

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI

A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600

Jan B
5/10/96

Iheanyi Emmanuel Okoro, The role of the U.S. mass media in the political socialization of Nigerian immigrants in the United States, Doctor of Philosophy (Political Science), August, 1996, 261 pp., 58 tables, 1 illustration, references, 170 titles.

A mail survey of Nigerian immigrants in Dallas, Texas, and Chicago, Illinois, was conducted during October and November 1995. Four hundred and sixty-eight Nigerian immigrant families in the two cities were selected by systematic sampling through the telephone books. Return rate was approximately 40% (187).

The variables included in the study were media exposure variables, general demographics, immigration traits, U.S. demographics, Nigerian demographics, and political and cultural traits. New variables which had not been included in previous studies were also tested in this study: television talk shows, talk radio, diffuse support for the U.S. political system, authoritarianism, self-esteem, and political participation. This study employed multiple regression analysis and path analysis of the data.

This study found that Nigerian immigrants have high preference for television news as their main source of political information. This finding is in consonance with previous studies. Nigerian immigrants chose ABC news stations as their number one news station for political information. Strong positive

associations existed between media exposure and length of stay in the United States and interest in U.S. politics.

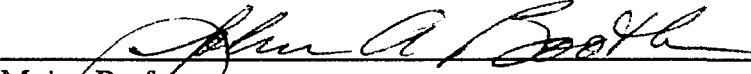
Talk radio positively associated with interest in U.S. politics and negatively associated with length of stay in the United States. Thus, this finding likely means that talk radio is a good source of political socialization for more recently arrived immigrants and those interested in U.S. politics. Significant associations existed between diffuse support for the U.S. government and interest in politics and security of immigration status.

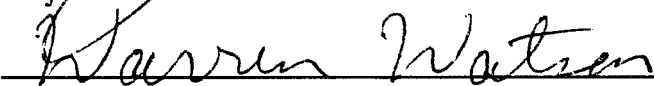
This study also found that adjustment to U.S. political culture was a function of media exposure, pre-immigration social class, diffuse support for the U.S. political system, and political knowledge.

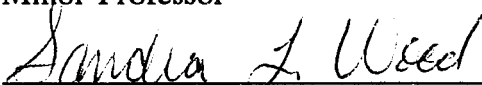
THE ROLE OF THE U.S. MASS MEDIA IN
THE POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION
OF NIGERIAN IMMIGRANTS
IN THE UNITED STATES


Iheanyi Emmanuel Okoro, B.B.A., M.B.A.

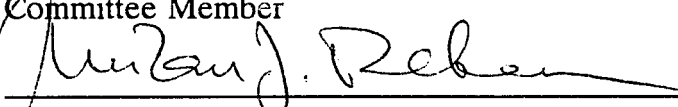
APPROVED:

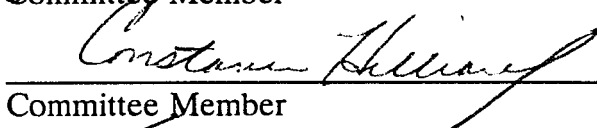

Major Professor

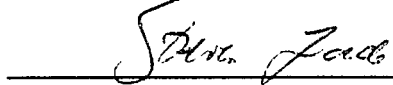

Minor Professor

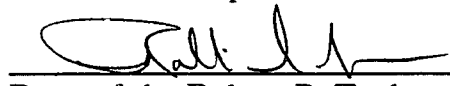

Committee Member


Committee Member


Committee Member


Committee Member


Chair of the Department of Political Science


Dean of the Robert B. Toulouse School of Graduate Studies

THE ROLE OF THE U.S. MASS MEDIA IN
THE POLITICAL SOCIALIZATION
OF NIGERIAN IMMIGRANTS
IN THE UNITED STATES

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
University of North Texas in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Iheanyi Emmanuel Okoro, B.B.A., M.B.A.

Denton, Texas

August, 1996

UMI Number: 9638493

**UMI Microform 9638493
Copyright 1996, by UMI Company. All rights reserved.**

**This microform edition is protected against unauthorized
copying under Title 17, United States Code.**

UMI
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48103

Copyright by
Iheanyi Emmanuel Okoro
1996

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vii
 Chapter	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 NIGERIA AND NIGERIAN IMMIGRANTS IN THE UNITED STATES	5
Brief Overview of Political Socioeconomic Dimensions Nigerian Immigrants in the United States	
3 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	12
Political Socialization	
What Is the Importance of Political Socialization to a Political System?	
Overview of Political Socialization of Children	
Political Socialization of Adults	
Factors Which Affect Political Socialization of Immigrants	
English Language Competence	
Length of Stay in the United States	
Education and Social Status	
Political Knowledge and the Mass Media	
Television and Newspapers in Political Socialization	
Newspaper and Television Compared to Television Advertising in Political Learning	
Media Use Measures and Political Knowledge	
Television Use and Political Knowledge	
The Use of Mass Media and Its Overall Impact on Political Knowledge	
Pre- and Post-Immigration Characteristics and Political Knowledge	
Media Trust and Issue Knowledge	
Political Socialization of Immigrants	

Chapter	Page
4	44
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> METHODOLOGY AND MEASUREMENT Sampling Procedure Limitations of the Study Pre-test Operationalization and Measurement Hypotheses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Specific Hypotheses of the Study 	
5	53
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> OVERVIEW OF DATA AND PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS Demographic Characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender and Marital Status Age Income Length of Stay in the United States Pre-Immigration Education Education in the United States Perceived Social Class Occupation Ethnic Group and Religion English Skills: Reading, Speaking, and Writing Language Spoken at Home in the United States Immigration Status Media Exposure <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Major Source of Political News in Nigeria before Coming to the United States Most Important Source of Political News in the United States Television Exposure Reasons for Watching Talk Shows Newspapers Magazines Media Exposure and Gender African Newspapers Read by Nigerian Immigrants Factor Analysis of Media Exposure Trust of the Mass Media Political Values/Behavior <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interest in U.S. Politics Political Efficacy Political Norms in Nigeria The Nigerian Government Cares for People Such as Me Versus the United States Does Not Care for Me Perceived Respect for Basic Human Rights in Nigeria 	

Chapter	Page
<p style="text-align: center;">During Whose Rule was Nigeria at Its Best? Perceived Awareness of What Was Going on in Politics in Nigeria Before Coming to the United States Political Knowledge</p>	
6	117
<p style="text-align: center;">Hypothesis Related to Nigeria to U.S. Changes Hypothesis Related to Media Use and Trust by Nigerian Immigrants Hypothesis Related to Use of Talk Radio and Television Talk Shows by Nigerian Immigrants Hypothesis Related to Media Trust by Nigerian Immigrants Hypotheses Related to Immigration and Media Use Effects upon Political Attitudes and Behaviors</p>	
7	146
<p style="text-align: center;">Limitations of this Study and Suggestions Limitations Suggestions</p>	
APPENDICES	159
REFERENCES	238

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
5.1 Gender and Marital Status of Nigerian Immigrants Participating in the Survey	54
5.2 Ages of Nigerian Immigrants Responding	55
5.3 Family Income of Nigerian Immigrants	56
5.4 Length of Stay in the United States by Nigerian Immigrants	58
5.5 Pre-Immigration Education of Nigerian Immigrants	59
5.6 Education Received in the United States by Nigerian Immigrants	61
5.7 Pre-Immigration Perceived Social Status of Nigerians	62
5.8 Social Class of Nigerians in the United States	63
5.9 Comparison Table of Social Class in Nigeria and Social Class in the United States of Nigerian Immigrants	64
5.10 Occupation of Nigerian Immigrants in the United States	65
5.11 Ethnic Group in Nigeria	66
5.12 Religion of Nigerians in the United States	67
5.13 English Language: Reading	68
5.14 English Language: Speaking	68
5.15 English Language: Writing	69
5.16 Language Spoken in Your Home in the United States	71
5.17 Immigration Status	72

Table	Page
5.18 Major Source of Political News in Nigeria before Coming to United States	74
5.19 Most Important Source of Political News in the United States	75
5.20 Television Exposure	77
5.21 Television Talk Shows	78
5.22 Reasons for Watching Talk Shows	79
5.23 Newspapers Read by Nigerian Immigrants	80
5.24 Magazines Read by Nigerian Immigrants	82
5.25 Reading Print Media for Political News by Gender	84
5.26 Reading Print Media for Entertainment by Gender	85
5.27 Watching Television for Political News by Gender	87
5.28 Watching Television for Entertainment by Gender	88
5.29 Listening to the Radio for Political News by Gender	89
5.30 Listening to "Talk Radio" by Gender	90
5.31 Watching "Talk Shows" on Television by Gender	91
5.32 African Newspapers Read by Nigerian Immigrants	93
5.33 Trust of the Mass Media	96
5.34 Nigerian Immigrants' Interest in U.S. Politics	100
5.35 Interest in U.S. Politics by Gender	101
5.36 Political Efficacy: Is Voting the Only Way People Can Have Any Say About How the Government Runs Things?	103
5.37 Political Efficacy: Politics Is So Complicated	103

Table	Page
5.38 Political Norms in Nigeria	104
5.39 Nigerian Immigrants' Reported Adjustment to the Political Culture of the United States	106
5.40 The Nigerian Government Cares for People Such as Me	107
5.41 The United States Does Not Care For Me	108
5.42 Perceived Respect for Basic Human Rights in Nigeria	109
5.43 During Whose Rule was Nigeria at Its Best?	110
5.44 Perceived Awareness of What Was Going on in Politics in Nigeria Before Coming to the United States	111
5.45 Frequencies of Questions Used to Elicit Political Knowledge	112
6.1 A Paired Sample t- Test of Political Participation Variables for U.S. Political Participation and Nigerian Political Participation of Nigerian Immigrants in the United States	119
6.2 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Media Exposure	121
6.3 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Television Talk Shows and Talk Radio	124
6.4 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Media Trust	128
6.5 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Diffuse Support	130
6.6 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Authoritarianism	133
6.7 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon U.S. Political Participation	136
6.8 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Political Knowledge	138

Table	Page
6.9 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Democratic Orientation	142
6.10 Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Adjustment to U.S. Political Culture	144
7.1 Summary of Media-Related Regression Results	150
7.2 Summary of Media-Related Regression Results	151
7.3 Regression Results for Adjustment to U.S. Political Culture	152

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
7.1 Path Modelling of Media Impact upon Adjustment to the U.S. Political Culture	155

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

People by the thousands immigrate to the United States yearly from all over the world. Approximately 28 percent of the annual population growth in the United States is attributable to immigration (Zogby, 1990). America is a nation of immigrants. Ever since America was discovered, people from different parts of the world have been coming to settle in the United States in search of a better life. As a consequence, immigrants have become a part of the political system. The ways and manners in which the immigrants acquire their political socialization have become a concern to social scientists, especially political scientists. Many immigrants arrive in the United States already politically socialized in their countries of origin. They undergo political resocialization in their host country.

Bill and Hardgrave (1981) describe political socialization as a process which inducts a person into the political culture of shared orientations. Through this process, the body of orientations common to society is internalized and patterned. Greenstein (1965) defines political socialization as acquisition of political information, values, and practices from socializing agents, namely, family, school, and peers. These three agents have been considered influential in political socialization. The role of the mass media in political socialization was not paid much attention until the early 1970s with the shift in focus of political socialization

studies from attitude change to a more cognitive aspect of political socialization (Wilhoit, 1980). Scholars such as Atkins (1980) and Chaffee and Schleuder (1986) have investigated the impact of the mass media on political socialization and concluded that it plays an important role in socialization. Most of the studies were on political socialization of children. A few studies have been conducted on political socialization of adults, especially immigrants. The impact of the mass media should be different for persons who have changed their political and social environment, viz. the new immigrants.

Some research has been conducted on immigrants in the United States, but little has been conducted on immigrants from Africa, especially Nigeria. Nigerian immigrants desire to be studied because of the role they may play in shaping the policies of the United States toward African nations. Immigrants are politically active in influencing policies which affect their regions of origin (Kraus & Perloff, 1985). An active group of minority immigrants can influence policies in Washington for the benefit of their regions of origin in terms of military, financial, and technical support from the United States (Sanders, 1988; Waxman, 1989).

Nigeria is an important country to the United States. It supplies oil to the United States. Nigeria is the most populous black nation on earth and is a leader in African affairs. Its population in 1990 was 86,551,000 and is projected to be 118,620,000 by the year 2000 (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1994, p. 851). The survival of democracy in Nigeria will pave the way for democracy in many other African countries. As many Nigerians educated in the United States assume positions in

government and politics in Nigeria, their political socialization while in the United States will surely affect the way they play politics and make political decisions.

The study of political socialization has been one of the central concerns of the social scientists for over 30 years since Hyman (1959) argued that political behavior is learned behavior. Early philosophers such as Aristotle, Plato, and Confucius were interested in the political socialization in that if the citizens are not properly politically socialized, a nation's political stability may be in danger. Confucius concluded centuries ago that the love and respect a child has for his parents will extend to later life in political activities (Jaros, 1973).

Many immigrants in the United States are permanent residents; thus, they may become citizens who are likely to participate in elections and other democratic processes. Nie, Verba, and Petrocik (1976) concluded that the political party realignment in the 1920s from the Republican to the Democratic party was a result of mobilization of immigrants, women, and immigrants' children by the Democratic party. Thus, immigrants can influence the outcome of elections with their votes. Immigrants in the United States presently have high birth rates. Consequently, their rate of political participation will increase. The study of how immigrants acquire their political socialization is important to the political scientists and the politicians.

This research study will investigate the role of the mass media in the political socialization of Nigerian immigrants in Dallas, Texas, and Chicago, Illinois. Questions to be addressed are:

1. What are the democratic orientations of Nigerian immigrants?
2. What is the political knowledge gained over the years in the United States?
3. What is the impact of the mass media in the political resocialization of Nigerian immigrants?
4. What is the level of political tolerance of Nigerian immigrants?
5. How do Nigerian immigrants differ from other immigrants compared with previous studies?

In essence, this study will add to the knowledge of the role the mass media play in the political socialization of adults and immigrants from Nigeria.

CHAPTER 2

NIGERIA AND NIGERIAN IMMIGRANTS IN THE UNITED STATES

Brief Overview of Political Socioeconomic Dimensions

This chapter briefly reviews the politics, the economy, and the society of Nigeria, followed by an introduction to the characteristics of the Nigerian immigrant community in the United States.

Nigeria was formerly under the British rule. The British first entered Lagos in 1851 and ruled Nigeria until 1960 when Britain granted independence to Nigeria (Bascom 1969). Nigeria consists of multiethnic, multilingual, and multicultural communities that were amalgamated in 1914 by the British for administrative convenience (Forsyth 1969). Nigeria occupies an area of about 256,670 square miles.

Nigeria has been confronted with many economic, political, and social problems since independence. Nigeria has a huge external debt, approximately \$30 billion, with service charges of approximately \$5 billion annually. Nigeria's external debt is estimated at 90 percent of its gross domestic product. Economic policies in Nigeria since the oil boom of the 1970s have been criticized as misguided due to corruption and fraudulent business practices (U.S. Department of Commerce 1992).

The major ethnic groups in Nigeria are the Hausa/Fulani, Ibo, Yoruba, Kanuri, TIV, Ibibio, Edo, and Nupe (Perkins and Stenbridge 1966). The three dominant ethnic groups are the Hausa/Fulani, the Ibo, and the Yoruba. Soon after Nigeria received her independence, the formation of the national political parties was marked by ethnic divisions, fragmentation, and election malpractice. The Northern Peoples Congress (NPC) was formed and dominated by the Hausa/Fulani ethnic group. The National Council of Nigerian Citizens (NCNC) was the political party of the Ibos, and the Action Group (AG) was formed and dominated by the Yoruba. Thus, the three dominant ethnic groups created political parties which represented their ethnic groups. The parties had very little or no national appeal; rather, they served as political breeding grounds for ethnic sentiments. They were ridden with fraud and corruption problems that gave the military reasons for a coup (Nwachukwu 1989).

Ethnic sectionalistic politicians do not work for the overall good of the country but for their groups and self-aggrandizement at the expense of the welfare of the people of the community. About five years after Nigeria became independent, the country was besieged by coups and countercoups. In January, 1966, the military took over power amidst corruption, nepotism, sectionalism, and election frauds/malpractice (Arikpo 1967). The coup was followed by many killings of the Ibos in the northern region of Nigeria. As a result, the Ibos seceded from Nigeria. A civil war ensued which brought the Ibos back into the Union. The war, the Nigerian-Biafran Civil War, lasted from 1967 to 1970.

In sum, Nigeria has never been united as a nation. The British rule did not foster unity. Most believe Nigeria's fundamental problem to be ethnicity (Forsyth 1969). Nigerian leaders, because of their traditional political socialization/orientation, have placed their ethnic and selfish interests before those of the nation. Leaders have continued to nurture sectionalism at the expense of nation building. Nigerians pride themselves in preserving their ethnic integrity, social unity, and cultural values (Oguntoyinbo, Areda, and Filani 1978). Even Nigerian military leaders while creating new states based their decision on people with common dialect and cultural values and norms. Thus, sectional orientation has negative implications for nation building. People think in terms of their ethnic groups instead of the nation.

In view of all the internal political disturbances and socioeconomic conditions in Nigeria today, perhaps Yakubu Gowon's message to the world on July 19, 1966, when he took over the leadership of Nigeria, is still true today.

To all true and sincere lovers of Nigeria and Nigerian unity both at home and abroad, putting all considerations to test-- political, economic as well as social--the base of unity is not there or is so badly rocked, not only once but several times. I therefore feel that we should review the issue of our national standing and see if we can help stop the country from drifting away into utter destruction. (Stremlau 1977, 29)

Ever since then Nigeria has experienced coups and countercoups. This could be attributed to the lack of adequate leadership to foster unity through political means, including political socialization strategies to promote common cause and nation building through socialization.

Nigerians are faced with many social ills today. There is widening of the gap between the rich and the poor. Many Nigerians have become rich at public expense. The population is rapidly growing, and the cities are becoming crowded. The whole country is in dire need of infrastructure: roads, electricity, telephones, and transportation. Health care services are not adequate to serve the needs of Nigerians. Unemployment and inflation have steadily climbed to record high rates. Accountability in government is very low. Government officials engage in fraudulent practices; there is open bribery and nepotism. Corruption has become a way of life (Igbani 1993).

The mass media have not fared well under military leadership. Journalists who have opposed or exposed malpractice in government have been made scapegoats and jailed for expressing their opinions. Newspapers have been banned and in some cases suspended from printing for some time because of their views in political issues. There is government censorship of television news, since television stations are owned and operated by the government.

There have been serious cases of human rights violations in Nigeria. The most recent one which drew world attention was the hanging of nine Ogoni people including a well-known playwright, Mr. Saro-Wiwa. This incident made many

world leaders, including the United States, recall their ambassadors from Nigeria (*The African Herald*, February 1996; *Newsweek*, December 18, 1995).

It is worthwhile at this point to consider the level of political tolerance of Nigerian immigrants. It is given that they received their initial political socialization from a culture of tribalism, authoritarianism, and sectionalism. To an adolescent in Nigeria, political socialization can be confusing. Apart from the family, other agents of political socialization are not stable. The government disrupts the mass media through censorship, intimidation, and punishment. The schools are closed most of the time due to political, economic, or social problems. These problems raise interesting questions to consider about the political beliefs and norms of Nigerian immigrants when they emigrate. To what extent are recent Nigerian immigrants supportive of democratic norms or authoritarianism? To what extent do their values and norms evolve over time in the United States? What role does exposure to the mass media play in the political resocialization of Nigerians?

Nigerian Immigrants in the United States

Nigerian immigration to the United States was prominent during the 1970s and early 1980s during the oil boom era. According to Wright and McNeal (1990), 58,052 Nigerian immigrants lived in the United States in the late 1980s. Immigrants from Africa as a whole numbered up to 400,691 (Wright and McNeal 1990). These figures do not include the children of African immigrants born in the United States or those undocumented immigrants from Africa. Most Nigerian

immigrants came to the United States to pursue an education. Most Nigerian immigrants in the United States are from the southern part of Nigeria, mainly the Ibos, Yorubas, and Midwesterners. A high concentration of Nigerian immigrants live in Dallas, Texas; Houston, Texas; Baltimore, Maryland; Atlanta, Georgia; Los Angeles, California; New Jersey, and Chicago, Illinois. Nigerians live in almost all the large cities in the United States. They live among the Americans without any special community of their own.

There are two newspapers published by Nigerians in the United States which are directed mainly to Nigerian immigrants: *African Herald*, published in Dallas, Texas, monthly and *African News Weekly*, published in Asheville, North Carolina, weekly. These newspapers write about political, social, and economic affairs in Africa, especially in Nigeria.

Nigerian immigrants have some different characteristics from some other immigrants. Many Nigerians came to the United States in pursuit of higher education, unlike some other immigrants who came as refugees or for economic, political or religious reasons. Most Nigerian immigrants came to the United States with at least a high school education. As a result, their English language skills may be higher than those of other immigrants. Education in Nigeria is patterned after that of Great Britain, and English is the official language. Such levels of English proficiency affect the resocialization of Nigerians.

In summary, given the unstable economic, political, and military authoritarian nature of Nigeria, it will be worthy to ask: What are the political

beliefs and norms of Nigerians when they immigrate? To what extent are recent Nigerian immigrants supportive of democratic norms? To what extent do their values and norms evolve over time in the United States? What role does exposure to the mass media play in the political resocialization of Nigerians in the United States?

CHAPTER 3

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Political Socialization

Political socialization was brought to the limelight in political science in the work of Hyman (1959). He contends that political behavior is learned. Since Hyman's work, much research has been conducted on political socialization. Studies of political socialization grew out of the fields of psychology, anthropology, sociology, and psychiatry. Researchers in these fields have studied socialization for a long time, but the studies of political socialization started in the late 1950s and early 1960s (Sears 1975).

What is political socialization? Authors have given many different definitions.

Socialization refers to the process by which a junior member of a group or institution is taught its values, attitudes, and other behaviors. (Hess and Torney 1967, 7)

Political socialization refers to the learning process by which the political norms and behaviors acceptable to an ongoing political system are transmitted from generation to generation. (Siegel 1965,

1)

Political socialization is the process of induction into the political culture. Its end product is a set of attitudes--cognitions, value standards, and feelings towards the political system, its value roles, and role incumbents. It also includes knowledge of values affecting, and feelings towards the inputs of demands and claims into the system, and its authoritative outputs. (Almond and Coleman 1960, 28)

Those developmental processes through which persons acquire political orientations and patterns of behavior. (Easton and Dennis 1969, 7)

Political socialization is the process through which the individual develops his awareness of his political world and gains his appreciation, judgement, and understanding of political events. And through this process the individual is socialized to his political culture and realizes his political identity. (Pye 1962, 45)

Political socialization is the process which inducts the individual into the political culture of shared orientation. In this process, the body of orientations common to the community is internalized and patterned. (Bill and Hardgrave 1981, 98)

Narrowly conceived, political socialization is the deliberate inculcation of political information, values, and practices by instructional agents who have been formally charged with this

responsibility. A broader conception would encompass all political learning, formal and informal, deliberate and unplanned, at every stage of the life cycle, including not only explicitly political learning but also nominally non-political learning that affects political behavior, such as the learning of politically relevant social attitudes and the acquisition of politically relevant personality characteristics. (Greenstein 1968, 551)

Although there are many different definitions of political socialization, all authors agree that it is a continuous learning process which starts from childhood and continues throughout a person's life. It is through political socialization that the norms, values, and beliefs of a community are transmitted from one generation to the next.

In this study, an evaluation of political knowledge and certain political attitudes provided the main method of measuring the concept of political socialization. It focused on the definition that political socialization is a process by which a person acquires politically relevant cognitions, behaviors, and attitudes of his community (Atkins 1981; Dawson and Prewitt 1977; Langton 1969). Research on the mass media and political socialization is based on the theory that the mass media influence such learning processes significantly (O'Keefe and Reid-Nash 1987; Subervi-Velez 1986).

Studies on political socialization have been directed on how an individual's political socialization has shaped his political knowledge, beliefs, and behaviors

(Goehlert 1981). Social researchers have designed models to explain political socialization by identifying variables which affect a person's political behavior. The field of psychology has focussed on how a person uses the political media to achieve his personal goals, e.g. values, behavior, and gaining insight into himself. Some factors that have been included in political socialization studies include sex, age, socioeconomic status, education, income, and their impact on political socialization (Lau and Sears 1984; Rosenberg 1988; Sapiro 1983). These factors are discussed further in this chapter.

What Is the Importance of Political Socialization to a Political System?

According to Easton (1965), a political system is made up of three main parts: inputs, outputs, and the conversion process. The input process is made up of demands and support. In the political process, the "inputs" are converted into political decisions or policies, i.e. outputs. Easton contends that, for a political system to survive over a long period of time, it is essential for the political system to maintain equilibrium among the three major components of the system, i.e. inputs, outputs, and the conversion process. If there is no equilibrium, stress occurs which may lead to disintegration of the system. Sources of stress include lack of support for policies, excessive demands, and lack of support for the system. Support is the confidence, trust, and affection a person has toward his political community, regime, and administration.

Support may be divided into two parts, namely diffuse and specific support. Diffuse support is unconditional support for the political system, while specific support is support for a specific system performance. For a system to survive, it is important that a minimum level of both kinds of support be maintained.

What, then, is the importance of political socialization of foreign immigrants to the political system of the United States? Since many immigrants from other parts of the world come to the United States to live and make America their home, the more of them there are the more important it is that they learn the culture, norms, and attitudes of their host communities in order to function effectively in daily activities. When immigrants become citizens, they vote in elections, therefore influencing the political system. Thus, immigrants need to be assimilated into the society to assure harmony and continuity. When immigrants know how the system operates, they are better able to work within it. Immigrants have been known to influence U.S. policies which affect their region of origin (Kraus and Perlof 1985). The more they know about how the system works, the better they are able to make a positive impact on foreign policies.

Overview of Political Socialization of Children

Researchers in political socialization have primarily studied three major agents of political socialization, namely, the family, school, and peers. These three agents have been regarded as influential in the political socialization of individuals. The family was the most influential agent of political socialization (Langton 1969). Many scholars in political socialization agree that the family plays an essential role

in the development of political socialization of children (Campbell, Converse, Miller, and Stokes 1966; Connell 1972; Jennings and Niemi 1974; Niemi 1973; Niemi and Sobieszek 1977; Renshon 1975; Sidanius and Ekehammar 1979).

Scholars agree that early learning influences future learning, and that childhood learning is resistant to change. The family plays an important role in political knowledge, political involvement, and party identification (Meadowcraft 1986). Children learn from their parents and in school to develop a vague political knowledge, and this knowledge is carried to adult life (Gunter 1987).

Some researchers have done a comparison between the political socialization of children and immigrants and have reached the conclusion that they are very much alike (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990; Easton and Dennis 1965; O'Keefe and Reid-Nash 1987; Yang 1988). Easton and Dennis (1965), however, contend in their studies that there is a difference. They agree that immigrants go through resocialization while the child goes through a first time socialization process. Immigrants in their political socialization, however, show fewer changes than the child (O'Keefe and Reid-Nash 1987). This conclusion was based on the assumption that adult immigrants would resist socialization that does not conform to their already established norms, unlike children who take in information as given to them by any of the agents of socialization. Adult immigrants may thus be less constrained than children. Adult immigrants already have some experience of the socialization process.

Early political socialization studies were mainly cause and effect models. Mass media were not considered as one of the variables or agents of political socialization (Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton 1970). The early studies were primarily aimed at children; the adult learning experience was not considered as a socialization process (Atkin 1981; Cook and Scuti 1972). The family, school, peers, and churches were the variables considered by early scholars of political socialization, and these agents were compared with each other. None of the factors were very powerful as agents of socialization except parent-child correlations for political party identification (Jennings and Niemi 1974).

Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton (1970) contend that the reason why early studies of political socialization did not include the mass media was the limited effects model of communication, which states that the mass media's effect on attitudes, behavior, and cognitions were limited by other factors. Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton's study (1970) marked a turning point in the study of political socialization. In their survey of 1,291 Wisconsin junior high and high school students, Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton showed causal effects between mass media use and political knowledge. They concluded that mass media use predicted the students' knowledge of politics and political behavior; hence, they reached the conclusion that mass media should be treated as independent or intervening variable in the political socialization process. Since the child is still in the process of learning, the media could not "reinforce" learning because the child has a very limited amount of political predisposition; rather, the media supplied new

information to the child. Immigrants also may learn the same way. Immigrants with good English language skills who have stayed in the United States for a long time have developed some political predisposition, but for new immigrants with few English language skills the mass media would likely serve as the primary political information source (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990).

Other researchers have concluded in their works that the mass media are a major source of political socialization for adolescents. Hollander (1971) concluded after studying "learning about the Vietnam war" (Kraus and Davis 1976) that the mass media's influence was independent of parents' influence.

Currently political socialization research includes the mass media as one of the focus areas of analysis. Research on mass communication has been driven to the individual level. O'Keefe and Reid-Nash (1987) were of the opinion that conceptualization of political socialization should result in development of relevant political knowledge, political behavior competence, and motivation to function competently. An individual may develop political knowledge without transforming that knowledge into political behavior. Adult immigrants going through the process of resocialization may experience conflict of values and norms. They must depend on some communication channel to help them reconcile conflicting values and norms. According to Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1991), the process of political socialization may allow immigrants to accept or reject any information. An immigrant may learn to reject some political ideas from the country of origin and

accept new political ideas from the host country in order to fit and function competently in the new society.

According to social cognitive theory, agents of political socialization--namely, schools, family, peers, and mass media--interact reciprocally. The influence of each agent varies depending on the issue and the individual (Bandura 1986). Immigrants depend on different types of communication media relative to accessibility and how pertinent or useful the information is. Consequently, immigrants seeking information turn to the most accessible source, which is mass media (Chaffee 1982).

Austin (1989) concluded that parents can influence their children's political opinion by talking about news' contents as well as influence the adolescents' orientation toward the mass media. Hence, parents can influence the children's evaluation of news and its source. Similarly, Liebes and Ribak (1992) found that the pluralistic pattern of family interaction increases children's viewing of television news, particularly in families with less education. They concluded that political participation was more likely to be introduced in a pluralistic family based on measures of media exposure, political knowledge, and conversation.

Political Socialization of Adults

Today children are no more the main focus of political socialization studies. Political socialization is a learning process according to Hyman (1959). Adults participate actively in their learning process rather than passively and absorb information. People seek out information which will benefit them. In the old

political socialization research studies, individuals were seen as objects of socialization instead of subjects of it (O'Keefe and Reid-Nash 1987). Early studies of political socialization were unidirectional, concentrating on what was learned without paying attention to what was relearned or unlearned (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990).

Currently political socialization is viewed as a process through which individuals acquire knowledge, skills, and dispositions which enhance their performance in sociopolitical environments. Consequently political socialization is a continuous process whereby a person acquires new knowledge and changes old knowledge as need be. Adults continue to socialize, desocialize, and resocialize throughout life (Chaffee and Yang 1988; O'Keefe and Reid-Nash 1987; Wilson 1984). Factors such as education, occupation, and family can contribute to political resocialization of adults in forming new political attitudes and behaviors in order to play new roles in the community (Brim 1968; Dion 1985).

According to O'Keefe and Reid-Nash (1987), adults may choose to change roles. This role change may necessitate resocialization and changing values and norms. This is also true for immigrants in a new environment who may be forced to seek political information in order to function in the political and economic system. Political socialization of adults and children is similar, but the socialization of the children has more impact because children absorb the information readily while the adults may agree or disagree or even resist norms which are not in

consonance with what they already know (Dion 1985; Mortimer and Simmons 1978; O'Keefe and Reid-Nash 1987).

O'Keefe and Reid-Nash (1987) have stated that the political socialization of the immigrants is similar to that of a child, especially if the political and economic systems of the host country are different from those of the country of origin. In this case, the immigrant assumes the role of a learner in order to develop competence to function in the society.

The political competence of the adult is mainly operationalized as political knowledge. Magazines and newspapers are said to have the strongest effects, while television does not have much effect (Beeker and Whitney 1980; Drew and Weaver 1991; Kennamer 1987a; Morgan and Signorielli 1984). Few studies have correlated significant positive influence of television viewing upon political competence (Kennamer 1987b; Mcleod and McDonald 1987; Sears and Chaffee 1978).

Factors Which Affect Political Socialization of Immigrants

Research studies have shown that certain factors affect the political socialization of immigrants. These factors include the following: educational background, age, income, length of stay in the host country, English language competence, the nature of the political system from which the immigrants come, and use of the mass media.

English Language Competence

Research studies have shown that English language competence is positively associated with media use, especially print media, with a high degree of assimilation into the host community (Goldlust and Richmond 1974; Jeffres and Hur 1981; Kim 1976, 1980; Subervi-Velez 1984). The more exposure one gets to the mass media, the greater will be the individual assimilation in the host society. Immigrants with less English education depend more on their ethnic media for information (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990).

Length of Stay in the United States

Assimilation can also be determined by duration of residence in the United States. Many researchers have associated length of stay in the United States with increased usage of the American media (Greenberg et al 1983; Jeffres and Hur 1981; Kim 1976, 1978; Subervi-Velez 1984). The more an immigrant spends time in the United States, the more competent he becomes in language use because of interpersonal communication, education, and the motivation to function competently in the society. According to Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990), length of time in the United States positively affects English competence and political awareness.

Education and Social Status

Researchers such as Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990), de la Garza and Brischetto (1983), Lee (1984), and Yang (1988) have concluded that education,

English competence, and socioeconomic status affect host society media use. The higher the immigrants' education and socioeconomic status, the higher the use of the mass media of the host society. Immigrants with less education use less of the host country's mass media, especially the print media, but they use more of television, similar to native adults (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990). Educated immigrants at first use television for their political news, but as time passes, they turn to newspapers and magazines for the political news. Newspapers and magazines become their main source of political information, this pattern very similar to that for indigenous adults (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990).

Many studies have been conducted on the assimilation of ethnic and migrant groups (Kim 1982a, 1982b, 1984). Kim studied the communication patterns of Koreans in Chicago. He also studied communication among immigrants in the United States. He concluded from his research (1982a) that the use of ethnic media by immigrants decreases with the length of stay in the United States, while the use of the host media increases also with the length of stay in the United States. He concluded that the host media use and interpersonal communication increase the acculturation of foreign immigrants. Other findings in his study include that the level of acculturation is affected by similarity between culture of origin and host culture, immigrant's age at the time of immigration, educational background, characteristics such as tolerance for ambiguity, and familiarity with the host culture prior to immigration (Kim 1982a). Post

immigration social status and geographical location were also important factors in the immigrant's acculturation (Kim 1982a; Subervi-Velez 1984).

Studies of Hispanic immigrants have reached similar conclusions.

