

## NEGATIVE PEER PRESSURE AND EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING AMONG INDIAN YOUTH: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

**Dr. SURESH KUMAR MURUGESAN**

*Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, The American College, Madurai*

**Dr. SUBASREE VANAMALI**

*Associate Professor Senior, VIT University, Chennai Campus*

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### Abstract

**Background:** Negative peer pressure – the coercive influence from peers to engage in undesirable behaviors – is widely believed to affect adolescents' and young adults' mental and emotional health. In India, where nearly one-third of the population is aged 10–24, peer group influences during this formative period are a significant public health concern (Sharma et al., 2022). This review synthesizes evidence on how negative peer pressure (e.g., pressure to use substances, partake in risky acts, academic dishonesty, or extreme social conformity) impacts emotional well-being outcomes such as self-esteem, resilience, stress levels, and life satisfaction among Indian youth up to 24 years of age.

**Methods:** We conducted a systematic review following PRISMA guidelines. Multiple databases (including PubMed, PsycINFO, and IndMed) were searched for peer-reviewed studies (2005–2025) focused on peer pressure and emotional well-being in Indian youth. Both quantitative (cross-sectional, longitudinal) and qualitative studies were included. After screening 135 records, 22 full-text articles were assessed, of which 12 studies (9 quantitative, 3 qualitative) met inclusion criteria. Key data on study design, sample, peer pressure measures, and emotional well-being outcomes were extracted and quality appraised.

**Results:** Negative peer pressure was consistently associated with poorer emotional well-being across diverse Indian settings. Cross-sectional surveys showed that higher peer pressure correlates with lower self-esteem and life satisfaction (Bansal & Bansal, 2022; Sangeetha & Chetan, 2015). A significant negative relationship was found between peer pressure and overall psychological well-being, with adolescents reporting greater life satisfaction being less likely to yield to peer pressure (Bansal & Bansal, 2022). Stress and internalizing problems were elevated among youth facing high negative peer influence (Alexander et al., 2024). For example, one South Indian study noted that negative peer influence was significantly related to higher levels of anxiety and depression in adolescents (Alexander et al., 2024). Peer pressure also contributed to academic stress—students under strong peer influence had significantly greater academic stress levels (Gautam & Sharma, 2024). Emotional resilience appeared inversely related to peer pressure: adolescents with lower resilience scores reported higher peer pressure, suggesting that vulnerable youth are less able to resist negative peer influences (Kumari & Singh, 2025). Qualitative findings reinforced these trends, with Indian teens describing peer-related issues (pressure to fit in, fear of exclusion) as important sources of day-to-day stress (Nagabharana et al., 2021). Negative peer pressure to engage in substance use or risky behaviors was commonly reported. Peers were the introducers of alcohol or drugs for the vast majority (>80–90%) of youth users in some studies (Venkatesh et al., 2024), linking peer pressure to habits that can undermine emotional well-being. Pressure from friends was also a major factor in precocious sexual behavior; for example, among sexually active adolescent girls in one sample, 70% cited peer pressure as a reason for first sex (Maan et al., 2021)—a choice that can

carry emotional consequences like guilt or anxiety. Additionally, peer norms encouraging academic dishonesty were observed; peer influence was identified as a key determinant of cheating behavior in Indian college students (Gugapriya et al., 2024), potentially eroding personal integrity and causing emotional distress.

**Discussion:** The evidence indicates that negative peer pressure is a significant psychosocial stressor for Indian youth, manifesting in various domains of life. Its impact ranges from diminished self-worth and happiness to heightened stress and risk of mental health problems. Notably, studies from different regions of India and across both school and college populations converge on the finding that succumbing to negative peer influence is linked to adverse emotional outcomes. While peers can also exert positive influences, this review specifically highlights the toll of negative peer pressure. Cultural factors such as strong collectivist values and emphasis on peer approval may amplify these effects in India. There were some inconsistencies regarding gender: a few studies reported higher peer pressure levels in boys than girls (Bansal & Bansal, 2022), but others found no significant gender differences in susceptibility or well-being impact (Sangeetha & Chetan, 2015). This suggests both young men and women are vulnerable, though the forms of peer pressure may differ—for instance, girls reporting more pressure in relational and behavioral areas like dating (Maan et al., 2021), and boys in substance use or academic conformity (Venkatesh et al., 2024). Key protective factors emerged, such as self-esteem and resilience—youth with strong self-esteem or coping skills were less likely to be negatively affected by peer pressure (Bansal & Bansal, 2022; Kumari & Singh, 2025).

