

## Media Consumption and National Identity Formation of Adolescents in Pakistan

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### Abstract

The study explores relationship between media consumption patterns of adolescents, with other intervening variables, and formation of national identity. The research proposes a model of political socialization to understand the relationship among adolescents' demographics (gender, age, school), mass media consumption (electronic, and print media), and place of discussion with interpersonal agents (parents, peers, relatives and teachers) for the formation of national identity. Adolescents from private, public and madrassa (religious) schools of Lahore city are the population of the research. The sub-constructs of national identity; national attachment, symbolic patriotism, constructive patriotism, uncritical patriotism, national pride, and nationalism are tested by Cronbach Alpha. Findings show that in outer loading factors school, print media consumption, and the place of media discussion with parents are the most significant factors in formation of national identity.

**Key Words:** *National Identity; Adolescents; Media Consumption; Place of Media Discussion*

### Introduction

The very birth of national awareness in the 18<sup>th</sup> century is linked to the invention of print media which allowed people to imagine themselves as members of a community, sharing the same

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experiences and information (Anderson,1991). In recent times, we must add radio, television, internet, and all other means of mass communication which make it possible for people to both imagine and relate to others as fellow members of the same national community, despite geographical distances (Adam, 1992; Calhoun, 1991; Condor, 1996; Giddens, 1990). To elaborate further, identifying with others and gaining sense of belonging, Cerulo (1997) noted in her assessment of identity construction research, that collective identities are socially constructed rather than inherent. Pye (2004) noted, "it is the emergence of the mass media that play a critical role in the development of a national language and it serve vital functions in helping the people [to] create a sense of national belonging" (p. 50).

Media play a pivotal role in reinforcing national identity as a part of everyday practice and play a key role in the creation and maintenance of the national identity and national narrative(Carey, 1992). Media consumption constitutes a kind of group ritual akin to 'attending a mass' (p. 20) that provides orientation and a sense of fellowship, media content also utilizes discursive strategies of national identity construction. Media coverage is likely to reflect the national identity of a nation because journalists tend to reflect similar values and beliefs as the rest of the nation, especially when it is threatened. The news coverage "seems likely to reflect nationalist themes in crisis situations in which there is a perceived threat to national interests or national security" (Hutcheson et al., 2004, p. 31).

### **Media and Adolescents' National Identity Formation**

Adolescents are heavy users of all forms of media (Arnett, Larson, & Offer, 1995) and media play an important role in providing information as well as cultural materials to young people regarding gender roles, occupations, political values which consequently form their national identity (Arnett, 1995; Brown, Childers, & Waszak, 1990).

In mass media research, the Uses and Gratification approach guides to study the inspiration and conduct of individuals to understand the impact of media use (Rubin, 1993). McQuail explains individual media use in four categories: information, personal identity, integration and social interaction, and entertainment (1984, 1987). These all help adolescents develop their national identity (McQuail, 1984, 1987; Rubin, 1993). Blank, Schmidt, and Westle (2001) propose to use the term “national identification” to describe the intensity of feelings towards one’s nation and, also, the terms ‘nationalism’ and ‘patriotism’ for questions of content or type of national identity. For the research in hand, the foundation to grasp the concept of ‘national identity’ is set on this understanding. The mass media’s role in national identity by Pye (2004) sets the foundations for the present research that the consumption of media is directly related to the formation of national identity because journalists tell stories to their readers by linking present and past as highlighted by Le (2006). All texts with a wide audience are important in the “common-sensical construction” of the nation (Sharp, 1993, pp. 494–95).

**Contributing roles of Parents, Peers, Relatives, and Teachers**

**inAdolescents' National Identity Formation**

Many of the functions of media figures in adolescence also seem to be inherited from those of parents—as role models, guides, and teachers. Hermes (1995) has likened media figures to an “extended family” and suggests that peer gossip about such figures is important for developing shared standards of morality. In the past research, schools have been thought to shape students’ views by providing knowledge and skills (Campbell et al., 1960; Delli Carpini & Keeter, 1996; Milner, 2002; Nie, Junn & Stehlik-Barry, 1996; Niemi & Junn, 1998), whereas, parents to shape them through various unidirectional mechanisms (Pancer & Pratt 1999). While media tend to be seen as influential and young people as passive recipients of exposure (Chaffee & Yang 1990).

