

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

Pratibha Goswami<sup>1\*</sup>, Dr. Vinita Tiwari<sup>2</sup>

### ABSTRACT

This study examines the impact of both positive and negative peer pressure on the emotional well-being of adolescent boys and girls, with a specific focus on the relationship between peer pressure and affect (positive and negative). Employing a descriptive-correlational design, the research investigates gender differences, the correlation between peer pressure and emotional affect, and the predictive role of peer pressure in adolescents' emotional states. A randomly selected sample of 400 adolescents (200 boys and 200 girls), aged 15 to 19 years, participated in the study. The Peer Pressure Scale (Kaur, 2017) and the Hindi version of the PANAS (Pandey & Srivastva, 2008) were used to assess peer pressure and affect, respectively. Findings revealed that boys experienced significantly higher levels of positive peer pressure compared to girls, while levels of negative peer pressure were comparable across genders. In terms of emotional affect, girls reported significantly higher levels of positive affect than boys, whereas no significant gender differences were observed in negative affect. Correlational analysis indicated a negative association between positive peer pressure and positive affect, and a positive correlation between negative peer pressure and negative affect. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis demonstrated that positive peer pressure significantly predicted positive affect, while negative peer pressure significantly predicted negative affect. These results underscore the nuanced and complex role of peer pressure in shaping adolescents' emotional well-being. The findings highlight the need for targeted interventions that promote healthy peer interactions and mitigate negative peer influences to support the emotional development and mental health of adolescents.

**Keywords:** *Positive peer pressure, Negative peer pressure, Positive affect, Negative affect, Adolescents, Relationship, Emotional well-being*

Adolescence is a pivotal stage in human development, marking the transition from childhood to adulthood. This period, typically between the ages of 10 and 19, is a time of significant growth and change, often accompanied by excitement, confusion, and exploration. Adolescents begin to seek independence and define their identities, which can lead to feelings of anxiety or self-consciousness due to hormonal and biological changes. The World Health Organization (WHO, 2007) defines adolescence as the period from age 10 to 19. During this time, individuals undergo physical, mental, emotional, social, and behavioral

<sup>1</sup>Research Scholar, Department of Psychology, Patliputra University, Patna, Bihar, India

<sup>2</sup>Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Patliputra University, Patna, Bihar, India

\*Corresponding Author

Received: April 14, 2025; Revision Received: April 19, 2025; Accepted: April 23, 2025

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

changes that help them move beyond childhood and establish independence. Adolescents experience rapid physical growth, developing cognitive abilities, and shifting social relationships. At this stage, they tend to spend more time with peers than with family.

Peer pressure is a powerful social force, defined by Clasen and Brown (1985) as the influence peers exert to encourage or discourage specific behaviors. It often overrides individual preferences and significantly shapes adolescent development. As highlighted by various scholars, this influence can manifest directly or indirectly, sometimes even without full awareness (Ryan, 2000; Kiran-Esen & Aktug, 2003), and may lead to both positive and negative outcomes. While positive peer pressure fosters academic achievement, healthy decision-making, and personal growth (Jack & Deya, 2017; Buhrmester, 1996), negative peer pressure can result in risky behaviors such as substance abuse, delinquency, and academic disengagement (Hirst, 2013; Adeyemi & Adeyemi, 2014). Adolescents, especially those entering secondary school, are particularly vulnerable as they form new friendships and seek acceptance, often aligning their behavior with peer norms (Geary, 2002; Payne, Danielle, & Cornwell, 2007). The conflict between individual identity and group influence is further shaped by factors such as parental guidance, societal norms, and media exposure. Ultimately, while peer relationships are central to adolescents' social and emotional development (Adams, 1995; Dusek, 1987; Leymann, 1990), the nature of peer influence—whether positive or negative—plays a crucial role in shaping their life choices, academic paths, and emotional well-being.

Emotional well-being (EWB) is a dynamic concept that reflects a person's emotional state over time, shaped by the balance between positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA). Although it fluctuates momentarily, emotional well-being also develops into a stable baseline, typically assessed using trait measures over extended periods (Larsen & Prizmic, 2006). Experience sampling methods, such as ecological momentary assessment, are more accurate in capturing emotional experiences over time compared to retrospective self-reports (Kahneman & Krueger, 2006; Schimmack, 2003).