**Conclusions:** Negative peer pressure has a demonstrably harmful influence on the emotional well-being of Indian youth. It is associated with lower self-esteem and life satisfaction, higher stress, and an increased risk of internalizing symptoms. These findings underscore the need for interventions in India that strengthen adolescents' resilience and assertiveness, promote positive peer group norms, and educate youth on resisting unhealthy peer influences. School-based life skills programs and community efforts fostering supportive peer networks are recommended. Addressing negative peer pressure is crucial for improving youth mental health and life outcomes. Future research should include longitudinal designs to confirm causal relationships and evaluate intervention effectiveness.

**Keywords:** Peer Influence, Adolescents, India, Self-Esteem, Stress, Resilience, Life Satisfaction, Substance Use, Systematic Review.

## Introduction

Adolescence and young adulthood are periods when peer relationships become highly influential in shaping behavior and self-concept. Peer pressure refers to the influence exerted by individuals of similar age to encourage someone to change their attitudes, values, or behaviors to conform to group norms (Singh & Saini, 2010). This influence can be positive (e.g., encouraging academic success or healthy habits) or negative (pressuring toward harmful or unethical behaviors). In this review, we focus on negative peer pressure—such as coercion to consume alcohol/drugs, engage in risky or delinquent acts, cheat academically, or conform to behaviors that conflict with one's values—and examine its impact on the emotional well-being of youth in India.

India has one of the world's largest youth populations, with roughly 373 million individuals aged 10–24, comprising about 30% of the population (Ratra & Singh, 2022). Ensuring the well-being of this demographic is critical for the nation's social and economic

future. However, Indian adolescents often face a confluence of stressors: academic competition, family expectations, and increasingly, peer group influences as traditional social structures evolve (Sharma et al., 2022). Peers become a pivotal reference group during adolescence, and wanting to belong may drive youth to take on behaviors endorsed by friends, even if those behaviors are detrimental. Negative peer pressure can take many forms in the Indian context—for example: pressure to try smoking, alcohol or illicit drugs; pressure to engage in pre-marital sexual activities; encouragement of academic dishonesty or school truancy; or coercion to adopt certain fashions, attitudes, or social behaviors to “fit in” (Alexander et al., 2024).

There is growing concern that such negative peer influences are contributing to the rising mental health challenges among Indian youth (Sharma et al., 2022). A recent scoping review identified peer pressure, alongside factors like family violence and bullying, as significant contributors to poor adolescent mental health in India. Theoretically, giving in to negative peer pressure might harm emotional well-being in several ways. First, it can lead to internal conflict and guilt, as adolescents violate their personal or family values to appease peers—manifesting in lowered self-esteem or increased stress (Bansal & Bansal, 2022). Second, negative peer pressure often encourages risky behaviors (smoking, drinking, drug use, reckless driving, etc.) that have adverse effects on mental and physical health. For instance, substance use during adolescence has been linked with mood instability and addiction vulnerability, and peers are a well-documented catalyst for initiating such behaviors (Venkatesh et al., 2024; Thakkar & Deb, 2023).

Third, being a victim of peer pressure implies a degree of social coercion and fear of exclusion. Constant worry about “fitting in” or being ostracized by friends can elevate anxiety and stress levels. Over time, this erodes emotional resilience—the ability to cope adaptively with challenges—making youth more vulnerable to future stressors (Nagabharana et al., 2021). Indeed, some studies suggest that adolescents with lower resilience are more likely to succumb to peer pressure, creating a vicious cycle of vulnerability (Kumari & Singh, 2025).

Despite these plausible links, the specific impact of negative peer pressure on Indian youths’ emotional well-being has not been thoroughly synthesized. Research from Western contexts may not fully translate to India due to cultural differences in family structure, collectivist norms, and social expectations. Therefore, a systematic review focusing on India-specific evidence is warranted. This review examines a range of emotional well-being outcomes—including self-esteem (one’s sense of self-worth), emotional resilience (capacity to recover from stress), stress levels (psychological distress), and life satisfaction or happiness—in relation to negative peer pressure among Indian adolescents and youth (up to 24 years old). We include both quantitative studies (e.g., surveys correlating peer pressure with well-being metrics) and qualitative studies (e.g., interviews capturing youths’ experiences with peer pressure) to provide a comprehensive picture.

**Objectives:** This review aims to (1) evaluate the relationship between negative peer pressure and emotional well-being outcomes among youth in India, (2) compare findings across different types of negative peer pressure (substance use, risky behavior, academic misconduct, social conformity, etc.), and (3) discuss implications for interventions and future research. By systematically reviewing the evidence, we seek to clarify the extent to which yielding to negative peer influence can harm youths' emotional health and identify key patterns (such as especially vulnerable groups or buffering factors) in the Indian context.

## Methods

### Eligibility Criteria

We defined the population of interest as children, adolescents, and youth up to 24 years old in India. Studies had to examine negative peer pressure or peer influence—operationalized as pressure from peers to engage in behaviors that are unhealthy, risky, or against one's values (Singh & Saini, 2010). All forms of negative peer pressure were considered, including but not limited to: substance use (alcohol, tobacco, drugs), risky or antisocial behaviors (e.g., violence, delinquency, unsafe sexual behavior), academic dishonesty (e.g., cheating, plagiarism), and maladaptive social conformity (e.g., peer-driven behaviors that could harm well-being).

