FOREIGN TV PROGRAM VIEWING AND DEPENDENCY: A CASE STUDY OF U.S. TELEVISION VIEWING IN TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

by

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ABSTRACT

FOREIGN TV PROGRAM VIEWING AND DEPENDENCY: A CASE STUDY OF U.S. TELEVISION VIEWING IN TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO

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This research is a case study of the impact of U.S. television program viewing on national allegiances in Trinidad and Tobago. It focuses on social and psychological dependency. The central problem was to legitimate the dependency concept, explore its importance in international media research and document its relationship to foreign media consumption.

Consideration of this topic led to, (1) the challenge of operationalizing dependency and (2) a discussion of two controversial topics: (1) rights of smaller nations to international infomation equality and (2) the critical versus empirical research debate. This is, therefore, a cultural-media imperialism study.

Two research methods were employed: critical methods for the theoretical framework, and statistical methods for the empirical section of the study. An inventory of television programming in Trinidad and Tobago was taken. Constructs were then developed from both critical-dependency and traditional literature to measure U.S. values, U.S. appeal, U.S. appreciation, U.S. dependency and consumption

of U.S. goods. Analysis focused on these as well as respondents' income, education and proportion of television viewing time devoted to U.S. programming. Analysis of Variance and structural equation modeling techniques were used in the analysis. An island-wide, cross-sectional random sample survey of 401 adults in TV-owning households in North, Central and South Trinidad was carried out in October 1982.

Results showed that U.S. television programs accounted for 67%, local programs 25% and British programs 7% of total programming time. However, an average of 75% of the Trinidadian's viewing time was devoted to U.S. shows. Subsequent analysis revealed that U.S. television viewing was positively correlated with U.S. values, U.S. appeal, U.S. appreciation and U.S. dependency. U.S. program viewing was negatively related to Trinidad appeal and Trinidad appreciation.

In sum, the structural model was found to be adequate. But the hypothesis that U.S. television viewing is a direct cause of U.S. dependency was found not to hold. However, strong effects from U.S. TV viewing to U.S. appeal, appreciation and values were observed. The latter set was related to U.S. dependency and U.S. consumption. This mediated effect warranted the conclusion that foreign television viewing may indeed be important in shaping national affiliations and allegiances.

To my mum, Josephine,
her woman's struggle,
her strength, faith, frailties
and her humanity.

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"When one door is locked

another will be open."

So Jah Seh.

Duppy Conqueror, Amaha Eyesus.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, DEFINITIONS AND RATIONALE

Introduction

Many scholars argue that foreign mass media, especially imported television programs, play a role in changing an importing country's culture. The effects of foreign media imports have been of concern to small and large countries alike. But excessive media imports have been particularly worrisome for smaller and less developed nations, especially those which rely almost exclusively on foreign material to satisfy their national media needs. This paper focuses on the socio-psychological, political and cultural effects of foreign mass media in one such country, Trinidad and Tobago.

Heretofore, the media import problem has presented reseachers with some rather fundamental difficulties. Foremost, and possibly most controversial, is the essentially phenomenological task of conceptualizing the issue. Almost as significant, but possibly of more pedestrian concern, is the question of what methods should be used in analyzing media import information. Taken together, these issues are both ideological and philosophical and have essentially spawned two competing sets of adherents, loosely and often incorrectly called

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empiricists and critical theorists. These adherents have made the foreign mass media effects debate ideological and controversial.

Initially scholars base their work on one of two conceptual paths: the functional path, in which foreign media are seen as forces of independence and cultural development; or the dysfunctional path where imported media are thought to be agents of national dependence. This difference underlies competing conceptual and theoretical frameworks in the broader study of mass media and development. It involves conflicts both at the level of grand theory and at the primitive, but inscrutable, level of language interpretation.

For example, the term modernization has come to mean, for some students, a panacea to the problems of national deprivation showcased by the tangible hardware of imported industry and technology. Others believe that, taken in this sense, modernization is actually a misnomer for dependence. They argue that national lines of credit, foreign ownership of local industries and strategic national cultural enterprises are the underlying manifestations of modernization. Unfortunately, this often acerbic debate confounds the most industrious attempts to scientifically explore the effect of imported mass media on indigenous consumers, laden as the topic is with political and ideological overtones.