Ownership of radios and televisions and exposure to the mass media have been used as factors to determine acculturation. Studies have found that Latinos have less exposure to print media than Anglos (Brischetto and de la Garza 1985; Duran 1980; Greenberg et al. 1983; Shoemaker, Danielson, and Reese 1984). It appears that less acculturation to print because of less exposure to print is related to language and status variables (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990; Subervi 1986).

Lower age, lower education, lower income, and lower socioeconomic status were associated with greater exposure to and/or preference for English-language media among Hispanics (Brennan 1968; de la Garcia and Brischetto 1983; Dunn 1975).

Language and residency variables have been found to follow a similar pattern.

The ability to read and understand the English language is positively related to an increased exposure to Anglo media among Hispanics (Dunn 1975; Duran 1980; Greenberg et al. 1983).

Greenberg et al. (1983) studied Hispanic adults in the U.S. Southwest and concluded that the number of years of residency in the community was positively related to the frequency of newspaper reading in general and negatively related to the amount of time immigrants spent reading Spanish newspapers. Thus, one may conclude that as assimilation progresses, immigrants become less concerned about events occurring in their ethnic societies.

Other studies have investigated media orientations and cultural identification. Neuendorf, Korzenny, and Armstrong (1980) concluded that there was no support for the hypothesis that Spanish-surnamed Michigan residents who identified themselves as "American" would watch more English-language televisions, watch less Spanish-language television, and be more exposed to news content than would those who identified themselves as "Hispanic" or as "Hispanic-American." In a study of fifth grade and tenth grade students in the southwestern United States, Korzenny, Neuendorf, Burgoon, Burgoon, and Greenberg (1983) found that cultural identification did not appear to differentiate newspaper readership or time spent with newspapers among adolescents of different ages.

According to the conclusion reached by Subervi-Velez's (1984) research on similarities and differences in exposure to Hispanic and English media among Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban residents of Chicago, exposure to the media was a function of a combination of variables for each Hispanic group, there was increased assimilation among Latinos who use English media and decreased exposure to Hispanic media. Language ability and years in the host country had a positive influence on assimilation and exposure to the host media.

Minorities and immigrants have been the focus of political knowledge studies. Tan (1983) studied Mexican Americans, Blacks, and Anglos in Lubbock, Texas. He concluded that exposure to the media contributed to political knowledge and participation among members of all three groups. In 1980, de la Garza and Brischetto (1984) studied Hispanics in San Antonio, Texas, and East

Los Angeles, and found that watching local news was positively related to Latinos turnout in election. They also found that reading a daily newspaper was a significant predictor of preference for a presidential candidate, Jimmy Carter, in the election, but neither variable was associated with voter registration nor with general political participation (de la Garza and Brischetto 1984). De la Garza and Brischetto (1983) found that the number of hours Latinos spent listening to the radio and the frequency with which they watched local news or read newspapers had little relationship to the manner in which they defined the principal problems facing Mexican-Americans or the country or to their evaluation of government spending or practices.

Tam (1983) and de la Garza and Brischetto (1983, 1984) found media used to be associated with political knowledge. The authors did not specify the language used in the media that influenced or did not influence political decision (Subervi-Velez 1986). Subervi-Velez (1984) in his study controlled for sex, age, education, length of stay in the United States, and English and Spanish reading ability. He showed that exposure to Anglo print media had significant influence on political knowledge but not on participation of three Latin groups--Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban.

According to de la Garza and Brischetto (1983), Mexican-Americans use English language television more than Spanish-language television for news. Most of the participants in the survey agreed that they trust English-language television for news. The respondents who were bilingual or spoke English only agreed that

English language television, followed by English newspapers and English radio, was their most trusted source of political news (de la Garza and Brischetto 1983).

Most researchers conclude that mass media use by immigrants is important. Only a few studies to date have investigated the assumption that mass media are essential sources of political socialization of immigrants in the United States.

Korean immigrants in the San Francisco area were surveyed by Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990) to study whether they became socialized to new political roles and capabilities through newspapers or through TV news such as native born American adults. Factors such as age at immigration, education, social contacts, length of stay in the United States, residence status, citizenship, and socioeconomic status were controlled. The researchers concluded from their studies that the foreign immigrants were not prepared to read newspapers as native adults do. Thus, television was the main source of political information (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990). To the respondents, television news was clear, its focus was mainly on three ideas per story, sentences were shorter and written in active voice--all of which should make stories easier to process. Television news thus somewhat compensates for the lack of English language skills.

Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990) concluded that individuals with stronger language skills and greater exposure to U.S. politics get more out of the newspaper. This is also true for indigenous U.S. adults. Korean immigrants read Korean newspapers. Korean-Americans with strong English skills read Anglo newspapers.

Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990) contend that television is not the optimal medium of choice in political socialization, but it is the medium for those who have little choice, especially the immigrants. It was also found that education was significant to media use. Korean-Americans with higher education had strong English-language capabilities and thus read English-language newspapers. This conclusion is in agreement with other earlier studies on immigrants and indigenous minority groups.

Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1991) reported that Korean immigrants who use Korean media see similar associations between the press and the government in Korea and between the mass media and the U.S. government. American media users were found to be able to distinguish the American government from the American mass media; while pluralistic media users (American and Korean media users) did not perceive much difference between American government and the American press. The authors concluded that when the immigrants move from a system based on state censorship of news media, they need some years of experience in the United States to distinguish the independence of the American media from the United States government.

Yang (1988) in his study of Korean immigrants on political socialization found that the American media exposure (both newspapers and television) had significant impact on explaining the variances in knowledge of interest in and discussion of American politics, controlling for pre- and post-immigration characteristics. Korean newspaper exposure, in turn, made significant

contributions to explaining specifically the variance in Korean political interest, knowledge, and discussion.

Studies on political socialization of immigrants and minorities indicate that television news plays a bridging role for adult immigrants whose English language skills are not strong (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990; Subervi-Velez 1986).

Consequently, immigrants appear to use the media in much the same manner as indigenous Americans. Immigrants first turn to television for information and only later as their language skills improve to the print media.

Political Knowledge and the Mass Media

Political knowledge is important to citizens, voters, and immigrants. It enables one to be abreast of the way the government works, how political decisions are made, who influences decisions, and how, and also who are the key players in politics that affect the whole society. Hence, political knowledge has become a key variable in mass media research, and it is the main method of measuring the concept of political socialization. As defined, political socialization is a process through which individuals acquire politically relevant cognitions, values, norms, and behavior patterns of their society (Atkin 1981; Prewitt and Dawson 1977). Studies on the influence of mass media on political socialization are based on the notion that the mass media influence learning processes (O'Keefe and Reid-Nash 1987; Subervi-Velez 1986).

Political learning is an active pursuit whereby the learners are seen as actively participating in learning experiences, in receiving information and

processing it, weighing the advantages and the disadvantages and making decisions based on this information (Johnson-Smanagdi 1983; Zigler and Seitz 1978).

Individual cognitive development and information processing has become a prominent paradigm in socialization studies, according to Baldwin (1969) and Zigler and Child (1973). Individuals can assume new roles when the need arises. New immigrants may have the urge to learn requisite cognitions, values, attitudes, and behavior by looking for information to help them learn and change. Thus, communication behavior is an important variable (Berlyne 1960). The easiest source of information is the mass media, according to O'Keefe and Reid-Nash (1987). Citizens learn about presidential candidates through the mass media campaign coverage (Roper 1983). The dominant source of political learning is newspapers and television with their impact varying according to age and other sociodemographic characteristics (Atkin 1981; Conway, Steven, and Smith 1975; Dominick 1972). According to McCombs (1987), 40 percent of the American news content is about government, public affairs, and politics.

Television and Newspapers in Political Socialization

Research in television news and newspaper reading has concluded that newspaper readers gain more political knowledge than television viewers (Chaffee and Tims 1982; Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, and Signorielli 1984). Individuals who watch television for political information may also read newspapers to supplement their knowledge of politics. According to Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990), people

who watch television closely for political news may also read newspapers to broaden their understanding of political issues.

Mcleod, Bybee, and Duvall (1980) concluded that newspaper reading was the main factor that promoted citizens' awareness of candidates' positions in 1976, but television had little impact on knowledge of the candidates. Patterson (1980) and Berkowitz and Pritchard (1989) reached the same conclusion in their studies. Other studies have also found that newspaper reading increases the ability of an individual to distinguish between issue positions of various candidates (Choi and Becker 1987; Mcleod et al. 1979; Patterson 1979).

Weaver and Drew (1991) in their 1990 study of the Indiana election on issue-position learning about candidates concluded that readers of local newspapers had good knowledge of candidates' positions, while television viewers did not.

Studies in the United States and other western democracies have shown that newspapers and television news affects the political socialization of adolescents (Atkin and Grantz 1975; Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton 1970; Chaffee and Schleuder 1986; Conway, Steven, and Smith 1975; Drew and Reeves 1980; Garramone 1986; Garramone and Atkins 1986; Hawkins, Pingree, and Roberts 1975). Studies have also found positive correlation for children under the voting age between television news exposure and political knowledge (Atkin and Grantz 1978; Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton 1970; Chaffee and Schleuder 1986; Conway,

Stevens, and Smith 1975; Grollin and Anderson 1980; Hawkins, Pingree, and Roberts 1975).

In a national study, high school seniors were interviewed in 1965 and as young adults in 1973. Chaffee (1977) reported that there were significant associations between public affairs newspaper reading and political knowledge. There was positive correlation between newspaper usage in 1965 and political knowledge in 1973. Television news exposure did have significant effects on political knowledge; thus, researchers have reported positive association of television and/or newspaper news (Hawkins 1974; Hawkins et al. 1979; Hirsh 1971; Jackson-Beeck 1979; Johnson 1973; Tolley 1973). The participants in this study were of various backgrounds in terms of sex, age, socioeconomic, and grade levels ranging from elementary to high school. No relevant differences were found between television and newspaper as predictors of political knowledge.

Chaffee and Schleuder (1986) conducted a study of Wisconsin adolescents and their parents. They concluded that when initial knowledge levels were controlled, the impact of newspapers and television was almost equal. Thus, the electorates learn both from the television and print media. It is worthy to note that studies vary as to the impact of newspapers and television on political knowledge. It all depends on the type of respondents, age, and measures of media used for the study, i.e. exposure or attention to ascertain political knowledge.

Newspaper and Television Compared to Television Advertising in Political Learning

Patterson and McClure (1976) conducted a study of the 1972 presidential campaign and reported in their findings that voters learn issues information from exposure to television political advertisements, but not from exposure to television news information. Similar studies have been conducted by other researchers (Atkin 1977; Chaffee and Schleuder 1986; Hofstetter, Zukin, and Buss 1978; Patterson 1980; Zhao and Chaffee 1986). Not all the studies agree with Patterson and McClure's conclusions. Zhao and Chaffee (1986) studied the 1984 Reagan-Mondale presidential election using issue knowledge as the dependent variable and attention to television news and attention to advertisements as the independent variable. Factors such as demographics and campaign activities were controlled. They reported that television news was informative, whereas television advertisements were not (Zhao and Chaffee 1986).

When data from the 1972 Nixon Campaign were analyzed by Hofstetter, Zukin, and Buss (1978), they reported that television news and political advertising were not positively associated with more political knowledge when demographic and political variables were controlled, but the effect of network news becomes significant over political advertising when the controls were removed. Weaver and Drew (1991) found no significant difference on the impact by television news and political advertising on issue knowledge in their study of the 1990 Indiana senatorial election. One item, however, concerning seeing a television

advertisement about the candidates had a positive impact on issue knowledge ($p < .001$). Attention to newspapers had positive impact on political knowledge ($p < .01$).

Drew and Weaver (1991) in another study using the 1988 presidential election measured exposure to local television, exposure to national television news, exposure to local newspapers, exposure to regional newspapers, and attention to television advertisements. They reported that none of the items had any significant impact on political knowledge.

Media Use Measures and Political Knowledge

Newspaper reading and political knowledge has been measured by the exposure one has to the use of newspapers, i.e. frequency of newspaper reading. It involves asking survey participants how many days in a week they read the newspaper or how many days in the past week they read the newspaper. Studies that have utilized this technique include Atkin (1978), Drew and Reeves (1980), Grollin and Anderson (1980), and Jennings and Niemi (1974). Some studies have done comparative analysis of newspaper exposure and attention. For example, Chaffee and Schleuder's (1986) study of Wisconsin parents and their adolescents reported that newspaper exposure was significantly and positively correlated with newspaper attention for adolescents (.40) and their parents (.46).

Other studies with similar conclusions include Mcleod and McDonald (1985) and Chaffee and Choe (1979). Attention has been operationalized by asking survey participants if they pay attention to articles in the newspaper about

national politics and government and by combining how often one reads the U.S. newspaper with how many newspapers one reads regularly into a composite index (Chaffee and Schleuder 1986; Yang 1988; Zhao and Chaffee 1986).

There has been a significant and positive correlation between newspaper exposure and political knowledge (Atkin and Gantz 1978; Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton 1970; Patterson and McClure 1976; Yang 1988; Zhao and Chaffee 1986). Chaffee and Schleuder (1986) reported a significant positive association between newspaper exposure and issue knowledge for adolescents (.11) and their parents (.27). Similarly, newspaper attention measures were reported to correlate between political knowledge and attention for adolescents (.13) and for their parents (.21). Thus, these studies show that the association between political knowledge and exposure and attention to newspapers are significant and positive both for adults and adolescents. The adolescents show lower association for exposure and attention to newspapers. This may be because adolescents are not much interested in pursuing political information, hence, pay more attention to television than newspapers.

Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990) report low newspaper exposure and attention for immigrants, similar to adolescents who are indigenous Americans; thus immigrants are less accustomed to newspaper news. Newspaper reading has been reported by researchers to increase political knowledge, which may likely increase political involvement in readers more than people who do not read newspapers (Chaffee and Tims 1982; Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, and Signorielli

1984). In other studies on newspaper exposure, Zhao and Chaffee (1986) reported an increase of 1.6 percent in political knowledge. Chaffee and Schleuder (1986) predicted from their analysis that newspaper exposure accounted for party issue knowledge for parents but not for adolescents. Chaffee and Choe (1979) reached the same conclusion with exposure accounting for 6.3 percent of the variance. Similar studies on foreign adults on the impact of newspaper exposure as a predictor of political knowledge varies due to socialization characteristics (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990; Yang 1988). For example, when English competence was controlled in their study of Korean immigrants, Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1991) reported that exposure to host country newspapers accounted for a large portion of the variance for those with good English language skills but not for those without English language skills. Equally, length of stay in the United States when controlled also accounted for an increase in political knowledge.

Chaffee and Schleuder (1986) reported that newspaper attention had no impact on party-issue knowledge for young adults or their parents. Also, a similar conclusion was reached by Chaffee and Choe (1979).

In summary, newspaper exposure generally tends to increase issue knowledge for adults but not for adolescents or immigrants. Therefore, one can conclude that newspaper exposure may not be the main source through which immigrants and adolescents get their political knowledge.

Television Use and Political Knowledge

Many researchers have agreed in their findings that there is a positive correlation between measures of television news exposure and attention to public information news (Chaffee and Choe 1979; Chaffee and Schleuder 1986; Drew and Weaver 1991; Mcleod and McDonald 1985).

There has been reported a negative correlation between time spent watching television and political knowledge (Benton and Frazier 1976; Miller, Singletary, and Chen 1988; Patterson and McClure 1976), but there is a positive correlation between frequency of viewing, i.e., exposure, and political knowledge, especially for adolescents (Atkin 1977; Atkin and Gantz 1978; Chaffee, Ward, and Tipton 1970; Hawkins 1974; Hawkins, Pingree, Smith, and Bechtolt 1979; Jackson-Beeck 1979). Exposure to television for adults has little impact on political knowledge. Adults who have shown greater exposure to television have also reported to have less education or to be nonreaders of newspapers. This accounts for the negative correlation for adults between television exposure and political knowledge. Also, adults with the highest television exposure make less income and have low socioeconomic status.

Some other studies have reported positive association for both adolescents and adults between attention to television and political knowledge (Mcleod and McDonald 1985; Zhao and Chaffee 1986). The inconsistencies in research findings on attention to television and political knowledge could be attributed to the fact that when people sit down to watch the television, they could be doing

other things as well, e.g., eating, reading, talking, or playing, and thus giving less attention to television news (Anderson and Lorch 1983).

Zhao et al. (1992) combined attention and exposure in their study of an Orange County, North Carolina, senatorial race on news stories about Jesse Helms and Harvey Gantt in 1990. They reported that exposure accounted for 1.04 percent increase in variance and attention also accounted for 2.14 percent of the variance in exposure. Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990) used a measure of exposure to television news in their study of Korean immigrants. They reported a significant correlation between exposure to television and political knowledge for those Korean immigrants with poor English skills and no significant influence for Koreans who were competent in the English language. Also, for those who had been in the United States for a long time, exposure to television news was not significant, but it was significant for those who had been in the United States for a short period of time (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990).

The Use of Mass Media and Its Overall Impact on Political Knowledge

Some studies have examined the overall effect of different measures of mass media use on political knowledge. Yang (1988) in his study of Korean immigrants in the San Francisco Bay area reported that exposure to the host country's television news, public affairs programs, and newspapers had a significant effect on political knowledge of the immigrants ($p < .001$). Drew and Weaver (1991) reported similar findings in their studies of Indiana voters.

Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1990) reported that the mass media use measures and controls accounted for a significant 24 percent ($p < .001$) of knowledge of American politics. Mass media use measures, according to some studies, correlate significantly with an increase in political knowledge.

Pre- and Post-Immigration Characteristics and Political Knowledge

It has been known from previous studies that pre- and post-immigration factors play important roles in the political socialization of immigrants in the United States. These factors include English competency, length of stay in the United States, education, socioeconomic status, sex, and income.

Yang's (1988) study of Korean immigrants includes education, length of stay in the United States, English competency, and socioeconomic status. He reported a positive significant association between English language and the following factors: education (.58), length of stay in the United States (.29), and socioeconomic status (.46). Thus, Yang's study is in agreement with other studies (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990; Kim 1982a; Subervi-Velez 1986). Yang also reported significant positive association between length of stay and education (.21), socioeconomic status (.22), and citizenship (.47). Studies of indigenous Americans (Austin 1989; Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1990; Mcleod and McDonald 1985; Zhao and Chaffee 1986) have reported that people of higher socioeconomic status have higher political knowledge.

Media Trust and Issue Knowledge

Trust in mass media is essential in learning about politics. The credibility of television has been rated above that of newspapers for many years. According to Roper (1983), 46 percent of participants in a survey chose television while 22 percent chose newspaper when asked which medium they would choose if faced with conflicting news stories. The definition of what is a source has constituted a problem according to Newhagen and Nass (1989). Berlo, Lement, and Mertz (1970) concur with Newhagen and Nass by reporting that respondents do make a distinction between an individual as a source as opposed to an institution as a source. Respondents' trust in newspapers is based on the performance of the newspaper organization, while the credibility of the television is rated based on the on-camera personalities giving the report.

Rogers and Storey (1987) reported that a source of a channel for communication during a campaign may determine the success or failure of a particular campaign. If a candidate chooses a channel with high credibility, its campaign will be successful and the opposite is true for low credibility channels, especially commercial channels which sell goods and services.

Chaffee, Nass, and Yang (1991) did a study on trust in U.S. media on Korean immigrants controlling for pre- and post-immigration characteristics. They reported that the respondents who use Korean-only media could not distinguish between press and government; they considered the press and government to be the same thing based on their orientation in their country of origin. Also, while in

the United States, the same group could not distinguish between the American government and the mass media. In contrast, respondents who use the newspaper, especially those with good English language skills and education and a long stay in the United States, knew the difference (Chaffee, Nass, and Yang 1991).

Political Socialization of Immigrants

To summarize, political socialization is a process through which an individual acquires politically relevant cognitions, behaviors, and attitudes of his community. Studies on mass media and political socialization are based on the theory that the mass media influence learning processes significantly.

Some of the variables that affect a person's political socialization include sex, age, socioeconomic status, education, income. Factors which affect the political socialization of immigrants include English competence, high media exposure, and duration in country. Immigrants with good English skills read host newspapers more than those with few English skills. Hence, good English skills lead to more political knowledge and greater acquisition of the political culture of the host country. The more exposure to the mass media, the more an immigrant will be assimilated into the host society. Immigrants who have been in the United States develop good communication skills over time through education, interaction with other members of the community, and the motivation to function competently in the host society.

Education, English competence, and socioeconomic status affect host society media use. The higher the immigrants' education and social status are, the higher the use of the mass media of the host society will be. Immigrants of less education and socioeconomic status use less of the print media, but use more of television, similar to native adults.

Yang (1988) and Drew and Weaver (1991) concluded in their studies of Korean immigrants that exposure to the host country's television news, public affairs programs, and newspapers had a significant effect on political knowledge. People trust television more than newspapers (Newhagen and Nass 1989; Roper 1983). Immigrants use television as a bridge in political socialization.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND MEASUREMENT

This study was based on a survey by mail questionnaire to the participants, namely a selected sample of Nigerian immigrants in Dallas, Texas, and Chicago, Illinois. This study investigated the relationship between the use of the mass media and the acquisition of political knowledge. Other variables considered included political tolerance, self-esteem, political participation, and authoritarianism. Other agents of political socialization such as the family, school, organizational affiliations, and peers were not included in this study. The data for this research included reported demographic characteristics, the use of ethnic media, and host country mass media, knowledge of United States politics/government institutions, international affairs, exposure to newspapers and television news about politics.

Sampling Procedure

The subjects in this study were selected from all Nigerian immigrants listed in the white pages of the 1994 telephone book of Greater Dallas, Texas, published by Southwestern Bell and the telephone book published by Illinois Bell for Chicago, Illinois. People with Nigerian names were selected from the white pages of these two telephone books. About 468 Nigerian families were listed; 276 from

Dallas and 192 from Chicago. A systematic sampling was taken from this population of 468 families. Beginning with the first person on the list, every second person on the list was selected until the list was exhausted. Since most Nigerians in the United States are married, each person selected was sent two questionnaires: one for the husband and one for the wife. One field administrator was hired and trained to help with distribution of the questionnaires in Chicago, Illinois. He also followed up with phone calls to increase participation in the study.

About 468 subjects (husbands and wives) were chosen to participate in this study. About 40 percent of the respondents (187) returned the questionnaires. There were 20 questionnaires which were returned due to wrong addresses or lack of forwarding addresses. These were replaced through random sampling and mailed to other subjects in the sample. Because a 30 percent or higher return is usually considered a normal return rate for such mailed questionnaires, this 40 percent return rate seemed quite satisfactory.

Limitations of the Study

Only Nigerians with Nigerian language last names were selected for the study. Nigerians with English last names and English first names were not selected since there is no other way of distinguishing them in the listings in the white pages. Many Nigerians were not listed in the white pages and were excluded from the study. This study was limited to two cities--Dallas, Texas, and Chicago, Illinois--which have a total population of 3,513 Nigerian immigrants per

the 1990 U.S. Census of Population. The other option considered for reaching Nigerian immigrants was to obtain mailing lists from various ethnic associations, meetings, and affiliations. This was explored, but it was unsuccessful. Many presidents of these associations/meetings were reluctant to release the mailing addresses of their members. The Immigration and Naturalization Services was written for the mailing list of Nigerian immigrants. This attempt was also unsuccessful. The only viable option was that of going through the white pages of the telephone books to choose Nigerian names for this study.

Many Nigerians were not listed in the white pages. Some of the unlisted Nigerians may be illegal aliens; some may have no phones; others may not want their phone numbers listed for personal reasons. In my opinion, there are likely to be no cultural value or orientation differences between Nigerians listed in the white pages and those not listed since most Nigerians socialize and belong to their ethnic organizations.

Pre-test

The first draft of the questionnaire was presented to 15 Nigerian immigrants: six educators, three students, and six workers. The respondents' feedback was used to draft the final questionnaire. The questionnaire (Appendix A) contained 118 items. The questionnaires mailed to respondents included stamped, addressed envelopes for returning the completed questionnaire to the researcher.

Operationalization and Measurement

Analysis of data was based on descriptive statistics, frequency distribution, regression, and correlation analysis of various variables. For many closely related items, I expected to develop measures by combining the responses to the questions. For example, many of the media use items, I anticipated, could be combined into one or more media use indices.

The questionnaire (Appendix A) included demographic questions about the education, sex, age, income, and socioeconomic status of the subjects. Some of these applied to status in the United States since immigration, others to the respondent's situation in Nigeria before immigration. Questions also included traits related to immigration--the length of time subjects have been in the United States, the level of their English competency, and their immigration status.

Other variables in the questionnaire are attitudinal measures and cognitive measures. One question probed their interest in politics in the United States. Other questions were asked to ascertain the political knowledge of the subjects regarding U.S. politics and political institutions and about international affairs. Additional items questioned the subjects about their democratic orientation, support for the political system of the United States, political tolerance, self-esteem, authoritarianism, and political participation.

Mass media variables include exposure to the print media (newspapers and news magazines), politics and political advertising in the print media, exposure to television and radio, and trust in newspapers, magazines, television, and radio.

Hypotheses

This study attempts to replicate three previous studies conducted on the influence of the mass media in political socialization of immigrants in the United States, namely the research studies by Martinelli (1993), Lee (1984), and Besecker-Kassab (1992). These authors explored the role of the mass media in the political socialization of immigrants.

Martinelli (1993) investigated the role of the mass media in the political socialization of new U.S. citizens (those who became citizens of the United States through naturalization in the California area). He used the 1988 presidential election between Bush and Dukakis. Martinelli concluded that new citizens learn about political issues through political advertisements from each medium. This study did not confirm that television is a bridge to political socialization. Education was the main factor contributing to political knowledge.

Lee (1984) studied Korean immigrants in the Chicago area. Lee reported also that education affected political knowledge. The higher the respondent's level of education was, the more that person made use of the host mass media and hence gained more political knowledge. Higher education levels did not have much effect on democratic orientation. Subjects of high socioeconomic status also gained more political knowledge than those of lower status. The higher status subjects used more of the host media for political socialization compared with those subjects in the lower socioeconomic class. Language fluency also had a positive effect on use of the host media and on political knowledge. Television

had the greatest impact in the political socialization of the Korean immigrants surveyed.

Besecker-Kassab (1992) surveyed the impact of political media on the Maronite Lebanese of south Florida. The study concluded that subjects with higher education made more use of the host country newspapers. Eighty percent of the subjects surveyed had college degrees. The majority of the subjects received their political information from television, mainly from CNN. The study also concluded that the longer a respondent stayed in the United States, the more one preferred the host media for political knowledge.

Previous researchers did not include items on diffuse support of the United States government in their studies. Questions about television "talk shows" and "talk radio" were also not included in these studies or in previous studies. Because these media have some importance today, I have also investigated whether Nigerian immigrants gain knowledge of public affairs from television talk shows and talk radio.

The earlier studies of immigrants and their socialization made interesting discoveries about the impact of media use upon immigrants' acquisition of political knowledge. However, they shared a very limited conceptualization of the possible impact of media upon immigrants' political culture. Political knowledge is but one small component of the many values and attitudes that make up a person's more general political culture. None of these studies explored the issue of political

participation by immigrants, another important matter in understanding the migration experience and the impact upon it of media use.

Given these limitations, this study sought to explore more fully the impact of immigration and immigrants' media behavior upon several additional attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors among Nigerian immigrants in the United States. In order to do so, the questionnaire included not only items on political knowledge, but also items which tapped democratic norms, political participation, diffuse support for the political system, and authoritarianism. Moreover, an attempt was made to establish a base line for possible media-influenced change in these attitudes and behaviors by including items that probed some of them with reference to both the context of Nigeria and of the United States.

Specific Hypotheses of the Study

The specific hypotheses of the study will be:

1. Nigerian immigrants' reported levels of political participation in the United States will be higher than their reported levels of political participation in Nigeria pre-immigration.
2. Nigerian immigrants' level of media exposure will be a function of higher general demographics, lower immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.
3. Nigerian immigrants' level of exposure to talk radio and television talk shows will be a function of higher general demographics, lower immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

4. Nigerian immigrants' level of media trust will be a function of higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

5. Nigerian immigrants' level of diffuse support for the U.S. political system will be a function of higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, higher attitudes, and higher media contact.

6. Nigerian immigrants' level of authoritarianism will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

7. Nigerian immigrants' level of political participation in the United States will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

8. Nigerian immigrants' level of political knowledge will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

9. Nigerian immigrants' level of democratic orientation will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration

traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

10. Nigerian immigrants' level of adjustment to the political culture of the United States will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, higher attitudes, and higher political cultural traits.

The next chapter (5) will present frequency distributions and discussion of the findings of demographics, media exposure, political values and behavior, political norms in Nigeria, and political knowledge. Chapter 6 will present multiple regression analysis results and discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER 5

OVERVIEW OF DATA AND PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part presents demographic tables of the characteristics of the sample population which include gender, age, income, length of stay in the United States, education, social class, occupation, ethnic groups, marital status, English language skills, language spoken most often at home in the United States, and immigration status. The second part presents tables, descriptions of the tables, and preliminary analysis of the media exposure/behavior variables which include media exposure intensity, exposure to television talk shows, exposure to print media, and respondents' levels of media trust. The final part of Chapter 5 presents tables, descriptions of the tables, and preliminary analysis of the findings on political values and attitudes which include political efficacy, political norms in Nigeria, interest in United States politics, diffuse support opinions as to whether the United States and Nigerian governments care for individuals and for basic human rights in Nigeria. There are also questions about when Nigeria was at its best, awareness of what was going on in politics in Nigeria before coming to the United States, the major source of political news in the United States, the major source of political news in Nigeria before coming to the United States, and adjustment to the United States political culture.

Demographic Characteristics

Gender and Marital Status (Q107 and Q114)

The respondents were asked (Q107) "What is your gender?" Two choices (male or female) were given. There were 187 respondents who participated in the survey. One hundred and twenty-eight (68.8 percent) were men while 58 (31.2 percent) were women (Table 5.1). The low number of female respondents was interpreted as the result of the fact that those listed in the white pages were mainly male. It was assumed that most of the males were married and that they would give the questionnaires to their wives. This assumption proved at least

Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Married	Count 1	112	42	154
	Percent	72.7	27.3	82.8
Single	Count 2	13	13	26
	Percent	50.0	50.0	14.0
Divorced	Count 3	3	3	6
	Percent	50.0	50.0	3.2
Column Total		128	58	186
Percent		68.8	31.2	100
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		6.37735	2	.04123
Likelihood Ratio		6.01180	2	.04949
Number of missing observations 1				

partly correct as 112 male respondents were married, and 42 female respondents were married. Thirteen men and 13 women reported that they were single.

Age (Q115)

The respondents were asked "What is your age?" Six categories for age were listed of which respondents checked their age range. Most of the respondents were 36 years old or above (62 percent) (Table 5.2). Only one person was over 55 years of age. Some 37.5 percent of the subjects were 18 years to 35 years of age. The median age bracket was 36 years to 45 years. Thus, it can be concluded that Nigerians are relatively new to the United States since the average length of stay in the United States is 12 years. Age is significantly associated with income.

Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
18 to 25 yrs.	5	2.7	2.7	2.7
26-35 yrs.	65	34.8	34.9	37.6
36-45 yrs.	96	51.3	51.6	89.2
46 to 55 yrs.	19	10.2	10.2	99.5
More than 55 yrs.	1	.5	.5	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Median 36-45 years			Mode 36-45 years	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	

Income (Q111)

Respondents were asked "What is the range of your annual family income?" Seven income categories were provided for the respondents to choose from (Table 5.3). The finding shows the family income of Nigerian immigrants to be rather high. Over 62 percent reported family income above \$34,000 annually while about 17.1 percent have a family income below \$24,000 per annum (Table 5.3). The family income of Nigerian immigrants in the Dallas and Chicago areas, therefore, is comparable to that of Asian Americans who also tend to have high incomes. According to Lee's (1984) study of Korean immigrants, about 64 percent

Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Less than \$14,000	10	5.3	5.4	5.4
\$14,001 to \$24,000	22	11.8	11.9	17.3
\$24,001 to \$34,000	36	19.3	19.5	36.8
\$34,001 to \$44,000	31	16.6	16.8	53.5
\$44,001 to \$54,000	23	12.3	12.4	65.9
\$54,001 to \$64,000	29	15.5	15.7	81.6
More than \$64,000	34	18.2	18.4	100.0
Missing value	2	1.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
		Median \$34,001-\$44,000		Mode \$24,001-\$34,000
Valid Cases	185	Missing Cases	2	

of the respondents reported family income of \$20,000 to \$30,000 annually. The median income of Nigerian immigrants is between \$34,001 to \$44,000 per annum, more than the median income of immigrants surveyed in California by Martinelli (1993).

Length of Stay in the United States (Q 108)

Respondents were asked to write down how many years they have been in the United States. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents have lived in the United States for 12 years or more (Table 5.4). Only 2 percent have lived in the United States for more than 20 years. Thus, the history of Nigerian immigrants in the United States is rather recent and short. The mean length of stay is 11.9 years.

In this study, length of stay in the United States is significantly related to education, interest in politics, language skills, media exposure, political knowledge, and U.S. social class. Length of stay in the United States positively affects English language skills and political awareness among Nigerian immigrants as revealed in the matrix of correlation coefficients in Appendix C. Length of stay is significantly associated with English language skills and also with political knowledge (see Appendix C).

Pre-Immigration Education (Q112)

The respondents were asked, "What was your highest educational attainment in Nigeria or elsewhere before coming to the United States?" Six categories of answers were provided from which to choose. Fifty-three percent of

Table 5.4				
Length of Stay in the United States by Nigerian Immigrants				
Years in United States	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
1	6	3.2	3.3	3.3
2	4	2.1	2.2	5.4
3	6	3.2	3.3	8.7
4	6	3.2	3.3	12.0
5	3	1.6	1.6	13.6
6	2	1.1	1.1	14.7
7	6	3.2	3.3	17.9
8	11	5.9	6.0	23.9
9	9	4.8	4.9	28.8
10	14	7.5	7.6	36.4
11	8	4.3	4.3	40.8
12	16	8.6	8.7	49.5
13	11	5.9	6.0	55.4
14	19	10.2	10.3	65.8
15	27	14.4	14.7	80.4
16	10	5.3	5.4	85.9
17	7	3.7	3.8	89.7
18	4	2.1	2.2	91.8
19	3	1.6	1.6	93.5
20	8	4.3	4.3	97.8
23	1	.5	.5	98.4
24	1	.5	.5	98.9
25	1	.5	.5	99.5
26	1	.5	.5	100.0
Missing	3	1.6	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Mean 11.924	Median 13.000			Mode 15.000
Valid Cases 184	Missing Cases 3			

Nigerian immigrants had only a high school education before coming to the United States (Table 5.5). About 30 percent had some college education while 14 percent already had their first degree. The average pre-immigration education was high school. This accounts for higher English language skills among Nigerian immigrants. In Nigeria, the language of instruction from the elementary schools to the university is English. (The Nigerian education system was inherited from the British rule.)