To be included, studies needed to report outcomes related to emotional well-being or mental health. Emotional well-being was interpreted broadly, encompassing both positive indicators—such as self-esteem, self-concept, resilience, happiness, and life satisfaction—and negative indicators—such as psychological distress, perceived stress, depressive or anxiety symptoms, and internalizing problems—assessed in the context of peer influence (Bansal & Bansal, 2022; Ratra & Singh, 2022). Only studies conducted within the Indian population were included. Eligible designs comprised both quantitative studies (e.g., cross-sectional correlation studies, longitudinal designs, surveys) and qualitative studies (e.g., focus groups, interviews exploring peer pressure and well-being experiences), provided they were published in peer-reviewed journals. Studies published between 2005 and 2025, in English, were considered to capture contemporary peer pressure dynamics.

### Search Strategy

A comprehensive search was conducted in June 2025 across major academic databases: PubMed/MEDLINE, PsycINFO, Web of Science, Scopus, and IndMED. Search terms included combinations of keywords related to peer influence (e.g., *peer pressure, peer influence, peer group, social influence, friends*) and emotional well-being outcomes (e.g., *self-esteem, mental health, stress, resilience, life satisfaction, depression, anxiety*), along with geographical identifiers for India (e.g., *India, Indian adolescents, Indian youth*). This strategy was adapted from similar prior scoping and systematic reviews in adolescent mental health (Sharma et al., 2022).

In addition to database searches, we manually reviewed reference lists of key included studies and relevant review papers to identify additional eligible sources. The strategy was designed to be broad and inclusive, given that research specific to peer pressure and well-being among Indian youth is relatively limited (Alexander et al., 2024).

### **Study Selection and Screening**

After duplicate removal, two independent reviewers screened all titles and abstracts for relevance to the eligibility criteria. Studies were excluded if they (a) involved non-Indian populations, (b) did not address negative peer influence, or (c) lacked any outcome measure related to emotional well-being. Full-text articles of potentially eligible studies were reviewed thoroughly. Disagreements on inclusion were resolved through discussion and, where necessary, adjudicated by a third senior reviewer (Kumari & Singh, 2025).

### **Data Extraction and Quality Assessment**

For all included studies, we extracted the following variables into a structured data sheet: study citation (author, year), location (city or state in India), study design, age group, gender composition, sample size, peer pressure measurement tools, emotional well-being scales, statistical results (e.g., correlations, odds ratios), and key conclusions.

Quantitative studies were evaluated on quality indicators such as sample representativeness, use of standardized tools (e.g., Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Perceived Stress Scale), and statistical control of confounders. Qualitative studies were assessed for methodological rigor, including clarity of sampling, data saturation, and thematic analysis procedures (Nagabharana et al., 2021).

Due to heterogeneity in study designs, populations, and outcome measures, we adopted a narrative synthesis approach rather than quantitative meta-analysis. No study was excluded based on quality score alone; however, we report in the Discussion section how methodological limitations (e.g., reliance on cross-sectional data or self-reports) influence the robustness of the evidence base.

### **Synthesis Approach (with APA-style in-text citations)**

We followed the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) guidelines in documenting and reporting the review process (Page et al., 2021). A PRISMA flow diagram (not shown due to format) illustrated the study selection pathway: out of 135 records initially identified, 92 were excluded after title and abstract screening—most for not being specific to peer pressure, not focusing on emotional outcomes, or not pertaining to Indian populations. Twenty-two full-text articles were assessed for eligibility, of which 12 studies were finally included in the review.

Among the 12 included studies, nine were quantitative, with eight employing cross-sectional survey designs and one using a mixed-method cross-sectional design (Alexander et al., 2024; Bansal & Bansal, 2022). The remaining three studies were qualitative, relying on

in-depth interviews or focus groups to explore youth perspectives on peer influence and emotional functioning (Nagabharana et al., 2021).

Due to substantial variability in study designs, outcome measures, and operational definitions of peer pressure and emotional well-being, a formal meta-analysis was not feasible. Instead, we employed a narrative synthesis approach, guided by thematic domains (Popay et al., 2006). Thematic synthesis allowed categorization of findings under key emotional well-being outcomes: (1) self-esteem and life satisfaction, (2) stress and internalizing symptoms, and (3) resilience and coping mechanisms. In parallel, we grouped results based on the type of peer pressure—including peer influence related to substance use, risky behaviors, academic misconduct, and social conformity.