The discussions which adolescents initiate with their parents about political issues drive their political identification and development (McDevitt, 2005). The idea is that friends, media, and school stimulate youths to engage their parents in discussions, and when parents convey their views, youths can be influenced by them (Kiouisis, McDevitt & Wu, 2005).

A number of studies have tried to compare the relative expounding power of media, education, and family (Buckingham, 2000). Livingstone (2002) argues that media are becoming an integral part of family, peer, and school contexts. The increase in media use during adolescence may be explained partly by the fact that more time is spent alone at this point in the lifespan, often in a private bedroom (Brown, Dykers, Steele, & White, 1994; Larson, 1997; Steele & Brown, 1995).

At the same time, the adolescent enters a critical phase in identity development, characterized by a shift away from identification with parents (Cramer, 2001). The result is a gradual movement towards autonomy (Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986), or individuation (Goosens & Marcoen, 1999). An important parallel development in adolescence is the increasing influence of the peer group, characterized by stronger attachments and closer relationships (Coleman & Hendry, 1990; Patterson, Field, & Pryor, 1994). These relationships are also likely to influence, and be influenced by, the development of para-social relationships with media figures. Some have argued that adolescents' peer relationships affect family interactions (Dishion, et al. 2004), and that parents try to influence peer relationships (Mounts, 2008). Likewise, interpersonal talks and dialogues in different contexts might influence each other in the process of identity formation (Eveland, McLeod & Horowitz 1998; McLeod 2000).

The present research explores the relationship between media consumptions patterns among adolescents in Lahore, Pakistan and the contribution of media for political socialization of these adolescents towards National Identity (*Pakistani*) formation along with the influence of place of media discussion with parents, peers, relatives and teachers. It also tries to see the influence of other mediating demographics variables like (*age, gender, school*) along with place of interpersonal communication in the formation of national identity among adolescents in Lahore, Pakistan. The researcher also proposes a model of national identity formation in

which mass communication (i.e. consumption of Television, Radio, Movie, Music, Video games, Internet, Newspapers, Magazines, text book, and other than text book) and other mediating variables like place of media discussion with parents, peers, relatives and teachers play a role in the formation of the national identity. The national identity is operationalized into concepts of national attachment, symbolic patriotism, constructive patriotism, uncritical patriotism, national pride, and nationalism. The scales have been constructed to measure these concepts.

National identity is a wide-ranging term which is explored in different contexts with diverse theoretical perspectives by several researchers. As it has been argued in the previous section that family, media, and school stimulate adolescents to engage in discussions (Kioussis, McDevitt & Wu, 2005) and discussion on political issues drive their political identification, development, and socialization (McDevitt, 2005). The present research elaborates that political socialization is rooted under sociological, psychological, and cultural perspectives of an individual which leads to the formation of adolescent's national identity.

For comprehending the true understanding of the linkage between political socialization and national identity, it is necessary to understand the sociological, psychological, and cultural perspectives of national identity.

#### **Sociological Perspective of National Identity**

In sociological perspective, Al-buhouachi (2000) identifies the national identity as the linking of the individual with a piece of land known as the homeland. Muneer (2002) believes that the national

identity is identified through individual characteristics as he identifies his identity, patriotism, freedom, affiliation to his nationality and identity. The concept of national identity consists of several elements, including land, language, and allegiance to the State, clothes, prevailing crafts and architecture (Abdulkhaliq, 2008). Adams and Marshall (1996) follow a rich tradition of theorists that stress that personal development in general, and identity formation in particular, is a dialectical process involving both processes of differentiation and processes of integration. Thus, processes of integration and differentiation should be studied. Therefore, both mass media and interpersonal agents of political socialization are going to be studied in present research.