Table 5.5				
Pre-Immigration Education of Nigerian Immigrants				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Grade school	1	.5	.5	.5
High school	99	52.9	52.9	53.5
Some college	56	29.9	29.9	83.4
Bachelor's degree	27	14.4	14.4	97.9
Master's degree	3	1.6	1.6	99.5
Doctorate degree	1	.5	.5	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Median High School			Mode High School	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases 0		

Education in Nigeria was significantly associated with education in the United States and length of stay in the United States (see Appendix C). It was expected that pre-immigration education of Nigerian immigrants would positively

enhance their education in the United States. Since most Nigerian immigrants have a high school education, it was expected that they would do well in colleges and universities since further education was their primary aim in coming to the United States.

Educated immigrants initially in their early years in the United States use television for their political news according to Chaffee et al. (1990), but with time they switch to newspapers and magazines for their main sources of political news, consequently behaving like indigenous adults. Given the short history of Nigerians in the United States, the high preference for television as their main source of political news in this study was expected. Lee (1984) and Yang (1988) concluded in their studies that English competence, social class, length of stay in the United States, and education affect the use of mass media. This study, as revealed by the correlation coefficient matrix, found that there is strong negative association between the mass media exposure, English language skills, and length of stay in the United States (see Appendix C).

Education in the United States (Q113)

The respondents were asked, "What is your highest educational attainment in the United States?" Six categories of answers were given from which they could choose. Of the 187 respondents, 53 (28.3 percent) received their first degree in the United States (Table 5.6). Thirty-seven percent of the respondents have received masters' degrees and 15.5 percent have obtained doctorates in the United States.

Education in the United States is significantly positively associated with political knowledge and negatively associated with length of stay in the United States. (See Appendix C for the correlations of education with other key variables.)

Table 5.6				
Education Received in the United States by Nigerian Immigrants				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Some college	23	12.3	12.9	12.9
Bachelor's degree	53	28.3	29.8	42.7
Master's degree	70	37.4	39.3	82.0
Doctorate degree	29	15.5	16.3	98.3
Other	3	1.6	1.7	100.0
Missing value	9	4.8	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Median Master's Degree			Mode Master's Degree	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases 9		

Perceived Social Class (Q46 and Q47)

The respondents were asked what they perceived their social class to be before they came to the United States. Four categories ranging from "working class" to "upper class" were provided as choices. Of the respondents, 85.3 percent identified their pre-immigration social class as middle class or above (Table 5.7). Thirty-nine percent identified themselves as working class.

U.S. social class is significantly positively associated with length of stay in the United States (Appendix C).

Table 5.7				
Pre-Immigration Perceived Social Status of Nigerians				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Upper	6	3.2	3.2	3.2
Upper middle	29	15.5	15.5	18.7
Middle	74	39.6	39.6	85.3
Working	43	39.0	39.0	97.3
Don't Know	5	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Median Middle Class			Mode Middle Class	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases 0		

The respondents were also asked what they perceived their social class to be here in the United States (Q46). In the United States, 70.6 percent of the respondents identified themselves as middle class and above while 24.1 percent identified themselves as working class here in the United States (Table 5.8). This finding is in consonance with Martinelli's survey of immigrants in 1993, which also found most of the respondents to be middle class.

A comparison of pre-immigration perceived social class and social class in the United States (Table 5.7 and 5.8) shows that there were six respondents (3.2 percent) who perceived themselves as upper class before coming to the United

Table 5.8				
Social Class of Nigerians in the United States				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Upper	0	0	0	0
Upper middle	13	7.0	7.0	7.0
Middle	119	63.6	63.6	70.6
Working	45	24.1	24.1	94.7
Don't Know	10	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Median Middle Class			Mode Middle Class	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases 0		

States while there were no respondents in the upper class in the United States.

Twenty-nine respondents reported that they were in the upper middle class in Nigeria while 13 respondents also chose the upper middle as their class status in the United States. Seventy-four respondents reported their pre-immigration perceived social class was middle class while 119 of the respondents reported that their perceived social class in the United States was middle class. Seventy-three respondents reported that they were working class before coming to the United States, and 43 respondents reported that they were working class in the United States. Five of the respondents did not know their pre-immigration status, and ten respondents did not know their perceived social class in the United States.

The finding shows that many Nigerian immigrants have moved into the middle class while in the United States either from a higher or lower class in Nigeria. For instance, 119 respondents reported that they were middle class in the United States in contrast to only 74 respondents who called themselves middle class in Nigeria. Six of the respondents who saw themselves as upper class before coming to the United States lost their social status as no respondents saw themselves as upper class in the United States. About 8 percent of the respondents who saw themselves as upper middle class lost their perceived social status. On the whole, the finding reveals that the majority of the respondents (70.6 percent) are middle class or above in the United States. (See Table 5.9 for the comparison of social class.)

Table 5.9

Comparison Table of Social Class in Nigeria and Social Class in the United States of Nigerian Immigrants

Value Label	Social Class in Nigeria		Social Class in the U.S.	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Upper class	6	3.2	0	0
Upper middle class	29	15.5	13	7.0
Middle class	74	39.6	119	63.6
Working class	43	39.0	45	24.1
Don't Know	5	2.7	10	5.3
Total	187	100.0	187	100.0

Occupation (Q116)

The respondents were asked "What is your occupation?" The respondents wrote down their occupations, out of which 16 job categories were compiled (Table 5.10). Nigerian immigrants are engaged in various occupations in the

Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Self-employed	20	10.7	10.9	10.9
Jobless	2	1.1	1.1	12.0
Student	13	7.0	7.1	19.1
Clergy	2	1.1	1.1	20.2
Civil servant	7	3.7	3.8	24.0
Blue collar worker	7	3.7	3.8	33.9
Other	1	.5	.5	34.4
Administrator	7	3.7	3.8	38.3
Accountant	7	3.7	3.8	42.1
Educator	34	18.2	18.6	60.7
Healthcare professional	46	24.6	25.1	85.8
Clerk	2	1.1	1.1	86.9
Cab driver	11	5.9	6.0	92.9
Sales	7	3.7	3.8	96.7
Social worker	6	3.2	3.3	100.0
Missing value	4	2.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	183			
Missing Cases	4			

United States. Of the respondents, 24.5 percent are in the health care professions followed by 18.2 percent educators. About 10.7 percent of the respondents own their own businesses (self-employed). About 1.1 percent of the respondents reported that they were jobless.

Ethnic Group and Religion (Q110 and Q118)

The respondents were asked to write down their ethnic group in Nigeria. A list was compiled of the ethnic groups of five categories. The three prominent ethnic groups in Nigeria, Yoruba, Ibo, Hausa/Fulani, were represented in the survey (Table 5.11). The Ibos accounted for 74.3 percent of the respondents; the Yoruba, 16.6 percent; and the Hausa, 1.1 percent. Most of the Nigerians in the United States are from the southern part of Nigeria. Very few people from the

Table 5.11					
Ethnic Group in Nigeria					
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent	
Yoruba	31	16.6	16.8	16.8	
Hausa	2	1.1	1.1	17.8	
Ibo	136	74.3	75.1	93.0	
Edo	11	5.9	5.9	98.9	
Other	2	1.1	1.1	100.0	
Missing value	2	1.1	Missing		
Total	187	100.0	100.0		
Valid Cases	185				
		Missing Cases	2		

northern part of Nigeria are in the United States. The Ibos predominate in the United States.

Respondents were asked to indicate their religious preference from three options (Q118). Southern Nigerians are overwhelmingly Christians, while Northerners are mainly Muslims. About 95.7 percent of the respondents were Christians, reflecting the part of Nigeria from which they came (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12				
Religion of Nigerians in the United States				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Muslim	6	3.2	3.2	3.2
Christian	179	95.7	96.2	99.5
Traditional religion	1	.5	.5	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186			
		Missing Cases	1	

English Skills: Reading, Speaking, and Writing (Q43, Q44, and Q45)

Questions 43, 44, and 45 asked respondents to rate how good their use of the English language is. Of the respondents, 53.5 percent answered that their English reading skill is excellent while 40.6 percent responded it was very good (Table 5.13). Some 5.9 percent answered that their reading skills were only fair.

Table 5.13				
English Language: Reading				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Fairly good	11	5.9	5.9	5.9
Very good	76	40.6	40.6	46.5
Excellent	100	53.5	53.5	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

For English speaking skills, 37.4 percent answered that their speaking skills were excellent, and 51.3 percent thought their speaking skills were very good (Table 5.14). Only 11.2 percent described their speaking skills as fair.

Table 5.14				
English Language: Speaking				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Fairly good	21	11.2	11.2	11.2
Very good	96	51.3	51.3	62.6
Excellent	70	37.4	37.4	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

For English writing skills, 44.9 percent answered that their writing skills were excellent, and 44.9 percent thought their writing skills were very good (Table

5.15). Only 10.2 percent answered that their writing skills were fair. Because most Nigerian immigrants in the United States came to further their educations, one of the criteria for their admission into the United States was a prerequisite of high school education. Unlike some other immigrants who came to the United States for political or economic reasons, most Nigerians came initially to study and hence have higher pre-immigration educational backgrounds. Nigerian immigrants may have adapted rather quickly, therefore, to the political culture of the United States as a result of their pre-immigration education. This probably stems in part from the fact that American and British forms of government are incorporated in the government, history, or current affairs curricula in the high schools, colleges, and universities in Nigeria. Nigerians also learn about the United States through newspapers, magazines, and radio news. Thus, before coming to the United States, many Nigerians already have some awareness of how the government and political institutions of the United States work.

Table 5.15				
English Language: Writing				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Fairly good	19	10.2	10.2	10.2
Very good	84	44.9	44.9	55.1
Excellent	84	44.99	44.9	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

The correlation matrix in Appendix C shows that language skills are significantly associated with gender, interest in U.S. politics, media exposure, political knowledge, length of stay in the United States, and income. The finding in this study is in agreement with the studies of immigrants by Dunn (1975), Duran (1980), and Greenberg et al. (1983) who concluded that the ability to read and understand the English language is positively associated with increased exposure to the mass media. Because language skills determine most aspects of political socialization, I expect them to relate strongly to various attitudes and values to be explored later.

A factor analysis was done to assist in the construction of an index of English language skills. It included three variables: English Language--Reading, English Language--Speaking, and English Language--Writing. All aligned with Factor 1 with the following factor loadings: reading, .87960; speaking, .86362; and writing, .91417. A reliability analysis was performed to determine whether they would form a strong index. A Cronbach's Alpha of .8625 was obtained, indicating a strong scale. An index of English language skills (LANGSKIL) was thus constructed by adding together the three variables. It will be utilized in later analyses.

Language Spoken at Home in the United States (Q109)

Five choices of languages (English, Yoruba, Hausa, Igbo, and other) were listed from which respondents could choose the language spoken in their home in the United States. The language spoken most by Nigerian immigrants at home in

the United States is English as shown in Table 5.16. One hundred and one respondents (54 percent) chose English as the language of communication at home in the United States. This finding was expected because most of the children of Nigerian immigrants speak English and do not understand Nigerian languages. Thus, English is their main medium of communication at home in the United States. The English language was followed by the Igbo language with 32.1 percent and the Yoruba language at a distance with 18 percent of the respondents.

Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
English	101	54.0	54.3	54.3
Yoruba	18	9.6	9.7	64.0
Hausa	3	1.6	1.6	65.6
Igbo	60	32.1	32.3	97.8
Other	4	2.1	2.2	100.0
	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186			
		Missing Cases	1	

Immigration Status (Q117)

The Nigerian respondents were asked to list their immigration status. Most Nigerians in this sample were either permanent residents or citizens of the United

States as Table 5.17 indicates. These two groups comprised 95.8 percent of the respondents. Very few Nigerian immigrants (3.7 percent) captured in this sample had either an F1 or H1 visa. (F1 visa status is an immigrant admitted into the United States for studies. H1 visa status is given to an immigrant who is admitted into the United States to work.) A permanent resident is an immigrant with a "green card" who is admitted into the United States to live and work. An immigrant who is a citizen of the United States is one who has been made a citizen of the United States by naturalization.

There is not much difference in the demographic characteristics of respondents from Dallas Texas, and Chicago, Illinois. As a result, no further comparison of the respondents in the two cities has been made.

Table 5.17				
Immigration Status				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
F1 Visa	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
H1	4	2.1	2.2	3.8
Permanent Resident	91	48.7	48.9	52.7
U.S. Citizen	88	47.1	47.3	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186			
		Missing Cases	1	

Media Exposure

Major Source of Political News in Nigeria before Coming to the United States (Q96)

The respondents were asked to choose one of five answers (newspaper, radio, television, family and friends, or magazine) as their major source of political information while in Nigeria. The major source of political information for the respondents was the newspaper (44.4 percent) (Table 5.18). Radio was second, chosen by 40.5 percent of the subjects surveyed. Television was a distant third (8.6 percent) as a major source of political information. This finding is in contrast with the overwhelming choice of television as the major source of political information in the United States by Nigerian immigrants. In the United States, their major source of political information was television (78.1 percent). This difference may be due to the fact that television in Nigeria is still underdeveloped and managed and censored by the Nigerian government. Many people do not trust it to give accurate information. It does not have much to offer the audience in terms of programs and reliability. In Nigeria, people are dependent on their radios and newspapers for political information since they can tune to foreign news stations such as the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) or the Voice of America (VOA). Radio news, therefore, can be more accurate than the government television news. Newspapers, too, are excellent sources of political news since most are privately owned, despite constant harassment and intimidation by the government. The credibility of television news is low because it is

censored. Television stations are always the first places the military takes over whenever there is a coup d' etat in Nigeria.

Table 5.18				
Major Source of Political News in Nigeria before Coming to United States				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Newspapers	83	44.4	44.9	44.9
Radio	75	40.1	40.5	85.4
Television	16	8.6	8.6	94.1
Family and friends	8	4.3	4.3	98.4
Magazines	3	1.6	1.6	100.0
Missing value	2	1.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	185	Missing Cases	2	

Most Important Source of Political News in the United States (Q29)

The most important source of political news in the United States for Nigerian immigrants was television. Of the respondents, 78.1 percent chose television as the most important source of political news (Table 5.19).

Newspapers followed a distant second with 12.8 percent of the responses. The source with the lowest number of respondents was magazines (2.1 percent).

Previous studies have also reported that new immigrants to the United States have television as their main source of political information (Chaffee et al., 1990).

Table 5.19				
Most Important Source of Political News in the United States				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Newspapers	24	12.8	13.1	13.1
Television	146	78.1	79.8	92.9
Magazines	4	2.1	2.2	95.1
Radio	9	4.8	4.9	100.0
Missing value	4	2.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	183	Missing Cases	4	

In 1990 Chaffee et al. concluded from their studies of immigrants that people who watch television for political information may also read newspapers to broaden their views on public affairs and politics. This study of Nigerian immigrants also is in consonance with this previous study. Nigerian immigrants overwhelmingly watch television for political information. They also read print media for political information as revealed in Table 5.19.

Television Exposure (Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22, Q23, Q24, Q25, and Q26)

Respondents were asked to choose the television network watched most often for political news. About 45 percent of the respondents reported that they watched an ABC-affiliated television station every day. Thirty-six percent reported that they watched an ABC station several times a week. Thus, a combined total

of 81.3 percent of the subjects watched an ABC television station at least several times a week (Table 5.20).

CNN was the second choice of the respondents. Some respondents (45.5 percent) reported watching CNN every day while other (24.1 percent) reported watching it several times a week, making a combined total of 69.1 percent of the respondents who watch CNN at least several times a week (Table 5.20).

NBC television came third, followed by CBS as the least chosen television network. The data reveal that the majority of the respondents prefer ABC television for political information, followed by CNN.

Most of the respondents in the study also chose ABC television to watch television talk shows (Table 5.21). Television talk shows include "This Week with David Brinkley," main news programs, "Nightline", "20/20," "Donahue," "Oprah," etc. ABC was also the most trusted medium among the respondents (See Table 5.26 on media trust). The second choice for talk shows was CNN.

According to Newhagen and Nass' (1989) study, people watch television stations that they trust to give accounts of political news based on the credibility of the on-camera personalities. Thus, the findings in this study indicate that Nigerian immigrants watch ABC stations more than any other stations. While I have no data on this matter, it seems likely that the preference for ABC among Nigerians likely stems from high credibility ratings for on-camera personalities who broadcast the news for ABC stations. It may be also that the Nigerian respondents in this study prefer the types of programs they watch on ABC stations

Table 5.20				
Television Exposure				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
ABC				
Every day	84	44.9	44.9	44.9
Several times a week	68	36.4	36.4	81.3
Once or twice a week	28	15.0	15.0	96.3
Seldom or never	7	3.7	3.7	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	
CNN				
Every day	85	45.5	45.7	45.7
Several times a week	45	24.1	24.2	69.9
Once or twice a week	38	20.3	20.4	90.3
Seldom or never	18	9.6	9.7	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	
CBS				
Every day	30	16.0	16.1	16.1
Several times a week	65	34.8	34.9	51.1
Once or twice a week	77	41.2	41.4	92.5
Seldom or never	14	7.5	7.5	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	
NBC				
Every day	31	16.6	16.7	16.7
Several times a week	75	40.3	40.3	57.0
Once or twice a week	69	36.9	37.1	94.1
Seldom or never	11	5.9	5.9	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	

Table 5.21				
Television Talk Shows				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
ABC				
Every day	25	13.4	13.4	13.4
Several times a week	64	34.2	34.2	47.6
Once or twice a week	69	36.9	36.9	84.5
Seldom or never	29	15.5	15.5	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	
CBS				
Every day	13	7.0	7.0	7.0
Several times a week	41	21.9	21.9	28.9
Once or twice a week	86	46.0	46.0	74.9
Seldom or never	47	25.1	25.4	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	
CNN				
Every day	21	11.2	11.3	11.3
Several times a week	45	24.1	24.2	35.5
Once or twice a week	63	33.7	33.9	69.4
Seldom or never	57	60.5	30.6	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	
NBC				
Every day	13	7.0	7.0	7.0
Several times a week	45	24.1	24.1	31.0
Once or twice a week	87	46.5	46.5	77.5
Seldom or never	42	22.5	22.5	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

as opposed to any other television stations. Also, ABC news stations may have better and more news coverage.

Reasons for Watching Talk Shows (Q27)

Respondents were asked to choose between "for political/public affairs information" and "for entertainment" as their main reason for watching "talk shows" and/or listening to "talk radio." Entertainment was chosen by 50.8 percent of the Nigerian respondents as their main reason for watching talk shows (Table 5.22). This number was closely followed by 48.1 percent who chose politics and public affair information as their main reason for watching talk shows.

Table 5.22				
Reasons for Watching Talk Shows				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
For political/public	90	48.1	48.4	48.4
For entertainment	95	50.8	51.1	99.5
Don't watch talk shows	1	.5	.5	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	183	Missing Cases	4	

Newspapers (Q8, Q9, Q10, and Q11)

Respondents were asked to indicate how often they read the *Christian Science Monitor*, the *New York Times*, the *Wall Street Journal*, and their local

Table 5.23				
Newspapers Read by Nigerian Immigrants				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
<i>Christian Science Monitor</i>				
Every day	4	2.1	2.2	2.2
Several times a week	10	5.3	5.4	7.6
Once or twice a week	29	15.5	15.7	23.2
Seldom or never	142	75.9	76.8	100.0
Missing values	2	1.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	185	Missing Cases	2	
<i>New York Times</i>				
Every day	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
Several times a week	16	8.6	8.6	10.2
Once or twice a week	44	23.5	23.7	33.9
Seldom or never	123	65.8	66.1	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	
<i>Wall Street Journal</i>				
Every day	6	3.2	3.2	3.2
Several times a week	19	10.2	10.2	13.4
Once or twice a week	53	28.3	28.5	41.9
Seldom or never	108	57.8	58.1	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	
Local Newspaper				
Every day	52	27.8	27.8	27.8
Several times a week	63	33.7	33.7	61.5
Once or twice a week	45	24.1	24.1	85.6
Seldom or never	27	14.4	14.4	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

newspaper (Table 5.23). The majority of the respondents (141, 75.4 percent) reported that they read the *Christian Science Monitor* seldom or never, followed at a distance by 29 respondents who reported that they read it once or twice a week. About 5 percent read it several times a week; only 2.1 percent read it every day.

The majority of the respondents (65.8 percent) reported that they seldom or never read the *New York Times* (Table 5.23). Of the respondents, 23.5 percent read the *New York Times* once or twice a week, and 8.6 percent read it every day.

One hundred and eight respondents reported that they seldom or never read the *Wall Street Journal* (Table 5.23). Fifty-three respondents reported that they read it once or twice a week. Eighteen respondents reported that they read it several times a week. Only six respondents read the *Wall Street Journal* every day.

A plurality of the respondents (33.7 percent) reported that they read their local newspaper several times a week, followed closely by 27.8 percent who read it every day (Table 5.23). Thus, at least 61.5 percent of the respondents read their local newspaper several times a week. Consequently, the majority of Nigerian immigrants appeared to be interested in reading about what is happening in their communities in the United States.

Magazines (Q12, Q13, Q14, and Q15)

Respondents were asked to respond as to how often they read certain weekly magazines (*U.S. News & World Report*, *Time*, *Newsweek*, *New York Times*) for news about the United States. About 49 percent of the respondents reported

that they occasionally read *U.S. News and World Report* (Table 5.24). This number was followed by 27.3 percent of the participants in the survey who reported that they do not read it at all. Fifteen percent reported that they often read it, while 8 percent read *U.S. News and World Report* very often.

Table 5.24				
Magazines Read by Nigerian Immigrants				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
<i>U.S. News and World Report</i>				
Very often	15	8.0	8.1	8.1
Often	28	15.0	15.1	23.1
Occasionally	92	49.2	49.5	72.6
Not at all	51	27.3	27.4	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	186	Missing Cases	1	
<i>Time</i>				
Very often	12	6.4	6.4	6.4
Often	33	17.6	17.6	24.1
Occasionally	116	62.0	62.0	86.1
Not at all	26	13.9	13.9	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	
<i>Newsweek</i>				
Very often	16	8.6	8.6	8.6
Often	37	19.8	19.8	28.3
Occasionally	109	58.3	58.3	86.6
Not at all	25	13.4	13.4	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

The majority (62 percent) of the respondents reported that they read *Time* magazine occasionally (Table 5.24). Over 17 percent of the respondents read it often; 6.4 percent read it very often. Of the respondents, 58.3 percent reported reading *Newsweek* magazine occasionally; 19.8 percent read it often, while 8.6 percent read it very often.

Media Exposure and Gender

Tables 5.25, 5.26, 5.27, 5.28, 5.29, 5.30, and 5.31 present a cross tabulation of gender and media exposure. As revealed by the Table 5.25 on print media, 44 men out of 129 (34.1 percent) read print media very often, and 38 men (29.5 percent) read print media often. A total of 82 men (63.6 percent) out of 129 men read print media at least often, while eight women (13.8 percent) out of 58 women read print media very often, and five women (8.6 percent) read print media often. A total of 13 women (22.4 percent) out of 58 women read the print media at least often. Thus, Nigerian immigrant males read the print media for political information more often than women.

Nine men (7 percent) out of 129 read the print media for entertainment very often, while 22 men (17.1 percent) read the print media for entertainment often (Table 5.26). A total of 31 men (24.1 percent) out of 129 read the print media at least often for entertainment, while three women (5.2 percent) out of 58 women read the print media for entertainment very often and 11 women (19.0 percent) read the print media often for entertainment. A total of

Table 5.25				
Reading Print Media for Political News by Gender				
Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very Often	Count 1	44	8	52
	Percent	84.6	15.4	27.8
		34.1	13.8	
		23.5	4.3	
Often	Count 2	38	5	43
	Percent	88.4	11.6	23.0
		29.5	8.6	
		20.3	2.7	
Sometimes	Count 3	34	27	61
	Percent	55.7	44.3	32.6
		26.4	46.6	
		18.2	14.4	
Occasionally	Count 4	12	15	27
	Percent	44.4	55.6	14.4
		9.3	25.9	
		6.4	8.0	
Never	Count 5	1	3	4
	Percent	25.0	75.0	2.1
		.8	5.2	
		.5	1.6	
Column Total		129	58	187
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		29.71109	4	.00001
Likelihood Ratio		30.67624	4	.00000
Number of missing observations 0				

Table 5.26				
Reading Print Media for Entertainment by Gender				
Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very Often	Count 1	9	3	12
	Percent	75.0	25.0	6.4
		7.0	5.2	
		4.8	1.6	
Often	Count 2	22	11	33
	Percent	66.7	33.3	17.6
		17.1	19.0	
		11.8	5.9	
Sometimes	Count 3	48	19	67
	Percent	71.6	28.4	35.8
		37.2	32.8	
		25.7	10.2	
Occasionally	Count 4	47	23	70
	Percent	67.1	32.9	37.4
		36.4	39.7	
		25.1	12.3	
Never	Count 5	3	2	5
	Percent	60.0	40.0	2.7
		2.3	3.4	
		1.6	1.1	
Column Total		129	58	187
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		.80652	4	.93757
Likelihood Ratio		.80798	4	.93738
Number of missing observations 0				

14 women (24.2 percent) read the print media for entertainment at least often. Thus, Nigerian immigrant women read print media for entertainment slightly more than Nigerian immigrant males.

A total of 109 men (85.2 percent) out of 129 men reported that they watched political news on television at least often, while 24 women (41.4 percent) out of 58 women reported that they watched political news on television at least often (Table 5.27). Hence, male Nigerian immigrants watched political news on television as reported on the table.

A total of 56 men (43.4 percent) out of 129 men reported that they watched television for entertainment at least often, while a total of 38 females (65.6 percent) out of 58 women reported that they watched television for entertainment at least often (Table 5.28). Consequently, female Nigerian immigrant respondents watched television for entertainment more than their male counterparts.

Fifty-eight men (44.9 percent) out of 129 male respondents reported that they listened to radio for political news at least often, while 11 females (18.9 percent) out of 58 female respondents reported that they listened to radio for political information at least often (Table 5.29). Nigerian immigrant males, according to the findings of this study, listened to the radio for political news more than their female counterparts.

Forty-one men (31.8 percent) out of 129 male respondents reported that they listened to "talk radio" at least often, while six women (10.3 percent) out of

Table 5.27				
Watching Television for Political News by Gender				
Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very Often	Count 1	71	9	80
	Percent	88.8	11.3	43.0
		55.5	15.5	
		38.2	4.8	
Often	Count 2	68	15	53
	Percent	71.7	28.3	28.5
		29.7	25.9	
		20.4	8.1	
Sometimes	Count 3	14	23	37
	Percent	37.8	62.2	19.9
		10.9	39.7	
		7.5	12.4	
Occasionally	Count 4	5	10	15
	Percent	33.3	66.7	8.1
		3.9	17.2	
		2.7	5.4	
Never	Count 5		1	1
	Percent		100.0	.5
			1.7	
			.5	
Column Total		128	58	186
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		42.57268	4	.00000
Likelihood Ratio		43.24305	4	.00000
Number of Missing Observations 1				

58 women listened to "talk radio" at least often for political news (Table 5.30).

Nigerian immigrant men listened to "talk radio" more than their women counterparts.

Table 5.28				
Watching Television for Entertainment by Gender				
Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very Often	Count 1	27	23	50
	Percent	54.0	46.0	26.7
		20.9	39.7	
		14.4	12.3	
Often	Count 2	29	15	44
	Percent	65.9	34.1	23.5
		22.5	25.9	
		15.5	8.0	
Sometimes	Count 3	56	13	69
	Percent	81.2	18.8	36.9
		43.4	22.4	
		29.9	7.0	
Occasionally	Count 4	15	7	22
	Percent	68.2	31.8	11.8
		11.6	12.1	
		8.0	3.7	
Never	Count 5	2		2
	Percent	100.0		1.1
		1.6		
		1.1		
Column Total		129	58	187
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		11.12764	4	.02517
Likelihood Ratio		11.83299	4	.01864
Number of missing observations 0				

Table 5.29				
Listening to the Radio for Political News by Gender				
Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very Often	Count 1	27	6	33
	Percent	81.8	18.2	17.6
		20.9	10.3	
		14.4	3.2	
Often	Count 2	31	5	36
	Percent	86.1	13.9	19.3
		24.0	8.6	
		16.6	2.7	
Sometimes	Count 3	39	19	58
	Percent	37.2	32.8	31.0
		30.2	32.8	
		20.9	10.2	
Occasionally	Count 4	25	24	49
	Percent	51.0	49.0	26.2
		19.4	41.4	
		13.4	12.8	
Never	Count 5	7	4	11
	Percent	63.6	36.4	5.9
		5.4	6.9	
		3.7	2.1	
Column Total		129	58	187
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		15.09544	4	.00451
Likelihood Ratio		15.59315	4	.00362
Number of missing observations 0				

Forty-six (35.6 percent) out of 129 male respondents reported that they watched television talk shows at least often, while 16 women (27.6 percent) out of

58 women respondents reported that they watched television talk shows at least often (Table 5.31). Thus, the data suggest that men have more exposure to television talk shows and most other media than women do.

Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very Often	Count 1	19	2	21
	Percent	90.5	9.5	11.2
		14.7	3.4	
		10.2	1.1	
Often	Count 2	22	4	26
	Percent	84.6	15.4	13.9
		17.1	6.9	
		11.8	2.1	
Sometimes	Count 3	34	20	54
	Percent	63.0	37.0	28.9
		26.4	34.5	
		18.2	10.7	
Occasionally	Count 4	43	23	66
	Percent	65.2	34.8	35.3
		33.3	39.7	
		23.0	12.3	
Never	Count 5	11	9	20
	Percent	55.0	45.0	10.7
		8.5	15.5	
		5.9	4.8	
Column Total		129	58	187
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		10.69875	4	.03017
Likelihood Ratio		12.00566	4	.01731
Number of missing observations 0				

Table 5.31				
Watching "Talk Shows" on Television by Gender				
Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very Often	Count 1	15	4	19
	Percent	78.9	21.1	10.2
		11.6	6.9	
		8.0	2.1	
Often	Count 2	31	12	43
	Percent	72.1	27.9	23.0
		24.0	20.7	
		16.6	6.4	
Sometimes	Count 3	47	26	73
	Percent	64.4	35.6	39.0
		36.4	44.8	
		25.1	13.9	
Occasionally	Count 4	33	16	49
	Percent	67.3	32.7	26.2
		25.6	27.6	
		17.6	8.6	
Never	Count 5	3		3
	Percent	100.0		1.6
		2.3		
		1.6		
Column Total		129	58	187
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		3.20807	4	.52363
Likelihood Ratio		4.13833	4	.38761
Number of missing observations 0				

African Newspapers Read by Nigerian Immigrants (Q16, Q17, Q18)

Nigerians were asked to respond as to how often they read certain monthly newspapers (*African Herald*, *African News Weekly*, and *Concorde*) for news about Nigeria. About 47 percent of the respondents reported that they read *African Herald* occasionally (Table 5.32). Of the respondents, 19.8 percent read it often; while 16 percent of the respondents read it very often. Thus, 35.8 percent of the respondents read the *African Herald* at least often. Respondents who had never read the *African Herald* were 17.1 percent. This finding suggests that Nigerian immigrants in the United States remain interested in political and economic news of Africa, especially of Nigeria.

The majority of respondents (45.5 percent) reported that they read the *African News Weekly* occasionally (Table 5.32); 19.8 percent read it often, and 8 percent read it very often. Over 26 percent of the respondents had never read *African News Weekly*. This finding also indicates some interest in news about Africa among Nigerian immigrants.

The majority of the respondents (40.1 percent) reported that they had never read *Concorde* (Table 5.32), followed closely by 37.4 percent of the respondents who reported that they read it occasionally. Sixteen percent read it often while 6.4 percent of the respondents read it very often.

Thus, from these findings, Nigerian immigrants read the local newspaper of the communities where they live far more than they read national newspapers and

magazines. They also read news about Africa from their ethnic newspapers, but less frequently than they read U.S. local newspapers.

Table 5.32				
African Newspapers Read by Nigerian Immigrants				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
<i>African Herald</i>				
Very often	30	16.0	16.0	16.0
Often	37	19.8	19.8	35.8
Occasionally	88	47.1	47.1	82.9
Not at all	32	17.1	17.1	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	
<i>African News Weekly</i>				
Very often	15	8.0	8.0	8.0
Often	37	19.8	19.8	27.8
Occasionally	85	45.5	45.5	73.3
Not at all	50	26.7	26.7	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	
<i>Concorde</i>				
Very often	12	6.4	6.4	6.4
Often	30	16.0	16.0	22.5
Occasionally	70	37.4	37.4	59.9
Not at all	75	40.1	40.1	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

Factor Analysis of Media Exposure

In order to reduce this mass of items on media contacting to a more manageable number, a factor analysis of media exposure was done. Questions 1 through 7 were used for media exposure. Three groups of factors emerged, reflecting three separate modes of media contact. Only variables with a factor of .60 or above were selected. The first factor (MEDEXPO1) isolated three variables (factor loadings in parentheses): "How often do you read print media for political news? (.66445), "How often do you listen to radio for political news? (.85234), and "How often do you listen to 'talk radio' for public affairs information?" (.87441). The second factor (MEDEXPO2) isolated two variables with loadings above .60: "How often do you read print media for entertainment?" (.83474), and "How often do you watch television for entertainment?" (.75612). The third factor (MEDEXPO3) isolated the items "How often do you watch political news on television?" (.67424) and "How often do you watch 'talk shows' on television for public affairs information?" (.72116).

In summary, rather than a single media exposure factor, there were three. MEDEXPO1 isolated a newspaper/radio political news exposure behavior cluster (seeking political news in newspapers or on the radio). MEDEXPO2 isolated an entertainment orientation. MEDEXPO3 detected a separate pattern of using television for political news.

A reliability analysis was done for each of the three groups by combining all variables in each group with a score of .60 and above. Only the first group

(MEDEXPO1) had a reliable Cronbach's Alpha score of .76. Group 2 items (MEDEXPO2) and group 3 items (MEDEXPO3) had very low Alpha scores, and therefore were dropped from the analysis.

Trust of the Mass Media (Q30, Q31, Q32, Q33, Q34, Q35, Q36, Q37)

Nigerians were asked to indicate using a four-point scale how much they trust the various new media to tell them the truth about politics/public affairs. The choices were "distrust very much," "distrust somewhat," "trust somewhat," and "trust very much." A frequency distribution of the findings is presented in Table 5.33.

The majority of the respondents (50.3 percent) reported that they trust talk radio somewhat; 2.7 percent of the respondents trust it very much; 36.4 percent of the respondents distrust talk shows somewhat while 10.2 percent distrust them very much. The findings indicate that Nigerian immigrant respondents have their highest trust for television news. The majority of respondents (56.7 percent) trust television news somewhat while 33.2 percent of the respondents trust television news at least somewhat. This difference could explain the higher preference for television news (over talk radio) as a medium for acquisition of political information among Nigerian immigrants. Only about 10 percent of the respondents distrust television news.