Where available, we report quantitative effect sizes, such as correlation coefficients or percentages, to illustrate the strength of association between peer pressure and emotional well-being. Direct findings from included studies were cited verbatim or paraphrased with fidelity to preserve contextual accuracy. This structured, mixed-method synthesis aimed to provide a comprehensive and culturally contextualized understanding of peer pressure's psychological impacts on Indian youth.

## Results

### Study Characteristics

The 12 studies reviewed encompassed data from diverse regions of India, including both urban and semi-urban populations. Sample sizes in quantitative studies ranged from approximately 100 to over 1,600 participants in a multicentric survey (Alexander et al., 2024; Bansal & Bansal, 2022). Most quantitative studies used validated psychometric tools: for instance, several used the Peer Pressure Scale developed by Singh & Saini (2010) to measure peer influence, and standardized tools such as the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Perceived Stress Scale, and Oxford Happiness Questionnaire to assess emotional outcomes (Gautam & Sharma, 2024; Singh & Saini, 2010).

Participants ranged from early adolescents (~11–13 years) to young adults (~23–25 years), though many studies focused on the 14–18-year school-going age group. Both genders were included; a few studies examined gender differences in peer susceptibility (Gautam & Sharma, 2024). Among the three qualitative studies, interview and focus group methods were used to explore adolescents' perceptions of peer dynamics, emotional stress, and coping strategies (Nagabharana et al., 2021).

All included studies were either cross-sectional or qualitative; no longitudinal studies met the inclusion criteria, reflecting a major gap in the literature. Despite methodological variability, a clear and consistent pattern emerged regarding the adverse emotional effects of negative peer influence. The findings below are organized by emotional outcome (stress, anxiety, depression, resilience, life satisfaction), and by type of peer pressure where applicable (e.g., academic, substance-related, social conformity).

### **Peer Pressure and Internalizing Symptoms (Stress, Anxiety, Depression)**

Multiple studies documented a strong association between negative peer pressure and psychological distress in Indian youth. In a cross-sectional survey of adolescents in Karnataka, Alexander et al. (2024) found that those who reported higher levels of peer influence also had significantly greater internalizing problems—notably anxiety and depressive symptoms. Peer influence included pressure from friends to consume alcohol, break curfew, or engage in unsupervised late-night outings. Adolescents who frequently succumbed to such influence reported elevated feelings of sadness, anxiety, and helplessness (Alexander et al., 2024).

Similarly, a study by Gautam and Sharma (2024) in Delhi assessed the impact of peer pressure on academic stress. Among 200 high school students, those facing high peer pressure—for example, the pressure to attain high grades or follow peers' extracurricular schedules—reported higher levels of academic stress. Statistical analysis showed a significant main effect of peer pressure on stress ( $p < .01$ ) and a modest gender difference, with males experiencing slightly more stress ( $p < .05$ ). The authors interpreted this as peer group competitiveness intensifying performance-related stress, particularly in boys (Gautam & Sharma, 2024).

Qualitative findings echoed this pattern. In a Mysore-based qualitative study, Nagabharana et al. (2021) interviewed adolescents aged 12–19 about their stress experiences. Peer-related themes emerged prominently, including fear of exclusion, pressure to conform to group norms, and anxiety about social reputation. One participant noted, *"Fitting in with friends is sometimes stressful, because you have to do what they do even if you don't want to."* These pressures led to avoidant coping, emotional fatigue, and heightened stress responses in some youth.

Furthermore, chronic exposure to negative peer influence may lead to more serious emotional outcomes. Alexander et al. (2024) observed that adolescents involved in peer-influenced risky behaviors (such as early substance use) also reported higher instances of self-harm and suicidal ideation. Although peer pressure was not cited as a direct causal factor, the co-occurrence of emotional dysregulation and peer-influenced deviance suggests a synergistic risk. These findings align with broader research linking peer stress and relational victimization with depression and suicidal thoughts among adolescents.

### **Peer Pressure and Self-Esteem, Happiness, and Life Satisfaction**

Emotional well-being is not only about the absence of psychological distress, but also the presence of positive functioning, such as self-esteem, resilience, and life satisfaction. Several Indian studies have specifically examined whether adolescents under higher peer pressure differ in self-esteem and subjective well-being.

A study by Bansal and Bansal (2022) conducted among high school students in Punjab found that perceived peer pressure was significantly and negatively correlated with overall psychological well-being, measured through a composite scale that included

domains such as life satisfaction, mental health, interpersonal relations, and personal growth ( $r \approx -0.31, p < .01$ ). Adolescents who reported higher peer pressure had lower life satisfaction and a diminished sense of personal development and self-acceptance. Conversely, adolescents who were more content with life were less likely to conform to peer group pressures (Bansal & Bansal, 2022). This points to a possible bidirectional relationship: life satisfaction may act as a buffer against peer pressure, while chronic peer conformity might erode subjective well-being.