#### **Cultural Perspective of National Identity**

In cultural perspective, Hall in 1996 argues that the nation can be understood as a 'system of cultural representations' (p. 612) that produces meanings about belonging to and identifying with, that nation. In other words, national identity is a discursive construct. Habermass (2001) argues that national identity in multicultural communities can be defined by citizen allegiance to the state's democratic institutions—in such cases, what unites various groups in solidarity is not language or ethnicity but 'constitutional patriotism' (p. 74). Common strategies used to construct national identity include the creation of a national narrative (Hall, 1996, p. 613), reference to a vague 'national spirit' (Kolakowski cited in Wodak et al., 1999, p. 25), establishing a shared sense of time and space (Wodak et al., 1999, p. 26), the use of symbols like flags and

anthems, the creation of a common enemy, and the establishment of clear guidelines for good citizenship (Guibernau, 2007, p. 25).

### **Psychological Perspective of National Identity**

In psychological perspective, Bloom (1990) brings forth the importance of symbols into national identity construction and genuineness clarifying that it exists as a, "...paradigm condition in which a mass of people have made the same identification with the national symbols...so that they may act as one psychological group..." (p. 52). Similarly, Wodak et al. (1999) argue that the national identity of an individual is manifested in, and is at the same time shaped by, everyday social practices (pp.28-29). They cite Bourdieu's (1994) claim that the state has symbolic resources that give it considerable power in constructing and instilling a unified national identity, which individuals then internalize and reproduce in social practices through emotional, mental and behavioral dispositions—what he terms 'habitus'. Indeed, the nation as a collective imaginary is not only reinforced through elaborate state ceremonies organized in a top-down manner but also through banal practices such as hanging the national flag in public spaces or using 'homeland deixis' (Billig, 1999, pp. 38, 107). Wodak's concept of shared time and space and Guibernau's concept of flags and anthems also provide the theoretical grounds for present research, although Hall discussed national identity in different context but relates his understanding with Blank, Schmidt, and Westle (2001).

### **Previous Researches on Identity Formation**

Previous studies for development of national identity in children

were conducted in the 1960s and early 1970s, concentrated upon children's geographical knowledge about nations and their attitudes towards foreign nationals (Jahoda, 1963; Lambert & Klineberg, 1967; Middleton, Taaffe & Johnson, 1970). These studies found that knowledge of national territories develops through the early years of schooling. They also indicated the emergence of different attitudes towards specific groups of foreign nationals during the same period, with some foreign groups being strongly liked and some strongly disliked, even though the child may have very little factual knowledge about these groups.

There has been a second phase of research in this area (Barrett & Short, 1992; Barrett, 1996, 1997; Barrett & Farroni, 1996; Barrett, Lyons, Purkhardt & Bouchier, 1996; Barrett, Lyons, Bennett, Vila, Gimenez, Arcuri & de Rosa, 1997), where social scientists applied social-psychological theories about identity and intergroup relations (Brown, 1995; Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Oakes, Haslam & Turner, 1994) to the study of adults' national identities (Breakwell & Lyons, 1996).

Earlier research showed many correlations between family situations, social class, media consumption, organization membership and different outcome variables. Concerning the family, for instance, many studies have related parents' values or behavior with children's and taken similarities to mean influence (Jennings & Niemi, 1981). Similarly, the links between education and political knowledge have been explained more specifically by socioeconomic status, gender, and ethnicity (Luskin, 1990; Teorell

&West-holm, 1999).

Parents are the closest personal relation experienced by humans throughout their childhood and adolescence life. Past studies have shown that most individual prefer to choose their parents as role models as compared to other possible choices (Comoro & Gentry, 2000; Moschis, 1987). Although, past researchers focused their researches on the political socialization concerning the parents, peers, relatives and teachers' influences but there is still a gap about their influence on the national identity formation of adolescent, therefore, present research for this very direction which need to be explored especially in Pakistan.