Affect refers to moods, emotions, and feelings, including both positive and negative experiences. Positive affect (PA) involves emotions such as joy, interest, confidence, and alertness, and is associated with enthusiasm, energy, and optimism (Watson & Clark, 1984; Snyder & Lopez, 2002). Enhancing positive emotions through strategies like the Positive Emotion Brainstorm can increase happiness, creativity, resilience, and overall well-being by helping the brain focus, lowering stress, and improving performance. In contrast, negative affect (NA) includes emotions such as fear, sadness, anger, guilt, shame, and disgust, reflecting emotional discomfort and distress (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Snyder & Lopez, 2002). While negative emotions may reduce empathy and turn attention inward, they are necessary for processing challenges and managing internal conflict. Importantly, positive and negative affect are independent—experiencing one does not prevent the other—so they should be measured separately (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965). Affect tends to remain stable over time and across different situations (Naragon & Watson, 2009), influencing how individuals perceive and respond to the world around them.

Santos *et al.*, (2019) found that children's well-being is influenced by peer relationships, which reduce the risk of exclusion and victimization. Gender differences in subjective well-being show that girls report higher satisfaction in peer relationships compared to boys. Goswami (2012) argued that supportive friendships enhance subjective well-being, while peer conflict or aggression lowers it. Good peer and neighborly relationships form the basis for a

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

good quality of life in children. Caroline *et al.*, (2018) concluded that peer relationships positively correlate with happiness. Alcantara *et al.*, (2017) found a strong association between peer support and various well-being indicators, revealing that public school students reported lower levels of subjective well-being than those in private schools. Cruz, Torre, Castaños, and Tus (2022) reported a negative correlation between peer pressure and mental well-being. Vinayak and Arora (2018) studied 300 adolescents and found a positive relationship between peer pressure and social anxiety.

McCoy *et al.*, (2019) found that adolescent males are generally more influenced by peers encouraging risk-taking than females. Boys tend to face more peer pressure than girls, especially related to traditional masculine norms (Galambos, 2004; Santor *et al.*, 2004). Sumter *et al.* (2009) observed that girls begin resisting peer pressure earlier. Lazar and Ravindra (2021) found that male students experienced significantly higher levels of peer pressure than females, with no major differences between urban and rural students. Lucas and Gohm (2000) reported that women scored higher on negative affect than men, a finding supported by Nolen-Hoeksema and Rusting (2003). However, women also displayed higher levels of positive affect (Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989; Lee, Seccombe, & Shehan, 1991). Studies on positive affect reveal age-related patterns: younger women reported higher happiness scores than younger men, while older men scored higher than older women (Inglehart, 2002; Easterlin, 2003). Zuckerman, Li, and Diener (2017), using Gallup World Poll data, did not find significant gender differences in positive affect, though earlier studies (Wood *et al.*, 1989) noted women reporting greater happiness, even if no difference in PA was statistically significant. Conversely, studies on negative affect consistently show women experiencing it more frequently than men (Zuckerman, Li, & Diener, 2017).

Although research on gender differences in emotional expression shows mixed results, many studies suggest that women report higher levels of both positive emotions and subjective well-being. At the same time, women also experience more negative emotions (Lucas & Gohm, 2000; Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting, 2003). They are more prone to anxiety and mood disorders compared to men (Grant & Weissman, 2007; Eaton *et al.*, 2012), but their stronger positive emotional experiences help maintain a comparable level of overall well-being. Thompsen *et al.* (2005) found that young women tend to feel more anxious and sadder, possibly because they overthink more than men and often feel responsible for maintaining the emotional tone in relationships. This may lead to a perceived lack of control over their emotions (Nolen-Hoeksema, Larson, & Grayson, 1999; Nolen-Hoeksema & Jackson, 2001). Peer relationships play an important role in adolescent development, significantly influencing emotional well-being. Among these, peer pressure has been identified as a key factor affecting both positive and negative affect (Steinberg & Monahan, 2007; Prinstein & Dodge, 2008). Although previous studies have explored peer influence and emotions, two major gaps remain. First, findings related to gender differences in peer pressure and emotional responses are inconsistent (Rose & Rudolph, 2006). Second, there is limited research examining the link between peer pressure and affect within the Indian adolescent context (Verma & Saraswathi, 2002; Chadha & Pandey, 2015). India has a unique cultural dynamic; it is crucial to understand how adolescents experience peer influence and its emotional consequences across genders. This study aims to investigate the relationship between peer pressure and positive and negative affect, with a specific focus on gender differences, thereby contributing to culturally relevant insights in adolescent psychology.

