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The Relationship Between Parent–Adolescent Conflict and Addiction Proneness in Male High School Students in Bojnord County

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A B S T R A C T

Purpose: The present study aimed to examine the relationship between parent–adolescent conflict and addiction proneness among male high school students.

Methods and Materials: This descriptive-correlational study was applied in its objective and included a statistical population of all male students in the second level of high school in Bojnord during the 2023–2024 academic year (N = 4,178). Based on Krejcie and Morgan's sampling table, 351 students were selected through convenience sampling. Data collection was conducted using the Parent–Adolescent Conflict Questionnaire developed by Fine, Moreland, and Schwebel (1983) and the Addiction Proneness Questionnaire by Zeinali (2014). Data were analyzed using SPSS-20 with descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation coefficients, and stepwise multiple regression. Assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, and independence of errors were all checked and confirmed prior to regression analysis.

Findings: Pearson correlations revealed significant negative relationships between addiction proneness and variables such as positive feelings toward father ($r = –.222$, $p < .01$), fusion with father ($r = –.250$, $p < .01$), communication with father ($r = –.178$, $p < .05$), positive feelings toward mother ($r = –.008$, $p < .05$), fusion with mother ($r = –.142$, $p < .05$), and communication with mother ($r = –.268$, $p < .01$). Anger toward father and mother showed significant positive correlations with addiction proneness. Multiple regression analysis showed that parent–adolescent conflict variables predicted 28.4% of the variance in addiction proneness ($R = .533$, $R^2 = .284$). Significant predictors included positive and negative emotional dimensions toward both parents, with anger toward father being the strongest positive predictor ($\beta = .661$, $p < .001$).

Conclusion: Parent–adolescent conflict significantly contributes to the prediction of addiction proneness in male adolescents. Strengthening emotional bonds and reducing conflict within families may serve as effective prevention strategies. Interventions such as parenting workshops are recommended to mitigate risk.

Keywords: *Parent–adolescent conflict, addiction proneness, students.*

1. Introduction

Adolescence is one of the most critical developmental periods, characterized by identity formation processes, risk-taking, and vulnerability to risky behaviors, which often manifest as unsafe sexual practices, alcohol consumption, smoking, and other maladaptive behaviors (Asadpour, 2022; Yumru Mentes & Koc, 2025). This developmental stage bridges childhood and adulthood and is accompanied by extensive physical, cognitive, emotional, and social changes (Dittman et al., 2025; Saadati & Parsakia, 2023; Wu et al., 2025; Yumru Mentes & Koc, 2025). These changes can pose numerous challenges for adolescents, including the risk of addiction. Substance use and addiction represent relatively persistent problems that lead to increased interaction with the judicial system, a decline in public health, rising mortality rates, loss of educational and occupational opportunities, and an increase in social harm (Hozyari, 2022). Before addiction occurs, certain predisposing conditions emerge, referred to as addiction proneness (Zolfaqari, 2023). Addiction is a biopsychosocial disorder in which various pre-addiction factors play a role. Not everyone exposed to substances becomes addicted; addiction occurs particularly among individuals who possess a predisposition for it (Moghanloo & Valivand, 2022). Prior to the initiation of substance use, developmental processes including behavioral formation, thought patterns, belief systems, and personal traits foster the conditions necessary for addiction vulnerability. The presence of addiction proneness influences adolescents' susceptibility to substance use. This is particularly relevant during adolescence, a stage deeply intertwined with identity development, in which risk-seeking becomes a salient characteristic, often emerging through unhealthy behaviors such as smoking and drug use (Hosseinnia, 2020).

According to existing studies, certain factors are known predictors or facilitators of drug use tendency. In this regard, researchers in relatively similar studies, concluded that conflicts between parents and adolescents are significantly correlated with a tendency toward drug use and substance abuse. One of the key factors in predicting drug use tendency is parent–adolescent conflict. Intra-family conflicts increase the risk of children developing various behavioral issues, including a tendency toward substance abuse (Dan et al., 2022; Kazemi, 2022; Wang, 2021). Ongoing conflicts between parents and adolescents can elevate stress and psychological pressure in the adolescent. As a result, adolescents may resort to using drugs or alcohol as a means of temporary escape from these stressful circumstances (Mahdavi & Mirzavand, 2020). Strong interactions between parents and children significantly contribute to mutual understanding and acceptance, serving as a preventive factor against various harms, including addiction (Popov & Ilesanmi, 2015). Generally, parent–child conflict reflects a form of disagreement, argument, struggle, and tension (Hafez Sharifab et al., 2023), often arising from incompatibilities and routine disagreements, and capable of affecting the emotional bond between parents and children (Bountress et al., 2020). Parent–adolescent conflict can manifest as intense familial discord and a lack of compatibility between parents and children. If such disagreements are not addressed within the family and no steps are taken toward resolution, they may escalate into crises with irreversible harm to the family unit (Mehrabi Kooshki et al., 2023).