Table 5.33				
Trust of the Mass Media				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Trust in Talk Radio				
Distrust very much	19	10.2	10.2	10.2
Distrust somewhat	68	36.4	36.6	46.5
Trust somewhat	94	50.3	50.5	97.3
Trust very much	5	2.7	2.7	100.0
Missing values	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 186			Missing Cases 1	
Trust in Television News				
Distrust very much	3	1.6	1.6	1.6
Distrust somewhat	16	8.6	8.6	10.2
Trust somewhat	106	56.7	56.7	66.8
Trust very much	62	33.2	33.2	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187			Missing Cases 0	
Trust in Television Commercials				
Distrust very much	27	14.4	14.5	14.5
Distrust somewhat	62	33.2	33.3	47.8
Trust somewhat	89	47.6	47.8	95.7
Trust very much	8	4.3	4.3	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 186			Missing Cases 1	

Table 5.33				
Trust of the Mass Media				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Trust in Television Talk Shows				
Distrust very much	21	44.2	11.4	11.4
Distrust somewhat	73	39.0	39.5	50.8
Trust somewhat	86	46.0	46.5	97.3
Trust very much	5	2.7	2.7	100.0
Missing values	2	1.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 185			Missing Cases 2	
Trust in American Newspapers				
Distrust very much	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
Distrust somewhat	24	12.8	12.8	15.0
Trust somewhat	138	73.8	73.8	88.8
Trust very much	21	11.2	11.2	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187			Missing Cases 0	
Trust in Ethnic Newspapers				
Distrust very much	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Distrust somewhat	29	15.5	15.5	16.6
Trust somewhat	137	73.3	73.3	89.8
Trust very much	19	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187			Missing Cases 0	

Table 5.33				
Trust of the Mass Media				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Trust in News Magazines				
Distrust very much	4	2.1	2.2	2.2
Distrust somewhat	21	11.2	11.4	13.5
Trust somewhat	139	74.3	75.1	88.6
Trust very much	21	11.2	11.4	100.0
Missing values	2	1.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 185			Missing Cases 2	

Over 47 percent of the respondents trust television commercials somewhat, while 4.3 percent trust them very much. On the other side, 47.6 percent of the respondents distrust television commercials. Thus trust for television commercials is about equally divided between respondents who trust them and those who do not trust them.

Approximately 50.2 percent of the respondents distrust television talk shows. Forty-six percent of the respondents trust them somewhat, while 2.7 percent trust them very much.

The second most trusted news medium is the American newspapers. Of the respondents, 73.8 percent trust American newspapers somewhat while 11.2 percent trust them very much. Thus, a combined total of 85 percent of the

respondents trust American newspapers at least somewhat. Of the respondents, 14.9 percent distrust American newspapers at least somewhat.

The majority of the respondents (73.3 percent) somewhat trust their ethnic newspapers while 10.2 percent trust them very much. Over 16 percent of the respondents distrust their ethnic newspapers either somewhat or very much. Thus, most Nigerian immigrants trust their ethnic newspaper and remain interested in news about their region of origin.

The majority of the respondents (74.3 percent) of the respondents somewhat trust news magazines, while 11.2 percent trust news magazines very much. Over 19 percent of the respondents express some distrust of news magazines.

In summary, the majority of the Nigerian immigrant respondents trust the mass media at least somewhat. This finding is in agreement with Martinelli's (1993) findings in her research of new U.S. citizens in California. The most highly trusted media among Nigerian respondents are the television news, followed closely by American newspapers.

A factor analysis of the media trust items was done to help create indices for mass media trust. Two factors were derived. The first factor (TRUST1) had high loadings for trust in news magazines, trust in talk radio, and trust in television commercials. The second factor (TRUST2) had high loadings for trust in American newspapers and trust for in television news. A reliability analysis of each group was done. TRUST1 had a Cronbach's Alpha of .8984, and TRUST2

had an Alpha of .7139, revealing both to be reliable. An index of each type of media trust was constructed by summing up all the variables isolated by each factor. These will be employed in subsequent analyses.

Political Values/Behavior

Interest in U.S. Politics

Of those Nigerians responding, 58.3 percent (Table 5.34) said that they were very interested in U.S. politics, followed by 37.4 percent of those who said that they were somewhat interested in U.S. politics. Thus, those respondents interested in U.S. politics totals 95.7 percent of the respondents.

Table 5.34					
Nigerian Immigrants' Interest in U.S. Politics					
Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Very interested	1	109	58.3	58.3	58.3
Somewhat interested		70	37.4	37.4	95.7
Not at all interested	3	8	4.3	4.3	100.0
Total		187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187		Missing Cases 0			

Table 5.35 reveals that 18 women out of 58 (31 percent) reported that they were very interested in U.S. politics, while 36 of the women (62 percent) were somewhat interested in U.S. politics. In contrast, 91 men out of 129 men (71

percent) reported that they were very interested in U.S. politics. Thirty-four men (26 percent) reported that they were somewhat interested in U.S. politics. Ninety-seven percent of the men were at least interested in U.S. politics compared to 93 percent of the women. While both men and women showed interest in U.S. politics, men were much more prone than women to express the highest level of interest.

Table 5.35				
Interest in U.S. Politics by Gender				
Value Label		Male	Female	Row Total
Very interested	Count 1	91	18	109
	Percent	70.5	31.0	58.3
Somewhat interested	Count 2	34	36	70
	Percent	26.4	62.1	37.4
Not at all interested	Count 3	4	4	8
	Percent	3.1	6.9	4.3
Column Total		129	58	187
Percent		69.0	31.0	100.0
Chi-square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		25.694	2	.00000
Likelihood Ratio		25.834	2	.00000
Number of missing observations 0				

Political Efficacy (Q103 and Q104)

Political efficacy refers to a sense that an individual or ordinary citizen may have some effect on public affairs. I employed two efficacy items. In both cases, wording was such that those Nigerians who answered negatively thought themselves to be politically efficacious. In the first question, "Is voting the only way people can have any say about how the government runs things?", 38 percent disagree and 10.2 percent disagreed strongly making the total respondents who disagree 48.2 percent (Table 5.36). These people are considered politically efficacious, while the 44 percent who answered positively are considered not politically efficacious. Seven percent of the respondents were neutral. Thus, the number of Nigerian immigrants who considered themselves not politically efficacious is slightly less (44 percent) than the number of those who considered themselves efficacious (48.2 percent) (Table 5.36).

The second question on political efficacy asked: "Is politics so complicated that one does not understand what is going on?" Those who answered affirmatively are not politically efficacious while those who answered in the negative are efficacious. Fifty-four percent of the respondents answered affirmatively, hence are not politically efficacious (Table 5.37). A political efficacy index was not constructed because its Cronbach's Alpha was very low.

Table 5.36				
Political Efficacy: Is Voting the Only Way People Can Have Any Say About How the Government Runs Things?				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Strongly agree	36	19.3	19.3	19.3
Agree	48	24.7	25.7	44.9
Neutral	13	7.0	7.0	51.9
Disagree	71	38.0	38.0	89.8
Strongly disagree	19	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

Table 5.37				
Political Efficacy: Politics Is So Complicated				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Strongly agree	17	9.1	9.1	9.1
Agree	84	44.9	44.9	54.0
Neutral	18	9.6	9.6	63.6
Disagree	61	32.6	32.6	96.3
Strongly disagree	7	3.7	3.7	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

Political Norms in Nigeria (Q105 and Q106)

An open-ended question was asked to determine the respondents' perceptions of the political norms in Nigeria. Of the respondents, 38.5 percent answered that corruption and lawlessness were the political norm in Nigeria. Some 12.8 percent mentioned political instability, while another 18.2 percent said that there was no democracy in Nigeria as compared with the United States (Table 5.38). Almost one-third of the respondents (30.5 percent) gave no answer to the question. These answers indicate that Nigerian immigrants feel that Nigeria does not yet have strong political institutions to support democracy. They report a breakdown in law and order and chronic instability as a result of coups and countercoups and unchecked corrupt practices that have become a way of doing business in Nigeria. Thus, Nigerian immigrants in the United States have developed a sense of comparison of the Nigerian political system and the U.S. political system. They understand

Table 5.38				
Political Norms in Nigeria				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Corruption/lawless	72	38.5	55.4	55.4
Instability	24	12.8	18.5	73.8
Not a democracy	34	18.2	26.2	100.0
Missing value	57	30.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	130	Missing Cases	57	

now how democracy works in the United States as compared with the military authoritarian administration of Nigeria.

Some comments from respondents are enlightening:

The United States politicians have respect for their political system and try to follow the rules and the law, while in Nigeria the politicians and the military do not respect the laws and norms of the land. Nigerians engage in fraudulent practices and the Nigerian political system is very weak.

The difference is honesty and dishonesty. The political norms in Nigeria tolerate cheating to a great extent. That is not the case in the United States.

The political arena in the United States is stable and open for all to participate, but in Nigeria there is lack of political stability and openness. In the United States politicians generally operate for the benefit of the nation, but in Nigeria it is ethnic politics.

The United States government is not run by people in uniforms. The financial situation of U.S. politicians are known before they get into office. Nigerian politicians are never accountable to their constituencies. Nigerian politicians recruit corrupt soldiers and policemen. Nigerian politicians are short-sighted, greedy, and fail to take the long-range consequences of their actions into consideration.

Thus, Nigerian immigrants in the United States view the Nigerian political system as ridden with instability, corruption, lack of democracy, greed, unaccountability, and lack of foresight.

The second question asked whether the respondents believe that they have adjusted to the political culture of the United States. An overwhelming 67.4 percent of the respondents said they have adjusted to a great extent to the political culture of the United States (Table 5.39). Some respondents (16.6

percent) said they have adjusted to some extent. Only 1.1 percent said they have not adjusted.

Table 5.39				
Nigerian Immigrants' Reported Adjustment to the Political Culture of the United States				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Great extent	126	67.4	78.8	78.8
Some extent	31	16.6	19.4	98.1
Not adjusted	2	1.1	1.3	99.4
Don't Know	1	.5	.6	100.0
Missing value	27	14.4	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	160	Missing Cases	27	

The Nigerian Government Cares for People Such as Me Versus the United States Does Not Care For Me (Q87 and Q54)

Nigerians were asked to respond to their feelings about whether the Nigerian and U.S. governments care about them, an evaluation of the regimes. About 75.4 percent of the Nigerian respondents disagreed with the statement that the Nigerian government cares for persons such as them (Table 5.40). Only 9.6 percent agreed that the Nigerian government cares for individuals.

In sharp contrast, the respondents (62.6 percent) disagreed with the statement that the U.S. government does not care for them (Table 5.41). Only

11.8 percent agreed that the U.S. government does not care for individuals.

Approximately 24 percent of the respondents were neutral. Consequently, most of

Table 5.40				
The Nigerian Government Cares for People Such as Me				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Strongly agree	4	2.1	2.1	2.1
Agree	12	7.5	7.5	9.6
Don't know	28	15.0	15.0	24.6
Disagree	68	36.4	36.4	61.0
Strongly disagree	73	39.0	39.0	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

the respondents agreed that the United States government cares for them more than the Nigerian government.

Thus, these findings compared suggest that Nigerian immigrants are not too proud of the Nigerian government. More than five times as many Nigerians positively evaluate the government of the United States (believe that the government cares more about them) than feel positively about the government in Nigeria.

Perceived Respect for Basic Human Rights in Nigeria (Q95)

The respondents were asked to what extent they felt the basic rights of the citizens were protected under the Nigerian political system. Of the respondents,

59.4 percent responded, "not at all," followed by 35.8 percent who answered "little extent" (Table 5.42). Only 2.7 percent answered that citizens' rights were protected to some extent, while .5 percent said human rights were protected to a great extent. One may conclude, based on human rights abuse and not caring for the general public, that Nigerian immigrant respondents do not have diffuse support for the Nigerian military administration.

Table 5.41				
The United States Does Not Care For Me				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Strongly agree	8	4.3	4.3	4.3
Agree	14	7.5	7.6	11.9
Neutral	46	24.6	24.9	36.8
Disagree	85	45.5	45.9	82.7
Strongly disagree	32	17.1	17.3	100.0
Missing value	2	1.1	Missing	11.9
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	185			
		Missing Cases	2	

During Whose Rule was Nigeria at Its Best? (Q94)

Nigerians were asked to choose the period of time since independence that they think Nigeria (Nigerian government) has been the best off. Choices were the periods under Balewa/Azikiwe, Gowon, Mohammed, Obasanjo, Shagari, Buhari, Babangida, or Abacha. Respondents (29.4 percent) chose the era of

Table 5.42				
Perceived Respect for Basic Human Rights in Nigeria				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Great extent	1	.5	.5	.5
Some extent	5	2.7	2.7	3.2
Little extent	67	35.8	35.8	39.0
Not at all	111	59.4	59.4	98.4
Don't know	3	1.6	1.6	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	187	Missing Cases	0	

Balewa/Azikiwe, i.e. immediately after independence (1960), as the best administration, followed by Gowon's era after the civil war with 28.3 percent (Table 5.43). The third choice was Mohammed's administration with 20.9 percent of the respondents' choices. The present administration of Abacha was not chosen by any respondent. Each successive administration of Nigeria had fewer than the one before it, as indicated by the responses in Table 5.43 in which the regimes were placed in chronological order since Nigerian independence in 1960.

Corruption has continued despite promises by the military administration to eradicate it. Human rights abuses have continued. The recent hanging of nine Ogoni people in Port-Harcourt attracted world attention to the gross human rights abuses in Nigeria, hence the declining ratings of Nigerian government by Nigerian immigrants in the United States.

Perceived Awareness of What Was Going on in Politics in Nigeria Before Coming to the United States (Q86)

Respondents were asked how often they followed what was going on in the government and public affairs in Nigeria before they came to the United States.

Table 5.43				
During Whose Rule was Nigeria at Its Best?				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Balewa/Azikiwe	55	29.4	30.1	30.1
Gowon	53	28.3	29.0	59.0
Mohammed	39	20.9	21.3	80.3
Obasanjo	14	7.5	7.7	88.0
Shagari	13	7.0	7.1	95.1
Buhari	7	3.7	3.8	98.99
Babangida	1	.5	.5	99.5
Abacha	0	0	0	0
None	1	.5	.5	100.0
Missing value	4	2.1	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	183			
		Missing Cases	4	

As Table 5.44 indicates, 43.3 percent of the respondents claimed always to have followed what was happening in politics while in Nigeria, followed by 27.8 percent who answered that they sometimes followed what was going on in politics. Respondents who usually followed what was going on in politics were 26.7 percent.

Only 2.1 percent answered that they hardly ever followed what was going on in politics. This finding suggests that one may assume that many Nigerians were politically aware of what was going on in politics before coming to the United States.

Table 5.44

Perceived Awareness of What Was Going on in Politics in Nigeria Before Coming to the United States

Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Always	81	43.3	43.3	43.3
Usually	50	26.7	26.7	70.1
Sometimes	52	27.8	27.8	97.9
Hardly ever	4	2.1	2.1	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187	Missing Cases 0			

Political Knowledge (Q38, Q39, Q40, Q41, Q42, Q48, Q49, and Q50)

Table 5.45 presents the questions and frequency tables of questions used to elicit political knowledge. The respondents were asked, "What political office is held by Al Gore?" One hundred and seventy-four (93 percent) respondents chose the correct answer. Eighty-seven percent of the respondents (87.2 percent) knew which branch of the U.S. government determines the constitutionality of the law. Of the respondents, 77.5 percent knew the number of votes in the House of Representatives and Senate required to override a presidential veto. A majority of respondents (89.8 percent) answered correctly the name of the party that has

the majority in the House of Representatives. The name of the conservative party in the United States was known by 88.2 percent of the respondents. Ninety-nine and a half percent of the respondents knew the name of the president of South Africa. The name of the Caribbean nation which the forces of the United States occupied peacefully to oust the military leaders in 1994 was known by 95.2 percent of the respondents. The majority of the respondents (74.9 percent) knew the location of the headquarters of the United Nations.

The findings suggest that Nigerian immigrants answered most of the questions on political knowledge correctly. Thus, one can conclude that Nigerian immigrants have good knowledge of U.S. political institutions/politics and international current affairs.

A factor analysis of the variables for political knowledge was done to help construct an index for political knowledge (POLKNOW1). Three factors emerged.

Table 5.45				
Frequencies of Questions Used to Elicit Political Knowledge				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Q38. What job or political office is held by Al Gore?				
Correct	174	93.0	99.4	99.4
Not correct	1	.5	.6	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases	175	Missing Cases	12	

Table 5.45				
Frequencies of Questions Used to Elicit Political Knowledge				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Q39. What branch of government determines the constitutionality of law?				
President	1	.5	.5	.5
Congress	23	12.3	12.3	12.8
Supreme Court	163	87.2	87.2	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187 Missing Cases 0				
Q40. What is the number of votes in the U.S. Senate and House required to override a presidential veto?				
Correct	145	77.5	90.6	90.6
Not correct	15	8.0	9.4	100.0
Missing values	27	14.4	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 160 Missing Cases 27				
Q41. Which party has the most members in the House of Representatives?				
Correct	168	89.8	93.3	93.3
Not correct	12	6.4	6.7	100.0
Missing values	7	3.7	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 180 Missing Cases 7				
Q42. Which party is more conservative?				
Correct	165	88.2	94.8	94.8
Not correct	9	4.8	5.2	100.0
Missing values	13	7.0	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 174 Missing Cases 13				

Table 5.45				
Frequencies of Questions Used to Elicit Political Knowledge				
Value Label	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
Q48. Who is the president of South Africa?				
Deklerk	1	.5	.5	.5
Mandela	186	99.5	99.5	100.0
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187 Missing Cases 0				
Q49. What is the name of the Caribbean nation which the United States forces occupied peacefully to oust the military leaders in 1994?				
Jamaica	2	1.1	1.1	1.1
Granada	6	3.2	3.2	4.3
Haiti	178	95.2	95.7	100.0
Missing value	1	.5	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 187 Missing Cases 0				
Q50. In what country is the headquarters of the United Nations Organization (UNO) located?				
Britain	4	2.1	2.2	2.2
United States	140	74.9	76.1	78.3
Switzerland	39	20.9	21.2	99.5
Germany	1	.5	.5	100.0
Missing values	3	1.6	Missing	
Total	187	100.0	100.0	
Valid Cases 184 Missing Cases 3				

Only one group of items had factor loadings above .60 which was the cut off point for selection. These variables were Al Gore's office, the majority party in the

House of Representatives, the more conservative party, and Haiti. When a reliability analysis was done of these four items, Cronbach's Alpha was .6758. Consequently, these four will be combined into an index of political knowledge for subsequent analyses.

Summary

To summarize the findings, this study reports on a sample of 187 Nigerian immigrants with a median age in the 36 to 45 years bracket, with a median income of \$34,001 to \$44,000, and an average length of stay in the United States of about 11.9 years. The median pre-immigration education was high school. The median education obtained in the United States was a master's degree. The respondents' median social class was middle class. The respondents' ethnic groups in Nigeria were mainly Ibos and Yorubas with the Ibos in the majority, and most were Christians. Most of the respondents spoke the English language at home in the United States. The findings suggest that the Nigerian immigrants surveyed have good English language skills.

The findings also suggest that the major source of political news in Nigeria for most of the respondents was the newspaper, followed closely by the radio. The major source of political news in the United States for most of the respondents was the television, although many Nigerians were also newspaper readers. Television's leading role as a news source in the United States could be attributed to high trust for television news and credibility of the on-camera personalities. According to Chaffee et al.'s (1990) the study, most immigrants

used television for their political news when they were new in the United States. This finding, then, is consistent with findings in prior research. Most of the respondents were interested in the politics of the United States.

Many Nigerian immigrants were politically efficacious in the United States but had not been in Nigeria. They reported reading their local community newspapers in the United States more than any other print media. ABC was the preferred news station for most Nigerian immigrants. Most Nigerian immigrants reported that they have adjusted to the U.S. political culture.

The next chapter (6) will test the hypotheses presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 6

REGRESSION RESULTS

This chapter tests the hypotheses presented in Chapter 4, employing primarily multiple regression analysis. Political tolerance was not included in the analysis because the variables had low Cronbach's Alpha scores, hence are not reliable.

Hypothesis Related to Nigeria to U.S. Changes

1. Nigerian immigrants' reported levels of political participation in the United States will be higher than their reported levels of political participation in Nigeria pre-immigration.

The hypothesis argues that, given the openness and freedom of the democracy of the United States, the Nigerian immigrants from a military-dominated authoritarian society will have higher political participation in the United States than when they were in Nigeria. It is expected that Nigerian immigrants in the United States will contribute more money to political purposes, participate more in political campaigns, attend more political rallies and meetings, write/talk more to public officials, belong to more political organizations in the United States that take political stands, and vote more in the United States than they did in Nigeria. A paired sample t -test is employed to compare the means of

the various variables. It is likely, of course, that those political activities that require citizenship--such as voting--will be lower among immigrants.

Table 6.1 presents the results of the comparison. The results prove mixed. The mean for making political contributions in the United States (.219) is higher than that for Nigeria (.118). In contrast, the mean for political campaign activism in Nigeria (.182) is higher than reported in the United States (.112). The mean for attending political rallies/meetings in Nigeria (.342) is higher than that for the United States (.198). The mean for the overall political participation index for Nigeria (1.449) is higher than the mean for overall political participation index for U.S. political participation among Nigerian immigrants. On the whole, except for political contributions, Nigerians reported higher pre-immigration political participation.

The data, then, clearly fail to confirm Hypothesis 1 except in the case of campaign contributions. Therefore, political participation among Nigerian immigrants was higher before they migrated to the United States. It takes a while for an immigrant to become politically active in a new society, given his or her immigration status. Only naturalized citizens of the United States are allowed to vote, so the percent of the sample with an F1 visa or an H1 visa are excluded from that activity. However, immigrants also need time to adjust to the political culture of the United States before they are likely to participate actively in politics, even though they are not barred from any other activity such as contacting public officials or attending political rallies. I suspect that, as suggested, becoming

politically involved requires time to become socialized, develop interests in politics, and change one's immigration status. If these are true, political participation in the United States should increase with length of residence. This question is addressed by Hypothesis 7.

Variable	Mean	SD	t-value (p)
Political Participation			
Nigeria	1.449	1.456	-6.67
U.S.	.695	1.149	(.000)
Contributed Money for Politics			
Nigeria	.118	.323	-2.96
U.S.	.219	.415	(.004)
Helped in Political Campaign			
Nigeria	.182	.387	2.29
U.S.	.112	.317	(.000)
Went to a Rally/Meeting			
Nigeria	.342	.476	3.77
U.S.	.198	.399	(.000)
Wrote/Talked to Public Officials			
Nigeria	.754	7.235	1.11
U.S.	.166	.372	(.884)
Belonged to Political Organization			
Nigeria	.230	.422	1.11
U.S.	.187	.391	(.027)
Voted in Nigerian Election			
Nigeria	.577	.495	5.09
U.S.	.348	.477	(.008)

Hypothesis Related to Media Use and Trust by Nigerian Immigrants

2. Nigerian immigrants' level of media exposure will be a function of higher general demographics, lower immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

Hypothesis 2 argues that, if the theories reviewed about acculturation of immigrants hold true, Nigerian immigrants in the United States will have higher levels of media exposure (measured by the index MEDEXPO1 described in the previous chapter) according to the following group characteristics: general demographics (gender, higher income), immigration traits (better English language skills, more secure immigration status, greater length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (higher U.S. social class, more U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (higher Nigerian social class, more Nigerian education), and attitudes (higher interest in politics, greater self-esteem). The hypothesis is tested employing listwise multiple regression of the dependent variable level of media exposure (MEDEXPO) upon those independent variables listed. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 demonstrates that, holding other variables' contributions constant, betas for general demographics--gender (.135) and income (.003)--make no significant contribution to media exposure. Betas for immigration traits-- English language skills (-.039) and immigration status (.126)--are not significant, but the beta for length of stay in the United States is significant (-.153). In effect, the longer one stays in the United States, the less media exposure will take place.

Table 6.2	
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Media Exposure	
Variable	Betas
General Demographics	
Gender	.135 (NS)
Income	.003 (NS)
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	-.039 (NS)
Immigration Status	.126 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	-.153*
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	-.021 (NS)
U.S. Education	-.018 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	-.034 (NS)
Nigerian Education	.007 (NS)
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	.418*****
Self-Esteem	.038 (NS)
R ²	.323
Standard Error	2.376
F	7.480
Signif of F	.0000
Number of cases = 184	

* $p \leq .05$

***** $p \leq .0001$

Betas for U.S. demographics--U.S. social class (-.021) and U.S. education (-.018) and for Nigerian demographics--Nigeria social status (-.034) and Nigerian education (.007)--are not significantly related to media exposure. The beta for the attitude interest in politics (.418) is strong and significant, but the beta for self-

esteem (-.038) is not significant. On the whole, the model accounts for 32 percent of the variance and is significant.

These findings reveal that, contrary to what Hypothesis 2 predicts, U.S. demographics, Nigerian demographics, and general demographics have no impact upon media exposure. One of the immigration traits (length of stay in the United States) and one of the attitudes (interest in politics) are significant. Interest in politics has the strongest impact (.418), followed by length of stay in the United States (-.153).

To summarize, the regression model testing Hypothesis 2 confirms only some of the expected relationships. Media exposure among Nigerian immigrants is positively significantly associated with interest in politics but negatively significantly associated with length of stay in the United States. U.S. demographics and Nigerian demographics have no significant link to media exposure. Part of this finding is in accord with Lee's (1984) report that immigrants with short stay in the United States use the media, especially television, for political socialization, and that television serves as a bridge to political socialization for new immigrants. English language skills and education, contrary to expectation, had no significant relationship to media exposure.

Hypothesis Related to Use of Talk Radio and Television Talk Shows
by Nigerian Immigrants

3. Nigerian immigrants' level of exposure to talk radio and television talk shows will be a function of higher general demographics, lower immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

The hypothesis argues that Nigerian immigrants in the United States will have higher levels of exposure to television talk shows (TVTALKSH) and talk radio (RADIOTSH), the less time they have resided in the United States. According to the literature review, when immigrants come newly to the United States, they use the television as a bridge to political socialization. This study included television talk shows and talk radio exposure by immigrants since these media have not been explored in previous studies. The level of exposure to television talk shows and talk radio is regressed on general demographic characteristics (gender, income), immigration traits (English language skills, immigration status, length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (U.S. social class, U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (Nigerian social class, Nigeria education), and attitudes (interest in U.S. politics, self-esteem). The results of the regression analysis are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 presents, holding other variables contribution constant, betas for general demographics, immigration traits, U.S. demographics, Nigerian demographics, and attitudes of the dependent variable TVTALKSH. None of the independent variables is significantly related to television talk show exposure, nor

Table 6.3		
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Television Talk Shows and Talk Radio		
Variable	Television Talk Show Betas	Talk Radio Betas
General Demographics		
Gender	-.011 (NS)	.079 (NS)
Income	.017 (NS)	-.096 (NS)
Immigration Traits		
English Language Skills	-.060 (NS)	.014 (NS)
Immigration Status	-.079 (NS)	-.060 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	-.114 (NS)	-.166*
U.S. Demographics		
U.S. Social Class	-.005 (NS)	-.016 (NS)
U.S. Education	.023 (NS)	-.017 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics		
Nigerian Social Class	-.044 (NS)	-.114 (NS)
Nigerian Education	.142 (NS)	-.061 (NS)
Attitudes		
Interest in Politics	.048 (NS)	.278***
Self-Esteem	-.032 (NS)	.031 (NS)
R ²	.063	.172
Standard Error	.967	1.079
F	1.056	3.251
Signif of F	.3998	.0005
Number of cases	184	

* $p \leq .05$

*** $p \leq .001$

is the F value for the overall model. For the dependent variable talk radio (RADIOTSH), only two of the independent variables have significant betas: interest in U.S. politics (beta .278) and length of stay in the United States (-.166).

The model for television talk show regression explains about 6 percent of the variance and is not significant. On the whole the model for talk radio accounts for 17 percent of the variance, and it is significant.

To summarize, none of the independent variables--general demographics, immigration traits, U.S. demographics, Nigerian demographics, attitudes--has any significant association with the dependent variable television talk shows. This problem of non-significant association could be because some of the explanatory theory implicit in the independent variables may not be adequate. On the contrary, there is a strong partial positive significant relationship between talk radio listening and interest in U.S. politics (beta .278). Length of stay is negatively significantly linked to talk radio. None of the other independent variables shown in Table 6.3 are significantly associated with talk radio exposure. Thus, Nigerian immigrants who are interested in U.S. politics listen to talk radio for political information. Nigerian immigrants may prefer listening to the radio, for example, the Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) while driving to work or at home. It could also be as a result of habit. Radio was the second choice for Nigerian immigrants as a major source of political information before coming to the United States (See Chapter 5.). Thus, talk radio seems an important source of political socialization for Nigerian immigrants.

Hypothesis Related to Media Trust by Nigerian Immigrants

4. Nigerian immigrants' level of media trust will be a function of higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

The hypothesis argues that, because of the openness and freedom of the press in the United States, Nigerian immigrants in the United States will have higher levels of media trust (measured as media trust 1 and media trust 2) according to the following group characteristics: general demographics (gender, higher income), immigration traits (better English language skills, more secure immigration status, greater length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (higher U.S. social class, more U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (higher Nigerian social class, more Nigerian education), and attitudes (higher interest in U.S. politics, greater self-esteem). Media trust 1 includes trusting news magazines, trusting "talk radio," and trusting television commercials. These media deal more with national and international political information. Media trust 2 includes trust American newspapers and television news. These media deal more with community news and some national and international news. Nigerian immigrants, according to the finding of this study, read more of their local newspapers than any other print media.

Table 6.4 presents multiple regression results of the analysis. None of the betas for media trust 1 attain statistical significance except level of U.S. education (.310). Table 6.4 also shows no significant association between media trust 2 and

general demographics, immigration traits, and U.S. demographics. There are, however, significant relationships between Nigerian demographics (Nigerian social class, $-.168$; Nigerian education, $.242$) and the attitude self-esteem ($.154$), and media trust 2. Trust 2 is trust in American newspapers and television news. In this study, trust 2 has more to do with local news than national and international political information. The model for media trust 1 regression explains about 14 percent of the variance while the model for trust 2 regression explains about 13 percent of the variance of Media trust. The two models of media trust are significant.

To summarize, there is no significant link between media trust and general demographics and immigration traits. A significant relationship exists between U.S. demographics (U.S. education, $.310$), Nigerian demographics (Nigerian social class, $-.168$; Nigerian education, $.242$) and the attitude (self-esteem, $.154$). U.S. education has a strong positive association with media trust 2 which has to do with exposure to national and international print media political information: news magazines for national and world news, "talk radio" such as PBS which deals with national and international issues, and television political commercials which cover both local and national political advertisements. The more educated a Nigerian immigrant is, the more he/she uses these media for political information of what is happening around the world. There are also significant relationships between media trust 2 which has to do mainly, but not exclusively, with local political/public affairs information: American newspapers, e.g. local newspapers which write

Table 6.4		
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Media Trust		
Variable	Trust 1 Betas	Trust 2 Betas
General Demographics		
Gender	.050 (NS)	.058 (NS)
Income	-.011 (NS)	.183 (NS)
Immigration Traits		
English Language Skills	.037 (NS)	.036 (NS)
Immigration Status	-.009 (NS)	-.038 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	-.100 (NS)	.019 (NS)
U.S. Demographics		
U.S. Social Class	-.016 (NS)	-.011 (NS)
U.S. Education	.310***	.092 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics		
Nigerian Social Class	-.139 (NS)	-.168*
Nigerian Education	-.113 (NS)	-.242**
Attitudes		
Interest in Politics	.037 (NS)	-.112 (NS)
Self-Esteem	-.051 (NS)	.153*
R ²	.138	.131
Standard Error	21.523	1.047
F	2.495	2.368
Signif of F	.0062	.0095
Number of cases 184		

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .01$

*** $p \leq .001$

mainly of events happening in the community and local television news which focus on local news and some (brief) national and international news. The lower pre-immigration social class a Nigerian immigrant has, the more he trusts mass

media that deliver local news, and the lower his pre-immigration education, the more he trusts the mass media that deliver local news.

Hypotheses Related to Immigration and Media Use Effects upon Political Attitudes and Behaviors

The following hypotheses test whether immigration experience and media use affect behavior and attitudes of Nigerian immigrants.

5. Nigerian immigrants' level of diffuse support for the U.S. political system will be a function of higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, higher attitudes, and higher media contact.

Hypothesis 5 contends that the level of diffuse support for the U.S. political system will be higher among Nigerian immigrants based on the following group characteristics: general demographics (gender, higher income); media contact traits (more exposure to the mass media, more exposure to talk radio, more media trust), immigration traits (better English language skills, more secure immigration status, greater length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (higher U.S. social class, more U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (higher Nigerian social class, greater Nigerian education), and attitudes (more interest in politics, greater self-esteem). The hypothesis is tested employing listwise multiple regression of the dependent variable diffuse support (DIFFUSSP) upon the independent variables listed. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.5

Table 6.5	
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Diffuse Support	
Variable	Betas
Media Contact Traits	
Media Exposure	-.152 (NS)
Talk Radio	.101 (NS)
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)	-.130 (NS)
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)	-.069 (NS)
General Demographics	
Gender	.076 (NS)
Income	-.010 (NS)
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	.053 (NS)
Immigration Status	.280**
Length of Stay in the United States	.013 (NS)
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	-.080 (NS)
U.S. Education	.165*
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	.072 (NS)
Nigerian Education	.025 (NS)
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	.290***
Self-Esteem	-.235**
R ²	.309
Standard Error	2.735
F	5.002
Signif of F	.0000
Number of cases	184

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .01$

*** $p \leq .001$

Table 6.5 shows that, holding the influence of other variables constant, the contribution of media contact traits, general demographics, and immigration traits are not significant. The beta for immigration status (.280) is significant. The beta for U.S. demographics--U.S. social class (-.080)--is not significant, while the beta for U.S. education (.165) is significant. The betas for attitudes--interest in U.S. politics (.290) and self-esteem (-.235)--are significant. Overall, the model for diffuse support explained about 31 percent of the variance, and it is significant.

In summary, the regression model testing Hypothesis 5 confirms some of the expected relationships. Interest in U.S. politics has the strongest association with diffuse support for the U.S. political systems, followed by immigration status, self-esteem, and U.S. education. Media contact traits, general demographics, and Nigerian demographics have no significant link with diffuse support. Thus, the findings suggest that Nigerian immigrants with higher interest in U.S. politics, lower self-esteem, higher U.S. education, and higher security of immigration status have higher diffuse support for the U.S. political system.

