely to internalize parental values, including moral standards.

Finally, emerging evidence suggests that the relationship between monitoring and risk behavior may also be shaped by adolescent temperament and neurodevelopment. Wojciechowski (2025) found that parental monitoring moderated the relationship between impulsivity and marijuana use, particularly in adolescents with high sensation-seeking traits (Wojciechowski, 2025). These findings highlight the importance of considering individual differences when evaluating parental effects. While monitoring is generally protective, its success may be contingent upon adolescent receptiveness and the presence of a moral identity capable of guiding behavior even in the absence of external oversight.

In sum, while parental monitoring has long been recognized as a protective factor against adolescent risk behaviors, its underlying mechanisms are not fully understood. Moral identity may play a key mediating role by translating parental involvement into internalized behavioral standards. This study seeks to explore this relationship within the context of Chinese adolescents.

2. Methods and Materials

2.1. Study Design and Participants

This study employed a descriptive correlational design to investigate the relationship between parental monitoring and adolescent risk behaviors, as well as the mediating role of moral identity. The target population consisted of high school students in China. Based on the Krejcie and Morgan sample size determination table, a total of 414 participants were selected using stratified random sampling to ensure appropriate representation across grade levels and genders.

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Inclusion criteria required participants to be between the ages of 15 and 18 and enrolled in regular academic programs. Informed consent was obtained from all participants and their guardians prior to data collection. The data collection process was conducted through standardized questionnaires administered in classroom settings under researcher supervision to ensure completeness and reliability of responses.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Risk Involvement and Perception

The Risk Involvement and Perception Scale (RIPS), developed by Benthin, Slovic, and Severson in 1993, is a widely used self-report measure designed to assess adolescents' engagement in risk behaviors. The scale includes 16 items that cover various domains of risk-taking such as substance use, reckless behavior, and unsafe sexual practices. Respondents rate how frequently they have engaged in each behavior on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). The total score reflects the overall level of risk behavior, with higher scores indicating greater involvement in risky activities. The RIPS has demonstrated strong internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha above 0.80 in most studies) and has been validated in multiple adolescent populations, confirming its construct and criterion validity in assessing youth risk-taking behavior (Junaid et al., 2025; Li & Ma, 2025).

2.2.2. Parental Monitoring

The Parental Monitoring Scale (PMS), developed by Stattin and Kerr in 2000, is a validated tool designed to assess the degree to which parents are aware of their adolescent children's whereabouts, activities, and associations. This 9-item scale is divided into three subscales: parental knowledge, parental solicitation, and child disclosure. Responses are provided on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always), with higher scores indicating higher levels of parental monitoring. The scale has shown good psychometric properties, with reported Cronbach's alpha values typically exceeding 0.75 for each subscale. It has been employed extensively in cross-cultural research, with studies supporting its construct validity and predictive power in relation to adolescent behavior outcomes (Aziz et al., 2023; Dittus et al., 2023; Shanti & Gryselda, 2021; Smith et al., 2021).

2.2.3. Moral Identity

The Moral Identity Questionnaire (MIQ), developed by Aquino and Reed in 2002, is a standard instrument used to assess the centrality of morality to one's self-concept. The scale comprises 10 items and includes two subscales: internalization (reflecting the degree to which moral traits are central to the self) and symbolization (reflecting the expression of moral traits through actions). Participants rate items using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicate a stronger moral identity. The MIQ has demonstrated high internal reliability, with Cronbach's alpha values commonly above 0.80 for both subscales, and has been validated across diverse populations, confirming its structural validity and association with ethical behavior and value-driven actions (Rostami et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2021).

2.3. Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted in two stages using SPSS version 27 and AMOS version 21. Initially, descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated in SPSS to examine the bivariate relationships between the dependent variable (risk behaviors) and each independent variable (parental monitoring and moral identity). Subsequently, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was performed using AMOS to test the hypothesized mediation model and evaluate the direct and indirect effects of parental monitoring on risk behaviors through moral identity. Model fit indices such as the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and Chi-square/df ratio were used to assess the adequacy of the model. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0.05$ for all analyses.