Understanding the reasons behind the initiation and intensification of substance use in adolescents, and identifying factors that influence addiction proneness, is of critical importance. Today, addiction and its adverse consequences represent one of the most significant public health challenges, especially among high school students who form a large portion of the adolescent population. The alarming state of increased substance use tendency among students is a serious concern. Unfortunately, in recent years, a noticeable rise in the inclination toward and use of drugs has been observed among students. This trend can have irreparable consequences for students' physical and mental health, directly impacting their academic performance and future trajectories. Despite advances in science and increasing public awareness, the tendency toward drug use continues to rise, entrapping countless individuals each year. This issue is not merely personal or individual—it constitutes a social harm that, beyond jeopardizing physical and psychological health, leads to serious and destructive consequences in moral, economic, cultural, and social domains. Given that the predictive components of parent–adolescent conflict have not been previously studied together in relation to addiction proneness among male students, the present research seeks to answer the question: Is there a significant relationship between parent–adolescent conflict and addiction proneness among male high school students in Bojnord County?

2. Methods and Materials

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2.1. Study Design and Participants

The present study employed a descriptive-correlational research design and was applied in terms of its objective. The statistical population consisted of all male students in the second level of high school in Bojnord County during the 2023–2024 academic year. According to statistics obtained from the Department of Education, the population included 4,178 individuals. Using Krejcie and Morgan's sampling table, a sample of 351 participants was selected through convenience sampling.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. Parent–Adolescent Conflict

The Parent–Adolescent Conflict Questionnaire was developed by Fine, Moreland, and Schwebel (1983). This questionnaire includes 48 items (the first 24 items pertain to the relationship with the father, and the remaining 24 items to the relationship with the mother). Both forms are nearly identical, except for the substitution of the terms "father" and "mother." Scoring is based on a 7-point Likert scale as follows: Very little = 1, Relatively little = 2, Little = 3, Neutral = 4, Much = 5, Relatively much = 6, Very much = 7. In the study conducted by Parhizgar, Mohammadnia, and Mohammadi (2009), the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was reported as 0.93 for the father form and 0.92 for the mother form. In the study by Badavam (2020), Cronbach's alpha for the subscales of the father form ranged from 0.76 to 0.83, while for the subcomponents of the mother form, the range was 0.71 to 0.83. The overall Cronbach's alpha for the total questionnaire score was reported as 0.78 (Badavam, 2020).

2.2.2. Addiction Proneness

The Addiction Proneness Questionnaire was developed by Zeinali in 2014. This questionnaire assesses addiction proneness among adolescents. It contains 50 items and covers 10 components: inner dissatisfaction, risk-taking behaviors, unreliability, exhibitionism, positive thoughts toward substances, family dissatisfaction, low faith and spirituality, norm deviation, egocentrism, and risky relationships with peers. Scoring is binary: Yes = 1, No = 0. Higher total scores indicate greater addiction proneness. In Zeinali's study (2014), the criterion validity of the questionnaire was estimated at 0.66 through concurrent administration with the Substance Use Risk Profile Scale (SURPS). To assess reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated, yielding the following values: inner dissatisfaction = 0.83, risk-taking behaviors = 0.79, unreliability = 0.68, exhibitionism = 0.68, positive thoughts toward substances = 0.81, family dissatisfaction = 0.72, low faith and spirituality = 0.69, norm deviation = 0.77, egocentrism = 0.75, risky relationships with peers = 0.73, and total score = 0.87 (Zinali, 2014).

2.3. Data Analysis

For data analysis, SPSS version 20 was used. Descriptive statistics (including mean, standard deviation, percentage, frequency, minimum, maximum, charts, and tables) and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation coefficient and stepwise regression) were applied.