### **Research Method**

The researcher employed survey method to examine the media consumption patterns and the national identity formation of adolescents in Lahore, Pakistan. Pakistani students belong to different socio-economic groups, follow three major streams of educational institutes (Public, Private and Madrasa) having different sets of syllabus developed on the basis of different philosophies. The public schools, and madrassas (according to their sect) have uniform syllabus and curriculum, and private schools have different syllabus and curriculum on the basis of fee structure. Therefore, multi-stage sampling technique was used to choose the sample.

The researcher randomly selected two public schools from a list of public schools in Lahore; Government Boys High School, Shadbagh, and Muhammadia Girls High School, Misri Shah, Lahore. 300 students were randomly selected, 150 boys from

Government Boys High School, Shadbagh and 150 girls from Muhammadia Girls High School, Misri Shah, from the list of students of 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> class. Researcher despite his best efforts could get responses from 253 students; 146 boys (57.7%), 107 girls (42.3%).

In the same way, lists of madrasas were taken from their relevant boards, and then two madrasas from each type were randomly selected; one for boys, and one for girls, researcher planned to get the data from adolescents, therefore, here again students of Amma Ullah (9<sup>th</sup> class) and Thania Ullah (10<sup>th</sup> class), were randomly selected, researcher envisioned to get the data from 100 students from each madrasa. Due to low number of enrolled students in some selected madrasas data from 474 students; boys 237 (50%), girls 237 (50%) was taken.

The researcher got a list of private schools in Lahore and then those schools were categorized into four sets on the basis of their fee structure; less than Rs. 2000, Rs. 2001 to 5000, Rs. 5001 to 10,000, and more than Rs. 10,000. The researcher randomly selected one school from each category and then randomly selected the students for each category, 489 questionnaires were filled from four schools, 310 boys (63.4), 179 girls (36.6).

#### **Dependent Variables of National Identity**

Scales of national attachment, symbolic patriotism, constructive patriotism, uncritical patriotism, national pride, nationalism were constructed to measure the level of National Identity among school-going adolescents. Reliability of the scales was checked through

Cronbach Alpha. And the researcher got the responses of respondents on 11-point scale and later merged them into three categories least 0, 1, 2, 3; more 4,5,6,7 and most 8, 9, 10.

**National Attachment.** Patriotism is characterized as a feeling of national loyalty, an affection for national images, particular convictions around a nation's predominance, and as a pivotal element in the advancement of civic ties to an established nation (Hurwitz & Peffley 1999; Spinner & Theiss-Morse, 2003; Sullivan, Fried & Dietz, 1992). The social research bears the settlement on the meaning of patriotism as "a deeply felt affective attachment to the nation" (Conover & Feldman 1987, p.1) or the "degree of love for and pride in one's nation" (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989, p. 271). Five Items were constructed to measure national attachment of the adolescents (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .729$ ,  $M=12.144$ ,  $SD=2.159$ ).

**Symbolic Patriotism.** The *symbolic patriotism* scale was formed from two items adapted from the American National Election Studies (ANES). National identity was strongly tied to symbolic patriotism in previous studies (Huddy & Khatib, 2007). Two Items were designed to measure symbolic patriotism (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .734$ ,  $M=5.847$ ,  $SD=.5720$ ).

**Constructive Patriotism.**Schatz, Staub and Lavine (1999) developed a scale of constructive patriotism that encapsulates a form of patriotism. Constructive patriotism is defined as "An attachment to country characterized by critical loyalty" and "questioning and criticism" driven by "a desire for positive change" (p. 153). Four Items were crafted to measure constructive patriotism (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .716$ ,  $M=11.0863$ ,  $SD=1.5869$ ).

**Uncritical Patriotism.** Uncritical patriotism is linked to authoritarianism which is characterized, in turn, by a tendency to defer to authority figures and support them unconditionally. For example, uncritical patriotism is an especially contentious, ideologically tinged form of patriotism that involves unwavering support of political leaders (Schatz, Staub, & Lavine 1999). Seven Items were constructed to measure uncritical patriotism (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .713$ ,  $M = 16.2385$ ,  $SD = 3.249$ ).