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

### *Objectives:*

- To examine and compare peer pressure (positive & negative) and emotional well-being (positive affect & negative affect) among adolescent boys and girls.
- To examine the relationship of peer pressure (positive & negative) with emotional well-being (positive affect & negative affect) among adolescent boys and girls.
- To examine relative significance of peer pressure (positive & negative) in predicting emotional well-being (positive affect & negative affect) among adolescent boys and girls.

### *Hypotheses:*

- There would be significant gender differences regarding peer pressure (positive & negative) and emotional well-being (positive affect & negative affect).
- Adolescents' peer pressure (positive & negative) would be significantly correlated with emotional well-being (positive affect & negative affect).

## **METHODOLOGY**

### *Design*

This study employed a descriptive-correlational research design to examine the relationship between peer pressure (both positive & negative) and emotional wellbeing (positive and negative affect) among adolescents. As a rational and quantitative investigation, this design allowed for the systematic exploration of the associations between the variables. It also facilitated the examination of gender-based differences, to assess how peer pressure influences emotional experiences among adolescent boys and girls.

### *Sample*

The present study was conducted on a sample of 400 adolescents aged between 15 and 19 years. The sample comprised an equal number of boys (N = 200; Mean age = 14.73) and girls (N = 200; Mean age = 14.10). Participants were selected from both Hindi and English medium schools, including government and private high schools and intermediate colleges, located in urban and rural areas of Gaya and Patna districts.

### *Measures*

**Peer Pressure Scale**, developed by Kaur (2017), is a standardized tool designed to measure the extent and nature of peer pressure experienced by adolescents. The scale assesses both positive (19 items) and negative dimensions (17 items) of peer influence across various domains such as academic choices, behavior, social activities, and lifestyle preferences. It consists of a series of self-report items rated on a Likert-type scale, where higher scores indicate greater susceptibility to peer pressure. The scale has demonstrated acceptable reliability and validity in previous studies and is suitable for use with adolescents in the Indian context. In the present study, this scale was employed to assess peer pressure levels among male and female adolescents. According to Kaur (2017), higher scores are indicative of negative peer pressure, while lower scores reflect positive peer influence.

**Hindi version of PANAS (Positive Affect Negative Affect Scale)** Positive Affect Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) was developed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988). Hindi version of this scale, developed by Pandey and Srivastva (2008) was used in the study. It is one of the most widely used scales to measure mood or emotion. This brief scale is comprised of 20 items, with 10 items measuring positive affect (e.g., excited, inspired) and 10 items measuring negative affect (e.g., upset, afraid). The total score is calculated by finding the sum of the 10

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

positive items, and then the 10 negative items. Scores range from 10 – 50 for both sets of items. For the total positive score, a higher score indicates more of a positive affect. For the total negative score, a lower score indicates less of a negative affect. The PANAS displays a very good internal reliability that is consistent with Cronbach alpha coefficient scores ranging from 0.86 to 0.90 for the Positive Affect Scale and 0.84 to 0.87 for the Negative Affect Scale.

### **Procedure**

The psychometric assessments were individually administered to each participant. Prior to administration, detailed instructions for each scale were provided, and any queries raised by the participants were addressed to ensure clarity and understanding. Participants were also requested to review their responses to confirm that all items had been completed. After the collection of scales from the participants, responses were scored according to above mentioned standardized procedures. The data were subsequently analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical techniques, including mean, standard deviation (SD), t-ratio, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r), and stepwise regression analysis.

## **RESULTS**

In the first step of the analysis, means, standard deviations and t-values were computed to find out the difference between boys and girls on all the measured variables under the study. Correlation coefficients have been computed to examine the extent of relationship between peer pressure (positive & negative) and emotional well-being (positive & negative affect) separately for boys and girls. Further, to examine the role of peer pressure (positive & negative) in predicting emotional well-being (positive and negative affect) among adolescent boys and girls multiple regression analysis (step wise) was performed with the predictor (positive and negative peer pressure) and criterion variables (positive & negative affect). Result in terms of means, SD and t-value for peer pressure (positive & negative) among adolescents boys and girls were presented in table-1.

**Table 1. Mean, SD and t- Value for both Positive and Negative type of Peer Pressure among boys and girls.**

Peer Pressure	Boys (N=200)	Girls (N=200)	t
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	
Positive or Low peer pressure	56.79 (14.39)	51.92 (13.72)	3.467***
Negative or High peer pressure	43.05 (12.31)	44.34 (12.42)	-1.039

\*\*\*p<0.001

Perusal of table 1 revealed that, mean score of boys for positive peer pressure was found to be higher than that of girls, while mean score for negative peer pressure of girls was higher than boys. Boys and girls were found significantly different for positive peer pressure and the difference between boys and girls was not found significant for negative peer pressure. Therefore, the result partially supported the first hypothesis which assumed that boys and girls would be significantly differ with regard to peer pressure.