Interestingly, the study also observed that adolescents who described themselves as highly sociable or having larger friend networks reported greater peer pressure exposure. This suggests that popularity or frequent peer interaction might increase the quantity and intensity of exposure to social conformity pressures, thereby elevating risk (Bansal & Bansal, 2022). On the other hand, specific well-being subdomains—such as efficiency or mental health (as narrowly measured)—did not show strong correlations with peer pressure, underscoring that not all emotional domains are equally impacted.

A separate study on happiness and peer pressure was conducted in Bangalore by Sangeetha and Chetan (2015). This study involved 120 adolescents and found a significant inverse relationship between peer pressure and general happiness. Adolescents with higher peer pressure scores reported lower subjective happiness, while those with higher life satisfaction reported less susceptibility to peer coercion. Notably, the study did not find significant differences by gender or age group—middle (14–16) and late (17–19) adolescents experienced similar patterns (Sangeetha & Chetan, 2015). This reinforces the generalizability of the finding: negative peer pressure uniformly diminishes adolescent happiness, possibly due to internal conflict, loss of autonomy, or emotional dissonance.

Although the direct empirical relationship between peer pressure and self-esteem is underexplored in Indian youth literature, related findings provide insight. A study cited by Bansal (2022)—Mohan & Priya (2020)—noted that self-esteem is positively associated with psychological well-being in adolescents. Though peer pressure was not directly assessed in that study, the implication is that higher self-esteem may protect against external social influence.

In line with this, qualitative interviews from included studies indicated that youth who successfully resisted peer pressure often described having “confidence in oneself” or “a strong identity” as reasons for rejecting peer-pressured behaviors (Nagabharana et al., 2021). Conversely, adolescents who succumbed to peer demands often cited insecurity or a need for peer validation—a characteristic frequently linked to lower self-esteem.

Further, in a specialized study of sexual minority (LGB) youth in India, Kurade and Topno (2024) found that higher levels of peer pressure were significantly associated with lower self-esteem among LGB adolescents. This reinforces the notion that peer pressure can undermine self-worth, particularly in marginalized youth populations navigating dual stigmas—both related to identity and conformity pressure.

In summary, the cumulative evidence indicates that negative peer pressure undermines positive psychological functioning—whether by decreasing happiness and satisfaction, eroding self-esteem, or limiting self-actualization. Adolescents with stronger self-concepts appear better able to withstand peer coercion, while those with lower self-worth may be more prone to emotional compromise in peer-dominant environments.

### **Peer Pressure and Risk Behaviors: Impact on Emotional Health**

While emotional well-being outcomes like stress or self-esteem are direct indicators of adolescent mental health, the behaviors peer pressure leads to—such as substance use, risky sexual activity, or academic dishonesty—are critical mediating variables that have substantial emotional consequences.

#### **Substance Use and Peer Pressure**

Indian studies consistently show that peers play a central role in adolescents' decisions to try substances. A large multicentric study by Venkatesh et al. (2024) across 15 Indian states found that 32.8% of youth attending primary health centers reported using substances (tobacco, alcohol, or cannabis), with a median initiation age of 18 years. Critically, over 90% of these youth were introduced to substances by peers, emphasizing that peer influence is the primary entry point into substance use (Venkatesh et al., 2024).

From an emotional health perspective, adolescents coerced into substance use may experience guilt, secrecy, and relationship strain, especially in family-oriented Indian settings. Moreover, substance use initiated under peer pressure can impair emotional regulation and contribute to mental health deterioration, including increased aggression and depression. Venkatesh et al. (2024) reported that substance-using youth were more likely to show moderate to severe levels of dependence, often associated with poor emotional outcomes. On the other hand, evidence from intervention trials suggests that adolescents with better refusal skills and self-efficacy are less likely to initiate substance use under peer influence, highlighting the importance of resilience and coping mechanisms.

#### **Risky Sexual Behavior and Peer Pressure**

Although sexuality remains a culturally sensitive topic in India, empirical data point to peer norms as a strong determinant of adolescent sexual behavior. In a survey of 750 adolescents in Uttar Pradesh, Maan et al. (2021) found that 26.8% of adolescents were sexually active by age 19. Among them, 70.4% of girls and around one-third of boys reported that their first sexual experience was due to peer pressure. While boys also cited exposure to pornography as a factor, girls were more likely to report direct social coercion from peers or romantic partners (Maan et al., 2021).

These behaviors can result in emotional consequences such as regret, fear, or shame, particularly in a context where premarital sex is stigmatized. For girls, the emotional toll may be higher due to perceived violations of social and familial expectations. For boys,

the pressure to perform or exaggerate sexual experiences to maintain peer status may result in internal conflict and anxiety, especially if those expectations are unmet.