**National Pride.** De Figueiredo and Elkins (2003) analyze the political effects of *national pride*, a concept closely aligned with symbolic patriotism since both measures reference a sense of pride. National pride has an ideological basis in Europe (Elkins & Sides, 2003). The *U.S. 1996 General Social Survey (GSS)* analysis in America thus confirms that national identity is distinct from, but positively related to, nationalism and national pride. Ten Items were constructed to measure national pride (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .853$ ,  $M = 24.354$ ,  $SD = 4.6985$ ).

**Nationalism.** Patriotism researchers have reached some (although far from uniform) consensus that a sense of superiority and need for foreign dominance better reflect nationalism than patriotism (De Figueiredo & Elkins, 2003; Karasawa, 2002; Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989; Mummendey, Klink, & Brown, 2001; Sidanius, et al. 1997). Nationalism, which is typically linked to uncritical patriotism, was assessed with two items (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .701$ ,  $M = 4.635$ ,  $SD = 1.294$ ).

In demographic variables, age, gender and school were

explored to check their influence on national identity. Variable of Age was measured in years, five response categories were constructed for adolescents; 13 years ( $N = 62, 5.1\%$ ), 14 years ( $N = 195, 16.0\%$ ), 15 years ( $N = 381, 31.3\%$ ), 16 years ( $N = 267, 22.04\%$ ) and 17 years ( $N = 311, 25.0\%$ ,  $M=3.4688, SD= 1.178$ ). The Gender was measured into two discrete category; Male ( $N= 693, 57\%$  and Female,  $N=523, 43\%$ ,  $M=1.569, SD= .4952$ ). The school was measured in seven response categories; Private ( $N= 489, 40.2\%$ ), Government ( $N= 253, 20.8\%$ ), Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Tashee) ( $N= 58, 4.8\%$ ), Tanzim-ul-Madaris (Brailvi) ( $N=9.1\%$ ), Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Deoband) ( $N=106, 8.7\%$ ), Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Hadith) ( $N=136, 11.2\%$ ), and Rabta-ul-Madaris (Jammat-e-Islami) ( $N=63, 5.2\%$ ,  $M= 2.796, SD= 2.01$ ).

**Consumption of electronic media.** An 18- point scale was designed to measure the electronic media consumption of adolescents on last day, on average week day, and on an average weekend; on the last day, approximately how long did you consume TV? On an average weekend, approximately how long in total do you consume Music videos? whereas, seven categories were constructed to get the responses of respondents (None, less than 15 mints, more than 15 mints less than one hour, more than one hour to less than 2 hours, more than 2 hours to less than 3 hours, more than 3 hours to less than 4 hours, more than 4 hours); (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha= .912$ ,  $M=23.33, SD=18.38$ ).

**Consumption of print media.** A 12- point scale was designed to measure the media consumption of adolescents on the last day, on an average week, and on an average weekend; on the last day,

approximately how long did you consume Newspaper? On an average weekend, approximately how long in total do you consume other than text book? while seven categories are constructed to get the responses of the respondents (None, less than 15 mints, more than 15 mints less than one hour, more than one hour to less than 2 hours, more than 2 hours to less than 3 hours, more than 3 hours to less than 4 hours, more than 4 hours), (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .82$ ,  $M=21.49$ ,  $SD=11.63$ ).

**Place of media discussion with parents.** A 10- point scale was designed to measure the media discussion of adolescents mainly takes place with parents; If you discuss the content of the TV with your parents, when does this mainly take place? If you discuss the content of the other than text book with your parents, when does this mainly take place? While, five categories are constructed to get the response of adolescents (Never occurred, other specify, shopping, Dinner, Lunch Times) (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .85$ ,  $M=10.52$ ,  $SD=6.67$ ).