Result in terms of means, SD and t-value for affects (positive & negative) among adolescents boys and girls were presented in table-2.

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

**Table 2. Mean, SD and t- Value for both Positive and Negative Affect of PANAS among Boys and Girls.**

Affects	Boys (N=200)	Girls (N=200)	t
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	
<b>Positive affect</b>	31.92 (6.662)	33.61 (6.35)	-2.613**
<b>Negative affect</b>	23.48 (6.63)	24.49 (7.89)	-1.39

\*\*p<0.01

Table-2 represents the mean, SD and t-value for PANAS among adolescent boys and girls. Examination of table 2 revealed that the girls had higher mean score in comparison to boys for both positive affect and negative affect. The difference between boys and girls was significant for positive affect and not significant for negative affect.

The result regarding association between peer pressure (positive & negative) and affects (positive & negative) were summarized in table-3. This table presents Pearson correlation coefficients examining the relationship between peer pressure (categorized as *Positive or Low* and *Negative or High*) and affect (Positive Affect and Negative Affect as measured by PANAS) for boys and girls, each with a sample size of 200.

**Table 3. Correlation between Peer Pressure (Positive & Negative) and PANAS (Positive affect & Negative affect) of Boys (N=200) and Girls (N=200).**

		Positive affect	Negative affect
<b>Positive or Low peer pressure</b>	<b>Boys</b>	-.234**	.068
	<b>Girls</b>	-.285**	.042
<b>Negative or High peer pressure</b>	<b>Boys</b>	-.088	.184**
	<b>Girls</b>	-.361**	.151*

\*p<0.05

\*\*p<0.01

Under positive/low peer pressure, both boys and girls show a significant negative correlation with positive affect, meaning that even low levels of peer pressure are associated with reduced positive emotions. There is no significant relationship with negative affect in this condition. Under negative/high peer pressure, boys, show no significant correlation with positive affect, but a significant positive correlation with negative affect, suggesting that more pressure is associated with increased negative emotions. Girls show a strong negative correlation between negative/high peer pressure and positive affect, and a moderate positive correlation with negative affect, indicating that peer pressure significantly reduces positive feelings and increases negative emotions.

To examine the role of peer pressure (positive & negative) in predicting emotional well-being (positive and negative affect) among adolescent boys and girls multiple regression analysis (step wise) was performed with the predictor (positive and negative peer pressure) and criterion variables (positive & negative affect). The obtained results have been presented in table-4.

**Table 4. Result of step-wise multiple regression analysis using peer pressure (positive & negative) as predictor and positive and negative affect as criterion.**

Criterion variable: Positive Affect							
Model	Variable	R	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> adj.	R <sup>2</sup> Change	Beta	F Ratio
1.	Positive Peer Pressure	.275	.075	.073	.075	-.275***	32.457***
Criterion variable: Negative Affect							
Model	Variable	R	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> adj.	R <sup>2</sup> Change	Beta	F Ratio
1.	Negative Peer Pressure	.169	.028	.026	.028	.169***	11.644***

\*\*\*p<0.001

An examination of the table 4 reveals that Positive peer pressure explains 7.5% of the variance in positive affect ( $R^2 = .075$ ), and the model is statistically significant ( $F = 32.457, p < .001$ ). The negative beta coefficient ( $\beta = -.275$ ) suggests that as positive peer pressure increases, positive affect decreases — which is somewhat counterintuitive and may indicate that even “positive” peer influence can have pressure-like or stress-inducing qualities. Negative peer pressure accounts for 2.8% of the variance in negative affect ( $R^2 = .028$ ) and is also statistically significant ( $F = 11.644, p < .001$ ). The positive beta coefficient ( $\beta = .169$ ) indicates that higher negative peer pressure is associated with higher negative affect — a result that aligns well with theoretical expectations. Both types of peer pressure significantly predict affect levels, though positive peer pressure negatively predicts positive emotions, and negative peer pressure positively predicts negative emotions. The effect size is stronger for positive affect (7.5%) than for negative affect (2.8%).

## DISCUSSION

The findings of this study were analyzed to address the three primary objectives formulated. These included: (1) examining gender differences in peer pressure and affect, (2) exploring the relationships between peer pressure (positive and negative) and emotional wellbeing (positive and negative affect), and (3) evaluating the predictive role of peer pressure on emotional outcomes among adolescent boys and girls.