3. Findings and Results

The sample consisted of 351 male high school students in Bojnord, distributed across three grade levels. Of these, 113 students (32.2%) were in the 10th grade, 128 students (36.5%) were in the 11th grade, and 110 students (31.3%) were in the 12th grade. Regarding academic majors, 53 students (15.1%) were enrolled in Mathematics and Physics, 67 students (19.1%) in Experimental Sciences, 93 students (26.5%) in Literature and Humanities, 83 students (23.6%) in Technical and Vocational Education, and 55 students (15.7%) in Work and Knowledge.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Parent–Adolescent Conflict Variable

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	N
Positive feelings toward father	45.421	6.245	35.00	57.00	351
Fusion with father	27.179	4.897	20.00	38.00	351
Communication with father	36.623	4.724	30.00	45.00	351
Anger toward father	6.606	1.793	4.00	9.00	351
Positive feelings toward mother	48.247	6.493	37.00	58.00	351
Fusion with mother	29.282	5.150	20.00	36.00	351
Communication with mother	38.849	3.498	31.00	45.00	351
Anger toward mother	5.555	1.553	4.00	9.00	351

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Inner dissatisfaction	4.367	1.813	0.00	7.00	351
Risk-taking behaviors	2.276	1.185	0.00	5.00	351
Unreliability	2.803	1.550	0.00	5.00	351
Exhibitionism	1.923	0.892	0.00	4.00	351
Positive thoughts toward substances	1.279	0.825	0.00	3.00	351
Family dissatisfaction	1.236	0.909	0.00	3.00	351
Low faith and spirituality	2.398	1.200	0.00	5.00	351
Norm deviation	2.199	1.296	0.00	5.00	351
Egocentrism	1.803	1.021	0.00	4.00	351
Risky relationships with peers	2.282	1.281	0.00	5.00	351
Total addiction proneness score	22.269	3.458	15.00	28.00	351

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the variable of parent–adolescent conflict. According to the results, the mean scores for the components were as follows: positive feelings toward the father (45.421), fusion with the father (27.179), communication with the father (36.623), anger toward the father (6.606), positive feelings toward the mother (48.247), fusion with the mother (29.282), communication with the mother (38.849), and anger toward the mother (5.555).

This table also shows the descriptive statistics for the addiction proneness variable and its components. Based on the findings, the mean scores were as follows: inner dissatisfaction (4.367), risk-taking behaviors (2.276), unreliability (2.803), exhibitionism (1.923), positive thoughts toward substances (1.279), family dissatisfaction (1.236), low faith and spirituality (2.398), norm deviation (2.199), egocentrism (1.803), risky relationships with peers (2.282), and total addiction proneness score (22.269).

Before conducting the regression analysis, essential statistical assumptions were checked and confirmed to ensure the validity of the model. Linearity was assessed through scatterplots, confirming a linear relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variable. The assumption of normality of residuals was examined using histogram and P-P plots, indicating an approximately normal distribution. Homoscedasticity was verified by plotting standardized residuals against predicted values, which showed a consistent spread without patterns. Multicollinearity was assessed through Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values, all of which were within acceptable ranges (Tolerance > 0.1, VIF < 5), confirming the absence of multicollinearity. Finally, the Durbin–Watson statistic was 1.889, falling within the acceptable range of 1.0 to 3.0, indicating that the residuals were independent and the assumption of no autocorrelation was satisfied.

Table 2

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Parent–Adolescent Conflict Components and Addiction Proneness Factors

Parent–Adolescent Conflict Variables	ID	RB	UR	EX	PS	FD	LS	ND	EG	RP	Total
Positive Thoughts Toward Substances	-.010	-.155*	-.304**	-.142*	-.078	-.211**	-.058	-.391**	-.084	-.232**	-.222**
Fusion with Father	-.026	-.053	-.077	-.140*	-.314**	-.013	-.094	-.587**	-.381**	-.180**	-.250**
Communication with Father	-.153*	-.021	-.435**	-.093	-.188**	-.276**	-.005	-.445**	-.093	-.210**	-.178*
Anger Toward Father	.185**	.145*	.314**	.315**	.034	.054	.149*	.328**	.157*	.154*	.155*
Positive Feelings Toward Mother	-.192**	-.176*	-.018	-.039	-.054	-.199**	-.064	-.189**	-.009	-.027	-.008
Fusion with Mother	-.020	-.184**	-.098	-.038	-.188**	-.146*	-.148*	-.387**	-.065	-.188**	-.142*
Communication with Mother	-.252**	-.387**	-.099	-.204**	-.153*	-.147*	-.100	-.145*	-.408**	-.087	-.268**
Anger Toward Mother	.024	.017	.094	.202**	.253**	.205**	.076	.402**	.210**	.020	.073