Immigrants with more security of residence and higher U.S. education are likely established in their careers and therefore are proud of the opportunities the political system has provided for them. They have a stake in the system and hence are more likely to feel support for the U.S. political system. Length of residence in the U.S. did not meet expectations; i.e. it was not significant with diffuse support. Thus length of stay in U.S. alone is not enough for an immigrant to have diffuse support for the U.S. political system. It seems one has to have a

stake in the system or some sort of benefits or high political interest in U.S. politics in order to have diffuse support for the system. This suggests that support for a political system is based on what the system does for one or what one derives from the system.

6. Nigerian immigrants' level of authoritarianism will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

Hypothesis 6 argues that the level of authoritarianism among Nigerian immigrants will vary as a function of the following group characteristics: media contact traits (media exposure, exposure to talk radio, media trust 1, media trust 2), general demographics (gender, income), immigration traits (English language skills, immigration status, length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (U.S. social class, U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (Nigerian social class, Nigerian education), and attitudes (interest in politics, self-esteem). Listwise multiple regression was employed to test the hypothesis of the dependent variable authoritarianism (AUTH) upon the independent variables listed. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6 reveals that only the beta for media trust 2 (-.272) is significant. Thus, holding other things constant, people more trusting of the media are less authoritarian. The regression model for authoritarianism explains about 19 percent of the variance and is significant.

Table 6.6	
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Authoritarianism	
Variable	Betas
Media Contact Traits	
Media Exposure	.231 (NS)
Talk Radio	-.080 (NS)
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)	-.043 (NS)
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)	-.272***
General Demographics	
Gender	-.106 (NS)
Income	.108 (NS)
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	-.140 (NS)
Immigration Status	.128 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	.060 (NS)
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	-.137 (NS)
U.S. Education	.085 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	.054 (NS)
Nigerian Education	-.029 (NS)
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	.048 (NS)
Self-Esteem	.093 (NS)
R ²	.189
Standard Error	1.782
<u>F</u>	2.606
Signif of <u>F</u>	.0015
Number of cases	184

*** $p \leq .01$

To sum up, media trust 2 has a strong negative significant association with authoritarianism. Thus, this finding may suggest that there is a link between less

trust in the mass media and more authoritarianism among Nigerian immigrants. Given the fact that Nigerian immigrants came from a dictatorial-military rule dominated political system where the television stations and public radio stations are managed and censored by the government, they might have had the tendency to distrust the mass media before their immigration to the United States, hence, the negative association between media trust and authoritarianism.

While the hypothesis argues that media trust affects authoritarianism, it is also quite possible that the causal influence runs the other way. That is, a propensity toward authoritarianism brought from Nigeria may reduce an immigrant's likelihood of trusting the media in the United States.

7. Nigerian immigrants' level of political participation in the United States will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

Hypothesis 7 argues that the level of political participation among Nigerian immigrants will be derived from the following group characteristics: media contact traits (greater media exposure, greater exposure to talk radio, greater media trust), general demographics (gender, higher income), immigration traits (better English language skills, more secure immigration status, greater length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (higher U.S. social class, more U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (higher Nigerian social class, more Nigerian education), and attitudes (greater interest in politics, higher self-esteem). Recall

that previously in this chapter differences in participation rates in the United States and Nigeria were examined. In most cases, reported participation in Nigeria was higher than that for the United States. The speculation was that it takes time to become socialized and to acquire a stake in the U.S. society. Multiple regression of the dependent variable (POLPAUS) was used to test the hypothesis. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 presents data on the effects on U.S. participation of various independent variables. The media contact traits, general demographics, U.S. demographics, and Nigerian demographics variables make no significant contribution. In contrast, the betas for length of stay in the United States (.257) and self-esteem (.192) are significant. The betas for English language skills (.133), immigration status (-.035), and interest in U.S. politics (-.061), however, are not significant. To the extent that is true, there should be higher political participation in the United States for Nigerian immigrants who have been here the longest. The model for political participation explains about 21 percent of the variance, and it is significant.

To sum up, the analysis has detected the hypothesized association between length of stay in the United States and political participation among Nigerian immigrants in the United States. There is also a link between high self-esteem and political participation among Nigerian immigrants.

Table 6.7	
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon U.S. Political Participation	
Variable	Betas
Media Contact Traits	
Media Exposure	-.015 (NS)
Talk Radio	.056 (NS)
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)	.037 (NS)
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)	.011 (NS)
General Demographics	
Gender	.048 (NS)
Income	.021 (NS)
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	.133 (NS)
Immigration Status	-.035 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	.257**
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	-.041 (NS)
U.S. Education	.005 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	.063 (NS)
Nigerian Education	.023 (NS)
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	-.061 (NS)
Self-Esteem	.192*
² Standard Error	.211
<u>F</u>	1.069
Signif of <u>F</u>	3.001
Number of cases	.0003
184	

* $p \leq .05$

** $p \leq .01$

8. Nigerian immigrants' level of political knowledge will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration

traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

Hypothesis 8 argues that the level of political knowledge among Nigerian immigrants will derive from the following group characteristics: media contact traits (greater media exposure, higher level of exposure to talk radio, greater media trust), general demographics (gender, greater income), immigration traits (better English language skills, more secure immigration status, greater length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (higher U.S. social class, higher U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (higher Nigerian social class, more Nigerian education), and attitudes (greater interest in politics, more self-esteem). The hypothesis is tested using listwise multiple regression of the dependent variable political knowledge (POLKNOW) upon the independent variables enumerated. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.8. The overall model of political knowledge explained about 28 percent of the variance, and it is significant.

Table 6.8 reveals that, holding the contributions of other variables constant, media contact traits--media exposure (-.185), talk radio (.138), and media trust 2 (.023) make no significant contribution to political knowledge. On the contrary, media trust 1 (.340) is significant. Hence, there is a strong link between political knowledge and media trust. Thus, Nigerian immigrants who trust a particular media source may pay more attention to it and may, therefore, gain some political knowledge from it. In Chapter 5, it was reported that Nigerian immigrant

Table 6.8	
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Political Knowledge	
Variable	Betas
Media Contact Traits	
Media Exposure	-.185 (NS)
Talk Radio	.138 (NS)
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)	.340****
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)	.023 (NS)
General Demographics	
Gender	-.023 (NS)
Income	-.040(NS)
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	-.119(NS)
Immigration Status	-.042 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	-.184*
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	.006 (NS)
U.S. Education	.096 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	.031 (NS)
Nigerian Education	-.076 (NS)
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	.055 (NS)
Self-Esteem	-.044 (NS)
R ²	.278
Standard Error	50.947
<u>F</u>	4.307
Signif of <u>F</u>	.0000
Number of cases	184

* $p \leq .05$

**** $p \leq .0001$

respondents chose ABC news stations as their number one news station. It, therefore, appears that they acquire much of their political information from ABC

news stations. The betas for general demographics--gender (-.023) and income (-.040)--are not significant. The betas for immigration traits--English language skills (-.119), immigration status (-.042)--are not significant, but the beta for length of stay in the United States (-.184) is significant. Thus, this finding may suggest that the shorter a period a Nigerian immigrant is in the United States, the more political knowledge he gains. According to literature review, new immigrants use the media as a bridge to political information in order to understand and work effectively within the system. As media contact levels decline, political knowledge levels also decline. The betas for U.S. demographics, Nigerian demographics, and attitudes are not significant.

To summarize, the regression model testing of Hypothesis 8 confirms some of the expected relationships. Media trust 1 (.340) has the strongest association with political knowledge, followed by length of stay in the United States (-.184). It seems that immigrants with less time in residence acquire more political information because of the need to understand the system. This may diminish with time. Education in the United States and Nigeria fell short of expectation. One would have expected that education would be strongly associated with political knowledge, but it was not, as shown in Table 6.8.

9. Nigerian immigrants' level of democratic orientation will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, and higher attitudes.

Hypothesis 9 contends that the level of democratic orientation among Nigerian immigrants will be derived from the following group characteristics: media contact traits (greater media exposure, higher level of exposure to talk radio, more media trust), general demographics (gender, higher income), immigration traits (better English language skills, more secure immigration status, greater length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (higher U.S. social class, more U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (higher Nigerian social class, more Nigerian education), and attitudes (more interest in politics, greater self-esteem). The hypothesis is tested employing listwise multiple regression of the dependent variable democratic orientation (DEMORIE) upon the independent variables listed. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.9. The regression model for democratic orientation explains only about 10 percent of the variance, and it is not significant. There was very little variation in levels of democratic orientation, and that probably accounts for the lack of significant findings here.

Table 6.9 shows that none of the betas for media contact traits, general demographics, immigration traits, U.S. demographics, Nigerian demographics, and attitudes are significant. The analysis, therefore, completely fails to confirm any of the hypothesized relationships to democratic orientation.

10. Nigerian immigrants' level of adjustment to the political culture of the United States will be a function of higher media contact traits, higher general

demographics, higher immigration traits, higher U.S. demographics, higher Nigerian demographics, higher attitudes, and higher political cultural traits.

Question 106 asked the respondents to state to what extent they have adjusted to U.S. political culture. Hypothesis 10 argues that the level of adjustment to the political culture of the United States among Nigerian immigrants will be derived from the following group characteristics: media contact traits (more media exposure, higher level of exposure to talk radio, more media trust), general demographics (gender, higher income), immigration traits (better English language skills, more secure immigration status, greater length of stay in the United States), U.S. demographics (higher U.S. social class, more U.S. education), Nigerian demographics (higher Nigerian social class, more Nigerian education), and attitudes (more interest in politics, greater self-esteem). In addition, this model considers other political cultural traits--authoritarianism, diffuse support, political knowledge, political participation--to see what impact they may have on adjustment. The hypothesis is tested using multiple regression analysis of the dependent variable adjustment to political culture of the United States (ADJCULT) upon the independent variables stated. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10 shows that, holding the contributions of other variables constant, the betas for media contact traits--talk radio (-.266), media trust 1 (-.151), media trust 2 (.103) are not significantly linked to adjustment to the U.S. political culture, but the beta for media exposure (.317) is significantly related. The betas for

Table 6.9	
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Democratic Orientation	
Variable	Betas
Media Contact Traits	
Media Exposure	.150 (NS)
Talk Radio	-.188 (NS)
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)	-.054 (NS)
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)	-.109 (NS)
General Demographics	
Gender	.111 (NS)
Income	-.062 (NS)
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	.063 (NS)
Immigration Status	.081 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	-.101 (NS)
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	.108 (NS)
U.S. Education	-.040 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	-.131 (NS)
Nigerian Education	-.080 (NS)
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	.051 (NS)
Self-Esteem	-.117 (NS)
R ²	.100
Standard Error	1.042
F	1.250
Signif of F	.2400
Number of cases	184

general demographics, immigration traits, U.S. demographics, and attitudes are not significant. On the contrary, there are partial associations between Nigerian demographics, political cultural traits, and adjustment to U.S. political culture.

The betas for Nigerian social class (.154), diffuse support (.256), and political knowledge are positively significant with adjustment to U.S. political culture. The betas for Nigerian education (-.004), authoritarianism (.083), and political participation (-.003) are not significant. On the whole, 22 percent of the variance is explained by the model, and it is significant.

In summary, the regression model used to test Hypothesis 10 confirmed some of the expected relationships. Media exposure had the strongest relationship (.317), followed by political knowledge (.310), diffuse support (.256), and Nigerian social class (.154). The findings reveal that higher media exposures, more political knowledge, greater diffuse support, and higher Nigerian social class are strongly positively associated with adjustment to U.S. political culture.

According to the literature reviewed, when immigrants came new to the United States, they used the mass media, especially the television, as a bridge to acquire most of their political information. This acquisition of knowledge leads to political and social acculturation of the immigrants. The social background of the immigrant before he/she came to the United States also is a determinant of how well he/she adjusts to the political culture of the United States. As reported in Hypothesis 10, pre-immigration social class is positively associated with adjustment to U.S. political culture. Immigrants with high social class before coming to the United States may have a predisposition of political cultural awareness of the U.S. system in form of education. When an immigrant acquires a stake in the system, he/she develops diffuse support for the political system of the United States.

Table 6.10	
Multiple Regression Effects (Betas) of Independent Variables upon Adjustment to U.S. Political Culture	
Variable	Betas
Media Contact Traits	
Media Exposure	.217*
Talk Radio	-.266 (NS)
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)	-.151 (NS)
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)	.103 (NS)
General Demographics	
Gender	.116 (NS)
Income	-.092 (NS)
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	.063 (NS)
Immigration Status	.168 (NS)
Length of Stay in the United States	.009 (NS)
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	.007 (NS)
U.S. Education	-.064 (NS)
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	.154*
Nigerian Education	-.004 (NS)
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	-.150 (NS)
Self-Esteem	.009 (NS)
Political Cultural Traits	
Authoritarianism	.083 (NS)
Diffuse Support	.256**
Political Knowledge	.310***
Political Participation	-.003 (NS)
R ²	.224
Standard Error	32.279
F	2.492
Signif of F	.0010
Number of cases	184

* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$ *** $p \leq .001$

Political adjustment, therefore, is a function of media exposure, political knowledge, diffuse support, and pre-immigration social class.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings in Chapter 5 indicate that most of the respondents used the television as their main source of political information. This finding is in consonance with Lee's (1984) study of Korean Americans which reported that television is the most important source of political socialization for new immigrants to the United States. Most Nigerian immigrant respondents chose ABC television stations as their first preference for news. Following Newhagen and Nass (1989), who reported that people prefer to watch television news based on the credibility of the personalities who broadcast the news, I surmise that this preference for ABC television news may mean that Nigerian immigrants give high credibility to the on-camera personalities of the ABC network and its television stations. ABC news stations may also have a better variety of programs which Nigerian immigrants prefer.

Preferring television news as a major source for political information was a switch for the Nigerian immigrant. The major source of political information for the respondent before coming to the United States was newspapers, followed closely by the radio. This switch could be accounted for by time constraints as a result of work or school and by the high level of trust for television news in the United States. There is freedom of press in the United States, and television

stations are managed and operated by private individuals, unlike in Nigeria where television stations and radio stations are owned and operated by the government and where news is censored before the public receives it. Hence, Nigerians have little trust in news from the government stations.

Chapter 6 shows that Nigerian immigrant respondents reported higher levels of political efficacy in the United States than in Nigeria. The respondents also reported higher levels of diffuse support for the political system of the United States in comparison to that for Nigeria. Despite higher efficacy and diffuse support in the United States, Nigerian immigrants' level of political participation was generally higher in Nigeria before they came to the United States than they report in the United States. On only one of the variables--making political contributions--was the level higher in the United States than in Nigeria. Hence, there is some indication of political attitude change, but it was not enough to bring about a major increase in participation. This I attributed to the time required to adjust to a new political environment and to acquire a stake in it. This finding was expected, given the short history of Nigerian immigrants in the United States.

This study shows a strong association between media exposure and interest in U.S. politics and length of stay in the United States. Part of this finding is in agreement with Lee's (1984) report that new immigrants use the mass media as a source of political socialization more than immigrants with longer stays in the United States. Contrary to expectation, education and English language skills were not significantly and directly linked to media exposure. Rather, as I will

discuss in this chapter, their influence on media exposure is indirect. The effect of English language skills on media exposure is mediated through interest in politics, and that of Nigerian education through length of stay in the United States.

This study has shown a strong positive relationship between talk radio exposure and interest in U.S. politics and a negative link to length of stay in the United States. Thus, talk radio appears to be a good source of political socialization for more recently arrived immigrants and for those interested in U.S. politics. An immigrant might be driving to work and be listening to a Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) station, an excellent source of news. Radio was the second source of major political information for Nigerian immigrants before coming to the United States according to the finding in this study. It could be that the habit of listening to radio news was to some extent carried over from Nigeria, where radio is the preferred broadcast medium, to the United States.

No significant association was found between media trust and income, gender, or immigration traits. Education in the United States, self-esteem, Nigerian education, and social class, however, have significant association with media trust.

According to the findings in this study, interest in U.S. politics is strongly associated with diffuse support, as is high security of immigration status. Also significant is the association between U.S. diffuse support and respondents' self-esteem and U.S. education.

There was a strong significant negative association between authoritarianism and media trust. Length of stay in the United States and self-esteem are strongly positively associated with political participation. Political knowledge was positively associated with media trust and negatively associated with length of stay in the United States. Contrary to expectation, democratic orientation had no significant association with any of the variables. This is likely due to the homogenous nature of the sample population and/or the types of questions posed to the respondents in the survey.

Tables 7.1, 7.2, and 7.3 summarize the major findings of this study and permit a more systematic overview of the results. Table 7.1 is a summary of media-related regression results. Gender, income, English language skills, immigration status, and U.S. social class have no significant association with any of the dependent media variables. On the contrary, education is positively associated with media trust 1 (national and international news media). Nigerian social class, Nigerian education, and self-esteem are associated with media trust 2 (local news media). Unlike other independent variables, length of stay in the United States and interest in U.S. politics have more significant association with two dependent variables--media exposure and listening to talk radio.

There are moderate associations between the mass media exposure and interest in politics (positive) and length of stay in the United States (negative). A very similar result was observed for listening to talk radio. This finding is in accord with Lee's (1984) study of Korean immigrants in Chicago. He reported

that new immigrants employ the mass media, especially the television, as a major source of public socialization more than immigrants who have stayed longer in the United States.

The findings on political culture/participation regression results (Table 7.2) also show that length of stay in the United States affects political participation and political knowledge. Self-esteem affects U.S. diffuse support and political

Variables*	Media Exposure	Television Talk	Talk Radio	Trust 1	Trust 2
General Demographics					
Gender					
Income					
Immigration Traits					
English Language Skills					
Immigration Status					
Length of Stay in the United States	-.153		-.166		
U.S. Demographics					
U.S. Social Class					
U.S. Education				.310	
Nigerian Demographics					
Nigerian Social Class					-.168
Nigerian Education					-.242
Attitudes					
Interest in Politics	.418		.278		
Self-Esteem					.153
R ²	.323	.063	.172	.138	.131
Signif of F	.0000	.3998	.0005	.0062	.0095

*Betas not significant at .05 level are excluded.

Table 7.2					
Summary of Media-Related Regression Results					
Variables*	U.S. Diffuse Support	Authori- tarianism	Political Participation	Political Knowledge	Democratic Orientation
Media Contact Traits					
Media Exposure					
Talk Radio					
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)				.340	
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)		.272			
General Demographics					
Gender					
Income					
Immigration Traits					
English Language Skills					
Immigration Status	.280				
Length of Stay in the United States			.257	-.184	
U.S. Demographics					
U.S. Social Class					
U.S. Education	.165				
Nigerian Demographics					
Nigerian Social Class					
Nigerian Education					
Attitudes					
Interest in Politics	.299				
Self-Esteem	-.235		.192		
R ²	.309	.189	.211	.278	.10
Signif of F	.0000	.0015	.0003	.0000	.2400

*Betas not significant at .05 level are excluded.

Table 7.3	
Regression Results for Adjustment to U.S. Political Culture	
Variable	Adjustment to U.S. Political Culture
Media Contact Traits	
Media Exposure	.217
Talk Radio	
Media Trust 1 (Mass media for national & world news)	
Media Trust 2 (Mass media for local news)	
General Demographics	
Gender	
Income	
Immigration Traits	
English Language Skills	
Immigration Status	
Length of Stay in the United States	
U.S. Demographics	
U.S. Social Class	
U.S. Education	
Nigerian Demographics	
Nigerian Social Class	.154
Nigerian Education	
Attitudes	
Interest in Politics	
Self-Esteem	
Political Cultural Traits	
Authoritarianism	
Diffuse Support	.256
Political Knowledge	.310
Political Participation	
R ²	.224
Signif of F	.0010

*Betas not significant at .05 level are excluded.

participation. People with high self-esteem likely participate in politics either because they feel confident that they may make a contribution or because it makes them feel good about themselves. Because of the homogenous nature of the population, most of the other independent variables did not have any significant association with some of the dependent variables.

Table 7.3 shows that media exposure, pre-immigration social class, diffuse support, and political knowledge have strong positive association with adjustment to political culture. Thus, political socialization is a function of media exposure, pre-immigration social class, diffuse support of the U.S. political system, and political knowledge.

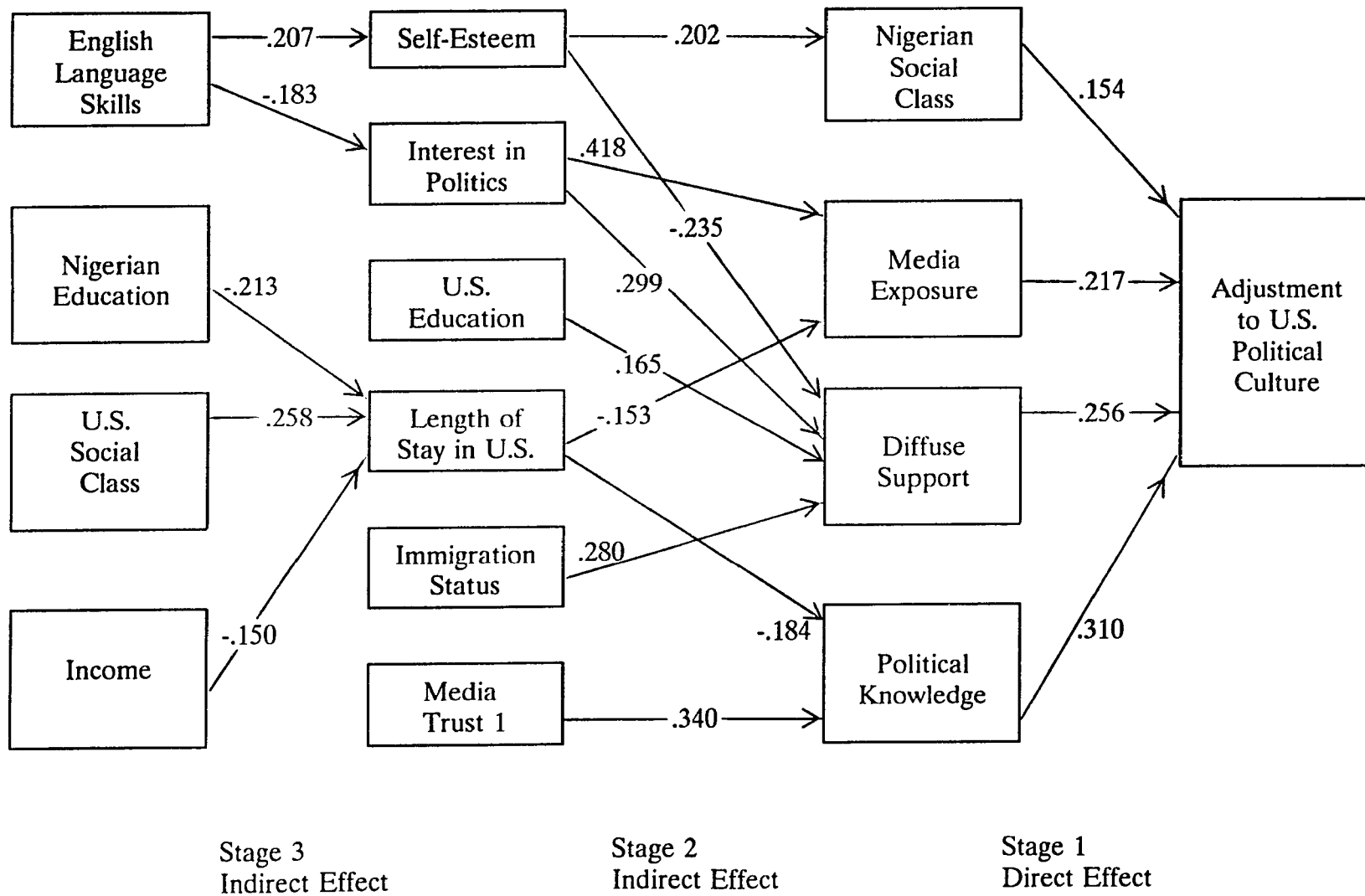
One of the most striking things about Tables 7.1, 7.2, and 7.3 is the small number of significant betas, meaning that many of the hypothesized relationships failed to appear. How may one account for this? First of all, the insignificant relationships of most of the independent variables are at least partly due to the homogenous nature of the sample population--an established and well educated Nigerian immigrant population with average length of stay in the United States of about 12 years. This study was limited to Dallas, Texas, and Chicago, Illinois. Another study of Nigerian immigrants in the United States should, if possible, try to capture a more heterogenous population of Nigerians, especially those Nigerians who have entered the United States in recent years. Greater variation in population traits might permit the researcher to capture some of the originally hypothesized linkages to media use and to culture change.

Figure 7.1 shows a three-stage path model of variables that affect adjustment to the U.S. political culture directly and indirectly. Only significant betas are included in the path analysis.

The Stage 1 part of the model involves the direct influences upon adjustment to the U.S. political culture. As Figure 7.1 shows, media exposure's overall contribution to the reported adjustment of Nigerians to the United States is part of a complex process involving other variables, namely, Nigerian social class, diffuse support for the U.S. political system, and political knowledge. As expected, media exposure contributes directly to adjustment to U.S. political culture, but it is only the third strongest of the contributing factors behind diffuse support and political knowledge.

What one notes at Stage 2 of the model is that several variables hypothesized to directly influence socialization operate not directly but indirectly. That is they are mediated through other intervening variables. For instance, interest in politics affects adjustment to the U.S. political culture indirectly in two ways: (1) by contributing to higher levels of media exposure and (2) by contributing to higher levels of diffuse support for the U.S. political system. Each of these directly increases adjustment to U.S. political culture. While length of stay in the United States does not directly affect adjustment, its influence operates indirectly, over time, as the amount of media exposure and political knowledge decline while adjustment to U.S. political culture increases. Media Trust 1 influences adjustment to the United States indirectly by strongly increasing levels

Figure 7.1 Path Modelling of the Impact of Media and Other Factors upon Adjustment to the U.S. Political Culture



of pre-immigration social class and political knowledge, which in turn affects adjustment to the U.S. political culture. Immigration status influences adjustment to the U.S. political system indirectly by increasing diffuse support which in turn increases adjustment to the U.S. political culture. U.S. education affects adjustment to the U.S. political culture indirectly by increasing the levels of diffuse support and pre-immigration social class which have direct incremental effect to on adjustment to U.S. political culture.

Self-esteem affects adjustment indirectly in two ways. Self-esteem is positively linked to pre-immigration social class which in turn increases adjustment to the U.S. political culture. Self-esteem is negatively linked to diffuse support which in turn increases adjustment to the U.S. political culture.

Stage 3 of the model shows several other variables that have indirect effects on adjustment to the U.S. political culture by having direct effects on Stage 2 variables. English language skills is associated with self-esteem and interest in politics. Higher self-esteem is associated with higher pre-immigration social class which in turn increases adjustment to the U.S. political culture. Lower English language skill is associated with higher interest in politics which in turn is associated with higher media exposure which in turn increases adjustment to the U.S. political culture. Nigerian education, U.S. social class, and income indirectly affect adjustment to the U.S. political culture by having significant association with length of stay in the U.S. which in turn affects media exposure and political

knowledge which in turn increases adjustment to the U.S. political culture. Some factors have direct effects on adjustment to the U.S. political culture.

In summary, the model demonstrates that media contact is only one source of Nigerian immigrants' socialization into the U.S. political culture. Other sources include background factors (pre-immigration social class) and causal chains including diffuse support, and political knowledge. Variables that have indirect effects include self-esteem, interest in politics, U.S. education, length of stay in the United States, immigration status, media trust, English language skills, pre-immigration education, and U.S. social class (see Figure 7.1).

Limitations of this Study and Suggestions

Limitations

This study was limited to Dallas, Texas, and Chicago, Illinois, places where there are large concentrations of Nigerians. There are, however, many Nigerians in other cities across the United States. The conclusions and findings are limited to residents of Dallas and Chicago, but the respondents, I believe, represent a microcosm of Nigerians in the United States. Other agents of political socialization such as the family, school, peers, and organizational affiliations were not considered in this study.

Suggestions

Other studies of Nigerian immigrants should consider sampling a more heterogeneous (larger) population of Nigerian immigrants by including more cities

and more recent Nigerian immigrants to the United States. In this study, 74.3% of the respondents were Ibos. Future studies should endeavor to reach more individuals from other Nigerian ethnic groups in the United States. Perhaps development of a more suitable questionnaire should be considered in future studies of Nigerian immigrants. Future studies on the impact of mass media on the political socialization of other Africans in the United States should strive to reach a broader population of their target population by including many cities. The impact of the U.S. mass media on political socialization of immigrants and the subsequent impact on their countries of origin can be studied to find how the exposure to the U.S. mass media impacts politics when these immigrants return home to engage in politics and government management. Lastly, more studies are still needed on the political socialization of immigrants, their political participation, political knowledge, and diffuse support for the U.S. government.

As Nigeria strives toward democracy, the way and manner whereby its citizens acquire political socialization become important to the political scientists and other social scientists. The stability of a political system depends very much on how the citizens are socialized. As many Nigerians educated overseas, especially in the United States, return home to assume positions in public management and politics, the way they acquired their political socialization would affect their roles in government and foreign policies.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE



University of North Texas

College of Arts and Sciences
Department of Political Science

Fall, 1995

Dear Nigerian Immigrant:

We are conducting a research study about the political attitudes and information of Nigerian immigrants in the United States. You have been selected randomly from the white pages of a telephone book to enable us to complete the survey.

Two questionnaires have been enclosed, one for each Nigerian spouse. If you are single, fill out only one questionnaire.

This is an anonymous survey. Your answers are confidential and will not be identified individually. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire nor on the stamped addressed return envelope.

The success of this study depends on your cooperation. It is NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. When filling out the questionnaire, try to answer all the questions. If you cannot answer a question, skip it and move on to the next question. Please send the questionnaire back in the return envelope within two weeks.

Your cooperation will be deeply appreciated.

Sincerely,

Iheanyi E. Okoro
Doctoral Student
Phone 214-255-1716

John Booth
Professor, Political Science
Phone 817-565-2684

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire has been designed to learn how Nigerian immigrants use the mass media, how they feel about themselves and about politics. This is not a test. People differ in how they feel about each item. We just want your honest opinion. This survey is anonymous. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire or the return envelope. Most people complete this questionnaire within 15-30 minutes. Please take your time and work at your own pace.

Circle an answer to the following questions.

	Very Often	Often	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
1. How often do you read print media for political news?	1	2	3	4	5
2. How often do you read print media for entertainment?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How often do you watch political news on television?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How often do you watch television for entertainment?	1	2	3	4	5
5. How often do you listen to the radio for political news?	1	2	3	4	5
6. How often do you listen to "talk radio" for public affairs information?	1	2	3	4	5
7. How often do you watch "talk shows" on TV for public affairs information?	1	2	3	4	5

How often do you read these newspapers for news about the United States?	Everyday	Several times a week	Once or twice a week	Seldom or Never
8. Christian Science Monitor	1	2	3	4
9. New York Times	1	2	3	4
10. Wall Street Journal	1	2	3	4
11. Local Newspaper	1	2	3	4

How often do you read the following weekly magazines for news about the United States?	Very often	Often	Occasionally	Not at All
12. U. S. News & World Report	1	2	3	4
13. Time	1	2	3	4
14. Newsweek	1	2	3	4
15. New York Times	1	2	3	4

How often do you read these monthly newspapers for news about Nigeria?	Very Often	Often	Occasionally	Never
16. African Herald	1	2	3	4
17. African News Weekly	1	2	3	4
18. Concorde	1	2	3	4

What television network do you watch most often for political news about the United States?	Everyday	Several times a week	Once or twice a week	Seldom or Never
19. CBS	1	2	3	4
20. NBC	1	2	3	4
21. CNN	1	2	3	4
22. ABC	1	2	3	4

How many days a week do you watch television talk shows?	Everyday	Several times a week	Once or twice a week	Seldom or Never
23. CBS	1	2	3	4
24. NBC	1	2	3	4
25. CNN	1	2	3	4
26. ABC	1	2	3	4

27. What is your main reason for watching "talk shows" and/or listening to "talk radio?"

____ 1. For political/public affairs information ____ 2. For entertainment

28. How interested are you in news about U.S. politics?

____ 1. Very interested ____ 2. Somewhat interested ____ 3. Not at all interested

29. What is your most important source of political news?

____ 1. Newspapers ____ 2. Television ____ 3. Magazines ____ 4. Radio

How much do you trust the following to tell you the truth about politics/public affairs? Circle the number in the column which most accurately answers the question.

	Distrust very much	Distrust somewhat	Trust somewhat	Trust very much
30. American Newspaper	1	2	3	4
31. Television News	1	2	3	4
32. News Magazines	1	2	3	4
33. Television Commercials	1	2	3	4
34. The U.S. Government	1	2	3	4
35. Your Ethnic Newspaper	1	2	3	4
36. TV Talk Shows	1	2	3	4
37. Talk Radio	1	2	3	4

Here are a few questions about the government in Washington, D.C. Many people don't know the answers to these questions so if there are some you don't know, just leave them blank and go on.

38. Do you happen to know what job or political office is now held by Al Gore?

39. Whose responsibility is it to determine if a law is constitutional or not? Is it the President, the Congress, or the Supreme Court?

____ 1. President ____ 2. Congress ____ 3. Supreme Court

40. How much of a majority is required for the U.S. Senate and House to override a presidential veto?

41. Do you happen to know which party has the most members in the House of Representatives?

42. Would you say that one of the parties is more conservative than the other at the national level? Which party is more conservative?

How good is your use of the English language? Circle one answer for each category.

	Not Good	Fairly Good	Very Good	Excellent
43. Speaking	1	2	3	4
44. Reading	1	2	3	4
45. Writing	1	2	3	4

46. In which U.S. social class would you place yourself?
 ___ 1. Upper ___ 2. Upper middle ___ 3. Middle ___ 4. Working ___ 5. Don't know
47. In which social class in Nigeria would you place yourself before coming to the U.S.?
 ___ 1. Upper ___ 2. Upper middle ___ 3. Middle ___ 4. Working ___ 5. Don't know
48. Who is the President of South Africa?
 ___ 1. Deklerk ___ 2. Mandela ___ 3. Botha ___ 4. Buthelezi
49. What is the name of the Caribbean nation which the United States forces occupied peacefully to oust the military leaders in 1994?
 ___ 1. Jamaica ___ 2. Granada ___ 3. Haiti ___ 4. Bermuda
50. In what country is the headquarters of the United Nations Organization (UNO) located?
 ___ 1. Britain ___ 2. United States ___ 3. Switzerland ___ 4. Germany

We are interested in how you think about several general issues. Please circle one answer for each of the following.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
51. Democracy is the best form of government.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Rule by law is better than rule by virtuous rulers.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Public officials should be chosen by majority vote.	1	2	3	4	5
54. The United States government does not care for a person such as me.	1	2	3	4	5
55. We should not allow people to make speeches against our kind of government.	1	2	3	4	5
56. I believe in free speech for everybody no matter what their views might be.	1	2	3	4	5
57. Society shouldn't have to put up with those who have political ideas that are extremely different than the majority.	1	2	3	4	5
58. It is refreshing to hear someone stand up for an unpopular view, even if most people find the view offensive.	1	2	3	4	5
59. Free speech is just not worth it if it means that we have to put up with the danger of extremist political ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
60. No matter what a person's political beliefs are, he or she is entitled to the same legal rights and protections as anyone else.	1	2	3	4	5
61. "Free speech" means that people should even be allowed to make speeches and write books urging the overthrow of the government.	1	2	3	4	5
62. To keep society orderly, we all must obey the police.	1	2	3	4	5
63. There is a lot of good to be said for people who are different from the crowd. I think it is more important to be creative and true to yourself than to act in ways so that others will accept you.	1	2	3	4	5

We are interested in how you think about several general issues. Please circle one answer for each of the following.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
64. Though drug dealers certainly are a problem in our society, we ought to think about helping and rehabilitating them more than punishing them. The truth is: no one really learns anything from punishment.	1	2	3	4	5
65. Anyone who is homosexual is sick and immoral.	1	2	3	4	5
66. There is never such a thing as a "wrong" idea. Two people could be saying completely different things and neither of them has to be wrong. It is because people can't see this that fighting breaks out.	1	2	3	4	5
67. The way to solve the crime problem in U.S. is to enforce tough laws and put criminals behind bars for a long time.	1	2	3	4	5
68. In this world, you have to fight for what you want. Compromise is really the same thing as losing.	1	2	3	4	5
69. Just because people are older or have positions of authority doesn't mean they know what is good for kids.	1	2	3	4	5

Circle one answer for each of the following.