### *Gender Differences in Peer Pressure and Affect*

The first objective aimed to examine and compare the levels of peer pressure (positive/low and negative/high) and affect (positive and negative) among adolescent boys and girls. Results indicated that boys experienced significantly higher levels of positive (or low) peer pressure than girls, while negative (or high) peer pressure levels were relatively equal across genders. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Galambos, 2004; Santor *et al.*, 2004), and supports the work of Lazar and Ravindra (2021), who found that male students encounter greater peer pressure than females. Gender emerged as a significant factor for positive peer pressure, favoring boys, but was non-significant for negative peer pressure, suggesting a comparable experience across genders. With regard to peer relationships, Santos *et al.*, (2019) reported that girls generally experience higher satisfaction in peer interactions. Meanwhile, McCoy *et al.*, (2019) identified that adolescent females may be more vulnerable to deviant peer pressure than males.

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

In terms of emotional affect, a significant gender difference was found in positive emotions, with girls reporting higher levels of positive affect than boys. While differences in negative affect were minimal, girls displayed slightly higher mean scores. These results partially support the initial hypothesis and align with previous literature suggesting that girls experience more intense emotional states, possibly influenced by socialization and gender stereotypes (Brody & Hall, 1993; Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989; Nolen-Hoeksema & Rusting, 1999). Social expectations often discourage emotional expression in boys (Etherton, Lawson, & Graham, 2014), whereas girls are generally encouraged to express their emotions (Garside & Klimes-Dougan, 2002). Such differential reinforcement may contribute to the observed gender differences in affective expression and experience.

### ***Relationship Between Peer Pressure and Affect***

The second objective focused on examining the relationship between peer pressure (positive and negative) and affect (positive and negative) among adolescents. The analysis revealed several notable patterns. Positive peer pressure was significantly negatively correlated with positive affect for both boys and girls, suggesting that as adolescents experience more positive peer pressure, they may report reduced positive affect. This aligns with Cruz *et al.*, (2022), who observed a similar negative association between peer pressure and mental well-being. Interestingly, positive peer pressure did not show a significant correlation with negative affect in either gender. This indicates that while positive peer pressure may diminish positive affect, it does not necessarily exacerbate negative emotions. This finding is consistent with Caroline *et al.*, (2018), who concluded that supportive peer relationships enhance happiness but may not directly influence negative emotional states.

Conversely, negative peer pressure demonstrated a more complex relationship with affect. For boys, negative peer pressure was not significantly correlated with positive affect; however, for girls, a significant negative correlation was observed—suggesting that girls experiencing greater negative peer pressure tend to report lower levels of positive affect. This outcome supports Goswami's (2012) assertion that while supportive peer interactions promote well-being, negative peer dynamics undermine it. Additionally, negative peer pressure was significantly positively correlated with negative affect for both boys and girls. This indicates that adolescents exposed to higher levels of negative peer pressure are more likely to report increased levels of negative emotions. These findings are consistent with Long *et al.*, (2020), who established a strong link between negative peer relationships and adolescent mental health concerns. In summary, the second objective's findings suggest that peer pressure—whether positive or negative—can significantly impact adolescents' emotional experiences, particularly in terms of reducing positive emotions and increasing negative emotions under the influence of negative peer dynamics.

### ***Predictive Role of Peer Pressure on Affect***

The present study aimed to investigate the predictive role of peer pressure—both positive and negative—on affective states among adolescents. The results of the regression analysis (Table 4) offer intriguing insights into the complex dynamics of peer influence on emotional well-being. The analysis revealed that positive peer pressure significantly predicted positive affect, accounting for 7.5% of its variance ( $R^2 = .075$ ), with a statistically significant negative beta coefficient ( $\beta = -.275, p < .001$ ). Interestingly, this suggests that as positive peer pressure increases, positive affect decreases. While this finding appears counterintuitive at first glance, it aligns with literature indicating that even well-intentioned social expectations or encouragements from peers can become psychologically burdensome. According to Brown *et al.*, (2008), adolescents may internalize expectations for prosocial behavior or academic

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

success as performance pressures, leading to increased stress and reduced emotional well-being. Similarly, Wentzel (2005) highlights that the pressure to conform to “positive” group norms—such as being helpful, collaborative, or achieving—can induce anxiety or self-comparison, particularly when adolescents feel they fall short of these ideals.