ID = Inner Dissatisfaction; RB = Risky Behaviors; UR = Unreliability; EX = Exhibitionism; PS = Positive Thoughts Toward Substances; FD = Family Dissatisfaction; LS = Low Spirituality; ND = Norm Deviation; EG = Egocentrism; RP = Risky Peer Relationships; Total = Total Addiction Proneness Score.
*p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 2 displays the Pearson correlation coefficients between the components of parent–adolescent conflict and addiction proneness variables. The results show:

The variable positive feelings toward the father had a significant negative correlation with risk-taking behaviors (r = -0.155, p < .05), unreliability (r = -0.304, p < .01), exhibitionism (r = -0.142, p < .05), family dissatisfaction (r

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= -0.211, p < .01), norm deviation (r = -0.391, p < .01), risky relationships with peers (r = -0.232, p < .01), and the total addiction proneness score (r = -0.222, p < .01). This indicates that higher positive feelings toward the father are associated with lower levels of addiction proneness and its components.

The variable fusion with the father had a significant negative correlation with exhibitionism (r = -0.140, p < .05), positive thoughts toward substances (r = -0.314, p < .01), norm deviation (r = -0.587, p < .01), egocentrism (r = -0.381, p < .01), risky relationships with peers (r = -0.180, p < .01), and total addiction proneness (r = -0.250, p < .01). This implies that stronger fusion with the father predicts lower proneness to addiction.

The variable communication with the father showed a significant negative correlation with inner dissatisfaction (r = -0.153, p < .05), unreliability (r = -0.435, p < .01), positive thoughts toward substances (r = -0.188, p < .01), family dissatisfaction (r = -0.276, p < .01), norm deviation (r = -0.445, p < .01), risky peer relationships (r = -0.210, p < .01), and total addiction proneness (r = -0.178, p < .05). This indicates that better communication with the father is associated with decreased addiction risk.

The variable anger toward the father had a significant positive correlation with inner dissatisfaction (r = 0.185, p < .01), risk-taking behaviors (r = 0.145, p < .05), unreliability (r = 0.314, p < .01), exhibitionism (r = 0.315, p < .01), low spirituality (r = 0.149, p < .05), norm deviation (r = 0.328, p < .01), egocentrism (r = 0.157, p < .05), risky peer relationships (r = 0.154, p < .05), and total addiction proneness (r = 0.155, p < .05). Therefore, higher levels of anger toward the father are associated with greater addiction vulnerability.

The variable positive feelings toward the mother was significantly negatively correlated with inner dissatisfaction (r = -0.192, p < .01), risk-taking behaviors (r = -0.176, p < .05), family dissatisfaction (r = -0.199, p < .01), and norm deviation (r = -0.189, p < .01). This means stronger positive emotions toward the mother are associated with lower levels of these risk factors.

The variable fusion with the mother was negatively correlated with risk-taking behaviors (r = -0.184, p < .01), positive thoughts toward substances (r = -0.188, p < .01), family dissatisfaction (r = -0.146, p < .05), low spirituality (r = -0.148, p < .05), norm deviation (r = -0.387, p < .01), risky peer relationships (r = -0.188, p < .01), and total addiction proneness (r = -0.142, p < .05). This indicates that stronger emotional bonding with the mother is associated with reduced proneness to addiction and its components.

The variable communication with the mother showed significant negative correlations with inner dissatisfaction (r = -0.252, p < .01), risk-taking behaviors (r = -0.387, p < .01), exhibitionism (r = -0.204, p < .01), positive thoughts toward substances (r = -0.153, p < .05), family dissatisfaction (r = -0.147, p < .05), norm deviation (r = -0.145, p < .05), egocentrism (r = -0.408, p < .01), and total addiction proneness (r = -0.268, p < .01). These results suggest that effective communication with the mother is a strong protective factor.

Finally, the variable anger toward the mother was positively correlated with exhibitionism (r = 0.202, p < .01), positive thoughts toward substances (r = 0.253, p < .01), family dissatisfaction (r = 0.205, p < .01), norm deviation (r = 0.402, p < .01), and egocentrism (r = 0.210, p < .01). This indicates that higher anger toward the mother is associated with higher levels of these components of addiction proneness.