**Place of media discussion with peers.** A 10- point scale was designed to measure the media discussion of adolescents with their peers mainly taking place; if you discuss the content of the TV with your peers, when does this mainly take place? If you discuss the content of the other than text book with your peers, when does this mainly take place? Whereas, five categories were constructed to get the response (Never occurred, other specify, playground, shopping, Lunch Times) (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .83$ ,  $M=26.68$ ,  $SD=13.81$ ).

**Place of media discussion with relative.** A 10- point scale was

designed to measure the media discussion of adolescents with their relatives mainly takes place; If you discuss the content of the TV with your relatives, when does this mainly take place? If you discuss the content of the other than text book with your relatives, when does this mainly take place? Whereas, and five categories are constructed to get the response (Never occurred, other specify, shopping, at lunch, at dinner) (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .88$ ,  $M = 9.94$ ,  $SD = 6.86$ ).

**Place of media discussion with teachers.** A 10- point scale was designed to measure the media discussion of adolescents with their teachers mainly have; If you discuss the content of the TV with your teachers, when does this mainly take place? If you discuss the content of the other than text book with your teachers, when does this mainly take place? Whereas, and five categories were constructed to get the response of adolescents (Never occurred, other specify, Playground, shopping, Lunch Times) (Cronbach's Alpha  $\alpha = .88$ ,  $M = 25.37$ ,  $SD = 15.55$ ).

**Analysis and Discussion**

Table 1. National Identity on Gender Basis

<b>Group Statistics</b>					
	Gender of the student	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
National Attachment of Respondent	Female	523	12.1549	2.11202	.09235
	Male	693	12.1371	2.19563	.08340
Symbolic Patriotism of Respondent	Female	523	5.8547	.54484	.02382
	Male	693	5.8413	.59202	.02249

Constructive Patriotism of Respondent	Female	523	11.1396	1.60984	.07039
	Male	693	11.0462	1.56945	.05962
Uncritical Patriotism of Respondent	Female	523	16.3289	3.43395	.15016
	Male	693	16.1703	3.10321	.11788
National Pride of Respondent	Female	523	24.4990	4.71460	.20616
	Male	693	24.2453	4.68676	.17804
Nationalism of Respondent	Female	523	4.7744	1.28607	.05624
	Male	693	4.5325	1.29054	.04902

The independent-samples t- test was conducted to measure the National Attachment score for females and males. There was no significance difference in the scores for females (M=12.15, SD=2.110) and males, M=12.13, SD=2.195;  $t(1214) = .142, p=.093$  (two tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .179, 95% CI: .263 to .227). There was no significance difference in the scores for females (M=5.85, SD=.544) and males, M=5.84, SD=.592;  $t(1214) = .405, p=$  (two tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .0331, 95% CI: .078 to .051). in the construct of constructive patriotism score for females and males there was no significant difference in the scores for females (M= 11.13, SD= 1.609) and males, M=11.046, SD= 1.569;  $t(1214) = 1.06, p=.83$  (two tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .09340, 95% CI: .27374).

In the uncritical patriotism score for females and males there was significant difference in the scores for females (M= 16.32, SD=4.433) and males, M=16.17, SD= 3.103;  $t(1214) = .831, p= .001$  (two tailed).

The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .158, 95% CI: .53318 to .21599) was very small (eta squared= .03). Although, the impact of the gender on uncritical patriotism was statistically observed. The table reports the National Pride score for females and males. There was no significant difference in the scores for females (M=24.49, SD=4.714) and males, M= 24.24, SD= 4.68;  $t(1214) = .93$ ,  $p=.399$  (two tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .25373, 95% CI: .78770 to .28023) was very small. Findings show there was no significant difference in the scores for females (M=4.77, SD=1.286) and males, M=4.53, SD= 1.290;  $t(1214) = 3.241$ ,  $p=.883$  (two tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .24191, 95% CI: .38835 to .09547) was very small.