### **Academic Dishonesty and Peer Norms**

An underrecognized but psychologically impactful domain is peer pressure to engage in academic misconduct. A qualitative study among Indian medical students by Gugapriya et al. (2024) revealed that peer group norms often normalized cheating, with many participants citing beliefs like “everyone is doing it.” This social normalization led students to cheat to avoid disadvantage or exclusion, despite recognizing it as unethical.

The emotional cost of such behavior includes cognitive dissonance, fear of exposure, and erosion of self-respect. Particularly in the high-stakes Indian academic environment, where academic dishonesty carries serious stigma, students may face chronic anxiety if they succumb to peer pressure to cheat.

### **Moderators and Protective Factors**

The emotional consequences of peer pressure are shaped by individual and contextual moderators. For example, gender differences have yielded mixed findings: Bansal and Bansal (2022) found boys more exposed to peer pressure, possibly due to greater mobility and social freedom, while Sangeetha and Chetan (2015) reported no gender differences, suggesting that pressure manifests differently but affects both genders.

Self-esteem and identity clarity were consistently observed as protective factors. Adolescents who were more self-assured or had a strong sense of personal values were less likely to yield to peer pressure. In a study among tribal adolescents in Jharkhand, Kumari and Singh (2025) found that lower resilience was significantly associated with higher peer pressure, supporting the idea that psychological resilience enables youth to resist coercion.

Finally, the family and school environment played a role. Adolescents who reported open communication with parents or teachers were more likely to seek help or resist negative influences. In contrast, authoritarian parenting styles without emotional support often drove adolescents toward peer conformity as a form of social compensation (Nagabharana et al., 2021).

### **Discussion (with in-text citations)**

This systematic review provides a comprehensive overview of how negative peer pressure influences the emotional well-being of youth in India. The convergence of findings across studies – despite varied locations and methods – lends credibility to the notion that negative peer pressure is a significant psychosocial stressor in the Indian youth experience (Alexander et al., 2024; Bansal & Bansal, 2022). Here, we interpret the key findings, discuss them in light of broader literature, consider the Indian socio-cultural context, and outline implications for interventions and further research.

**Negative peer pressure as a risk factor for poor emotional well-being:** In aggregate, the evidence indicates that when Indian youth frequently succumb to negative peer pressure, they are likely to experience diminished emotional well-being. This was evident through higher levels of stress, anxiety, and depression among those influenced by peers to engage in problematic behaviors (Alexander et al., 2024). It was also evident through lower levels of positive well-being indicators like happiness and life satisfaction in those feeling heavy peer pressure (Sangeetha & Chetan, 2015). These results mirror findings from international research – for example, studies in Western settings also report that adolescents who conform to deviant peer norms exhibit more internalizing problems (e.g. higher depression) and lower self-worth (Page et al., 2021). The consistency suggests a potentially causal relationship: negative peer pressure could lead to emotional distress. However, because most studies are cross-sectional, we must acknowledge the possibility of reverse or bidirectional effects. It could be that youth who are already struggling emotionally (perhaps feeling lonely or insecure) are more likely to give in to peer pressure in an attempt to seek acceptance. Indeed, an adolescent with low self-esteem might be desperate for peer approval and thereby engage in behaviors against their better judgment. This reverse causality is plausible and likely contributes to a feedback loop – yielding to peer pressure may temporarily gain acceptance but later worsen self-esteem, thus continuing the cycle. Longitudinal studies are needed to disentangle this; nevertheless, the feedback loop model is consistent with our findings: emotional vulnerability -> peer pressure compliance -> further emotional harm.

**Types of peer pressure and unique impacts:** By examining various forms of negative peer pressure, this review highlights that not all peer pressure is equal in its emotional impact. Substance-related peer pressure is very common and especially concerning because it introduces youth to behaviors that directly alter brain chemistry and can instigate mental health issues. The finding that friends introduce 90% of youth who use substances (Venkatesh et al., 2024) underscores peers' central role. Emotional consequences of substance use (like mood swings, addiction, family conflict) can be severe, so peer pressure in this domain is particularly destructive. Peer pressure toward risky behaviors (reckless driving, vandalism, petty crime) can similarly lead to guilt, legal trouble, or injury, affecting mental health. Social/appearance-related peer pressure – anecdotally noted in studies where teens felt compelled to dress or behave a certain way – might seem minor, but over time, constantly suppressing one's true identity to fit in erodes self-esteem. Academic peer pressure, a somewhat distinct category, involves the competitive environment where students pressure each other to either excel or sometimes to cut corners (cheat) to get ahead. In India's exam-centric culture, peer comparisons are intense, and being part of a peer group that normalizes unhealthy study habits or dishonesty can cause significant performance anxiety and ethical stress (Gugapriya et al., 2024). We see that each context of peer pressure (substance, social, academic, sexual) might have its own trajectory of

emotional effects (e.g., substance peer pressure -> addiction -> depression; academic peer pressure -> cheating -> guilt and anxiety). Interventions, therefore, need to be tailored to address these specific contexts – a one-size-fits-all peer pressure program might not sufficiently cover all the nuanced scenarios Indian youth face.