Table 3

Multiple Correlation Coefficients

Model	Multiple Correlation (R)	R-Squared (R^2)	Adjusted R^2	Durbin–Watson
1	0.533	0.284	0.263	1.889

The results of the multivariate regression analysis using the stepwise method indicate that the multiple correlation coefficient is R = 0.533, suggesting a significant relationship among the study variables. Additionally, the coefficient of determination is $R^2 = 0.284$, which implies that the predictor variables (parent–adolescent conflict components) account for 28% of the variance in the dependent variable (addiction proneness). To assess the independence of residuals, the Durbin–Watson statistic was used, and a value of 1.889 was obtained. Since this value falls within the acceptable range of 1 to 3, it indicates that the residuals are independent and the regression model is valid (Table 3).

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Table 4

Regression Coefficients for Predictor Variables

Predictor Variable	B	Standard Error	Beta	t	p	Tolerance	VIF
Constant	44.614	9.157	—	4.872	.000	—	—
Positive Feelings Toward Father	-0.237	0.048	-0.428	-4.972	.000	0.285	1.515
Fusion with Father	-0.190	0.062	-0.269	-3.067	.002	0.273	1.666
Communication with Father	-0.195	0.074	-0.267	-2.646	.009	0.207	1.834
Anger Toward Father	1.274	0.162	0.661	7.884	.000	0.300	1.336
Positive Feelings Toward Mother	-0.225	0.043	-0.422	-5.272	.000	0.329	1.041
Fusion with Mother	-0.310	0.070	-0.461	-4.450	.000	0.196	1.103
Communication with Mother	-0.278	0.076	-0.282	-3.664	.000	0.356	1.806
Anger Toward Mother	0.109	0.128	0.049	0.853	.300	0.633	1.579

Table 4 presents both standardized and unstandardized regression coefficients for predicting addiction proneness. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values for all variables are below the commonly accepted threshold of 5, and the tolerance values are sufficiently high, indicating no issues of multicollinearity and confirming the suitability of the regression model.

As shown, the variables positive feelings toward father (β = -0.428), fusion with father (β = -0.269), communication with father (β = -0.267), anger toward father (β = 0.661), positive feelings toward mother (β = -0.422), fusion with mother (β = -0.461), and communication with mother (β = -0.282) were all significant predictors of addiction proneness. Specifically, for each one-unit increase in these variables (measured in standard deviation units), addiction proneness is predicted to decrease or increase accordingly.

In conclusion, positive feelings, fusion, and communication with both parents negatively predict addiction proneness, while anger toward the father positively predicts it. These findings highlight the critical role of the emotional quality and nature of parent–child relationships in adolescent addiction vulnerability.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The results indicated a significant relationship between parent–adolescent conflict and addiction proneness among male high school students in Bojnord. These findings align with the prior studies (Bakhshi & Asadi Younesi, 2018; Dan et al., 2022; Kazemi, 2022; Motamen, 2021; Tarantino et al., 2015; Wang, 2021).

This result can be explained by noting that substance abuse is one of the most critical human challenges in recent years and among the most complex human phenomena. As a maladaptive pattern of substance use, it leads to recurring occupational, social, and legal problems (Barati et al., 2011). One of the key issues that may drive adolescents toward substance use is conflict with their parents. Santrock (2012) stated that adolescence marks the transition from childhood to adulthood, a phase initiated by rapid physical changes and the development of abstract thinking (Wang, 2021). It is also a stage that requires increased independence from parents (Wong et al., 2002). Parent–child conflict reflects a gap between children and their parents, where parents perceive their adolescents as noncompliant, and adolescents reject their parents' behaviors (Borjali, 2013). Since conflict is an inevitable part of family relationships and numerous studies suggest that intra-family discord raises the risk of behavioral problems—especially substance abuse—parent–adolescent conflict should be considered a predictor of drug use. Such conflict may lead to high levels of stress and anxiety in adolescents, prompting them to seek relief through substance use. Additionally, during adolescence, individuals often seek to assert their autonomy, and substance use may be one method of asserting independence (Mehrabi Kooshki et al., 2023; Mirković-Hajdukov et al., 2018).