3. Findings and Results

The sample consisted of 414 adolescents from various high schools in China. Among the participants, 225 individuals (54.34%) identified as female and 189 individuals (45.65%) as male. In terms of age distribution, 128 participants (30.92%) were 15 years old, 141 participants (34.05%) were 16 years old, 96 participants (23.18%) were 17 years old, and 49 participants (11.83%) were 18 years old. Regarding grade level, 137 students (33.09%) were in 10th grade, 152 students (36.71%) were in 11th grade, and 125 students (30.19%) were in 12th grade. These demographic statistics reflect a diverse representation

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of adolescents across age and educational levels within the sampled population.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Main Study Variables (N = 414)

Variable	Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
Parental Monitoring	35.62	5.13
Moral Identity	38.47	6.29
Risk Behaviors	24.18	7.64

The results in Table 1 show that participants reported moderate levels of parental monitoring (M = 35.62, SD = 5.13) and moral identity (M = 38.47, SD = 6.29), as well as relatively low levels of engagement in risk behaviors (M = 24.18, SD = 7.64), based on the possible score ranges in each standardized instrument. The variability in scores suggests sufficient spread in responses to allow for meaningful correlational and structural modeling analysis.

Before conducting the main statistical analyses, the assumptions for Pearson correlation and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were examined and confirmed. Normality was assessed using skewness and kurtosis values for each variable, with skewness ranging from -0.31 to 0.27 and kurtosis ranging from -0.45 to 0.61, both within the acceptable range of -1 to +1, indicating approximate normal distribution. Linearity and homoscedasticity were visually confirmed through scatterplots showing random and evenly distributed residuals. Additionally, multicollinearity was assessed through tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values, with all tolerance values exceeding 0.74 and VIF values below 1.34, indicating no multicollinearity issues. Finally, the Mahalanobis distance was calculated to detect multivariate outliers, and all values were within the acceptable chi-square threshold ($p > 0.001$), confirming the suitability of the data for SEM analysis.

Table 2

Pearson Correlations and Significance Levels Among Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3
1. Parental Monitoring	—		
2. Moral Identity	.42** ($p < .001$)	—	
3. Risk Behaviors	–.51** ($p < .001$)	–.47** ($p < .001$)	—

As shown in Table 2, parental monitoring was positively and significantly correlated with moral identity ($r = .42$, $p < .001$) and negatively correlated with risk behaviors ($r = –.51$, $p < .001$). Additionally, moral identity was also negatively correlated with risk behaviors ($r = –.47$, $p < .001$), supporting the hypothesized associations among all three variables.

Table 3

Fit Indices for the Structural Equation Model

Fit Index	Value	Recommended Threshold
Chi-Square (χ^2)	94.38	—
Degrees of Freedom (df)	48	—
χ^2/df	1.97	< 3.00
GFI	0.94	≥ 0.90
AGFI	0.91	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.96	≥ 0.95
TLI	0.95	≥ 0.95
RMSEA	0.048	≤ 0.06

The model demonstrated good fit to the data, with all indices falling within or above acceptable thresholds. The Chi-square to degrees of freedom ratio (χ^2/df = 1.97) was below the recommended maximum of 3.00. Other fit indices

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such as the GFI (0.94), AGFI (0.91), CFI (0.96), TLI (0.95), and RMSEA (0.048) indicate a well-fitting model that sufficiently captures the relationships among the latent variables (Table 3).

Table 4

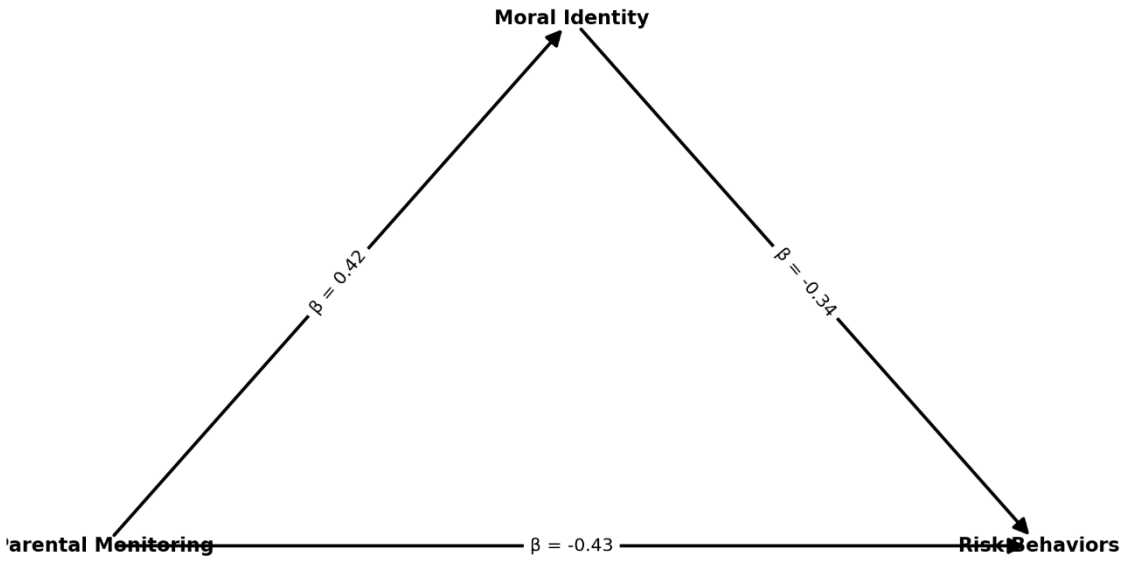
Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects in the Structural Equation Model