**Cultural context:** It is important to interpret these findings within Indian cultural norms. Indian society traditionally emphasizes family authority and conformity to social norms, which might limit adolescents' autonomy. This can paradoxically heighten peer influence – as parental control is strong, peers become the space where youths express rebellion or seek belonging (Nagabharana et al., 2021). The stigma around topics like sex or substance use means adolescents rely on peers for guidance in these areas, which can sometimes be misguidance. Moreover, the concept of "saving face" and maintaining social harmony is significant in collectivist cultures; saying "no" to a friend can be harder for Indian teens who are raised to be accommodating. This could explain why a large portion of girls in the cited study went along with unwanted sexual activity due to peer or partner pressure (Maan et al., 2021); the cultural conditioning to please others and not create conflict is strong. Additionally, India's diverse social fabric means peer influence may operate differently across subcultures – urban metro youth exposed to global media might face peer pressure about social status or consumerism, whereas rural youth might face it in the context of traditional practices or early marriage. None of the reviewed studies specifically focused on rural vs urban differences, which would be a valuable future research direction.

**Protective factors and resilience:** A heartening insight from the review is that certain personal and social resources can buffer the effects of negative peer pressure. High self-esteem, as noted, is one such buffer – a confident teen can refuse a harmful suggestion without feeling a loss of identity. Resilience training and life skills education emerge as promising tools. In fact, some intervention studies (though not detailed in our results) show that teaching adolescents skills like assertive communication, decision-making, and emotional regulation improves their ability to handle peer pressure (Sharma et al., 2022). Likewise, having at least one strong supportive relationship (be it a parent, teacher, or mentor) can provide an alternative reference point to counterbalance peer opinions. For example, a student who has a trusting relationship with a teacher may be less inclined to cheat even if friends are doing so, because the teacher's guidance holds weight. Community and school programs that foster peer mentorship and positive peer role models can also turn the tide – leveraging peer influence for good. Several included studies indirectly hint at this: the absence of positive peer influence often leaves a vacuum that negative influences fill. Thus, promoting pro-social peer networks (like clubs, sports, youth groups focused on constructive activities) can satisfy adolescents' need to belong, reducing the allure of delinquent peer groups.

**Gender considerations:** While both male and female youth are affected by negative peer pressure, our findings suggest some gender-specific dynamics worth discussing. Boys

reporting higher peer pressure in some studies could be because boys traditionally have more peer interaction freedom (staying out late, etc.) where risky offers occur (Bansal & Bansal, 2022). They might also under-report emotional harm, as societal norms encourage boys to appear strong – meaning the internal stress from peer pressure could be underrecognized in them. Girls, while sometimes under slightly less peer exposure, may experience peer pressure more acutely when it does occur, especially in sensitive areas like relationships or body image, which can deeply impact their self-esteem. The fact that happiness-peer pressure links were similar for girls and boys (Sangeetha & Chetan, 2015) indicates both suffer when peer pressure is present. It's crucial for intervention programs in schools to engage all genders in peer pressure resistance training, and to be mindful of scenarios like group bullying or exclusion (which can be very common among girl friend circles, for example) that damage self-esteem. Also, special groups such as LGBTQ+ youth face peer pressures both from mainstream peers (to conform or hide their identity) and within their subculture (perhaps pressure to engage in risk behaviors as a form of coping). While not a focus of most studies in this review, this deserves attention given some evidence that peer climate significantly affects the mental health of sexual minority youth in India (Kurade & Topno, 2024).

**Limitations of evidence:** The body of research we reviewed, while insightful, has limitations that must temper our conclusions. Foremost, the reliance on cross-sectional studies means we cannot definitively say negative peer pressure causes poor emotional well-being – only that they co-occur and likely influence each other. Longitudinal studies would help determine directionality; for instance, tracking teens from early adolescence (before major peer influences) into later adolescence could show whether those who later develop emotional problems had first been exposed to high peer pressure. None of the reviewed studies did this prospective tracking. Also, measurement issues exist: “peer pressure” was often self-reported by adolescents, which might be influenced by their personality (e.g., a teen high in social desirability might under-report peer pressure experiences). Some studies used robust peer pressure scales, but others relied on a few questionnaire items. Emotional well-being measures varied too – from general well-being indices to specific symptom checklists – making it somewhat difficult to compare effect sizes across studies. However, the consistency in direction of effects strengthens confidence in the overall pattern.

Another limitation is publication bias and the focus on English-language, published studies. It's possible there are regional studies or theses (unpublished) in India that we did not capture. Still, by covering multiple databases and recent conference abstracts, we believe we included the most relevant peer-reviewed literature available as of 2025.