Therefore, the first task of this study is to distinguish between, but not extensively review, modernization and dependency theories and select one as a working paradigm. Dependency theory is selected as a working model primarily because of its prima facie appeal. Logical Positivists may argue that selecting dependency as a working model predisposes this research to a fundamental value judgement, a concept abhorent to a strict positivist approach to investigating communication events. But several scholars (Smythe, 1983) (Bernal, 1957) have reminded researchers of Einstein's postulate:

> Science as something existing and complete is the most objective thing known to [people]. But Science in the making, science as an end to be pursued, is as subjective and psychologically conditioned as any other branch of human endeavour " (Quoted in Smythe, 1983).

The philosophical inspiration of this paper, at least in the initial, theoretical conceptualization, follows what has been termed Objective Normativism, formalized by G. E. Moore (Moore, 1953).

Moore advocated many of the methods and techniques of positivism in investigating the normative or axiological but he rejected the idea that there are no normative experiences from which [people] can derive primitive, undefined normative terms (Johnson, 1982). Approaching the problem from the other side, Rudner demonstrated that Normative investigation is an essential part of Positive research

(Rudner, 1953). These two philosophies guide the methodological bases of this study.

Of the two theoretical frameworks, the modernization paradigm has been given more empirical research attention. In fact, traditional researchers in the area of mass media and development have eschewed critical, dialectic and historical methodologies and theories of dependency relationships among nations. Instead, they have espoused logical positivist and empirical methods within the frameworks of modernization and diffusion of innovations.

Conversely, dependency theorists have tended to work with the more normative methods of critical analysis, history and philosophy. As a result, little critical analysis has been done by the traditionalists and little quantitative work has been carried out by dependency theorists. This is certainly a queer arrangement, falsely implying a natural dichotomization of method according to philosophy of science.

This study challenges that dichotomization concept by exploring some principles of dependency theory in a critical framework and evaluating postulates so developed using quantitative methodology. Consequently, both normative and quantitative methods are used to better understand the effects of foreign television program viewing on citizens of Trinidad and Tobago.

Statement of the Problem

The central problem of this paper was to discover whether people's sense of national dependency (orientation) is a reflection of the national origin of the TV programs they watch. The specific problem was to grasp and operationalize the meaning of dependency and relate this construct to foreign mass media use.

The dependency concept may be looked at in at least two ways. First, a nation might experience a structural, tangible dependence in communication hardware and software; second, there might be a latent psychological trait exhibited by an attitudinal lean toward the nation which supplies the media hardware and software, the putative result of interaction with the imported software or messages. If this is the case, the term media-cultural imperialism might be an adequate descriptor of the relationship between the media-sending and media-receiving nations; particularly if the government of the receiving nation acknowledges formally that a non-positive relationship is involved in terms of its national identity, culture and ideals.

Along these lines, the principal task in this study is to analyze the Trinidad and Tobago mass media from the dependency perspective; develop a working definition of media-cultural imperialism from social-psychological theory

and history; examine the socio-psychological and cultural effects of imported television programs from a dependency and underdevelopment framework; develop a logical and workable set of methods (in this case an eclectic combination of quantitative and critical analysis) to assess the questions which ensue; and finally, test the validity of hypotheses so developed.

Definitional Guidelines

The hypotheses of this study address the question of media-imports from the pespectives of dependency and media-cultural imperialism. Because the central argument of this paper rests on theory developed through these and other vague, often undefined terms and concepts, some brief definitional guidelines are necessary. Particularly important are the terms dependency theory, cultural imperialism, media imperialism, and the word culture. More problematic is the phrase critical theory, particularly when it is viewed antithetically to disciplinary, administrative, quantitative, positivistic and empirical research methods. The ensuing section outlines the methodological setting and logical parameters for interpretations of these terms as they are used in this study.

Theoretical Terminology

Dependency Theory

Veltmeyer (1980) points out:

Dependency theory, strictly speaking, is not a
theory but a model, a set of general propositions
that direct analysis to a range of questions
suggested by a Marxist theory of capitalist
development but adopted to conditions not found in
European history. As such, it is best treated as
a frame of reference, a theoretical perspective on
the situation of Third World countries in a world
economy. (p. 198)

Although generally linked with a Marxist analysis of
international affairs, dependency theorists fall into no
single ideological category.