Path	b	S.E.	β	p
Parental Monitoring → Moral Identity (direct)	0.46	0.07	0.42	< .001
Moral Identity → Risk Behaviors (direct)	–0.39	0.06	–0.34	< .001
Parental Monitoring → Risk Behaviors (direct)	–0.51	0.08	–0.43	< .001
Parental Monitoring → Risk Behaviors (indirect)	–0.18	0.05	–0.14	< .001
Parental Monitoring → Risk Behaviors (total)	–0.69	0.07	–0.57	< .001

The path analysis in Table 4 revealed that parental monitoring significantly predicted moral identity (β = 0.42, p < .001), and moral identity significantly predicted lower risk behavior (β = –0.34, p < .001). Additionally, parental monitoring had a strong direct negative effect on risk behaviors (β = –0.43, p < .001). The indirect effect of parental monitoring on risk behavior through moral identity was also significant (β = –0.14, p < .001), indicating partial mediation. The total effect of parental monitoring on risk behavior (direct + indirect) was β = –0.57, supporting the central hypothesis of this study.

Figure 1

Standardized Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects in the Structural Model



4. Discussion and Conclusion

The primary aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between parental monitoring and adolescent risk behaviors, with a particular focus on the mediating role of moral identity. The results indicated a significant negative correlation between parental monitoring and risk behaviors among adolescents, confirming that higher levels of monitoring are associated with lower engagement in behaviors such as substance use, sexual risk-taking, and delinquency. Furthermore, moral identity was found to partially mediate this relationship, suggesting that the impact of parental monitoring on adolescent behavioral outcomes operates not only through external regulation but also through internal value systems shaped by parenting practices.

The strong inverse relationship observed between parental monitoring and adolescent risk behavior aligns with

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a substantial body of prior research. Dittus et al. (2023) reported similar findings from the Youth Risk Behavior Survey in the United States, indicating that adolescents who perceived higher levels of parental monitoring were significantly less likely to engage in risky behaviors such as alcohol use and early sexual initiation (Dittus et al., 2023). This pattern was also consistent with results from Suwarni et al. (2015), who demonstrated that Indonesian adolescents with greater parental oversight exhibited reduced premarital sexual behavior (Suwarni et al., 2015). These findings underscore the protective function of parental involvement during the formative adolescent period, regardless of cultural context.

The mediating role of moral identity offers a valuable psychological explanation for why and how parental monitoring reduces adolescent risk behavior. The results revealed that adolescents with stronger moral identities—defined by the centrality of moral traits such as honesty and responsibility to their self-concept—were less likely to engage in harmful behaviors. Moreover, adolescents who reported high levels of parental monitoring also scored higher on measures of moral identity, suggesting that consistent parental involvement fosters the internalization of moral values. This is in line with research by Zhang et al. (2021), who found that moral identity was negatively associated with cyber-aggressive behaviors among Chinese youth, and that parenting style played a central role in shaping moral development (Zhang et al., 2021).

The findings of this study are also supported by Rostami et al. (2023), who highlighted the mediating role of identity in the relationship between moral perfectionism and prosocial behavior (Rostami et al., 2023). This suggests that identity-related mechanisms are central not only to promoting positive behaviors but also to inhibiting negative ones. In the current study, moral identity served as a bridge between parental oversight and behavioral outcomes, reinforcing the argument that internal values can amplify the external effects of parenting. Schieber et al. (2024) similarly found that identity-related constructs mediated the effects of socio-environmental risk factors on adolescent decision-making, adding further support to this mechanism (Schieber et al., 2024).

Beyond the mediating effect, the results provide evidence that not all forms of parental involvement have the same impact. Studies have shown that the effectiveness of monitoring can depend on its nature—whether it is intrusive surveillance or supportive engagement. For instance, Metzger et al. (2012) found that parental trust and open communication were critical to effective monitoring, suggesting that monitoring is most successful when it is embedded in a warm, respectful parent-child relationship (Metzger et al., 2012). Similarly, Jaggers et al. (2021) emphasized the dynamic aspect of parental monitoring, noting that adolescents' behaviors and emotional states can shape parental responses, thereby creating feedback loops in the parent-child dynamic (Jaggers et al., 2021).