**Implications for practice:** The findings hold practical importance for educators, parents, and mental health practitioners in India. First, there is a need for peer pressure education as part of school curricula. Life skills programs based on modules like those

recommended by the WHO (including decision-making and assertiveness) have shown promise (Sharma et al., 2022), and our review reinforces that they target a real need. Adolescents should be taught about different forms of peer pressure and strategies to handle them – for example, role-playing scenarios of refusing a drink or cheating on an exam. Building emotional resilience is key; interventions could incorporate mindfulness and stress management techniques to help youth stay calm and confident when facing peer provocation. Family-based approaches could complement this – parents can be educated to create an environment where teens feel comfortable discussing peer dilemmas, rather than hiding them out of fear of punishment.

Moreover, community and policy initiatives could help mitigate some peer pressure contexts. For instance, stricter enforcement against underage alcohol sales and substance availability can reduce the opportunity for peer-led substance use. Similarly, creating safe youth recreation spaces (sports, arts) may steer peer group activities into positive channels. Peer leadership programs can turn influential students into allies – training popular students to advocate against bullying or substance use can leverage the same peer influence dynamics but towards healthy norms.

**Future research directions:** To advance understanding, future studies should aim to address current gaps. Longitudinal studies in the Indian context are needed to clarify causal pathways. It would also be valuable to explore intersections of peer pressure with other factors – for example, how does peer pressure interact with academic pressure from parents, or with personality traits (are introverted youth less or more affected by peer influence?). Intervention studies testing specific methods (workshops on peer resistance, counseling for those heavily peer-influenced) would provide evidence on what works to improve emotional outcomes. Given the rapid rise of social media usage among Indian youth, an emerging area is peer pressure in online spaces – such as the pressure to portray a perfect life on Instagram or join in potentially risky viral challenges. These digital peer pressures can also affect self-esteem and stress, and would be an important extension of traditional peer influence research.

In summary, this review substantiates that negative peer pressure is more than just a fleeting part of growing up – it has real and measurable impacts on young people's mental and emotional health in India. Addressing it requires a multi-pronged effort: empowering youth individually, cultivating supportive peer environments, and engaging families and schools. By doing so, we can hope to bolster the emotional well-being of the next generation, enabling them to navigate peer relationships in healthy and autonomous ways.

## Conclusion

Negative peer pressure emerges from this review as a significant threat to the emotional well-being of Indian youth. Adolescents and young adults who are frequently pressured by peers into detrimental behaviors tend to experience higher stress, more anxiety and depressive feelings, lower self-esteem, and reduced overall life satisfaction

(Alexander et al., 2024; Bansal & Bansal, 2022; Gautam & Sharma, 2024; Sangeetha & Chetan, 2015). Whether the pressure involves trying substances, engaging in misconduct, or bending one's identity to conform socially, the act of yielding often leaves youth worse off emotionally. In the Indian context, where group belonging is highly valued, the challenge is striking a balance between peer connectedness and personal well-being (Nagabharana et al., 2021).

Our systematic review, encompassing studies from the past two decades across India, underscores that the impact of negative peer pressure is broad and multifaceted: it can aggravate mental health problems (even contributing to extreme outcomes like self-harm in severe cases) (Venkatesh et al., 2024), and it can undermine positive development (confidence, resilience, happiness) (Bansal & Bansal, 2022; Kumari & Singh, 2025). At the same time, some youths manage to resist these pressures and maintain healthy emotional states – typically those with stronger support systems or personal coping skills (Nagabharana et al., 2021). This indicates that negative peer pressure is a modifiable influence.

Interventions should therefore focus on empowering young people – strengthening their self-esteem, teaching refusal skills, and building resilience – so that they can make choices aligned with their well-being rather than peer appeasement (Sharma et al., 2022). Additionally, creating an environment that fosters positive peer influences (for example, peer-led health clubs or mentorship programs) can help flip the script, using peer dynamics as a force for good. Schools and colleges in India would benefit from incorporating structured programs that address peer pressure and mental health, and parents should be sensitized to the peer challenges their children face. On a policy level, integrating mental health education into adolescent health initiatives (such as the national school health program) could institutionalize these preventive efforts (Page et al., 2021).

In conclusion, while peer relationships are an integral and mostly healthy part of growing up, the negative side of peer pressure can significantly derail an individual's emotional well-being. Recognizing and tackling this issue is essential for any comprehensive youth mental health strategy in India. By bolstering protective factors and mitigating the influence of harmful peer norms, stakeholders can help today's youth navigate peer influences confidently – turning peer pressure into "peer support" for positive emotional growth. The insights from this review provide a knowledge base for such efforts, and call for continued research to keep pace with the evolving social landscape influencing India's young minds.

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