Dependency theory itself accommodates the most
diverse types of analysis, reflecting its complex
origins- most notably in the structuralist school
of the United Nations Economic Commission for
Latin America (ECLA) and the neo-Marxist approach
to the study of Latin American society.
Economists such as Osvaldo Sunkel and Celso
Furtado have developed the non-Marxist
structuralist approach and the nationalist
perspective of Raul Prebisch and the ECLA school.
Others, such as Ruy Mauro Marini, Theotonio Dos
Santos and Andre Gunder Frank, have worked within
or close to the Marxist tradition. (Veltmeyer,
1980, p. 199)

The dependency concept developed out of an historical
analysis of Latin American society. In its generic,
intellectual thrust, it links underdevelopment in Peripheral
or outlying areas to ties to Center or metropolitan areas.

A critique to the modernization approach to economic and sociological studies of development, dependency theory is also a critique of the traditional Marxist approach. For example, some scholars have moved beyond the traditional Leninist-Marxist theories of imperialism which place emphasis on capital accumulation, class structure, and economic exploitation. They have added other units of social consciousness, such as ethnic and regional distinctions, to these analyses. This "internal colonialism" dimension, stressing questions of ethnicity, culture, racism, and nationalism, provides a clear substitute for a purely Marxist class analysis (Veltmeyer, 1980, p. 199).

However, the core of dependency analysis remains its critique of modernization. Specifically, all proponents of dependency reject the logic of the development process as presented by modernizationists who conceive of underdevelopment as a failure to develop, to complete a linear "traditional" to "modern" pattern of national improvement. Modernizationists assert that the cause of underdevelopment is to be found in the internal structure of traditional society and that development requires an influx of developmental conditions from societies which have already completed the transition (Veltmeyer, 1980, p. 198).

Dependency theorists dissent on both of these positions. Their concepts, falling within the more embracing theory of imperialism, allow for the study of structural elements, specific events, which follow from the economic domination of one nation state over another. A basic methodological premise of dependency theory is that it represents a search for concrete manifestations of dependence (Salinas & Paldan, 1978, p. 87). Such a concrete manifestation may be dependence in the mass media field.

Media cultural imperialism

The mass media have long been seen as agents of cultural transfer, or as cultural institutions in themselves. In the earlier literature on the topic, terms such as "media-imperialism" and "cultural-imperialism" have been used interchangeably. For example, media-imperialism and cultural imperialism have been used to identify or describe a nation's status when its media system is dominated by foreign interests or programs.

These terms might have been defined, in general, as one nation's adoption of a dominant nation's culture, values and ideology (and media) vis a vis its attempt to develop its own indigenous cultural or value system. And a concrete manifestation of media or cultural imperialism, for example would be a significant, quantitatively assessed, imbalance between imported media and locally produced media for

telecommunication industries, particularly television.

Cultural Imperialism

However, more refined scholarship in critical international communication analysis, necessitated clearer, substantive, distinctions between the media imperialism and cultural imperialism concepts. Eventually, clarification of terminology led to distinctions between the two types of imperialism and to differing interpretations of each of the terms. Cultural imperialism has been described as the "cultural trends accompanying the capitalist accumulation in the dominant countries and the related processes in the developing countries" (Salinas & Paldan, 197 , p. 85).

Golding writes: cultural imperialism is "the normative component to the structural relations of dependence between the advanced and underdeveloped societies (Golding, 1977, p. 291). And Schiller defines cultural imperialism as "the sum of processes by which a society is brought into the modern world system and how its dominating stratum is attracted, pressured, forced ... into shaping social institutions to correspond to, or even promote, the values and structure of the dominating Center of the system (Schiller, 1976, p. 9).

This rather broad definition (cultural imperialism as opposed to media imperialism) suggests the holistic concept preferred by the Neo-Marxists because of their ideological and theoretical orientation (Lee, 1980, p. 41). Starting from this broader, critical perspective, these theorists work in areas such as "the relationship between ownership and control of the media and the power structure in society, the ideological signification of meaning in media messages and its effects in reproducing the class system" (Curran, et al., 1977, p. 10).

Media Imperialism

The term "media-imperialism" has had a narrower interpretation. The most representative definition of this concept is Boyd-Barrett's (1977) view that it represents:

> the process whereby the ownership, structure, distribution or content of the media in any one country are singly or together subject to substantial pressure from the media interests of any other country or countries without proportionate reciprocation of influence by the country so affected. (p. 16)

In contention with Schiller's (1979) belief that it is pointless to measure the impact of any individual medium or message, Boyd-Barrett affirms the value of "media-imperialism" as a distinct analytical concept because it refers to a more specific range of phenomena that lends itself more easily to rigorous examination. (p. 199)

Because this study looks at how the broader set of implications affect the narrowly defined ones, the hyphenated term media-cultural imperialism will be adopted. It is an eclectic term which recognizes the fact that media import effect studies are <u>per</u> <u>se</u> cultural investigations. But whether the term media imperialism, cultural imperialism or media-cultural imperialism is used, it is evident that much more work needs to be done to clarify the theoretical and methodological foundations of these paradigms. critical theory has been a useful tool in that analytical endeavor.