The findings also resonate with broader developmental models that highlight the interaction between environmental influences and internal regulatory systems. According to Wojciechowski (2025), the dual systems model of adolescent behavior suggests that an imbalance between reward sensitivity and cognitive control can predispose youth to risk-taking, but that external structures like parental monitoring can mitigate these tendencies (Wojciechowski, 2025). When such external structures are internalized in the form of a stable moral identity, the adolescent is more likely to exhibit consistent self-regulation even in the absence of direct parental oversight.

Cultural dimensions add another layer of complexity. In collectivist societies like China, parental authority is typically regarded with greater legitimacy, and children are socialized to prioritize familial and societal expectations. The present findings are consistent with studies from similar cultural contexts. Shanti and Gryselda (2021) found that among middle adolescents, parental monitoring had a significant inverse relationship with risk behaviors such as truancy and substance use (Shanti & Gryselda, 2021). Aziz et al. (2023) reached a similar conclusion in a Malaysian sample, emphasizing that parental communication and involvement are crucial for adolescent behavioral outcomes (Aziz et al., 2023). These cross-cultural parallels suggest a degree of universality in the mechanisms under study, although the nuances of cultural expectations and parenting norms must still be considered.

Importantly, the present study extends previous findings by combining behavioral and psychological constructs into a cohesive model. Many earlier studies have examined the relationship between parental monitoring and risk behaviors in isolation, while others have explored the influence of moral identity without explicitly linking it to parenting practices. By integrating these variables into a single model and applying structural equation modeling, this study offers a more comprehensive view of how family-based factors and internal self-concepts interact to shape adolescent decision-making. This aligns with work by Trucco et al. (2015), who emphasized the importance of considering both genetic and

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environmental factors, including parental monitoring, in understanding behavioral trajectories in youth (Trucco et al., 2015).

The present findings also contribute to ongoing discussions around digital and modern challenges to parenting. As Landry et al. (2017) have shown, adolescents today are increasingly exposed to online environments that present novel risks, from sexual content to substance promotion (Landry et al., 2017). In such contexts, traditional parental monitoring strategies may need to be adapted. However, as Smith et al. (2021) have indicated in their study on digital parental monitoring in health-related behaviors, consistent parental engagement—even in digital contexts—can continue to exert a protective effect (Smith et al., 2021).

Finally, while the current study focused on parental influence, it is also essential to consider adolescent agency. The self-disclosure component of monitoring—how much the adolescent voluntarily shares with the parent—may be a critical determinant of the overall effectiveness of parental involvement. Cottrell et al. (2015) found that adolescents who perceived their parents as respectful and interested were more likely to disclose risk behaviors, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of monitoring efforts (Cottrell et al., 2015). Thus, fostering open lines of communication may be just as important as setting rules or establishing boundaries.

5. Limitations & Suggestions

Despite the valuable contributions of this study, several limitations should be acknowledged. First, the cross-sectional design restricts the ability to draw causal conclusions. Although structural equation modeling provides a robust method for examining indirect effects, longitudinal data would be required to establish temporal precedence. Second, the reliance on self-reported data may introduce biases such as social desirability or inaccurate recall. Third, while the study focused on adolescents in China to reflect cultural specificity, the generalizability of findings to other cultural or socioeconomic contexts may be limited. Additionally, the study did not account for parental variables such as educational level, mental health, or parenting style, which may also influence adolescent outcomes.

Future studies should consider employing longitudinal designs to examine how parental monitoring and moral identity develop and interact over time in shaping behavioral trajectories. Incorporating multiple data sources, such as parent and teacher reports or observational data, could also reduce the biases associated with self-report methods. Moreover, examining the role of parental warmth, discipline style, and adolescent personality traits could offer a more detailed understanding of the mechanisms involved. Finally, cross-cultural comparative studies could elucidate how parenting norms and moral development vary across societies, offering insights into culturally sensitive intervention strategies.

Parents, educators, and youth counselors should recognize the dual importance of both external regulation and internal value development in preventing adolescent risk behaviors. Programs aimed at enhancing parental monitoring should also incorporate components that foster moral reasoning and identity formation in adolescents. Open communication, mutual trust, and consistent involvement can help adolescents internalize parental values. Schools and community organizations can support these efforts by creating environments that reinforce ethical standards and provide adolescents with opportunities to engage in prosocial activities.

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Declaration of Interest

The authors of this article declared no conflict of interest.

Ethical Considerations

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

Transparency of Data

In accordance with the principles of transparency and open research, we declare that all data and materials used in this study are available upon request.

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Authors' Contributions

All authors equally contributed to this article.

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