Findings of one- way between-groups ANOVA to examine the effect of age on national pride of respondent, students were categorized into five groups regarding their age (Group 1: 13 year; Group 2: 14 year; Group 3: 15 year; Group 4: 16 year; Group 5: 17 year). The statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in national pride of the students because of their age:  $F(4, 1212) = 8.781$ ,  $p = .000$  but the variance between groups was small. The effect evaluated by eta was .02. The students of age group 17 year had maximum score of national pride (M=25.53, SD=4.613) and students of age group 14 year had least score (M=23.64, SD=4.357). Statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in nationalism of the students because of their age:  $F(4, 1212) = 7.874$ ,  $p = .000$ . Though it was statically significant the variance between groups was small. The effect evaluated by eta was .02. The students of 17 year age group

had maximum score of national nationalism ( $M=4.948$ ,  $SD=1.983$ ) and students of age group 15 year had least score ( $M=4.427$ ,  $SD=1.336$ ).

Findings of one- way between-groups ANOVA to examine the effect of school on National Attachment of respondent, students were categorized into seven groups regarding their school (Group 1: Private; Group 2: Government; Group 3: Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Tashee); Group 4: Tanzim-ul-Madaris (Brailvi); Group 5: Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Deoband); Group 6: Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Hadith); Group 7: Rabta-ul-Madaris (Jamat-e-Islami). The statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in national attachment of the students because of their school:  $F(6, 1209) = 21.211$ ,  $p = .000$ . and the variance between groups was medium. The effect evaluated by eta was .09. The students of government school had maximum score of national attachment ( $M=25.53$ ,  $SD=1.829$ ) and students of private school had least score ( $M=11.68$ ,  $SD=1.829$ ). A statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in symbolic patriotism of the students because of their school:  $F(9, 1209) = 2.158$ ,  $p = .045$ . Though it was statically significant, the variance between groups was small. The effect evaluated by eta was .01. The students of Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Hadith) had maximum score of symbolic patriotism ( $M=5.90$ ,  $SD=.485$ ) and students of private school had least score ( $M=5.77$ ,  $SD=.668$ ). The statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in constructive patriotism of the students because of their school:  $F(6, 1209) = 9.538$ ,  $p = .000$ . Though it was statically significant but the variance between groups was small. The effect evaluated by eta was

.04. The students of Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Tashee) had maximum score of constructive patriotism ( $M=11.86$ ,  $SD=1.060$ ) and students of private school had least score ( $M=10.87$ ,  $SD=1.759$ ). The table further reports that the statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in uncritical patriotism of the students because of their school:  $F(6, 1209) = 7.612$ ,  $p = .000$ . The variance between groups was small. The effect evaluated by eta was .03. The students of Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Tashee) had maximum score of uncritical patriotism ( $M=18.25$ ,  $SD=2.306$ ) and students of Rabta-ul-Madaris (Jamat-e-Islami) had least score ( $M=15.60$ ,  $SD=3.475$ ).

The statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in national pride of the students because of their school:  $F(6, 1209) = 30.851$ ,  $p = .000$  and the variance between groups was large. The effect evaluated by eta was .13. The students of Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Hadith) had maximum score of national pride ( $M=27.69$ ,  $SD=2.77$ ) and students of private schools had least score ( $M=22.62$ ,  $SD=4.857$ ). The statistical difference at  $p < .05$  was witnessed in nationalism of the students because of their school:  $F(6, 1209) = 34.620$ ,  $p = .000$  and the variance between groups was large. The effect evaluated by eta was .14. The students of Wafaq-ul-Madaris (Ahl-e-Hadith) had maximum score of nationalism ( $M=5.50$ ,  $SD=1.295$ ) and students of private schools had least score ( $M=4.122$ ,  $SD=1.295$ ).