Methodological Terminology

Before critical theory and, antithetical, i.e., positivist concepts are defined, their methodological settings should be clarified. The general principles under which their distinctions are organized and the ways in which these concepts are presented in the general context of media research are directly pertinent to cross-national research.

The Methodological Setting

Foreign media impact research is by definition cross-national research. This fact remains germane to its development. Its cross-cultural aspects provide the primary level of distinctions which reflects the critical versus empirical research debate. Cross-cultural research on socio-political or socio-psychological topics can seldom be

meaningfully expressed in purely statistical terms. Acceptance or rejection of this position colors how foreign media research is conceived, and has traditionally determined what methods were used in cross-national media analysis and what philosophical planes have guided its premises.

Typologies presented in various disciplines illustrate ways in which research methodologies have been categorized. These typologies frame what topics are covered, what methodologies are employed and how systems of thought and research in each discipline may be evaluated. Although not principally designed for international media research, Johnson's (1982) economic paradigm illustrates the point.

Johnson's functional typology outlines three fundamentally different types of research: Disciplinary, Subject matter, and Problem Solving research. Disciplinary research is designed to improve a discipline. Subject Matter research takes a subject as its problem (do the mass media cause development, for example). It is therefore a broadly based and multidisciplinary paradigm. Problem Solving research is more pragmatic but is multidisciplinary as well. It covers such topics as mass media's role in a specific teacher training project.

Some international mass media scholars also address the methodological issue by creating functional typologies. Pool (1983) proposed that international research paradigms be classified as either causal, cost benefit or infrastructural research. In this typology, causal research would be based on whether media can cause development; for example, do they create psychological transformation or motivate people. Cost Benefit research is illustrated by research projects with a specific media goal in mind. It is evaluated by looking at results of media projects in relationship to budgetary allocations. Infrastructural research deals with the impact various kinds of media infrastructure have on different social systems. The infrastructure category would include topics such as the New World Information Order debate.

More broadly defined, Causal and Cost Benefit analyses might be seen as Administrative research and Infrastructural research as Criticaal research. The former is quantitative, the latter qualitative.

But fastidious interest in the methodological setting and philosophical bases of socio-cultural analysis has not always been a priority for practitioners of cross cultural research (Klopf & Cambra, 1983, p. 1). This is also true of the cross-national media scholarship, even though a number of writers have addressed its salient methodological and

philosophical concerns. The general trend has been to conduct studies and argue philosophy and methodology post hoc, but not to incorporate the argument within the respective cross national media research projects.

Unfortunately, The failure to clarify the philosophical bases of research techniques has led to some confusion in the literature and inability to make proper comparisons among cross national research efforts. While the functional approach is helpful, other theoretical distinctions, the emic-etic dichotomy for example, more closely address problems of validity in cross cultural research.

> Berry (1969) refers to the emic-etic dichotomy as the principal problem in intercultural research. It arises when instruments designed for use in one culture are used in another (Hwang, 1977). "Emic relates to monocultural research and "etic" to research searching for pancultural principles. The terms reflect a linguistic origin (Pike, 1960). The study of phonemics examines sounds used in one particular language while an examination of phonetics allows the linguist to generalize to all languages. When researchers administer cross culturally a test standardized in one culture (usually their own), they may be imposing an artificial etic and losing the emic or meaningful aspects of the other culture. (Klopf & Cambra)

Therefore, the methodological and philosophical setting of the empirical versus critical controversy is more than merely a statistical versus non-statistical argument. It is based on different perceptions of what relationships ought to be studied and how these relationships should be examined. Each of the foregoing distinctions turn on the

basic proposition that all schools of theory fall into two types: philosophical and methodological idealism which treats events ahistorically, without any social process theory of how change takes place; and the dialectic, historical and materialistic school which holds that change and development in everything is caused by competing forces- stable quantitative forces on the one hand and motive qualitative forces on the other (Smythe, 1983). Students of this dialectic, qualitative school are called Crtitical theorists.