In contrast, the second model demonstrated that negative peer pressure significantly predicted negative affect, though to a lesser extent, explaining 2.8% of the variance ( $R^2 = .028$ ;  $\beta = .169$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This finding is consistent with existing research that emphasizes the detrimental effects of coercive or deviant peer influences. Prinstein and Dodge (2008) and Steinberg and Monahan (2007) both assert that negative peer interactions—such as encouragement toward risky behaviors, exclusion, or verbal aggression—are closely linked to increased levels of internalizing symptoms like anxiety, irritability, and depressive mood. Thus, the positive association between negative peer pressure and negative affect observed in this study is theoretically grounded and supported by empirical evidence.

Comparatively, positive peer pressure demonstrated a stronger predictive power for affect (7.5%) than negative peer pressure (2.8%), suggesting that even adaptive social expectations may exert a deeper emotional influence. One possible explanation is that “positive” peer influence is more prevalent or persistent in everyday interactions and is often more subtle, making it more internally impactful over time. This underscores the idea that peer interactions—whether overtly harmful or seemingly beneficial—play a nuanced and sometimes paradoxical role in shaping adolescent emotional experiences. Overall, these findings stress the importance of interpreting peer pressure in its broader emotional context. It is not merely the presence of peer influence, but its nature and how it is internalized, that determines its psychological outcomes. Future interventions might benefit from teaching adolescents not only how to resist negative peer pressure but also how to critically engage with positive influence in ways that preserve autonomy and emotional health.

### CONCLUSION

This study underscores the multifaceted impact of peer pressure on adolescents' emotional well-being. Gender differences revealed that boys experience greater positive peer pressure, while girls report higher positive affect—findings that reflect both socialization processes and emotional expression norms. Importantly, the relationship analyses and regression results demonstrate that both positive and negative peer pressure significantly influence adolescents' affective states, though in complex and sometimes counterintuitive ways. Positive peer pressure, while often assumed to be beneficial, was found to negatively predict positive affect, suggesting that even supportive social expectations may carry psychological burdens. Conversely, negative peer pressure predicted increased negative affect, aligning with established research on its harmful emotional consequences. These findings highlight the need for educators, counselors, and policymakers to recognize the nuanced emotional effects of peer dynamics and to develop strategies that help adolescents navigate both harmful and ostensibly beneficial peer influences in a psychologically healthy manner. Future research should continue to explore the contextual and individual factors that mediate these relationships to better support adolescents' emotional development.

## REFERENCES

- Adams, J. F. (1995). *Understanding adolescence* (Ed.). Istanbul: Publishing House Publication.
- Adeyemi, S., & Adeyemi, A. M. (2014). Personal Factors as Predictors of Students' Academic Achievement in College of Education in South Western Nigeria. *Academic Journal*, 9(4)97-109.
- Alcantara, S. C., González-Carrasco, M., Montserrat, C., Viñas, F., Casas, F., & Abreu, D. P. (2017). Peer violence in the school environment and its relationship with subjective well-being and perceived social support among children and adolescents in Northeastern Brazil. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 18, 1507–1532.
- Bradburn, N. M., & Caplovitz, D. (1965). Reports on happiness: *A pilot study of behavior related to mental health* (No. 3). Aldine Publication.
- Brody, L. R., & Hall, J. A. (1993). Gender and Emotion, *Handbook of Emotions*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Brown, B. B., Bakken, J. P., Ameringer, S. W., & Mahon, S. D. (2008). A comprehensive conceptualization of the peer influence process in adolescence. In M. J. Prinstein & K. A. Dodge (Eds.), *Understanding peer influence in children and adolescents* (pp. 17–44). Guilford Press.
- Brown, B. B., Clasen, D. R., & Eicher, S. A. (1986). Perceptions of peer pressure, peer conformity dispositions, and self-reported behaviour among adolescents. *Developmental Psychology*, 22(4), 521-530
- Buhrmester, D. (1996). Need fulfilment, interpersonal competence, and the developmental contexts of early adolescent friendship. In W. M. Bukowski, A. F. Newcomb, & W. W. Hartup (Eds.), *The company they keep: Friendship in childhood and adolescence* (pp. 158-185). Cambridge University Press.
- Caroline, S. S., Reshma, S., Jain, R. Y., & Pai, K. (2018). Influence of peer relationships on the happiness of early adolescents. *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 6(4), 635-643.
- Chadha, N., & Pandey, N. (2015). Peer pressure and emotional competence in adolescents: A study in Indian context. *Indian Journal of Health and Wellbeing*, 6(7), 684–688.
- Clasen, D. R., & Brown, B. B. (1985). The multidimensionality of peer pressure in adolescence. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 14(6), 451–468. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02139520>
- Cruz, J. M., Dela Torre, A. P., Castanos, O.L.S., & Tus, J. (2022). The correlation between peer pressure and mental well-being among senior high school students. *Psych Educ*, PEMJ0. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6569859>
- Dusek, J. B. (1987). *Adolescent development and behaviour*. Prentice-Hall.
- Easterlin, R. (2003). Happiness of Women and Men in Later Life: Nature, Determinants, and Prospects. In M. J. Sirgy, D. R. Rahtz, A. Coskun-Samli (Eds.) *Advances in Quality-of-Life Theory and Research* (pp. 13-26). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic
- Eaton, N. R., Keyes, K. M., Krueger, R. F., Balsis, S., Skodol, A. E., Markon, K. E., & Hasin, D. S. (2012). An invariant dimensional liability model of gender differences in mental disorder prevalence: evidence from a national sample. *Journal of abnormal psychology*, 121(1), 282
- Erikson, E. H. (1950). *Childhood and society*. Paladin.
- Etherton, J., Lawson, M., & Graham, R. (2014). Individual and gender differences in subjective and objective indices of pain: gender, fear of pain, pain catastrophizing and cardiovascular reactivity. *Applied psychophysiology and biofeedback*, 39(2), 89- 97.