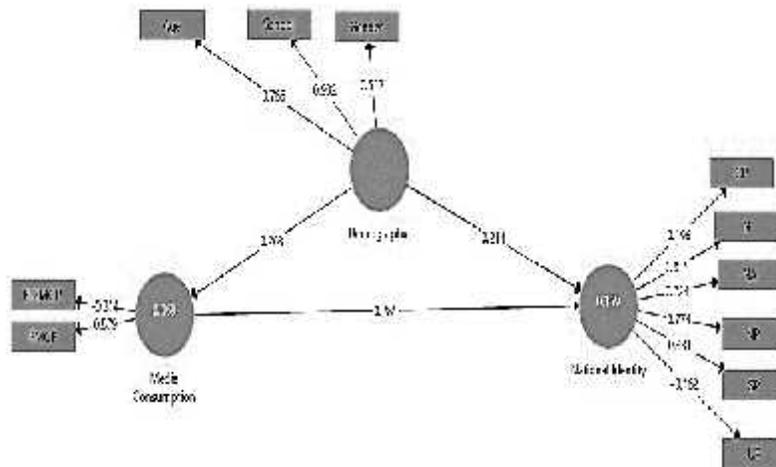


Figure 1. Demographic Variables and Media Consumption in the Formation of National Identity

The figure 1 shows that demographic variables (Age, School, and gender) were the significant contributors of National Identity,  $\beta= 0.214$ . These demographic variables also contributed in media consumption of school going adolescents,  $\beta= 0.263$ . Whereas, media consumption patterns of respondents were more strongly contributing in the formation of National Identity,  $\beta= 0.285$  as compared to contribution of demographic variables. In the outer loading factors, the school in demographic variables  $r=0.93$ , and print media consumption in media consumption  $r= 0.879$  were the most contributed factors in the national identity.

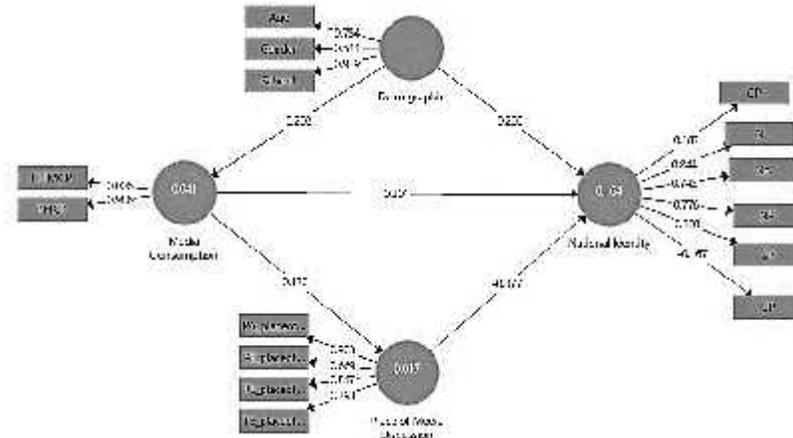


Figure 2. Demographic Variables, Media Consumption, and place of media discussion in the Formation of National Identity

Figure 2 shows that variations were observed when place of media discussion was added in the model. The level of national identity was enhanced from 0.159 to 0.164. The contribution of demographic variables (age, school, and gender) were slightly declined in formation of National Identity,  $\beta = 0.200$  and in media consumption of school going adolescents,  $\beta = 0.202$ . Whereas, media consumption patterns of respondents were more enhanced  $\beta = 0.301$ . The place of media discussion with parents, peers, relatives, and teachers also contributed in National Identity formation. In the outer loading factors, school, print media consumption, and the place of media discussion with parents were the most significant factors observed in formation of national identity.

**Conclusion**

The present research concludes that the media consumption, demographic variables and place of media discussion with interpersonal agents significantly contributed in the formation of

national identity in the adolescents in Pakistan. But there is no significant difference of the scores of national identity between male and female students. The older students hold more national identity as compared to less aged students. The adolescents in madrassas (religious schools) had stronger national identity followed by adolescents in government schools as compared to adolescents of private schools. The media consumption patterns contributed more as compared to demographic variables and place of media discussion with interpersonal agents (parents, peers, relatives, and teachers).

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