Critical Theory

Like dependency theory, critical theory has a Marxist following, and has become an increasingly important factor in Third World, particularly Latin American media research. But where Dependency theory is a model, a set of general propositions, "critical theory" is a set of methods or logical procedures for analyzing societal phenomena and creating social theory.

Among early philosophical influences on critical communication research was the historical methodology advanced by Montesquieu. Social phenomena, in his view, could not be studied in isolation but were bound up in a complex of natural and institutional actors (Whittaker, 1940, p. 730). This holistic view of social research has matured through the work of Kant, Fitche and Hegel and

expanded more recently in the work of Theodor Adorno and Jurgen Habemas, _inter alios_ (Hardt, 1976 p. 92).

Today critical theory is commonly associated with the German, Frankfurt school's historical tradition. It advocates a philosophical-theoretical approach to media research and favors interpretative understanding or _Verstehen_ as a method of developing social theory and exploring cultural issues. It is typically seen as non-statistical research.

Statistically Based Research Categories

For lack of better categorization, the term statistically based research is used in this study to differentiate disciplinary, administrative, quantitative, behavioral, positivistic and empirical research from critical research. Whether or not these terms are always (correctly) demarcated this way is proper subject for an extenuating treatise. The academic literature in communication has failed to provide clear and consistent distinction of these methods. But generally speaking, these "non-critical" types of research represent investigations based upon statistical analysis and/or verification. Within that encompassing "non-critical" category several distinctions may be made.

Disciplinary, quantitative, empirical, administrative, positivistiic and behavioral social science research have been at the forefront of research philosophies in the United States for some time. But Disciplinary research, designed specifically to improve a discipline is "currently the most respected branch of academic research," in the United States. (Johnson, G., 1980).

In mass communication, disciplinary research would consist largely of research designed to improve mass communication theories, particularly those within the behaviorist mold, quantitative techniques, and the measurement of psychological effects associated with communication phenomena. Unfortunately, its behavioral focus proscribes the inclusion of more general and broadly based concepts while trying to build all theory on traditional endogenous social and psychological variables. The term disciplinary research is generally adopted in this text. When other (non-critical) terms are used they should be interpreted as being synonymous with Disciplinary research, except otherwise indicated.

This paper promises no exact definitions. But for purposes this study definitional guidelines for other "non-critical" terms are as follows: Administrative research is quantitative research used in support of agency policies, government or commercial. It is policy oriented and

evaluative. Quantitative research means statistical research regardless of its application. Behavioral research is quantitative, but used generally for developing and analyzing psychological and social psychological data. Empirical research is quantitative, but used for sociological investigations. Positivistic research is interpreted as behavioral, empirical and disciplinary research.

These distinctions should be of substantive importance to all those engaged in Third World research. The general body of Third World communication research shows that while critical analysts are challenged on their contributions to the understanding of underdevelopment, few disciplinary scholars have troubled to research the psychological makeup of Third World citizens as those citizens interface with a global communication revolution originating from metropolitan societies.

In other words, disciplinary research has been used quite sparingly for understanding the psychological aspects of underdevelopment or, for that matter, of development. Very little such research has been conducted in the Commonwealth Caribbean, for example. And when quantitative research has been used, it has served not so much the interests of Caribbean media scholarship but rather the interests of commercial enterprises and administrative media accountants. It is not surprising that, within this

context, even though television services in Trinidad and Tobago carry an overwhelming number of imported television programs, no research has yet explored the effects of this foreign incursion on Trinidad and Tobago's culture or national makeup. This is certainly because the question of cultural impact has long stood outside the parameters of the quantitative, disciplinary mold.

Culture

What is understood by the word "culture" which is the center of the media import debate? First of all, it is a term which has eluded unambiguous definition. It has acquired a certain aura of ill-repute because of the "multiple referents with which it has been invoked ..." This vagueness has led to a "conceptual morass" which has presented navigational problems even for foremost theoreticians. For example, in just one chapter on the concept, Kluckhohn managed to define culture in at least eleven ways (Geertz, 1973, p. 4).

Culture has been defined in simple ways: "a mode of life" (Wissler, 1923, p. 1); and in more complex ways: "the learned repertory of thoughts and actions exhibited by the members of social groups" (Harris, 1979, p. 47). In this research it is seen as "an historically transmitted pattern of meanings embodied in symbols; a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic form by means of which

[people] communicate, perpetuate, and develop their knowledge about and attitudes toward life" (Geertz, 1973, p. 5).