	Great Extent	Some Extent	None	Don't Know
70. To what extent do you respect the political institutions of the United States?	1	2	3	4
71. To what extent do you feel the basic rights of the citizens are well protected under the U.S. political system?	1	2	3	4
72. To what extent do you feel proud to live under the political system of the United States?	1	2	3	4
73. To what extent do you feel that the political system of the United States is the best system possible?	1	2	3	4
74. To what extent do you think the U.S. governing system should be supported?	1	2	3	4
75. To what extent do you have confidence in the Constitution of the United States?	1	2	3	4

We are interested in your own opinion of yourself. Circle the number in the box to indicate your agreement with each sentence below. Please answer the following questions as honestly as you can. Remember, this is private.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
76. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4
77. At times I think I am no good at all.	1	2	3	4
78. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4
79. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4
80. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4
81. I certainly feel useless at times.	1	2	3	4
82. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least equal with others.	1	2	3	4
83. I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1	2	3	4
84. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1	2	3	4
85. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4

The following questions refer to when you were in Nigeria before you came to the United States.

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Hardly ever
86. How often would you say that you were following what was going on in the government and public affairs?	1	2	3	4

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Don't Know	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
87. The Nigerian government cares for people like me.	1	2	3	4	5

The following questions refer to political participation in Nigeria before coming to the United States.

	Yes	No
88. Contributed money	1	2
89. Worked in campaign	1	2
90. Went to meetings or rallies	1	2
91. Wrote to or talked to a public official	1	2
92. Belonged to an organization that took stands	1	2
93. Voted in an election	1	2

94. When since independence do you think that Nigeria (Nigerian government) has been the best off? ___ 1. Balewa/Azikiwe ___ 2. Gowon ___ 3. Mohammed ___ 4. Obasanjo ___ 5. Shagari ___ 6. Buhari ___ 7. Babangida ___ 8. Abacha
95. To what extent do you feel the basic rights of the citizens are protected under the Nigerian political system?
___ 1. Great extent ___ 2. Some extent ___ 3. Little extent ___ 4. Not at all ___ 5. Don't know
96. While in Nigeria your major source of political information was: (Check one answer.)
___ 1. Newspaper ___ 2. Radio ___ 3. Television ___ 4. Family and friends ___ 5. Magazine

The following questions refer to political participation in the United States.

	Yes	No
97. Contributed money	1	2
98. Worked in a campaign	1	2
99. Have gone to meetings or rallies	1	2
100. Have written to or talked to a public official	1	2
101. Belong to an organization that took stands	1	2
102. Voted in an election	1	2

Circle one answer for each of the following.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
103. Is voting the only way people can have any say about how the government runs things?	1	2	3	4	5
104. Are politics and government so complicated that sometimes a person can not really understand what is going on?	1	2	3	4	5

105. What differences do you see between the political norms in the United States and Nigeria?

106. How much do you think you have adjusted to the different political culture of the United States compared with Nigeria?

107. What is your gender? 1. Male 2. Female

108. How many years have you been in the United States? _____

109. What language do you speak most in your home in the United States?

1. English 2. Yoruba 3. Hausa 4. Igbo 5. Other _____

110. What is your ethnic group in Nigeria? _____

111. What is the range of your family income?

1. Less than \$14,000 2. \$14,001 - \$24,000 3. \$24,001 - \$34,000 4. \$34,001 - \$44,000
 5. \$44,001 - \$54,000 6. \$54,001 - \$64,000 7. More than \$64,000

112. What was your highest educational attainment in Nigeria or elsewhere before coming to the United States?

1. Grade School 2. High School 3. Some College 4. Bachelor's Degree
 5. Master's Degree 6. Doctorate Degree 7. Other _____

113. What is your highest educational attainment in the United States?

1. Grade School 2. High School 3. Some College 4. Bachelor's Degree
 5. Master's Degree 6. Doctorate Degree 7. Other _____

114. What is your marital status? 1. Married 2. Single 3. Divorced 4. Widow(er)

115. What is your age?

1. Less than 18 years 2. 18 to 25 years 3. 26 to 35 years 4. 36 to 45 years
 5. 46 to 55 years 6. More than 55 years

116. What is your occupation? _____

117. What is your immigration status? 1. F1 Visa 2. H1 3. Permanent Resident 4. U.S. Citizen

118. What is your religious preference? 1. Muslim 2. Christian 3. Traditional Religion

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP ON THIS SURVEY.

APPENDIX B

CODES AND DEFINITIONS

CODES AND DEFINITIONS

<u>Variable Code</u>	<u>Variable Name</u>
1. POLNEWS	Print media for political news
2. PFMENT	Print media for entertainment
3. WPNEWTV	Watch political news on TV
4. WTRENT	Watch TV for entertainment
5. RADPNEWS	Listen to radio for political news
6. TRADPAI	Listen to "talk radio" for public affairs information
7. TSPAII	Watch "talk shows" on TV for public affairs information
8. CHRISMO	Christian Science Monitor
9. NYTIMES	New York Times
10. WALLSJ	Wall Street Journal
11. LOCNEWS	Local newspaper
12. USEWWR	U.S. News and World Report
13. TIME	Time Magazine
14. NSWEEK	Newsweek
15. NYTS	New York Times
16. AFRIHED	African Herald
17. AFRINEW	African news weekly
18. CONCORD	Concorde
19. CBS19	CBS, Question 19
20. NBC20	NBC, Question 20
21. CNN21	CNN, Question 21
22. ABC22	ABC, Question 22
23. CBS23	CBS, Question 23
24. NBC24	NBC, Question 24
25. CNN25	CNN, Question 25
26. ABC26	ABC, Question 26
27. REATSTR	Watch talk shows/listen to "talk radio"
28. INSTUSPO	Interest in U.S. politics
29. MOSINEW	Most important source of political news
30. TRUSAN	Trust American newspapers
31. TRUSTV	Trust TV news
32. TRUSNM	Trust news magazines
33. TRUSVC	Trust TV commercials
34. TRUSUSG	Trust U.S. government
35. TRUSENS	Trust your ethnic newspapers
36. TRUSTVS	Trust TV talk shows
37. TRUSTR	Trust "talk radio"
38. ALGORE	Al Gore
39. LAWCON	Constitutionality of law

<u>Variable Code</u>	<u>Variable Name</u>
40. MAJVETO	Number required to override presidential veto
41. HOUSREP	Majority party in the House of Representatives
42. CONPARTY	More conservative party
43. ENGSPE	English language: speaking
44. ENGREA	English language: reading
45. ENGWRI	English language: writing
46. USSOCL	Your U.S. social class
47. NIGSOCL	Your Nigerian social class pre-immigration
48. SAFRICA	South Africa
49. CARIBEAN	Caribbean
50. UNOHQ	United Nations Headquarters
51. DEMBEST	Democracy is best form of government
52. RULE	Rule of law
53. PUBOFFS	Public officials by majority vote
54. USCARE	U.S. government doesn't care for me
55. SPEAGA	No speeches against our government
56. FRESPEE	Free speech for everyone
57. IDEXTRE	Don't put up with extremist ideas
58. UNPOVIE	Unpopular views
59. DANGEX	Dangerous extremist
60. LEGRITS	Legal rights for all
61. OVERTHROW	Speeches to overthrow the government
62. OBPOLICE	Obey the police
63. DIFCROWD	People different from the crowd
64. DRUPUN	Drug deals and punishment
65. HOMOSX	Homosexuals
66. WRONGID	Wrong ideas
67. CRIBAR	Criminal behind bars
68. COMPRO	Compromise
69. AUKIDS	Adults don't know what is good for kids
70. RESPIUS	Respect for U.S. political institutions
71. BASICRIT	Basic rights of citizens
72. LIVEUS	Proud to live in U.S.
73. BESTPSOB	U.S. has the best political system
74. USSUP	U.S. government should be supported
75. CONSTI	Confidence in the U.S. Constitution
76. MYSELF	I am satisfied with myself
77. NO GOOD	I am no good
78. GOODQUAL	I have some good qualities
79. ABLE	I do things as well as most people
80. PROUD OF	I don't have much to be proud of
81. USELS	I certainly feel useless at times

<u>Variable Code</u>	<u>Variable Name</u>
82. EQUAL	I am a person of worth
83. MORERESP	I wish I could respect myself more
84. FEELFA	I feel I am a failure
85. POSATTI	I take a positive attitude toward myself
86. NIGKNOW	Aware of goings on in politics in Nigeria
87. NIGCARE	Nigerian government cares for people like me
88. NIGMONEY	Contributed money for politics in Nigeria
89. NIGCAMPN	Participated in political campaign in Nigeria
90. NIGRALLY	Attended a political rally in Nigeria
91. NIGPUBOF	Contacted public official in Nigeria
92. NIGSTAND	Belonged to organization that took political stand in Nigeria
93. NIGVOTE	Voted in Nigerian election
94. NIGBEST	When was Nigeria at its best
95. NIGCTZRI	Basic rights of citizen in Nigeria
96. NGMAJINF	Major source of political information in Nigeria
97. USMONEY	Contributed money for politics in U.S.
98. USCAMPN	Participated in political campaign in U.S.
99. USRALLY	Attended political rally in U.S.
100. USPUBOF	Contacted U.S. public official
101. USSTAND	Belonged to organization that took stand in U.S.
102. USVOTE	Voted in U.S. election
103. GOVTRUNS	Is voting the only way you can have a say in government
104. PCOMPLIC	Are politics and government so complicated
105. POLNORMS	political norms in Nigeria
106. ADJCULT	Adjusted to U.S. political culture
107. GENDER	Gender
108. YEARUS	Length of stay in U.S.
109. LANGHOUS	Language used most often in U.S. in your home
110. ETHNICGR	Ethnic group
111. INCOME	Family income
112. HEDUCNIG	Highest education in Nigeria
113. HEDUCUS	Highest education in U.S.
114. MARISTAT	Marital status
115. AGE	Age
116. OCCUP	Occupation
117. INSSTATU	Immigration status
118. RELIGION	Religion
119. LANGSKIL	Language skill
120. POLTO	Political tolerance
121. MEDEXPO	Media exposure

<u>Variable Code</u>	<u>Variable Name</u>
122. AUTH	Authoritarianism
123. DIFFUSSP	Diffuse support
124. TRUST	Trust
125. ESTEEM	Self-esteem
126. POLPNIG	Political participation in Nigeria
127. POLPAUS	Political participation in U.S.
128. POLKNOW	Political knowledge
129. DEMORIE	Democratic orientation
130. TVTALKSH	TV talk show
131. RADIOSH	Talk radio

APPENDIX C

REGRESSION ANALYSES

-- Correlation Coefficients --

	AGE	GENDER	EDUCNIG	EDUCUS	INCOME	INTUSPO
AGE	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.0856 (187) P= .244	.0335 (187) P= .649	-.0218 (187) P= .767	.6875 (187) P= .000	-.0819 (187) P= .265
GENDER	-.0856 (187) P= .244	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.0117 (187) P= .874	.0443 (187) P= .547	.0408 (187) P= .579	.3466 (187) P= .000
EDUCNIG	.0335 (187) P= .649	-.0117 (187) P= .874	1.0000 (187) P= .	.1330 (187) P= .069	-.0202 (187) P= .784	-.0682 (187) P= .354
EDUCUS	-.0218 (187) P= .767	.0443 (187) P= .547	.1330 (187) P= .069	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.0355 (187) P= .630	.0711 (187) P= .333
INCOME	.6875 (187) P= .000	.0408 (187) P= .579	-.0202 (187) P= .784	-.0355 (187) P= .630	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.0055 (187) P= .941
INTUSPO	-.0819 (187) P= .265	.3466 (187) P= .000	-.0682 (187) P= .354	.0711 (187) P= .333	-.0055 (187) P= .941	1.0000 (187) P= .
LANGSKIL	.0958 (187) P= .192	-.2390 (187) P= .001	.0098 (187) P= .894	-.0181 (187) P= .805	.1146 (187) P= .118	-.2482 (187) P= .001
MEDEXPO1	-.0338 (187) P= .646	.3318 (187) P= .000	.0126 (187) P= .864	.0756 (187) P= .304	-.0665 (187) P= .366	.5118 (187) P= .000
NIGSOCL	.1056 (187) P= .150	.0718 (187) P= .329	.0764 (187) P= .298	.1079 (187) P= .142	.0920 (187) P= .210	.0479 (187) P= .515
POLKNOW1	-.0461 (187) P= .531	.0944 (187) P= .199	-.0496 (187) P= .501	.2716 (187) P= .000	-.0257 (187) P= .727	.1234 (187) P= .092
USBOCLA	.0531 (187) P= .470	-.1016 (187) P= .167	.0379 (187) P= .607	-.1185 (187) P= .106	.0052 (187) P= .943	-.0981 (187) P= .182

(Coefficient / (Cases) / 2-tailed Significance)

* . . is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

- - Correlation Coefficients - -

	AGE	GENDER	REDUCNIG	REDUCUS	INCOME	INTUSPO
YEARSUS	-.0608 (184) P= .412	-.3317 (184) P= .000	-.2305 (184) P= .002	-.2920 (184) P= .000	-.1412 (184) P= .056	-.2510 (184) P= .001

(Coefficient / (Cases) / 2-tailed significance)

* . . is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

	LANGSKIL	MEDEKPOL	NIGSOCL	POLKNOW1	USSOCIA	YEARSUS
AGE	.0958 (187) P= .192	-.0338 (187) P= .646	.1056 (187) P= .150	-.0461 (187) P= .531	.0531 (187) P= .470	-.0608 (184) P= .412
GENDER	-.2390 (187) P= .001	.3318 (187) P= .000	.0718 (187) P= .329	.0944 (187) P= .199	-.1016 (187) P= .167	-.3317 (184) P= .000
REDUCNIG	.0098 (187) P= .894	.0126 (187) P= .864	.0764 (187) P= .298	-.0496 (187) P= .501	.0379 (187) P= .607	-.2305 (184) P= .002
REDUCUS	-.0181 (187) P= .805	.0756 (187) P= .304	.1079 (187) P= .142	.2716 (187) P= .000	-.1185 (187) P= .106	-.2920 (184) P= .000
INCOME	.1146 (187) P= .118	-.0665 (187) P= .366	.0920 (187) P= .210	-.0257 (187) P= .727	.0052 (187) P= .943	-.1412 (184) P= .056
INTUSPO	-.2482 (187) P= .001	.5118 (187) P= .000	.0479 (187) P= .515	.1234 (187) P= .092	-.0981 (187) P= .182	-.2510 (184) P= .001
LANGSKIL	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.2276 (187) P= .002	.1573 (187) P= .032	-.1462 (187) P= .046	.0684 (187) P= .352	.1288 (184) P= .081
MEDEKPOL	-.2276 (187) P= .002	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.0265 (187) P= .719	.1062 (187) P= .148	-.1260 (187) P= .086	-.3019 (184) P= .000

(Coefficient / (Cases) / 2-tailed significance)

* . . is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

- - Correlation Coefficients - -

	LANGSKIL	MEDEKPOL	NIGSOCL	POLJNOW1	USSOCLA	YEARSUS
NIGSOCL	.1573 (187) P= .032	-.0265 (187) P= .719	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.0303 (187) P= .680	.0982 (187) P= .181	-.0638 (184) P= .389
POLJNOW1	-.1462 (187) P= .046	.1062 (187) P= .148	-.0303 (187) P= .680	1.0000 (187) P= .	-.1074 (187) P= .144	-.2611 (184) P= .000
USSOCLA	.0684 (187) P= .352	-.1260 (187) P= .086	.0982 (187) P= .181	-.1074 (187) P= .144	1.0000 (187) P= .	.3058 (184) P= .000
YEARSUS	.1288 (184) P= .081	-.3019 (184) P= .000	-.0638 (184) P= .389	-.2611 (184) P= .000	.3058 (184) P= .000	1.0000 (184) P= .

(Coefficient / (Cases) / 2-tailed Significance)

* . * is printed if a coefficient cannot be computed

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 1

t-tests for Paired Samples

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
POLPAUS	U.S political participation 187	.314	.000	.6952	1.149	.084
POLWIG1	Political participation1			1.4492	1.456	.106

Mean	Paired Differences		t-value	df	2-tail Sig
	SD	SE of Mean			
-.7540	1.546	.113	-6.67	186	.000
95% CI (-.977, -.531)					

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
WIGMONEY	In Wig; contributed money fo 187	.208	.004	.1176	.323	.024
USMONEY	In U.S.; contributed money for			.2193	.415	.030

Mean	Paired Differences		t-value	df	2-tail Sig
	SD	SE of Mean			
-.1016	.470	.034	-2.96	186	.004
95% CI (-.169, -.034)					

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
WIGCAMEN	In Wig; worked in campaign 187	.315	.000	.1818	.387	.028
USCAMEN	In U.S.; worked in campaign			.1123	.317	.023

Mean	Paired Differences		t-value	df	2-tail Sig
	SD	SE of Mean			
.0695	.415	.030	2.29	186	.023
95% CI (.010, .129)					

t-tests for Paired Samples

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
NIGRALLY	In Mig; went to meeting or r 187	.292	.000	.3422	.476	.035
USRALLY	In U.S.; gone to meetings and			.1979	.399	.029

Mean	Paired Differences		t-value	df	2-tail Sig
	SD	SE of Mean			
.1444	.524	.038	3.77	186	.000
95% CI (.069, .220)					

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
NIGFUBOF	In Mig; wrote to or talked t 187	-.011	.884	.7540	7.235	.529
USFUBOF	In U.S.; wrote to or talked t			.1658	.373	.027

Mean	Paired Differences		t-value	df	2-tail Sig
	SD	SE of Mean			
.5882	7.249	.530	1.11	186	.269
95% CI (-.458, 1.634)					

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
NIGSTAND	In Mig; belonged to org. tha 187	.161	.027	.2299	.422	.031
USSTAND	In U.S.; belonged to org. tha			.1872	.391	.029

Mean	Paired Differences		t-value	df	2-tail Sig
	SD	SE of Mean			
.0428	.527	.039	1.11	186	.268
95% CI (-.033, .119)					

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 3

t-tests for Paired Samples

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE of Mean
NIGVOTE	Voted in Nigerian Election 187	.192	.008	.5775	.495	.036
USVOTE	VOTED IN U.S. ELECTION			.3476	.477	.035

Mean	Paired Differences		t-value	df	2-tail Sig
	SD	SE of Mean			
.2299	.618	.045	5.09	186	.000
95% CI (.141, .319)					

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
MEDEXPO1	8.495	2.801	Media exposure1
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USBOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
REDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
REDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	MEDEKPO1	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	REDUCUS
MEDEKPO1	1.000	.324	-.071	-.216	-.066	-.302	-.119	.073
	.	.000	.169	.002	.188	.000	.053	.161
GENDER	.324	1.000	.039	-.233	.110	-.332	-.098	.043
	.000	.	.299	.001	.068	.000	.094	.283
INCOME	-.071	.039	1.000	.117	.703	-.141	.006	-.036
	.169	.299	.	.056	.000	.028	.466	.314
LANGSKIL	-.216	-.233	.117	1.000	.084	.129	.064	-.016
	.002	.001	.056	.	.128	.041	.195	.413
INSSTATU	-.066	.110	.703	.084	1.000	-.106	-.076	-.036
	.188	.068	.000	.128	.	.075	.152	.315
YEARSUS	-.302	-.332	-.141	.129	-.106	1.000	.306	-.292
	.000	.000	.028	.041	.075	.	.000	.000
USSOCLA	-.119	-.098	.006	.064	-.076	.306	1.000	-.118
	.053	.094	.466	.195	.152	.000	.	.056
REDUCUS	.073	.043	-.036	-.016	-.036	-.292	-.118	1.000
	.161	.283	.314	.413	.315	.000	.056	.
NIGSOCL	-.003	.086	.096	.145	.020	-.064	.092	.113
	.483	.122	.097	.025	.392	.195	.108	.063
REDUCNIG	.019	-.007	-.019	.009	-.065	-.230	.035	.136
	.398	.461	.398	.454	.190	.001	.317	.033
INTUSPO	.505	.341	-.008	-.241	.068	-.251	-.093	.069
	.000	.000	.459	.000	.181	.000	.104	.175
ESTEEM1	-.124	-.057	.038	.233	-.031	.169	.139	-.191
	.046	.222	.304	.001	.340	.011	.030	.005

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	NIGSOCL	REDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTEM1
NEDKXPO1	-.003 .483	.019 .398	.505 .000	-.124 .046
GENDER	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSTATU	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
REDUCUS	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
REDUCNIG	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTEM1	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. MEXEXP01 Media exposure1

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 1

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU YEARSUS USSOCLA HEDUCUS NIGSOCL
HEDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTKM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTKM1 Self esteem1
2.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
3.. HEDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
4.. GENDER Gender
5.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
6.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
7.. HEDUCUS Education in U.S.
8.. LANGSKIL Language skills
9.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
10.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
11.. INCOME Income

Multiple R .56884
R Square .32358
Adjusted R Square .28032
Standard Error 2.37640

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	11	464.66256	42.24205
Residual	172	971.33201	5.64728

F = 7.48007 Signif F = .0000

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	.810494	.427396	.134792	1.896	.0596
INCOME	8.36859E-04	.025132	.003024	.033	.9735
LANGSKIL	-.063625	.112845	-.038625	-.564	.5736
INSSTATU	-.048939	.035013	-.126299	-1.398	.1640
YEARSUS	-.083831	.042179	-.152993	-1.987	.0485
USSOCLA	-.089592	.279679	-.021579	-.320	.7491
HEDUCUS	-.002460	.009250	-.017946	-.266	.7906
NIGSOCL	-.122279	.236155	-.034212	-.518	.6053
HEDUCNIG	.024631	.223001	.007297	.110	.9122
INTUSPO	2.014991	.334475	.418029	6.024	.0000
ESTKM1	-.051945	.092264	-.037900	-.563	.5742
(Constant)	7.275548	2.041036		3.565	.0005

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 1

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
TVTALKSH	2.864	.968	Exposure to Tv talk show
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INMSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
REDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
REDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTRKN1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	TVTALKSE	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	HEDUCUS
TVTALKSE	1.000 .	.047 .263	-.039 .299	-.101 .087	-.068 .181	-.167 .012	-.042 .284	.083 .131
GENDER	.047 .263	1.000 .	.039 .299	-.233 .001	.110 .068	-.332 .000	-.098 .094	.043 .283
INCOME	-.039 .299	.039 .299	1.000 .	.117 .056	.703 .000	-.141 .028	.006 .466	-.036 .314
LANGSKIL	-.101 .087	-.233 .001	.117 .056	1.000 .	.084 .128	.129 .041	.064 .195	-.016 .413
INSSTATU	-.068 .181	.110 .068	.703 .000	.084 .128	1.000 .	-.106 .075	-.076 .152	-.036 .315
YEARSUS	-.167 .012	-.332 .000	-.141 .028	.129 .041	-.106 .075	1.000 .	.306 .000	-.292 .000
USSOCLA	-.042 .284	-.098 .094	.006 .466	.064 .195	-.076 .152	.306 .000	1.000 .	-.118 .056
HEDUCUS	.083 .131	.043 .283	-.036 .314	-.016 .413	-.036 .315	-.292 .000	-.118 .056	1.000 .
NIGSOCL	-.035 .321	.086 .122	.096 .097	.145 .025	.020 .392	-.064 .195	.092 .108	.113 .063
HEDUCNIG	.171 .010	-.007 .461	-.019 .398	.009 .454	-.065 .190	-.230 .001	.035 .317	.136 .033
INTUSPO	.075 .157	.341 .000	-.008 .459	-.241 .000	.068 .181	-.251 .000	-.093 .104	.069 .175
ESTEM1	-.087 .121	-.057 .222	.038 .304	.233 .001	-.031 .340	.169 .011	.139 .030	-.191 .005

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 3

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

	NIGSOCL	REDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTEM1
TVTALKER	-.035 .321	.171 .010	.075 .157	-.087 .121
GENDER	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKL	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
REDUCUS	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
REDUCNIG	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTEM1	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. TVTALKSH Exposure to Tv talk show

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 1

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU YEARSUS USSOCLA EDUCUS NIGSOCL
 EDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

- 1.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem1
- 2.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
- 3.. EDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
- 4.. GENDER Gender
- 5.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
- 6.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
- 7.. EDUCUS Education in U.S.
- 8.. LANGSKIL Language skills
- 9.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
- 10.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
- 11.. INCOME Income

Multiple R .25154
 R Square .06327
 Adjusted R Square .00336
 Standard Error .96673

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	11	10.85740	.98704
Residual	172	160.74586	.93457

F = 1.05614 Signif F = .3998

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	-.023059	.173867	-.011094	-.133	.8946
INCOME	.001615	.010224	.016880	.158	.8747
LANGSKIL	-.033832	.045906	-.059413	-.737	.4621
INSSTATU	-.010533	.014243	-.078631	-.739	.4606
YEARSUS	-.021674	.017159	-.114425	-1.263	.2082
USSOCLA	-1.08515E-04	.113775	-7.561E-05	-.001	.9992
EDUCUS	.001099	.003763	.023196	.292	.7705
NIGSOCL	-.054359	.096069	-.043997	-.566	.5722
EDUCNIG	.165498	.090718	.141835	1.824	.0698
INTUSPO	.079597	.136066	.047769	.585	.5593
ESTEEM1	-.015370	.037534	-.032440	-.409	.6827
(Constant)	3.261332	.830303		3.928	.0001

*** MULTIPLE REGRESSION ***

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
RADIOTSE	3.223	1.150	Exposure to radio talk show
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
EDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
EDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 7

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	RADIOTSE	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	REDUCUS
RADIOTSE	1.000	.205	-.120	-.119	-.079	-.214	-.102	.034
	.	.003	.052	.053	.145	.002	.085	.321
GENDER	.205	1.000	.039	-.233	.110	-.332	-.098	.043
	.003	.	.299	.001	.068	.000	.094	.283
INCOME	-.120	.039	1.000	.117	.703	-.141	.006	-.036
	.052	.299	.	.056	.000	.028	.466	.314
LANGSKIL	-.119	-.233	.117	1.000	.084	.129	.064	-.016
	.053	.001	.056	.	.128	.041	.195	.413
INSSTATU	-.079	.110	.703	.084	1.000	-.106	-.076	-.036
	.145	.068	.000	.128	.	.075	.152	.315
YEARSUS	-.214	-.332	-.141	.129	-.106	1.000	.306	-.292
	.002	.000	.028	.041	.075	.	.000	.000
USSOCLA	-.102	-.098	.006	.064	-.076	.306	1.000	-.118
	.085	.094	.466	.195	.152	.000	.	.056
REDUCUS	.034	.043	-.036	-.016	-.036	-.292	-.118	1.000
	.321	.283	.314	.413	.315	.000	.056	.
NIGSOCL	-.090	.086	.096	.145	.020	-.064	.092	.113
	.112	.122	.097	.025	.392	.195	.108	.063
REDUCNIG	-.049	-.007	-.019	.009	-.065	-.230	.035	.136
	.255	.461	.398	.454	.190	.001	.317	.033
INTUSPO	.334	.341	-.008	-.241	.068	-.251	-.093	.069
	.000	.000	.459	.000	.181	.000	.104	.175
ESTEM1	-.042	-.057	.038	.233	-.031	.169	.139	-.191
	.288	.222	.304	.001	.340	.011	.030	.005

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 8

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

	NIGSOCL	HEDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTEM1
RADIOTER	-.090 .112	-.049 .255	.334 .000	-.042 .288
GENDER	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	.082 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
HEDUCUS	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	1.000 ,	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
HEDUCNIG	.078 .145	1.000 ,	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 ,	-.101 .085
ESTEM1	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 ,

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. RADIOTSE Exposure to radio talk sh

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 6

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU YEARSUS USSOCLA EDUCUS NIGSOCL
 EDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem
 2.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
 3.. EDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
 4.. GENDER Gender
 5.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
 6.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
 7.. EDUCUS Education in U.S.
 8.. LANGSKIL Language skills
 9.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
 10.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
 11.. INCOME Income

Multiple R .41491
 R Square .17215
 Adjusted R Square .11921
 Standard Error 1.07894

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	11	41.63764	3.78524
Residual	172	200.22649	1.16411

F = 3.25162 Signif F = .0005

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	.194554	.194047	.078840	1.003	.3175
INCOME	-.010860	.011410	-.095614	-.952	.3426
LANGSKIL	.009753	.051234	.014427	.190	.8493
INSSTATU	-.009587	.015896	-.060286	-.603	.5472
YEARSUS	-.037367	.019150	-.166170	-1.951	.0526
USSOCLA	-.026608	.126980	-.015615	-.210	.8343
EDUCUS	-9.43661E-04	.004200	-.016771	-.225	.8225
NIGSOCL	-.167079	.107219	-.113906	-1.558	.1210
EDUCNIG	-.084583	.101247	-.061059	-.835	.4046
INTUSPO	.551039	.151859	.278552	3.629	.0004
ESTEEM1	.017480	.041890	.031076	.417	.6770
(Constant)	2.861011	.926675		3.087	.0024

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
TRUST1	9.929	22.470	Trust medial
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
REDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
REDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	TRUST1	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCIA	REDUCUS
TRUST1	1.000	.087	-.019	-.014	-.003	-.170	-.098	.304
	.	.121	.402	.426	.486	.011	.092	.000
GENDER	.087	1.000	.039	-.233	.110	-.332	-.098	.043
	.121	.	.299	.001	.068	.000	.094	.283
INCOME	-.019	.039	1.000	.117	.703	-.141	.006	-.036
	.402	.299	.	.056	.000	.028	.466	.314
LANGSKIL	-.014	-.233	.117	1.000	.084	.129	.064	-.016
	.426	.001	.056	.	.128	.041	.195	.413
INSSTATU	-.003	.110	.703	.084	1.000	-.106	-.076	-.036
	.486	.068	.000	.128	.	.075	.152	.315
YEARSUS	-.170	-.332	-.141	.129	-.106	1.000	.306	-.292
	.011	.000	.028	.041	.075	.	.000	.000
USSOCIA	-.098	-.098	.006	.064	-.076	.306	1.000	-.118
	.092	.094	.466	.195	.152	.000	.	.056
REDUCUS	.304	.043	-.036	-.016	-.036	-.292	-.118	1.000
	.000	.283	.314	.413	.315	.000	.056	.
NIGSOCL	-.089	.086	.096	.145	.020	-.064	.092	.113
	.114	.122	.097	.025	.392	.195	.108	.063
REDUCNIG	-.065	-.007	-.019	.009	-.065	-.230	.035	.136
	.192	.461	.398	.454	.190	.001	.317	.033
INTUSPO	.086	.341	-.008	-.241	.068	-.251	-.093	.069
	.122	.000	.459	.000	.181	.000	.104	.175
ESTEM1	-.041	-.057	.038	.239	-.031	.169	.139	-.191
	.290	.222	.304	.001	.340	.011	.030	.005

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

	NIGSOCL	REDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTEM1
TRUST1	-.089 .114	-.065 .192	.086 .122	-.041 .290
GENDER	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	.082 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
EDUCUS	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
REDUCNIG	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTEM1	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. TRUST1 Trust medial

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 1

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU YEARSUS USSOCIA REDUCUS NIGSOCL
REDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1..	ESTEEM1	Self esteem
2..	INSSTATU	Immigration Status
3..	REDUCNIG	Education in Nigeria
4..	GENDER	Gender
5..	USSOCIA	Your U.S. social class?
6..	NIGSOCL	Your Nigerian social class?
7..	REDUCUS	Education in U.S.
8..	LANGSKIL	Language skills
9..	INTUSPO	Interest in U.S. Politics
10..	YEARSUS	Length of stay in U.S.
11..	INCOME	Income

Multiple R	.37097
R Square	.13762
Adjusted R Square	.08247
Standard Error.	21.52346

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	11	12715.44737	1155.94976
Residual	172	79680.63415	463.25950

F = 2.49525 Signif F = .0062

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	2.431215	3.871001	.050407	.628	.5308
INCOME	-.024886	.227624	-.011210	-.109	.9131
LANGSKIL	.491859	1.022053	.037225	.481	.6310
INSSTATU	-.030447	.317115	-.009796	-.096	.9236
YEARSUS	-.436649	.382022	-.099347	-1.143	.2546
USSOCIA	-.547026	2.533101	-.016425	-.216	.8293
REDUCUS	.340178	.083780	.309328	4.060	.0001
NIGSOCL	-3.983811	2.138892	-.138957	-1.863	.0642
REDUCNIG	-3.073311	2.019757	-.113509	-1.522	.1299
INTUSPO	1.453226	3.029401	.037585	.480	.6320
ESTEEM1	.557060	.835652	.050669	.667	.5059
(Constant)	9.533302	18.486009		.516	.6067

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
TRUST2	6.147	1.089	Trust media2
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
REDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
REDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed sig:

	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	EDUCUS
TRUST2	1.000	.005	.134	.010	.058	-.048	.005	.063
	.	.472	.035	.449	.217	.259	.475	.199
GENDER	.005	1.000	.039	-.233	.110	-.332	-.098	.043
	.472	.	.299	.001	.068	.000	.094	.283
INCOME	.134	.039	1.000	.117	.703	-.141	.006	-.036
	.035	.299	.	.056	.000	.028	.466	.314
LANGSKIL	.010	-.233	.117	1.000	.084	.129	.064	-.016
	.449	.001	.056	.	.128	.041	.195	.413
INSSTATU	.058	.110	.703	.084	1.000	-.106	-.076	-.036
	.217	.068	.000	.128	.	.075	.152	.315
YEARSUS	-.048	-.332	-.141	.129	-.106	1.000	.306	-.292
	.259	.000	.028	.041	.075	.	.000	.000
USSOCLA	.005	-.098	.006	.064	-.076	.306	1.000	-.118
	.475	.094	.466	.195	.152	.000	.	.056
EDUCUS	.063	.043	-.036	-.016	-.036	-.292	-.118	1.000
	.199	.283	.314	.413	.315	.000	.056	.
NIGSOCL	-.107	.086	.096	.145	.020	-.064	.092	.113
	.075	.122	.097	.025	.392	.195	.108	.063
EDUCNIG	.233	-.007	-.019	.009	-.065	-.230	.035	.136
	.001	.461	.398	.454	.190	.001	.317	.033
INTUSPO	-.126	.341	-.008	-.241	.068	-.251	-.093	.069
	.044	.000	.459	.000	.181	.000	.104	.175
ESTEM1	.105	-.057	.038	.233	-.031	.169	.139	-.191
	.078	.222	.304	.001	.340	.011	.030	.005

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 8

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	NIGSOCL	REDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTKEM1
TRUST2	-.107 .075	.233 .001	-.126 .044	.105 .078
GENDER	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGKIL	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSTATU	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
REDUCUS	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
REDUCNIG	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTKEM1	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 9

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. TRUST2 Trust media2

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 6

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU YEARSUS USSOCLA REDUCUS NIGSOCL
 REDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem1
 2.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
 3.. REDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
 4.. GENDER Gender
 5.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
 6.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
 7.. REDUCUS Education in U.S.
 8.. LANGSKIL Language skills
 9.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
 10.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
 11.. INCOME Income

Multiple R .36269
 R Square .13154
 Adjusted R Square .07600
 Standard Error 1.04683

Analysis of Variance

	Df	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	11	28.54971	2.59543
Residual	172	188.48833	1.09586

F = 2.36839 Signif F = .0095

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
GENDER	.136183	.188273	.058257	.723	.4705
INCOME	.019652	.011071	.182654	1.775	.0776
LANGSKIL	-.023011	.049709	-.035933	-.463	.6440
INSSTATU	-.005721	.015423	-.037975	-.371	.7112
YEARSUS	.004085	.018580	.019178	.220	.8262
USSOCLA	-.018315	.123202	-.011347	-.149	.8820
REDUCUS	.004921	.004075	.092329	1.208	.2288
NIGSOCL	-.232883	.104029	-.167602	-2.239	.0265
REDUCNIG	.317782	.098235	.242165	3.235	.0015
INTUSPO	-.209146	.147341	-.111607	-1.419	.1576
ESTEEM1	.081948	.040644	.153795	2.016	.0453
(Constant)	4.738717	.899102		5.270	.0000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 1

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
DIFFUSEP	9.685	3.152	Diffuse support
MEDIAEXP1	8.495	2.801	Media exposure1
RADIOTSE	3.223	1.150	Exposure to radio talk show
TRUST1	9.929	22.470	Trust media1
TRUST2	6.147	1.089	Trust media2
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCIA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
EDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
EDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	DIFFUSSP	MEDEXPOL	RADIOTER	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
DIFFUSSP	1.000	.108	.060	-.058	-.106	.183	.174	-.041
	.	.073	.208	.218	.076	.006	.009	.290
MEDEXPOL	.108	1.000	.851	.140	-.026	.324	-.071	-.216
	.073	.	.000	.029	.365	.000	.169	.002
RADIOTER	.060	.851	1.000	.076	.009	.205	-.120	-.119
	.208	.000	.	.152	.454	.003	.052	.053
TRUST1	-.058	.140	.076	1.000	.029	.087	-.019	-.014
	.218	.029	.152	.	.350	.121	.402	.426
TRUST2	-.106	-.026	.009	.029	1.000	.005	.134	.010
	.076	.365	.454	.350	.	.472	.035	.449
GENDER	.183	.324	.205	.087	.005	1.000	.039	-.233
	.006	.000	.003	.121	.472	.	.299	.001
INCOME	.174	-.071	-.120	-.019	.134	.039	1.000	.117
	.009	.169	.052	.402	.035	.299	.	.056
LANGSKIL	-.041	-.216	-.119	-.014	.010	-.233	.117	1.000
	.290	.002	.053	.426	.449	.001	.056	.
INSSTATU	.309	-.066	-.079	-.003	.058	.110	.703	.084
	.000	.188	.145	.486	.217	.068	.000	.128
YEARSUS	-.180	-.302	-.214	-.170	-.048	-.332	-.141	.129
	.007	.000	.002	.011	.259	.000	.028	.041
USSOCLA	-.153	-.119	-.102	-.098	.005	-.098	.006	.064
	.019	.053	.085	.092	.475	.094	.466	.195
EDUCUS	.189	.073	.034	.304	.063	.043	-.036	-.016
	.005	.161	.321	.000	.199	.283	.314	.413
NIGSOCL	.096	-.003	-.090	-.089	-.107	.086	.096	.145
	.098	.483	.112	.114	.075	.122	.097	.025
EDUCNIG	.009	.019	-.049	-.065	.233	-.007	-.019	.009
	.449	.398	.255	.192	.001	.461	.398	.454
INTUSPO	.320	.505	.334	.086	-.126	.341	-.008	-.241
	.000	.000	.000	.122	.044	.000	.459	.000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 3

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	DIFFUSEP	MEDEKPO1	RADIOTEH	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCONE	LANGKIL
ESTRKM1	-.283	-.124	-.042	-.041	.105	-.057	.038	.233
	.000	.046	.288	.290	.078	.222	.304	.001

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCIA	HEDUCUS	MIGSOCL	HEDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTEEM1
DIFFUSEP	.309 .000	-.180 .007	-.153 .019	.189 .005	.096 .098	.009 .449	.320 .000	-.283 .000
HEDUCPO1	-.066 .188	-.302 .000	-.119 .053	.073 .161	-.003 .483	.019 .398	.505 .000	-.124 .046
RADIOTRE	-.079 .145	-.214 .002	-.102 .085	.034 .321	-.090 .112	-.049 .255	.334 .000	-.042 .288
TRUST1	-.003 .486	-.170 .011	-.098 .092	.304 .000	-.089 .114	-.065 .192	.086 .122	-.041 .290
TRUST2	.058 .217	-.048 .259	.005 .475	.063 .199	-.107 .075	.233 .001	-.126 .044	.105 .078
GENDER	.110 .068	-.332 .000	-.098 .094	.043 .283	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.703 .000	-.141 .028	.006 .466	-.036 .314	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.084 .128	.129 .041	.064 .195	-.016 .413	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	1.000 .	-.106 .075	-.076 .152	-.036 .315	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.106 .075	1.000 .	.306 .000	-.292 .000	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCIA	-.076 .152	.306 .000	1.000 .	-.118 .056	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
HEDUCUS	-.036 .315	-.292 .000	-.118 .056	1.000 .	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
MIGSOCL	.020 .392	-.064 .195	.092 .108	.113 .063	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
HEDUCNIG	-.065 .190	-.230 .001	.035 .317	.136 .033	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.068 .181	-.251 .000	-.093 .104	.069 .175	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTEEM1	-.031 .340	.169 .011	.139 .030	-.191 .005	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. DIFFUSSP Diffuse support

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 1

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

NEDEKPO1 RADIOTSE TRUST1 TRUST2 GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU
YEARSUS USSOCLA EDUCUS NIGSOCL EDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem1
2.. INSSTATU Immigration status
3.. TRUST1 Trust media1
4.. EDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
5.. RADIOTSE Exposure to radio talk show
6.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
7.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
8.. GENDER Gender
9.. TRUST2 Trust media2
10.. LANGSKIL Language skills
11.. EDUCUS Education in U.S.
12.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
13.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
14.. INCOME Income
15.. NEDEKPO1 Media exposure1

Multiple R .55564
R Square .30874
Adjusted R Square .24702
Standard Error 2.73482

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	15	561.20053	37.41337
Residual	168	1256.51686	7.47927

F = 5.00228 Signif F = .0000

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. DIFFUSSP Diffuse support

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
HEDEKPO1	-.170930	.165344	-.151926	-1.034	.3027
RADIOTER	.278424	.363360	.101562	.766	.4446
TRUST1	-.018241	.009797	-.130050	-1.862	.0644
TRUST2	-.199661	.199729	-.068992	-1.000	.3189
GENDER	.517917	.499613	.076557	1.037	.3014
INCOME	-.003153	.029508	-.010127	-.107	.9150
LANGSKIL	.097934	.130847	.052843	.748	.4552
INSSTATU	.121907	.040676	.279630	2.997	.0031
YEARSUS	.008235	.049301	.013358	.167	.8675
USSOCIA	-.373477	.322018	-.079953	-1.160	.2478
REDUCUS	.025539	.011199	.165566	2.280	.0238
NIGSOCL	.291095	.282018	.072390	1.032	.3035
REDUCIG	.096488	.269411	.025407	.358	.7207
INTUSPO	1.573047	.433236	.290060	3.631	.0004
ESTERN1	-.362671	.108505	-.235191	-3.342	.0010
(Constant)	12.425166	2.603349		4.773	.0000

End Block Number 1 All requested variables entered.

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
AUTH1	4.848	1.896	Authoritarianism1
MEDIAEXP1	8.495	2.801	Media exposure1
RADIOTER	3.223	1.150	Exposure to radio talk show
TRUST1	9.929	22.470	Trust media1
TRUST2	6.147	1.089	Trust media2
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
REDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
WIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
REDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	AUTHE1	MEDEKPO1	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
AUTHE1	1.000	.160	.096	-.008	-.267	.011	.132	-.119
	.	.015	.098	.459	.000	.440	.037	.054
MEDEKPO1	.160	1.000	.851	.140	-.026	.324	-.071	-.216
	.015	.	.000	.029	.365	.000	.169	.002
RADIOTSE	.096	.851	1.000	.076	.009	.205	-.120	-.119
	.098	.000	.	.152	.454	.003	.052	.053
TRUST1	-.008	.140	.076	1.000	.029	.087	-.019	-.014
	.459	.029	.152	.	.350	.121	.402	.426
TRUST2	-.267	-.026	.009	.029	1.000	.005	.134	.010
	.000	.365	.454	.350	.	.472	.035	.449
GENDER	.011	.324	.205	.087	.005	1.000	.039	-.233
	.440	.000	.003	.121	.472	.	.299	.001
INCOME	.132	-.071	-.120	-.019	.134	.039	1.000	.117
	.037	.169	.052	.402	.035	.299	.	.056
LANGSKIL	-.119	-.216	-.119	-.014	.010	-.233	.117	1.000
	.054	.002	.053	.426	.449	.001	.056	.
INSTATU	.161	-.066	-.079	-.003	.058	.110	.703	.084
	.015	.188	.145	.486	.217	.068	.000	.128
YEARSUS	-.044	-.302	-.214	-.170	-.048	-.332	-.141	.129
	.276	.000	.002	.011	.259	.000	.028	.041
USSOCLA	-.141	-.119	-.102	-.098	.005	-.098	.006	.064
	.028	.053	.085	.092	.475	.094	.466	.195
REDUCUS	.045	.073	.034	.304	.063	.043	-.036	-.016
	.273	.161	.321	.000	.199	.283	.314	.413
NIGSOCL	.086	-.003	-.090	-.089	-.107	.086	.096	.145
	.123	.483	.112	.114	.075	.122	.097	.025
REDUCNIG	-.104	.019	-.049	-.065	.233	-.007	-.019	.009
	.080	.398	.255	.192	.001	.461	.398	.454
INTUSPO	.174	.505	.334	.086	-.126	.341	-.008	-.241
	.009	.000	.000	.122	.044	.000	.459	.000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 9

* * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * *

	AUTEL	MEDEKPOL	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
ESTKEM1	-.005	-.124	-.042	-.041	.105	-.057	.038	.233
	.471	.046	.288	.290	.078	.222	.304	.001

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCIA	REDUCUS	NIGSOCL	REDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTERN1
AUTEM1	.161 .015	-.044 .276	-.141 .028	.045 .273	.086 .123	-.104 .080	.174 .009	-.005 .471
NEDEKPO1	-.066 .188	-.302 .000	-.119 .053	.073 .161	-.003 .483	.019 .398	.505 .000	-.124 .046
RADIOTER	-.079 .145	-.214 .002	-.102 .085	.034 .321	-.090 .112	-.049 .255	.334 .000	-.042 .288
TRUST1	-.003 .486	-.170 .011	-.098 .092	.304 .000	-.089 .114	-.065 .192	.086 .122	-.041 .290
TRUST2	.058 .217	-.048 .259	.005 .475	.063 .199	-.107 .075	.233 .001	-.126 .044	.105 .078
GENDER	.110 .068	-.332 .000	-.098 .094	.043 .283	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.703 .000	-.141 .028	.006 .466	-.036 .314	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.084 .128	.129 .041	.064 .195	-.016 .413	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	1.000 .	-.106 .075	-.076 .152	-.036 .315	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.106 .075	1.000 .	.306 .000	-.292 .000	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCIA	-.076 .152	.306 .000	1.000 .	-.118 .056	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
REDUCUS	-.036 .315	-.292 .000	-.118 .056	1.000 .	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	.020 .392	-.064 .195	.092 .108	.113 .063	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
REDUCNIG	-.065 .190	-.230 .001	.035 .317	.136 .033	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.068 .181	-.251 .000	-.093 .104	.069 .175	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTERN1	-.031 .340	.169 .011	.139 .030	-.191 .005	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. AUTH1 Authoritarianism1

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 7

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

MEDEXPO1 RADIOTSE TRUST1 TRUST2 GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSTATU
 YEARSUS USSOCLA EDUCUS NIGSOCL EDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTKM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTKM1 Self esteem1
 2.. INSTATU Immigration status
 3.. TRUST1 Trust medial
 4.. EDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
 5.. RADIOTSE Exposure to radio talk show
 6.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
 7.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
 8.. GENDER Gender
 9.. TRUST2 Trust media2
 10.. LANGSKIL Language skills
 11.. EDUCUS Education in U.S.
 12.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
 13.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
 14.. INCOME Income
 15.. MEDEXPO1 Media exposure1

Multiple R .43444
 R Square .18874
 Adjusted R Square .11631
 Standard Error 1.78218

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	15	124.14189	8.27613
Residual	168	533.59724	3.17617

F = 2.60569 Signif F = .0015

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. AUTH1 Authoritarianism1

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
MEDECP01	.156452	.107748	.231170	1.452	.1484
RADIOTER	-.132060	.236788	-.080081	-.558	.5778
TRUST1	-.003643	.006384	-.043179	-.571	.5690
TRUST2	-.473461	.130156	-.271973	-3.638	.0004
GENDER	-.432199	.325579	-.106205	-1.327	.1862
INCOME	.020253	.019229	.108130	1.053	.2938
LANGSKIL	-.156041	.085268	-.139968	-1.830	.0690
INSSTATU	.033621	.026507	.128206	1.268	.2064
YEARSUS	.022199	.032127	.059862	.691	.4905
USSOCIA	-.385077	.209847	-.137042	-1.835	.0683
REDUCUS	.007899	.007298	.085130	1.082	.2806
NIGSOCL	.131452	.183780	.054344	.715	.4754
REDUCNIG	-.066977	.175565	-.029319	-.381	.7033
INTUSPO	.157917	.282324	.048407	.559	.5767
ESTEM1	.086050	.070709	.092767	1.217	.2253
(Constant)	7.684138	1.696505		4.529	.0000

End Block Number 1 All requested variables entered.

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
POLPAUS	.690	1.153	U.S political participation
MEDIAEXP1	8.495	2.801	Media exposure1
RADIOEXP	3.223	1.150	Exposure to radio talk show
TRUST1	9.929	22.470	Trust media1
TRUST2	6.147	1.089	Trust media2
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
IMMSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
EDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
EDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	POLPAUS	MEDEKPOL	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
POLPAUS	1.000	-.230	-.178	-.036	.028	-.204	-.004	.253
	.	.001	.008	.311	.355	.003	.478	.000
MEDEKPOL	-.230	1.000	.851	.140	-.026	.324	-.071	-.216
	.001	.	.000	.029	.365	.000	.169	.002
RADIOTSE	-.178	.851	1.000	.076	.009	.205	-.120	-.119
	.008	.000	.	.152	.454	.003	.052	.053
TRUST1	-.036	.140	.076	1.000	.029	.087	-.019	-.014
	.311	.029	.152	.	.350	.121	.402	.426
TRUST2	.028	-.026	.009	.029	1.000	.005	.134	.010
	.355	.365	.454	.350	.	.472	.035	.449
GENDER	-.204	.324	.205	.087	.005	1.000	.039	-.233
	.003	.000	.003	.121	.472	.	.299	.001
INCOME	-.004	-.071	-.120	-.019	.134	.039	1.000	.117
	.478	.169	.052	.402	.035	.299	.	.056
LANGSKIL	.253	-.216	-.119	-.014	.010	-.233	.117	1.000
	.000	.002	.053	.426	.449	.001	.056	.
INSSTATU	-.043	-.066	-.079	-.003	.058	.110	.703	.084
	.281	.188	.145	.486	.217	.068	.000	.128
YEARSUS	.329	-.302	-.214	-.170	-.048	-.332	-.141	.129
	.000	.000	.002	.011	.259	.000	.028	.041
USSOCLA	.098	-.119	-.102	-.098	.005	-.098	.006	.064
	.094	.053	.085	.092	.475	.094	.466	.195
REDUCUS	-.101	.073	.034	.304	.063	.043	-.036	-.016
	.087	.161	.321	.000	.199	.283	.314	.413
NIGSOCL	.088	-.003	-.090	-.089	-.107	.086	.096	.145
	.118	.483	.112	.114	.075	.122	.097	.025
REDUCNIG	-.035	.019	-.049	-.065	.233	-.007	-.019	.009
	.318	.398	.255	.192	.001	.461	.398	.454
INTUSDO	-.215	.505	.334	.086	-.126	.341	-.008	-.241
	.002	.000	.000	.122	.044	.000	.459	.000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 15

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	POLPAUS	MEDEKPO1	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
ESTKEM1	.285	-.124	-.042	-.041	.105	-.057	.038	.233
	.000	.046	.288	.290	.078	.222	.304	.001

```

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

```

	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCIA	REDUCUS	NIGSOCL	REDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTKEM1
POLPAUS	-.043 .281	.329 .000	.098 .094	-.101 .087	.088 .118	-.035 .318	-.215 .002	.285 .000
MEDEXPOL	-.066 .188	-.302 .000	-.119 .053	.073 .161	-.003 .483	.019 .398	.505 .000	-.124 .046
RADIOTER	-.079 .145	-.214 .002	-.102 .085	.034 .321	-.090 .112	-.049 .255	.334 .000	-.042 .288
TRUST1	-.003 .486	-.170 .011	-.098 .092	.304 .000	-.089 .114	-.065 .192	.086 .122	-.041 .290
TRUST2	.058 .217	-.048 .259	.005 .475	.063 .199	-.107 .075	.233 .001	-.126 .044	.105 .078
GENDER	.110 .068	-.332 .000	-.098 .094	.043 .283	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.703 .000	-.141 .028	.006 .466	-.036 .314	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.084 .128	.129 .041	.064 .195	-.016 .413	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	1.000 .	-.106 .075	-.076 .152	-.036 .315	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.106 .075	1.000 .	.306 .000	-.292 .000	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCIA	-.076 .152	.306 .000	1.000 .	-.118 .056	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
REDUCUS	-.036 .315	-.292 .000	-.118 .056	1.000 .	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	.020 .392	-.064 .195	.092 .108	.113 .063	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
REDUCNIG	-.065 .190	-.230 .001	.035 .317	.136 .033	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.068 .181	-.251 .000	-.093 .104	.069 .175	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTKEM1	-.031 .340	.169 .011	.139 .030	-.191 .005	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. POLPAUS U.S political participatio

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 13

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

MEDEKPO1 RADIOTSE TRUST1 TRUST2 GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU
YEARSUS USSOCLA EDUCUS NIGSOCL EDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem1
2.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
3.. TRUST1 Trust medial
4.. EDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
5.. RADIOTSE Exposure to radio talk show
6.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
7.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
8.. GENDER Gender
9.. TRUST2 Trust media2
10.. LANGSKIL Language skills
11.. EDUCUS Education in U.S.
12.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
13.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
14.. INCOME Income
15.. MEDEKPO1 Media exposure1

Multiple R .45971
R Square .21133
Adjusted R Square .14091
Standard Error 1.06881

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	15	51.42570	3.42838
Residual	168	191.91669	1.14236

F = 3.00114 Signif F = .0003

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. POLPAUS U.S political participatio

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
MEDEKPO1	-.006343	.064619	-.015408	-.098	.9219
RADIOTRE	-.056715	.142007	-.056543	-.399	.6901
TRUST1	.001922	.003829	.037460	.502	.6162
TRUST2	.012029	.078057	.011360	.154	.8777
GENDER	-.119776	.195257	-.048389	-.613	.5404
INCOME	.002438	.011532	.021396	.211	.8329
LANGSKIL	.090126	.051137	.132910	1.762	.0798
INSSTATU	-.005656	.015897	-.035459	-.356	.7224
YEARSUS	.058077	.019267	.257478	3.014	.0030
USOCLA	-.069477	.125850	-.040650	-.552	.5816
REDUCUS	-2.77670E-04	.004377	-.004920	-.063	.9495
NIGSOCL	.093070	.110217	.063257	.844	.3996
REDUCNIG	.031704	.105290	.022817	.301	.7637
INTUSPO	-.120880	.169316	-.060919	-.714	.4763
ESTEEM1	.108418	.042405	.192160	2.557	.0115
(Constant)	-2.160092	1.017430		-2.123	.0352

End Block Number 1 All requested variables entered.

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
POLKNOW1	23.391	57.438	Political knowledg1
MEDEXPO1	8.495	2.801	Media exposure1
RADIOTER	3.223	1.150	Exposure to radio talk show
TRUST1	9.929	22.470	Trust media1
TRUST2	6.147	1.089	Trust media2
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCLA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
REDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
REDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	POLJNOW1	MEDEKPOL	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
POLJNOW1	1.000	.102	.087	.452	.019	.092	-.027	-.143
	.	.085	.121	.000	.400	.108	.360	.026
MEDEKPOL	.102	1.000	.851	.140	-.026	.324	-.071	-.216
	.085	.	.000	.029	.365	.000	.169	.002
RADIOTSE	.087	.851	1.000	.076	.009	.205	-.120	-.119
	.121	.000	.	.152	.454	.003	.052	.053
TRUST1	.452	.140	.076	1.000	.029	.087	-.019	-.014
	.000	.029	.152	.	.350	.121	.402	.426
TRUST2	.019	-.026	.009	.029	1.000	.005	.134	.010
	.400	.365	.454	.350	.	.472	.035	.449
GENDER	.092	.324	.205	.087	.005	1.000	.039	-.233
	.108	.000	.003	.121	.472	.	.299	.001
INCOME	-.027	-.071	-.120	-.019	.134	.039	1.000	.117
	.360	.169	.052	.402	.035	.299	.	.056
LANGSKIL	-.143	-.216	-.119	-.014	.010	-.233	.117	1.000
	.026	.002	.053	.426	.449	.001	.056	.
INSSTATU	-.026	-.066	-.079	-.003	.058	.110	.703	.084
	.362	.188	.145	.486	.217	.068	.000	.128
YEARSUS	-.261	-.302	-.214	-.170	-.048	-.332	-.141	.129
	.000	.000	.002	.011	.259	.000	.028	.041
USSOCIA	-.106	-.119	-.102	-.098	.005	-.098	.006	.064
	.077	.053	.085	.092	.475	.094	.466	.195
BEDUCUS	.271	.073	.034	.304	.063	.043	-.036	-.016
	.000	.161	.321	.000	.199	.283	.314	.413
NIGSOCL	-.025	-.003	-.090	-.089	-.107	.086	.096	.145
	.368	.483	.112	.114	.075	.122	.097	.025
BEDUCNIG	-.048	.019	-.049	-.065	.233	-.007	-.019	.009
	.259	.398	.255	.192	.001	.461	.398	.454
INTUSPO	.120	.505	.334	.086	-.126	.341	-.008	-.241
	.052	.000	.000	.122	.044	.000	.459	.000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 21

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	POLJNOCW1	MEDEKPOL	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGKIL
ESTKEM1	-.110	-.124	-.042	-.041	.105	-.057	.038	.233
	.068	.046	.288	.290	.078	.222	.304	.001

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	INSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	EDUCUS	NIGSOCL	EDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTKEM1
POLJONG1	-.026 .362	-.261 .000	-.106 .077	.271 .000	-.025 .368	-.048 .259	.120 .052	-.110 .068
REDECP01	-.066 .188	-.302 .000	-.119 .053	.073 .161	-.003 .483	.019 .398	.505 .000	-.124 .046
RADIOTSE	-.079 .145	-.214 .002	-.102 .085	.034 .321	-.090 .112	-.049 .255	.334 .000	-.042 .288
TRUST1	-.003 .486	-.170 .011	-.098 .092	.304 .000	-.089 .114	-.065 .192	.086 .122	-.041 .290
TRUST2	.058 .217	-.048 .259	.005 .475	.063 .199	-.107 .075	.233 .001	-.126 .044	.105 .078
GENDER	.110 .068	-.332 .000	-.098 .094	.043 .283	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.703 .000	-.141 .028	.006 .466	-.036 .314	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.084 .128	.129 .041	.064 .195	-.016 .413	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSTATU	1.000 .	-.106 .075	-.076 .152	-.036 .315	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.106 .075	1.000 .	.306 .000	-.292 .000	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	-.076 .152	.306 .000	1.000 .	-.118 .056	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
EDUCUS	-.036 .315	-.292 .000	-.118 .056	1.000 .	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	.020 .392	-.064 .195	.092 .108	.113 .063	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
EDUCNIG	-.065 .190	-.230 .001	.035 .317	.136 .033	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.068 .181	-.251 .000	-.093 .104	.069 .175	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTKEM1	-.031 .340	.169 .011	.139 .030	-.191 .005	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. POLKNOW1 Political knowledg1

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 19

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

MEDEKPO1 RADIOTSR TRUST1 TRUST2 GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU
YEARSUS USSOCLA REDUCUS NIGSOCL REDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem1
2.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
3.. TRUST1 Trust medial
4.. REDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
5.. RADIOTSR Exposure to radio talk show
6.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
7.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
8.. GENDER Gender
9.. TRUST2 Trust media2
10.. LANGSKIL Language skills
11.. REDUCUS Education in U.S.
12.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
13.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
14.. INCOME Income
15.. MEDEKPO1 Media exposure1

Multiple R .52701
R Square .27773
Adjusted R Square .21325
Standard Error 50.94718

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	15	167680.43160	11178.69544
Residual	168	436063.39448	2595.61544

F = 4.30676 Signif F = .0000

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. POLKNOW1 Political knowledge1

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
MEDEXPO1	-3.805329	3.080194	-.185585	-1.235	.2184
RADIOTSE	6.913542	6.769056	.138376	1.021	.3086
TRUST1	1.019438	.182500	.398806	5.586	.0000
TRUST2	1.200719	3.720752	.022766	.323	.7473
GENDER	-2.888233	9.307319	-.023426	-.310	.7567
INCOME	.004669	.549712	8.227E-04	.008	.9932
LANGSKIL	-4.026147	2.437558	-.119201	-1.652	.1005
INSTATU	-.334338	.757757	-.042080	-.441	.6596
YEARSUS	-2.063127	.918422	-.183631	-2.246	.0260
USSOCLA	.515447	5.998887	.006055	.086	.9316
REDUCUS	.270902	.208628	.096366	1.298	.1959
NIGSOCL	2.286865	5.253726	.031205	.435	.6639
REDUCNIG	-5.276670	5.018871	-.076240	-1.051	.2946
INTUSPO	5.416261	8.070774	.054800	.671	.5031
ESTKEN1	-1.233725	2.021344	-.043900	-.610	.5425
(Constant)	102.311576	48.497917		2.110	.0364

End Block Number 1 All requested variables entered.

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
DEMORIE1	3.038	1.053	Democratic orientation1
MEDEKPO1	8.495	2.801	Media exposure1
RADIOTEH	3.223	1.150	Exposure to radio talk show
TRUST1	9.929	22.470	Trust media1
TRUST2	6.147	1.089	Trust media2
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration Status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCIA	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
REDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
REDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTKEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1

N of Cases = 184

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	DEMORIE1	MEDEKPO1	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
DEMORIE1	1.000	.060	-.003	-.020	-.138	.143	.006	-.038
		.208	.486	.393	.031	.027	.468	.304
MEDEKPO1	.060	1.000	.851	.140	-.026	.324	-.071	-.216
	.208		.000	.029	.365	.000	.169	.002
RADIOTSE	-.003	.851	1.000	.076	.009	.205	-.120	-.119
	.486	.000		.152	.454	.003	.052	.053
TRUST1	-.020	.140	.076	1.000	.029	.087	-.019	-.014
	.393	.029	.152		.350	.121	.402	.426
TRUST2	-.138	-.026	.009	.029	1.000	.005	.134	.010
	.031	.365	.454	.350		.472	.035	.449
GENDER	.143	.324	.205	.087	.005	1.000	.039	-.233
	.027	.000	.003	.121	.472		.299	.001
INCOME	.006	-.071	-.120	-.019	.134	.039	1.000	.117
	.468	.169	.052	.402	.035	.299		.056
LANGSKIL	-.038	-.216	-.119	-.014	.010	-.233	.117	1.000
	.304	.002	.053	.426	.449	.001	.056	
INSSTATU	.068	-.066	-.079	-.003	.058	.110	.703	.084
	.180	.188	.145	.486	.217	.068	.000	.128
YEARSUS	-.082	-.302	-.214	-.170	-.048	-.332	-.141	.129
	.135	.000	.002	.011	.259	.000	.028	.041
USSOCLA	.038	-.119	-.102	-.098	.005	-.098	.006	.064
	.303	.053	.085	.092	.475	.094	.466	.195
REDUCUS	-.038	.073	.034	.304	.063	.043	-.036	-.016
	.303	.161	.321	.000	.199	.283	.314	.413
NIGSOCL	-.093	-.003	-.090	-.089	-.107	.086	.096	.145
	.104	.483	.112	.114	.075	.122	.097	.025
REDUCNIG	-.078	.019	-.049	-.065	.233	-.007	-.019	.009
	.145	.398	.255	.192	.001	.461	.398	.454
INTUSPO	.123	.505	.334	.086	-.126	.341	-.008	-.241
	.049	.000	.000	.122	.044	.000	.459	.000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 27

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	DEMORIE1	MEDEKPO1	RADIOTSE	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
ESTREM1	-.149	-.124	-.042	-.041	.105	-.057	.038	.233
	.022	.046	.288	.290	.078	.222	.304	.001

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	EDUCUS	NIGSOCL	EDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTKEM1
DEMOCR1	.068 .180	-.082 .135	.038 .303	-.038 .303	-.093 .104	-.078 .145	.123 .049	-.149 .022
MEDEXPO1	-.066 .188	-.302 .000	-.119 .053	.073 .161	-.003 .483	.019 .398	.505 .000	-.124 .046
RADIOFSE	-.079 .145	-.214 .002	-.102 .085	.034 .321	-.090 .112	-.049 .255	.334 .000	-.042 .288
TRUST1	-.003 .486	-.170 .011	-.098 .092	.304 .000	-.089 .114	-.065 .192	.086 .122	-.041 .290
TRUST2	.058 .217	-.048 .259	.005 .475	.063 .199	-.107 .075	.233 .001	-.126 .044	.105 .078
GENDER	.110 .068	-.332 .000	-.098 .094	.043 .283	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.703 .000	-.141 .028	.006 .466	-.036 .314	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.084 .128	.129 .041	.064 .195	-.016 .413	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	1.000 .	-.106 .075	-.076 .152	-.036 .315	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.106 .075	1.000 .	.306 .000	-.292 .000	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	-.076 .152	.306 .000	1.000 .	-.118 .056	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
EDUCUS	-.036 .315	-.292 .000	-.118 .056	1.000 .	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	.020 .392	-.064 .195	.092 .108	.113 .063	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
EDUCNIG	-.065 .190	-.230 .001	.035 .317	.136 .033	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.068 .181	-.251 .000	-.093 .104	.069 .175	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTKEM1	-.031 .340	.169 .011	.139 .030	-.191 .005	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. DEMORIE1 Democratic orientation1

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 25

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

MEDEKPO1 RADIOTSE TRUST1 TRUST2 GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU
 YEARSUS USSOCLA EDUCUS NIGSOCL EDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem1
 2.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
 3.. TRUST1 Trust media1
 4.. EDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
 5.. RADIOTSE Exposure to radio talk show
 6.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
 7.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
 8.. GENDER Gender
 9.. TRUST2 Trust media2
 10.. LANGSKIL Language skills
 11.. EDUCUS Education in U.S.
 12.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
 13.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
 14.. INCOME Income
 15.. MEDEKPO1 Media exposure1

Multiple R .31681
 R Square .10037
 Adjusted R Square .02004
 Standard Error 1.04193

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	15	20.34818	1.35655
Residual	168	182.38552	1.08563

F = 1.24955 Signif F = .2400

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. DEMORIE1 Democratic orientation1

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
MEDEKPO1	.056381	.062994	.150053	.895	.3721
RADIOTSE	-.172451	.138436	-.188360	-1.246	.2146
TRUST1	-.002526	.003732	-.053933	-.677	.4994
TRUST2	-.105013	.076094	-.108654	-1.380	.1694
GENDER	.251684	.190347	.111400	1.322	.1879
INCOME	-.006431	.011242	-.061840	-.572	.5681
LANGSKIL	.039104	.049851	.063179	.784	.4339
INSSTATU	.011861	.015497	.081464	.765	.4451
YEARSUS	-.020768	.018783	-.100875	-1.106	.2704
USSOCLA	.168039	.122685	.107716	1.370	.1726
REDUCUS	-.002046	.004267	-.039721	-.480	.6322
NIGSOCL	-.176078	.107445	-.131115	-1.639	.1031
REDUCNIG	-.100532	.102642	-.079267	-.979	.3288
INTUSPO	.092340	.165058	.050984	.559	.5766
ESTERN1	-.060294	.041339	-.117080	-1.459	.1466
(Constant)	4.369373	.991844		4.405	.0000

End Block Number 1 All requested variables entered.