Research has also shown that conflicts and incompatibilities between parents and children significantly influence their inclination and vulnerability to substance use and addiction. Repeated conflicts and family tension can induce considerable psychological stress in children. Such pressures may lead them to seek alternative means of coping, such as turning to drugs or alcohol. Furthermore, in families marked by high conflict, children often receive less emotional support. This lack of support can foster feelings of loneliness and worthlessness, leading adolescents toward peer groups that engage in risky behaviors like smoking, alcohol consumption, and marijuana use (Mahdavi & Mirzavand, 2020). Studies have also found that if parents cope with family conflict by using alcohol or drugs, children may adopt these behaviors as acceptable coping mechanisms

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(Kazemi, 2022). Persistent conflict between parents may also diminish their supervision and attention toward their children's activities, providing more opportunities for adolescents to experiment with drugs.

Such conflicts typically undermine family communication and trust between parents and children. A lack of communication and trust may deter children from sharing their problems with parents and push them toward high-risk alternatives, such as substance use. Ongoing family discord can also lead to psychological issues in children, including depression, anxiety, and behavioral problems. In turn, these mental health challenges may prompt adolescents to seek unhealthy coping strategies, including substance abuse (Carver et al., 2017). Therefore, ongoing conflict and dysfunction between parents and adolescents can significantly contribute to the risk of addiction.

Parent–adolescent conflict can predict addiction proneness in male high school students in Bojnord. These results are consistent with prior studies (Carver et al., 2017; Dan et al., 2022; Hozyari, 2022; Mahdavi & Mirzavand, 2020; Mansoubi et al., 2020; Mirković-Hajdukov et al., 2018; Sobhi Monem, 2020; Zadeh Hassan & Seraj Khorami, 2019; Zolfaqari, 2023). Regarding the predictability of addiction proneness through the parent–adolescent conflict variable, it should be noted that this conflict encompasses the communication challenges and relational discord that emerge during familial development and change (Özmete & Batoglu, 2009). Parent–child relationship is the child's first relational experience and plays a vital role in fostering a sense of security and love. It is formed through a unique combination of behaviors, emotions, and expectations between a particular parent and child. Many researchers emphasize that family dynamics, especially parental behavior during childhood, play a crucial role in the emergence of behavioral problems in adulthood (Homauni et al., 2014). The quality of parent–child interactions affects how children perceive and interpret the world around them. When this relationship is marked by conflict, children's worldview may become pessimistic (Murray et al., 2014). In response to the anxiety caused by conflict and a negative outlook on life, adolescents may be more inclined toward substance use (Mahdavi & Mirzavand, 2020).

Addiction proneness is often a response to difficult conditions and the inability of individuals and families to resolve problems effectively. The absence of a safe emotional environment for expression—one of the core mechanisms of intimacy within the family—can make children vulnerable to addiction. Fear of expressing beliefs and emotions within the family can foster frustration, prompting adolescents to substitute substance use for unresolved conflict (Bountress et al., 2020). Family factors have been identified as major risk elements in adolescent substance abuse. A strong association exists between substance use and both parent–child and intrafamilial conflicts. A healthy and supportive relationship between parents and children is vital for building trust and offering psychological support. When such a relationship is weak or overwhelmed by conflict, adolescents may turn to substance use as a means of emotional escape or self-gratification. Furthermore, persistent conflict and the lack of constructive coping strategies can lead adolescents toward addiction. For some, substance use may appear to be a viable method for managing stress and life pressures. The tendency toward substance use, as well as addiction proneness, reflects the adolescent's perception that their emotional needs cannot be easily met by parents. As a result, adolescents may view substance use as an escape from undesirable circumstances. However, external support systems beyond the family can help mitigate this tendency (Sun, 2016). Thus, a nurturing and emotionally intimate family environment serves as a protective factor against negative behaviors such as addiction (Brunborg, 2017).

Given the significant relationship between parent–adolescent conflict and addiction proneness, it is recommended to implement relevant workshops and training programs—such as positive parenting and parenting skills courses—to meaningfully reduce conflict between parents and adolescents. Since the statistical population in this study was limited to male high school students in Bojnord, caution must be exercised when generalizing results to other populations or to female students. Future research should aim to control for confounding variables as much as possible.

Authors' Contributions

All authors significantly contributed to this study.

Declaration

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

Transparency Statement

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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

In this study, to observe ethical considerations, participants were informed about the goals and importance of the research before the start of the interview and participated in the research with informed consent.

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