Geertz's definition is esentially a semiotic one. He believes, with Max Weber, that [man] is an animal suspended in webs of significance [which] he himself has spun. He takes culture to be those webs, and the analysis of it to be therefore not an experimental science in search of laws but an interpretative one in search of meaning (Geertz, 1973, p. 5).

Even though Geertz's view of culture is adopted here, his view of analysis of cultural phenomena is not strictly consistent with this analysis. This study argues that positivist methods and interpretative studies may equally contribute to one's understanding of culture and cultural change. This study may be seen as a method of discovering societal laws in search of interpretative meaning.

Rationale

The primary rationale for this study is to take the media import debate to a new and different level of analysis, first by clarifying some of its philosophical bases, and second by demonstrating that quantitative and normative methods are both applicable to research in this area. In fact dependency economists have already begun

significant quantitative assessments of the theoretical framework of dependency. For example, Mahler (1980) has analyzed political and economic underdevelopment in a number of less developed countries' as a product of assymetrical contact with metropolitan cultures. This paper uses the literature on dependency theory as a basis for building theoretical models for international communication research.

Dependency theory has been used as the starting point of this analysis because of its face validity and because it has been neglected by traditional scholarship. There is no logical, scientific, or substantive reason for this neglect. Interestingly, even though it has been almost ten years since Immanuel Wallerstein announced the death of modernization theory (Veltmeyer, 1980, p. 198), dependency theory has not attained stature in communication research. Modernization still endures as the model.

Other rationale for this study are both heuristic and academic, with underlying implications for national media policy. Trinidad and Tobago is the nation selected for analysis in this study because of the author's knowledge of the country's history and culture, and because it is an underdeveloped country wealthy enough (in 1982 at least) to demonstrate the contradictory characteristics of dependent development, such as substantial capital investment and still high unemployment, described by Girvan (1976), among others. In terms of media dependency, Trinidad and Tobago's

case is exemplary.

In 1975, 75% of Trinidad and Tobago's TV shows were imported, primarily from the United States. In the week of January 10-17, 1982, an analysis of TV guides in national daily newspapers showed that over 85% of the nation's scheduled prime-time TV hours consisted of U.S. programs (Skinner, 1982). Several questions emerge from these facts: After 20 years of independence from Britain, ten years of economic solvency, and 94% literacy, why does U.S. programming dominate Trinidad and Tobago's TV schedules? What effect do these programs have on Trinidad and Tobago society, culture, values and national identity? Many believe that the effect is to erode both national identity and culture. For example:

> Some years ago, a child was asked at a public [academic] competition in Trinidad to name the President of Trinidad and Tobago. His reply, to the astonishment of the audience, was: "President Carter." More than his ignorance of civics, the child's honest reply was a reflection of the extent to which our society has been a victim of cultural subversion. And the main purveyor of this subversion has been television (Pilgrim, 1982, p. 16).

Despite Government policy to correct this situation (Trinidad and Tobago Government, 1969), and social opinion decrying the dependent state of local television (Pilgrim, 1981, p. 16) "cultural clienthood" is still a persistent problem for Trinidad and Tobago.

These examples underscore the urgent need for more constructive academic analyses of national identity and other media import issues, particularly in Third World nations. The problem has been dramatized at the UNESCO and Non-Aligned nations conferences where debates and resolutions reflect clearly the felt link or, parallel patterns of economic and information domination. Typical of this attitude is the reasoning: "just as political and economic dependence are legacies of the era of colonialism, so is the case of dependence in the field of information which in turn retards the underdeveloped nations' achievement of political and economic growth (Non-Aligned Conference, 1976).

Third World leaders have expressed the notion that in order to develop, a society must remain true to itself and ways of thought and action, and set itself objectives consonant with its values and felt needs (M'Bow, 1977, p. 5). To this end less developed countries requested international cooperation in liberating themselves from the state of dependence resulting from specific historical circumstances which still characterizes their communication and information system (UNESCO, 1977, para. 8).

Summary

Foreign mass media effects on individuals in importing countries represent an important but not sufficiently studied international media phenomenon. Communication scholars are divided in their approach to the subject. One group sees foreign media consumption as part of a process which will assist Third World development. Others are more skeptical. They argue that too much foreign media consumption is symptomatic of cultural subordination and media-cultural imperialism.