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Listwise Deletion of Missing Data

	Mean	Std Dev	Label
ADJCULT	15.587	34.689	Adjusted to U.S. political culture
MEDEKPOL	8.495	2.801	Media exposure1
RADIOTEK	3.223	1.150	Exposure to radio talk show
TRUST1	9.929	22.470	Trust media1
TRUST2	6.147	1.089	Trust media2
GENDER	1.315	.466	Gender
INCOME	3.038	10.122	Income
LANGSKIL	10.065	1.701	Language skills
INSSTATU	1.500	7.229	Immigration status
YEARSUS	11.924	5.112	Length of stay in U.S.
USSOCCL	1.717	.675	Your U.S. social class?
EDUCUS	9.239	20.432	Education in U.S.
NIGSOCL	1.728	.784	Your Nigerian social class?
EDUCNIG	2.647	.830	Education in Nigeria
INTUSPO	1.467	.581	Interest in U.S. Politics
ESTEM1	14.826	2.044	Self esteem1
AUTEL	4.848	1.896	Authoritarianism1
DIFFUSSP	9.685	3.152	Diffuse support
POLKNOW1	23.391	57.438	Political knowledge1
POLPAUS	.690	1.153	U.S political participation

N of Cases = 184

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

Correlation, 1-tailed Sig:

	ADJCULT	MEDEKPO1	RADIOTER	TRUST1	TRUST2	GENDER	INCOME	LANGSKIL
ADJCULT	1.000	.049	-.026	-.035	.084	.183	.106	.019
	.	.254	.363	.318	.129	.006	.076	.400
MEDEKPO1	.049	1.000	.851	.140	-.026	.324	-.071	-.216
	.254	.	.000	.029	.365	.000	.169	.002
RADIOTER	-.026	.851	1.000	.076	.009	.205	-.120	-.119
	.363	.000	.	.152	.454	.003	.052	.053
TRUST1	-.035	.140	.076	1.000	.029	.087	-.019	-.014
	.318	.029	.152	.	.350	.121	.402	.426
TRUST2	.084	-.026	.009	.029	1.000	.005	.134	.010
	.129	.365	.454	.350	.	.472	.035	.449
GENDER	.183	.324	.205	.087	.005	1.000	.039	-.233
	.006	.000	.003	.121	.472	.	.299	.001
INCOME	.106	-.071	-.120	-.019	.134	.039	1.000	.117
	.076	.169	.052	.402	.035	.299	.	.056
LANGSKIL	.019	-.216	-.119	-.014	.010	-.233	.117	1.000
	.400	.002	.053	.426	.449	.001	.056	.
INSSTATU	.180	-.066	-.079	-.003	.058	.110	.703	.084
	.007	.188	.145	.486	.217	.068	.000	.128
YEARSUS	-.121	-.302	-.214	-.170	-.048	-.332	-.141	.129
	.051	.000	.002	.011	.259	.000	.028	.041
USSOCLA	-.033	-.119	-.102	-.098	.005	-.098	.006	.064
	.329	.053	.085	.092	.475	.094	.466	.195
REDUCUS	.046	.073	.034	.304	.063	.043	-.036	-.016
	.269	.161	.321	.000	.199	.283	.314	.413
NIGSOCL	.183	-.003	-.090	-.089	-.107	.086	.096	.145
	.006	.483	.112	.114	.075	.122	.097	.025
REDUCNIG	.047	.019	-.049	-.065	.233	-.007	-.019	.009
	.264	.398	.255	.192	.001	.461	.398	.454
INTUSPO	.041	.505	.334	.086	-.126	.341	-.008	-.241
	.292	.000	.000	.122	.044	.000	.459	.000

```

* * * * * M U L T I P L E   R E G R E S S I O N   * * * * *
ADJCLT KEDEKPOL RADIOTEH TRUST1 TRUST2 GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL
ESTKEM1  -.074  -.124  -.042  -.041  .105  -.057  .038  .233
          .159  .046  .288  .290  .078  .222  .304  .001
AUTEM1   -.054  .160  .096  -.008  -.267  .011  .132  -.119
          .235  .015  .098  .459  .000  .440  .037  .054
DIFFUSEP .244  .108  .060  -.058  -.106  .183  .174  -.041
          .000  .073  .208  .218  .076  .006  .009  .290
POLKNOW1 .192  .102  .087  .452  .019  .092  -.027  -.143
          .005  .085  .121  .000  .400  .108  .360  .026
POLPAUS  -.050  -.230  -.178  -.036  .028  -.204  -.004  .253
          .248  .001  .008  .311  .355  .003  .478  .000

```

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	HEDUCUS	NIGSOCL	HEDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTKEM1
ADJCUZT	.180 .007	-.121 .051	-.033 .329	.046 .269	.183 .006	.047 .264	.041 .292	-.074 .159
HEDEKPO1	-.066 .188	-.302 .000	-.119 .053	.073 .161	-.003 .483	.019 .398	.505 .000	-.124 .046
RADIOTER	-.079 .145	-.214 .002	-.102 .085	.034 .321	-.090 .112	-.049 .255	.334 .000	-.042 .288
TRUST1	-.003 .486	-.170 .011	-.098 .092	.304 .000	-.089 .114	-.065 .192	.086 .122	-.041 .290
TRUST2	.058 .217	-.048 .259	.005 .475	.063 .199	-.107 .075	.233 .001	-.126 .044	.105 .078
GENDER	.110 .068	-.332 .000	-.098 .094	.043 .283	.086 .122	-.007 .461	.341 .000	-.057 .222
INCOME	.703 .000	-.141 .028	.006 .466	-.036 .314	.096 .097	-.019 .398	-.008 .459	.038 .304
LANGSKIL	.084 .128	.129 .041	.064 .195	-.016 .413	.145 .025	.009 .454	-.241 .000	.233 .001
INSSTATU	1.000 .	-.106 .075	-.076 .152	-.036 .315	.020 .392	-.065 .190	.068 .181	-.031 .340
YEARSUS	-.106 .075	1.000 .	.306 .000	-.292 .000	-.064 .195	-.230 .001	-.251 .000	.169 .011
USSOCLA	-.076 .152	.306 .000	1.000 .	-.118 .056	.092 .108	.035 .317	-.093 .104	.139 .030
HEDUCUS	-.036 .315	-.292 .000	-.118 .056	1.000 .	.113 .063	.136 .033	.069 .175	-.191 .005
NIGSOCL	.020 .392	-.064 .195	.092 .108	.113 .063	1.000 .	.078 .145	.064 .192	.158 .016
HEDUCNIG	-.065 .190	-.230 .001	.035 .317	.136 .033	.078 .145	1.000 .	-.064 .195	-.059 .213
INTUSPO	.068 .181	-.251 .000	-.093 .104	.069 .175	.064 .192	-.064 .195	1.000 .	-.101 .085
ESTKEM1	-.031 .340	.169 .011	.139 .030	-.191 .005	.158 .016	-.059 .213	-.101 .085	1.000 .

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 5

* * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * *

	INSSTATU	YEARSUS	USSOCLA	REDUCUS	NIGSOCL	REDUCNIG	INTUSPO	ESTEM1
AUTR1	.161 .015	-.044 .276	-.141 .028	.045 .273	.086 .123	-.104 .080	.174 .009	-.005 .471
DIFFUSSP	.309 .000	-.180 .007	-.153 .019	.189 .005	.096 .098	.009 .449	.320 .000	-.283 .000
POLKNCW1	-.026 .362	-.261 .000	-.106 .077	.271 .000	-.025 .368	-.048 .259	.120 .052	-.110 .068
POLPAUS	-.043 .281	.329 .000	.098 .094	-.101 .087	.088 .118	-.035 .318	-.215 .002	.285 .000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 6

* * * * MULTIPLE REGRESSION * * * *

	AUTEM	DIFFUSSP	POLKNOE1	POLPAUS
ADJCUIT	-.054 .235	.244 .000	.192 .005	-.050 .248
HEDEKPO1	.160 .015	.108 .073	.102 .085	-.230 .001
RADIOTER	.096 .098	.060 .208	.087 .121	-.178 .008
TRUST1	-.008 .459	-.058 .218	.452 .000	-.036 .311
TRUST2	-.267 .000	-.106 .076	.019 .400	.028 .355
GENDER	.011 .440	.183 .006	.092 .108	-.204 .003
INCOME	.132 .037	.174 .009	-.027 .360	-.004 .478
LANGSKIL	-.119 .054	-.041 .290	-.143 .026	.253 .000
INSSTATU	.161 .015	.309 .000	-.026 .362	-.043 .281
YEARSUS	-.044 .276	-.180 .007	-.261 .000	.329 .000
USSOCLA	-.141 .028	-.153 .019	-.106 .077	.098 .094
HEUCUS	.045 .273	.189 .005	.271 .000	-.101 .087
NIGSOCL	.086 .123	.096 .098	-.025 .368	.088 .118
HEUCNIG	-.104 .080	.009 .449	-.048 .259	-.035 .318
INTUSPO	.174 .009	.320 .000	.120 .052	-.215 .002
ESTEMH1	-.005 .471	-.283 .000	-.110 .068	.285 .000

15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 7

```
***** MULTIPLE REGRESSION *****
      AUTH1 DIFFUSSP POLKNOW1 POLPAUS
AUTH1   1.000   .152   -.001   -.094
        .       .020   .493   .102
DIFFUSSP .152   1.000  -.081  -.158
        .020   .       .138   .016
POLKNOW1 -.001  -.081   1.000  -.119
        .493   .138   .       .054
POLPAUS  -.094  -.158  -.119   1.000
        .102   .016   .054   .
```


15 Jun 96 SPSS for MS WINDOWS Release 6.1

Page 8

* * * * * M U L T I P L E R E G R E S S I O N * * * * *

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. ADJCULT Adjusted to U.S. political

Descriptive Statistics are printed on Page 1

Block Number 1. Method: Enter

MEDEXPO1 RADIOTER TRUST1 TRUST2 GENDER INCOME LANGSKIL INSSTATU
 YEARSUS USSOCLA EDUCUS NIGSOCL EDUCNIG INTUSPO ESTEEM1 AUT1
 DIFFUSSP POLKNOW1 POLPAUS

Variable(s) Entered on Step Number

1.. POLPAUS U.S political participation
 2.. INCOME Income
 3.. EDUCNIG Education in Nigeria
 4.. TRUST1 Trust medial
 5.. USSOCLA Your U.S. social class?
 6.. NIGSOCL Your Nigerian social class?
 7.. RADIOTER Exposure to radio talk show
 8.. AUT1 Authoritarianism1
 9.. DIFFUSSP Diffuse support
 10.. LANGSKIL Language skills
 11.. GENDER Gender
 12.. TRUST2 Trust media2
 13.. EDUCUS Education in U.S.
 14.. ESTEEM1 Self esteem1
 15.. POLKNOW1 Political knowledg1
 16.. INTUSPO Interest in U.S. Politics
 17.. YEARSUS Length of stay in U.S.
 18.. INSSTATU Immigration Status
 19.. MEDEXPO1 Media exposure1

Multiple R .47331
 R Square .22402
 Adjusted R Square .13413
 Standard Error 32.27863

Analysis of Variance

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square
Regression	19	49331.32772	2596.38567
Residual	164	170873.28097	1041.91025

F = 2.49195 Signif F = .0010

*** MULTIPLE REGRESSION ***

Equation Number 1 Dependent Variable.. ADJCULT Adjusted to U.S. political

----- Variables in the Equation -----

Variable	B	SE B	Beta	T	Sig T
MEDEXPO1	3.931745	1.982064	.317504	1.984	.0490
RADIOTER	-8.035116	4.319526	-.266296	-1.860	.0647
TRUST1	-.233694	.126351	-.151377	-1.850	.0662
TRUST2	3.273087	2.453212	.102757	1.334	.1840
GENDER	0.620442	5.957179	.115773	1.447	.1498
INCOME	-.316443	.349532	-.092336	-.905	.3666
LANGSKIL	1.282951	1.586172	.062895	.809	.4198
INSTATU	.808491	.494590	.168493	1.635	.1040
YEARSUS	.061461	.606731	.009058	.101	.9194
USSOCLA	.350512	3.857056	.006817	.091	.9277
REDUCUS	-.108123	.135694	-.063686	-.797	.4267
NIGSOCL	6.798572	3.355732	.153608	2.026	.0444
REDUCNIG	-.181546	3.192860	-.004343	-.057	.9547
INFUSPO	-8.962020	5.341110	-.150142	-1.678	.0953
ESTERN1	-.159158	1.357712	-.009377	-.117	.9068
AUTEL	-1.529162	1.401625	-.083573	-1.091	.2769
DIFFUSSP	2.813876	.923949	.255655	3.045	.0027
POLKNOW1	.187495	.049544	.310457	3.784	.0002
POLPAUS	-.082473	2.335538	-.002742	-.035	.9719
(Constant)	-54.478475	35.240825		-1.546	.1241

End Block Number 1 All requested variables entered.

REFERENCES

- The African Herald*. 1995, December. Vol. 6, no. 12, pp. 1, 10, 27, 29. Dallas, TX: Good Hope Enterprises, Inc.
- The African Herald*. 1996, February. Vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 10-13. Dallas, TX: Good Hope Enterprises, Inc.
- Alger, E. D. 1989. *The Media and Politics*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Allen, R. L., and S. H. Chaffee. 1979. Mass Communication and the Political Participation of Black Americans. In *Communication Yearbook 3*, ed. D. Nimmo. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.
- Almond, G. A., and J. S. Coleman, eds. 1960. *The Politics of Developing Areas*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Anderson, D., and E. Lorch. 1983. Looking at Television: Action or Reaction. In *Children's Understanding of Television: Research on Attention and Comprehension*, eds. J. Bryant and D. Anderson. New York: Academic.
- Arikpo, O. 1967. *The Development of Modern Nigeria*. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books.
- Atkin, C., and W. Gantz. 1978. Television News and the Child Audience. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 42:183-98.
- Atkin, C. K., and W. Gantz. 1980. Television News and Political Socialization. In *Mass Communication Review Yearbook I*, ed. G. C. Wilhoit. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Austin, E. W. 1989. *Learning to Put Politics into Contest: Effects of Family Communication on Adolescents' Assessment of Political News*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University.
- Baldwin, A. 1969. A Cognitive Theory of Socialization. In *Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research*, ed. D. Goslin. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Bandura, A. 1986. *Social Foundations of Thought and Action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Barkan, J. D., C. L. Kim, and I. L. Turan. 1976. *Legislative Behavior and Political Development in Kenya, Korea and Turkey*. Iowa City, IA: Comparative Legislative Research Center, University of Iowa.
- Bascom, W. R. 1969. *The Yoruba of Southwestern Nigeria*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland.
- Becker, L. B., and D. C. Whitney. 1980. Effects of Media Dependencies: Audience Assessment of Government. *Communication Research*, 7:95-120.
- Benton, M., and J. Frazier. 1976. The Agenda-setting Function of the Mass Media at Three Levels of Information Holding. *Communication Research*, 3:261-74.
- Berkowitz, D., and D. Pritchard. 1989. Political Knowledge and Communication Resources. *Journalism Quarterly*, 66(3): 697-701.
- Berlo, D. K., J. B. Lemert, and R. J. Mertz. 1970. Dimensions for Evaluating the Acceptability of Message Sources. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 33:563-76.
- Berlyne, D. 1960. *Conflict, Arousal and Curiosity*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Besecker-Kassab, Charlotte Kay. 1992. "Immigrant Use of Political Media in the U.S.: A Case Study of the Maronite Lebanese of South Florida." Ph.D. diss. University of Miami.
- Bill, J.A., and R. L. Hardgrave. 1981. *Comparative Politics: The Quest for Theory*. Washington, DC: University Press of America.
- Blalock, H. M., Jr. 1982. *Race and Ethnic Relations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bogart, L., and R. Eldon. 1989. *Press and the Public: Who Reads What, When, Where, and Why in America*. Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Brim, O. G., and S. Wheeler. 1966. *Socialization after Childhood: Two Essays*. New York: John Wiley.
- Buehler, M. H. 1976. *Political Efficacy, Political Discontent, and Voting Turnout among Mexican-Americans in Michigan*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Notre Dame.
- Campbell, A., P. Converse, W. E. Miller, and D. E. Stokes. 1966. *The American Voter*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

- Chaffee, S. H. 1982. Mass Media and Interpersonal Channels: Competitive, Convergent, or Complementary? In *Inter/media*, eds. G. Gumpert and R. Cathcart. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Chaffee, S. H., and S. Y. Choe. 1979. *Communication Measurement in the March 1979 NES Pilot Study*. Presented to the American Political Science Association, Washington, DC.
- Chaffee, S. H., C. I. Nass, and S. M. Yang. 1990. The Bridging Role of Television in Immigrant Political Socialization. *Human Communication Research*, 17:266-88.
- Chaffee, S. H., C. I. Nass, and S. M. Yang. 1991. Trust in U. S. Media among Korean Americans. *Journalism Quarterly*, 68:111-19.
- Chaffee, S. H., and J. Schleuder. 1986. Measurement and Effects of Attention to Media News. *Human Communication Research*, 13(1): 76-107.
- Chaffee, S. H., and A. R. Tims. 1982. News Media Use in Adolescence: Implications for Political Cognitions. In *Communication Yearbook 6*, ed. M. Burgoon. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Chaffee, S. H., S. Ward, and L. Tipton. 1970. Mass Communication and Political Socialization. *Journalism Quarterly*, 47:647-59.
- Chaffee, S. H., and S. M. Yang. 1988. Communication and Political Socialization. In *Political Socialization for Democracy*, ed. O. Ichilov. New York: Columbia University Teacher College Press.
- Connell, R. W. 1972. Political Socialization in the American Family: The Evidence Re-examined. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 36:323-33.
- Conway, M., A. Stevens, and R. Smith. 1975. The Relation between Media Use and Children's Civil Awareness. *Journalism Quarterly*, 52:531-38.
- Cook, T., and F. Scioli. 1972. Political Socialization Research in the United States: A Review. In *Political Attitudes and Public Opinion*, eds. D. Nimmo and C. Bonjean. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Dallas Morning News*. 1995, February 26. 37A.
- Dawson, R. E., K. Prewitt, and K. S. Dawson. 1977. *Political Socialization*. 2nd ed. Boston: Little, Brown.

- de la Garza, R. O., and R. R. Brischetto. 1983. The Mexican-American Electorate: Information Sources and Policy Orientations. *The Mexican-American Electorate Series*. Austin, TX: Center for Mexican American Studies.
- de la Garza, R. O., and R. R. Brischetto. 1984. The Mexican American Electorate: An Explanation of Their Opinions and Behavior. *The Mexican American Electorate Series*. Austin, TX: Center for Mexican American Studies.
- de la Garza, R. O., and R. R. Brischetto. 1985. The Mexican-American Electorate: Political Opinions and Behavior across Cultures in San Antonio. *The Mexican American Electorate Series*. Austin, TX: Center for Mexican American Studies.
- DeFleur, M. L., and C. S. Cho. 1957. Assimilation of Japanese-born Women in an American City. *Social Problems*, 4:244-57.
- Dennis, J., L. Lindberg, D. McCrone, and R. Stiefbold. 1968. Political Socialization to Democratic Orientations in Four Western Systems. *Comparative Political Studies*, 1:71-101.
- Dion, K. 1985. Socializing and Adulthood. In Vol. 2 of *Handbook of Social Psychology*, eds. G. Lindzey and E. Aronson. New York: Random House.
- Dominick, J. 1972. Television and Political Socialization. *Educational Broadcasting Review*, 6:48-55.
- Drew, D., and B. Reeves. 1980. Children and Television News. *Journalism Quarterly*, 57:45-54.
- Drew, D., and D. Weaver. 1991. Voter Learning in the 1988 Presidential Election: Did the Debates and the Media Matter? *Journalism Quarterly*, 68.
- Duncan, H. D. 1967. The Search for Social Theory in Communication in American Sociology. In *Human Communication Theory: Original Essays*, ed. F. E. K. Dance. NY: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Dunn, E. W., Jr. 1975. Mexican-American Media Behavior: A Factor Analysis. *Journal of Broadcasting*, 19(1): 3-10.
- Duran, D. F. 1980. *Latino Communication Patterns*. NY: Arno.

- Easton, D. 1965a. *A Framework for Political Analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Easton, D. 1965b. *A System Analysis of Political Life*. NY: John Wiley and Sons.
- Easton, D., and J. Dennis. 1969. *Children in the Political System. Origin of Political Legitimacy*. NY: McGraw Hill Book.
- Easton, D., and R. Hess. 1962. The Child's Political World. *Midwest Journal of Political Science*, 16:229-46.
- Festinger, L. 1957. *Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*. Evanston, IL: Row and Peterson.
- Forgas, J. 1981. *Social Cognition: Perspectives on Everyday Understanding*. London: Academic.
- Forsyth, F. 1969. *The Biafra Story*. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books.
- Garramone, G. M. 1986. Voter Responses to Negative Political Ads: Clarifying Sponsor Effects. *Journalism Quarterly*, 61:259-69.
- Gerbner, G., L. Gross, M. Morgan, and N. Signorielli. 1984. The Political Correlates of TV Viewing. *Publish Opinion Quarterly*, 48:283-300.
- Goehlert, R. 1981. *Political socialization: A bibliography*. Monticello, IL: Vance Bibliographies.
- Goldlust, J., and A. H. Richmond. 1974. A Multivariate Model of Immigrant Adaptation. *International Migration Review*, 8(2): 193-225.
- Gollin, A., and T. Anderson. 1980. *America's Children and the Mass Media*. New York: Newspaper Advertising Bureau.
- Gordon, M. M. 1964. *Assimilation in American Life*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Greenberg, B. S., M. Burgoon, J. K. Burgoon, and F. Korzenny. 1983. *Mexican Americans and the Media*. NJ: Ablex.
- Greenstein, F. I. 1965. *Children and Politics*. New Haven: Yale University Press.

- Greenstein, F. I. 1968. Political Socialization. In Vol. 14 of *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, ed. D. L. Sills. NY: Crowell-Collier and Macmillan.
- Gunter, B. 1987. *Poor Reception: Misunderstanding and Forgetting Broadcast News*. Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaun and Associates.
- Hawkins, R. 1974. *Children's Acquisition of Current Events Information in the Context of Family, Peers, Media Use, and Pre-existing Attitudes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University.
- Hawkins, R., S. Pingree, and D. F. Roberts. 1975. Watergate and Political Socialization. *American Politics Quarterly*, 3:406-22.
- Hawkins, R., S. Pingree, K. Smith, and W. Bechtolt. 1979. Adolescents' Responses to Issues and Images. In *The Great Debates: Carter vs. Ford 1976*, ed. S. Kraus. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- Hess, R. D., and J. V. Torney. 1967. *The Development of Political Attitudes in Children*. Chicago: Aldine Publishing.
- Hollander, N. 1971. Adolescents and the War: The Sources of Socialization. *Journalism Quarterly*, 48:472-79.
- Hyman, H. H. 1959. *Political Socialization: A Study in Psychology of Political Behavior*. NY: The Free Press.
- Igbani, M. A. 1993. *The Silent Majority: Poverty and Frustration in the Nigerian Society*. Aba, Nigeria: Everest Printing and Publishing.
- Jackson-Beeck, M. 1979. Interpersonal and Mass Communication in Children's Political Socialization. *Journalism Quarterly*, 56:48-53.
- Jaros, D. 1973. *Socialization to Politics*. NY: Praeger Publishers.
- Jeffres, L. W., and K. K. Hur. 1981. Communication Channels Within Ethnic Groups. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 5:115-32.
- Jennings, M. K., and R. Niemi. 1974. *The Political Character of Adolescence: The Influences of Families and Schools*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Jennings, M. K., and R. G. Niemi. 1981. *Generations and Politics: A Panel Study of Young Adults and Their Parents*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

- Johnson-Smaragdi, U. 1983. *TV Use and Social Interaction in Adolescence*. Stockholm: Almquist and Wiksell.
- Kazee, T. A. 1981. Television Exposure and Attitudes: The Impact of Political Interest. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 45(4): 507-17.
- Kenamer, J. D. 1987a. Debate Viewing and Debate Discussion as Predictors of Campaign Cognition. *Journalism Quarterly*, 64, 114-118.
- Kenamer, J. D. 1987b. How Media Use during Campaign Affects the Intent to Vote. *Journalism Quarterly*, 64, 291-300.
- Kim, K. C., and W. W. Hurch. 1980. Social and Occupational Assimilation of Korean Immigrant Workers in the United States. *California Sociologist*, 3(2): 125-42.
- Kim, Y. Y. 1976. *Communication Patterns of Foreign Immigrants in the Process of Acculturation: A Survey among the Korean Population in Chicago*. Northwestern University.
- Kim, Y. Y. 1980. *Communication, Competence and Immigrant Acculturation: An Outline for Designing a Communication Training Program*. Presented at the meeting of the Society for Intercultural Education, Training, and Research, Mt. Pocono, PA.
- Kim, Y. Y. 1982a. Communication and Acculturation. In *Intercultural Communication: A Reader*, eds. L. Samover and R. Porter. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Kim, Y. Y. 1982b. *Becoming Intercultural and Human Development*. Presented at the annual meeting of the International Communication Association, Minneapolis, MN.
- Kim, Y. Y. 1984. Searching for Creative Integration. In *Methods of Intercultural Communication Research*. eds. W. B. Grudykunst and Y. Y. Kim. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Korzenny, F., K. Neuendorf, M. Burgoon, J. K. Burgoon, and B. S. Greenberg. 1983. Cultural Identification as Predictor of Content Preferences of Hispanics. *Journalism Quarterly*, 60(4): 677-85.
- Kraus, S., and D. Davis. 1976. *The Effects of Mass Communication on Political Behavior*. University Park, PA: Pennsylvania State University Press.

- Kraus, S., and D. Davis. 1981. Political Debates. In *Handbook of Political Communication*. eds. D. D. Nimmo and K. R. Sanders. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Kraus, S., and R. Perloff, eds. 1985. *Mass Media and Political Thought*. Beverly Hills: Sage
- Langton, K. P. 1969. *Political Socialization*. NY: Oxford University Press.
- Lau, R., and D. Sears. 1984. *Political Cognition*. Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Lee, D. 1984. *Mass Media and Political Socialization of Foreign Immigrants*. Urbana: University of Illinois.
- Liebes, T., and R. Riback. 1992. The Contribution of Family Culture to Political Participating Political Outlook, and Its Reproduction. *Communication Research*, 19(5): 618-41.
- Martinelli, Kathleen Ann. 1993. The Role of the Campaign Media in the Political Issue Learning of New United States Citizens. CA: Stanford University.
- Meadowcraft, J. M. 1986. Family Communication Patterns and Political Development: The Child's Role. *Communication Research*, 13(4): 603-24.
- McCombs, M. 1987. Effect of Monopoly in Cleveland on Diversity of News Content. *Journalism Quarterly*, 64:740-44.
- Mcleod, J. M., C. R. Bybee, and J. A. Duvall. 1980. Equivalence of Informed Political Participation: The 1976 Presidential Debates as a Source of Influence. *Communication Research*, 6:463-87.
- Mcleod, J. M., and D. McDonald. 1985. Beyond Simple Exposure: Media Orientations and Their Impact on Political Processes. *Communication Research*, 12:3-34.
- Miller, M. M., M. W. Singletary, and S. Chen. 1988. The Roper Question and Television Versus Newspapers as Sources of News. *Journalism Quarterly*, 65:12-19.
- Miyares, M. 1980. *Models of Political Participation of Hispanic Americans*. New York: Arno.

- Mortimer, J., and R. Simmons. 1978. Adult Socialization. In *Annual Review of Sociology*, R. Turner, J. Coleman, and R. Fox. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.
- Nagata, K. 1969. *A Statistical Approach to the Study of Acculturation of an Ethnic Group Based on Communication-oriented Variables: The Case of the Japanese American in Chicago*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
- Neuendorf, K. A., F. Korzenny, and G. B. Armstrong. 1980. *Cultural Identity and Television Behaviors of Hispanic Americans*. Presented at the annual meeting of the International Communication Association, Acapulco, Mexico.
- Newhagen, J., and C. I. Nass. 1989. Differential Criteria for Receiver Evaluation of Credibility of Newspapers and Television News. *Journalism Quarterly*, 66:277-84.
- Newsweek*. 1995, December 18. p. 47. New York: Newsweek, Inc.
- Nie, N., S. Verba, and J.R. Petrocik. 1976. *The Changing American Voter*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Niemi R. G. 1973. Political Socialization. In *Handbook of Political Psychology*, ed. J. N. Knutson. San Francisco: Josey-Bass Publishers.
- Niemi, R. G., and B. I. Sobieszek. 1977. Political Socialization. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 3:209-33.
- Nwachukwu, R. O. 1989. *The Dark and Bright Continent: Africa in the Changing World*. Dallas: Good Hope Enterprises.
- O'Keefe, G. J., and K. Reid-Nash. 1987. Socializing Functions. In *Handbook of Communication Science*, eds. C. R. Berger and S. H. Chaffee. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Oguntoyinbo, J. S., D. O. Areda, and M. Filani. 1978. *A Geography of Nigerian Development*. Naadan: Heineman Educational Books.
- Olmedo, E. L. 1980. The Role of Cultural Awareness and Ethnic Loyalty in Acculturation. In *Acculturation: Theory, Models, and Some New Findings*, ed. A. M. Padilla Boulder, CO: Westview.

- Patterson, T. E. 1980. *The Mass Media Election: How Americans Choose Their President*. New York: Praeger.
- Patterson, T. E. 1989. The Press and the Missed Assignment. In *The Elections of 1988*, ed. M. Nelson. Washington, DC: CQ.
- Patterson, T. E., and R. D. McClure. 1976. *The Unseeing Eye: The Myth of Television Power in National Elections*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Perkins, W. A., and J. H. Stembridge. 1966. *Nigeria: A Descriptive Geography*. Bungay, Suffolk: Oxford University Press.
- Prisuta, R. H. 1979. The Adolescent and Television News: A Viewer Profile. *Journalism Quarterly*, 56(2): 277-82.
- Pye, L. W. 1962. *Politics, Personality and National Building: Burma's Search for Identity*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Pye, L. W. 1963. *Communication and Political Development*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Pye, L. W. 1966. *Aspects of Political Development*. Boston: Little, Brown.
- Renshon, S. A. 1975. The Role of Personality Development in Political Socialization. In *New Directions in Political Socialization*, eds. D. C. Schwartz and S. K. Schwartz. NY: The Free Press.
- Renshon, S. A. 1977. *Handbook of Political Socialization*. NY: The Free Press.
- Richmond, A. H. 1969. *Post War Immigrants in Canada*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Roberts, D. F., and N. Maccoby. 1985. Effect of Mass Communication. In Vol. 11 of *The Handbook of Social Psychology*, 3rd ed., G. Lindzey and E. Aronson. New York: Random House.
- Rogers, E. M., and J. D. Storey. 1987. Communication Campaigns. In *Handbook of Communication Science*, eds. C. R. Berger and S. H. Chaffee. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Roper, B. W. 1983. *Trends in Attitudes towards Television and Other Media: A Twenty-four Year Review*. New York: The Roper Organization.

- Rosenberg, S. W. 1988. *Political Reasoning and Cognition: A Piagetian View*. Durham: Duke University Press.
- Sandell, K. L., and D. H. Ostroff. 1981. Political Information Content and Children's Political Socialization. *Journal of Broadcasting*, 25, 49-59.
- Sanders, R. 1988. *Shores of Refuge: A Hundred Years of Jewish Emigration*. New York: Holt.
- Sapiro, V. 1983. *The Political Socialization of Women: Roles, Socialization, and Politics*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Schaefer, R. T. 1979. *Racial and Ethnic Groups*. Boston: Little, Brown.
- Sears, D. O. 1975. Political Socialization. In *Handbook of Political Science*, eds. F. I. Greenstein and N. W. Polsby. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley Publishing.
- Sears, D. O., and S. H. Chaffee. 1978. Uses and Effects of the Debates: An Overview of Empirical Studies. In *The Great Debates, 1976: Ford vs. Carter*, ed. S. Kraus. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Shibutani, T., and K. Kwan. 1965. *Ethnic Stratification: A Comparative Approach*. New York: Macmillan.
- Shoemaker, P. J., W. A. Danielson, and S. D. Reese. 1984. *Language and Media Use among Hispanics and Anglos*. Presented at the annual meeting of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Gainesville, FL.
- Sidanius, J., and B. Ekehammar. 1979. Political Socialization: A Multivariate Analysis of Swedish Political Attitude and Preference Data. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 21, 265-279.
- Sigel, R. S. 1965. Assumptions about the Learning of Political Attitudes. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 361, 1-9.
- Sigel, R. 1989. *Political Learning in Adulthood: A Source Book of Theory and Research*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Stremlau, J. J. 1977. *The International Politics of the Nigerian Civil War 1967-1970*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

- Subervi-Velez, F. A. 1984. *Hispanics, the Mass Media, and Politics: Assimilation vs. Pluralism*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin.
- Subervi-Velez, F. A. 1986. The Mass Media and Ethnic Assimilation and Pluralism: A Review and Research Proposal with Special Focus on Hispanic. *Communication Research*, 13(1): 71-96.
- Tan, A. 1983. Media Use and Political Orientations of Ethnic Groups. *Journalism Quarterly*, 60(1): 126-32.
- Thorndyke, P. W. 1977. Cognitive Structures in Comprehension and Memory of Narrative Discourse. *Cognitive Psychology*, 9:77-110.
- U. S. Bureau of the Census. 1994. *Statistical Abstract of the United States*. 114th ed. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of the Census.
- U.S. Department of Commerce. 1992. *International Trade Administration Foreign Economic Trends and Their Implications for the United States*. Lagos, Nigeria: American Embassy.
- Wade, S., and W. Schramm. 1986. The Mass Media as Sources of Public Affairs Sciences and Health Knowledge. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 33:197-209.
- Waxman, C. I. 1989. *American Aliya: Portrait of an Innovative Migration Movement*. Detroit: Wayne State University.
- Weaver, D., and D. Drew. 1991. *Voter Learning in the 1990 Off-year Election: Did the Mass Media Matter?* Presented at the convention of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Boston, MA.
- White, R. 1959. Motivation Reconsidered: The Concept of Competence. *Psychological Review*, 66:297-333.
- White, R. 1960. Competence and Psychosexual States of Development. In *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation 1960*, ed. M. Jones. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Wilhoit, G. C., ed. 1980. *Mass Communication Review Yearbook I*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980.
- Wilson, D. 1984. *Political Opinion Change in Parent-adolescent Dyads*. Presented at the annual convention of the Association for education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Gainesville, FL.

- Witty, S. 1981, June/July. The Citizen's Movement Takes a Turn. *Channels of Communication*, 93.
- Yang, S. M. 1988. *The Role of Mass Media in Immigrants' Political Socialization: A Study of Korean Immigrants in Northern California*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, California.
- Zhao, X., and S. H. Chaffee. 1986. *Political Ads Versus News as Sources of Issue Information*. Presented at the convention of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Norman, OK.
- Zhao, X., S. H. Chaffee, G. Bleske, and P. David. 1992. *Television News and Ads as Sources of Issue Information*. Presented at the Convention of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication, Montreal, Canada.
- Zigler, E., and I. Child. 1973. *Socialization and Personality Development*. Reading, WA: Addison-Wesley.
- Zigler, E., and V. Seitz. 1978. Changing Trends in Socialization Theory and Research. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 21:721-46.
- Zogby, J. 1990. *Arab-America Today: A Demographic Profile of Arab Americans*. Washington, DC: Arab American Institute.