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

- Galambos, N. L. (2004). Gender and gender role development in adolescence. In Lerner RML (Ed.), *Handbook of Adolescent Psychology* (pp. 233–262). Hoboken, NJ, US: John Wiley & Sons
- Garside, R. B., & Klimes-Dougan, B. (2002). Socialization of discrete negative emotions: Gender differences and links with psychological distress. *Sex roles*, 47(3-4), 115-12.
- Geary, D. C. (2002). Sexual selection and human life history. In R. Kail (Ed.), *Advances in child development and behaviour*, 30, 41-102. Academic Press.
- Goswami, H. (2012). Social relationships and children's subjective well-being. *Social Indicators Research*, 107(3), 575–588.
- Grant, B. F., & Weissman, M. M. (2007). Gender and the prevalence of psychiatric disorders. In W. E. Narrow, M. B. First, P. J. Sirovatka, & D. A. Regier (Eds.), *Age and gender considerations in psychiatric diagnosis: A research agenda for DSM-V* (pp. 31–45). American Psychiatric Publishing, Inc.
- Hirst, L. (2013). Peer pressure and influence: Its role in hindering and supporting resilience. Available at [www.boingboing.org.uk](http://www.boingboing.org.uk).
- Inglehart, R. (2002). Gender, aging, and subjective well-being. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology*, 43(3-5), 391-408
- Jack, G.U & Deya, G.D., (2017). Relationship between Peer Group Influence and Students' Academic Achievement in Chemistry at Secondary School Level. *American Journal of Educational Research*. 5(4), 350-356.
- Kahneman, D., & Krueger, A. (2006). Developments in the Measurement of Subjective Well-Being, *Journal of Economic Perspectives, American Economic Association*, 20(1), 3-24.
- Kaur, A. (2020). Peer Pressure Scale. Agra: National Psychological corporation.
- Kiran-Esen, B., & Aktug, T. (2003). The investigation of peer pressure and self-esteem in adolescence. *CukurovaUniversitesiEgitimFakultesiDergisi*, 3(33), 13-23.
- Larsen, R.J., & Prizmic, Z. (2006). Multimethod measurement of emotion. In M. Eid and E. Diener (Eds.), *Handbook of measurement: A multimethod perspective* (pp. 337-352). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Lazar, V., & Ravindra, B. (2021). Peer pressure among adolescents in relation to gender and location. *International Journal of Research and Analytical Reviews*, 8(3), 473-477.
- Lee, G. R., Seccombe, K., & Shehan, C. L. (1991). Marital status and personal happiness: An analysis of trend data. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 53(4), 839–844. <https://doi.org/10.2307/352991>
- Leymann, H. (1990). Mobbing and psychological terror at workplaces. *Violence and Victims*, 5, 247-263.
- Lucas, R. E., & Gohm, C. L. (2000). Age and sex differences in subjective well-being across cultures. *Culture and subjective well-being*, 3(2), 91-317.
- McCoy, S.S., Dimler, L.M., Samuels. (2019). Adolescent Susceptibility to Deviant Peer Pressure: Does Gender Matter? *Adolescent Research Review*. 4, 59–71. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40894-017-0071-2>
- Naragon-Gainey, K., Watson, D., & Markon, K. E. (2009). Differential relations of depression and social anxiety symptoms to the facets of extraversion/positive emotionality. *Journal of abnormal psychology*, 118(2), 299.
- Nolen-Hoeksema, S., & Jackson, B. (2001). Mediators of the gender difference in rumination. *Psychology of women quarterly*, 25(1), 37-47.
- Nolen-Hoeksema, S., & Rusting, C. L. (2003). Gender Differences in Well-Being. In D. Kahneman, E. Diener, N. Schwarz. *Well-being: Foundations of hedonic psychology* (pp. 330- 352) New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

- Nolen-Hoeksema, S., Larson, J., & Grayson, C. (1999). Explaining the gender difference in depressive symptoms. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 77(5), 1061.
- Pandey, R., Srivastava, N. (2008). Psychometric evaluation of a Hindi version of positive-negative affect schedule. *Indian Psychiatry Journal*, 17, 49-54.
- Payne, D. C., & Cornwell, B. (2007). Reconsidering peer influences on delinquency: Do less proximate contacts matter? *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, 23(2), 127-149.
- Prinstein, M. J., & Dodge, K. A. (2008). Understanding peer influence in children and adolescents. Guilford Press.
- Rose, A. J., & Rudolph, K. D. (2006). A review of sex differences in peer relationship processes: Potential trade-offs for the emotional and academic adjustment of girls and boys. *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(1), 98–131. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.132.1.98>
- Ryan, A. M. (2000). Peer groups as a context for the socialization of adolescents' motivation, engagement, and achievement in school. *Educational Psychologist*, 35, 101-112. <https://doi.org/cvhffv>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 68–78. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68>
- Santor, D. A., Messervey, D., & Kusumakar, V. (2004). Measuring peer pressure, popularity, and conformity in adolescent boys and girls: Predicting school performance, sexual attitudes, and substance abuse. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 29, 163-182.
- Santos, B. R., Sarriera, J. C., & Bedin, L. M. (2019). Subjective well-being, life satisfaction, and interpersonal relationships associated with socio-demographic and contextual variables. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 14, 819–835. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-018-9611-6>
- Schimmack, U. (2003). Affect measurement in experience sampling research. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 4, 79-106.
- Snyder, C., & Lopez, S. J. (2002). *Handbook of positive psychology*. Oxford University Press.
- Steinberg, L., & Monahan, K. C. (2007). Age differences in resistance to peer influence. *Developmental Psychology*, 43(6), 1531–1543. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.43.6.1531>
- Sumter, S. R., Bokhorst, C. L., Steinberg, L., & Westenberg, P. M. (2008). The developmental pattern of resistance to peer influence in adolescence: Will the teenager ever be able to resist? *Journal of Adolescence*, 32(4), 1009-1021. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.adolescence.2008.08.010>
- Verma, S., & Saraswathi, T. S. (2002). Adolescence in India: Street urchins or silicon valley millionaires? In B. B. Brown, R. W. Larson, & T. S. Saraswathi (Eds.), *The world's youth: Adolescence in eight regions of the globe* (pp. 105–140). Cambridge University Press.
- Vinayak, S., & Arora, A. K. (2018). social anxiety and peer pressure as predictors of materialism among adolescents. *International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Literature*, 6(6), 513–524. <https://oaji.net/articles/2017/488->
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). Negative affectivity: the disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological bulletin*, 96(3), 465.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 1063–1070. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.54.6.1063>
- Wood, W., Rhodes, N., & Whelan, M. (1989). Sex differences in positive well-being: A consideration of emotional style and marital status. *Psychological Bulletin*, 106(2), 249

## Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents

World Health Organization. (2007). *Helping parents in developing countries improve adolescents' health*. Retrieved 4 January 2023 <http://www.inis.ie>

Zuckerman, M., Li, C., & Diener, E. F. (2017). Societal Conditions and the Gender Difference in Well-Being: Testing a Three-Stage Model. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 43(3), 329 – 336.

### ***Acknowledgment***

The author(s) appreciates all those who participated in the study and helped to facilitate the research process.

### ***Conflict of Interest***

The author(s) declared no conflict of interest.

***How to cite this article:*** Goswami, P. & Tiwari, V. (2025). Relationship between Peer Pressure and Emotional Well-being among Adolescents *International Journal of Indian Psychology*, 13(2), 775-787. DIP:18.01.067.20251302, DOI:10.25215/1302.067