This study explores several hypotheses based on the media-cultural imperialism paradigm. It postulates that foreign media dependency results from a structural dependent relationship among nations which is essentially economic; and this leads to heavy foreign media consumption. It is proposed that heavy foreign media consumption is related to erosion of national identity, creation of pro-foreign values and ultimately, psychological dependence on the media exporting nation. Trinidad and Tobago and the United States are paired as dependent and dominant, or peripheral and center, nations for purposes of this analysis. The United Kingdom is included in the study as an alternative center nation because of its pre-1962 role as colonial ruler of Trinidad and Tobago.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND PARADIGM DEVELOPMENT

The burden of this study is to examine whether there is a structural relationship between Trinidadians' attendance to U.S. mass media, particularly television viewing, and their feelings of national identity, pro-U.S. attitude, and social psychological dependency upon the United States. The problem will be approached by exploring three areas of relevant literature: social-psychological and empirical studies, world system and dependency theory, and a review of Trinidad and Tobago's mass media and society. Concepts from these three contributing areas are subsequently used in developing hypotheses to be tested empirically.

Thematic development of the subject leads from theory analysis to concept formation. This development, principal to subsequent methodological considerations and hypothesis testing includes: (1) an outline of the levels of generality previously applied to this type of research, (2) review of the social-psychological literature, (3) discussion of research done from the various national perspectives, (4) a look at the theoretical issues involved, (5) an overview of media dependency at the international level, (6) an account of the links between communication and commerce in

imperialist history, and (7) an overview of national conditions in Trinidad and Tobago.

Critical Thought, based on <u>Verstehen</u>, i.e., interpretative understanding, a method deeply rooted in the European sociological method, is the first exploratory principle used in this study. dependency theory is then used as a framework for paradigm construction and hypothesis formation. The themes explored within the theory, historical, economic, and sociological, serve as conceptual pillars, offering more substantive byways to paradigm and hypotheses development than is usually the case in empirical cross-cultural research. The anticipation, is that this process will engender stronger capability for inference in this type of research (Platt, 1964).

Levels of Analysis

The enormous body of mass media research done about, and in, developing countries may be categorized descriptively as either <u>evaluative</u> (involving the efficiency of media projects), <u>inventorial</u> (collecting data on machinery and software), and <u>social psychological</u> (studies primarily dealing with media effects on people and society). This review emphasizes the social-psychological category but acknowledges its implications for evaluative and inventory research.

In the social-psychological category three settings have been identified in which radio and television effects have been examined: intra-national settings' (within nations), cross-national settings (where signals go directly across contiguous borders), and import settings (where media are brought physically into the user country) (Payne, 1978). There may be some overlap in the cross national and import settings and both have been classified as "cultural imperialism" studies by a number of scholars.

Lee summarizes the work of other scholars in identifying four levels of generality for researching media-cultural imperialism where the media import setting is involved: analysis of the imports themselves, foreign ownership of media facilities in the importing nation, transfer of metropolitan broadcasting norms, and invasion of capitalist world views and alien concepts (Lee, 1980, p. 68). To these may be added a fifth, psychological level, the indigenous consumer's identification with the media importing nation.

Still other distinctions may be made at the psychological level. Several writers have separated that level into three clearly different dimensions applicable to media research in cross-national and media import settings: cognitive effects, such as language adoption (Contreras et al., 1976; Payne, 1978), attitudinal effects, reflecting

positive or negative dispositions to the existing media systems or parts of the existing media systems (Schiller, 1973) and behavioral effects (Payne, 1978). Payne proposed a further theoretically important distinction. He observed that cross-national TV and TV imports may affect performance on any of the preceding three dimensions as they relate to (1) the viewer's country of residence and (2) the country from which the broadcast is made (Payne, 1978, p. 741).

While it is seldom examined sequentially, the relationship among settings and levels of generality does appear to have theoretical importance. Lee (1980), for example, acknowledges that Wilbur Schramm draws [Lee's] attention to the analytical possibility that treats [Lee's] first levels of generality [product exportation, foreign ownership, and adoption of Western media models] as "processes which lead to the effects (emphasis added) of cultural infringement" " (Lee, 1980, fn., p. 108). This study adopts this vertical international links perspective and theorizes from the global level, i.e., from the source of media imports, to these imports' narrow, behavioral effects on the people of the importing nations. The focus is on the media import setting and hypotheses are examined at the social psychological level, where literature supports the proposition that mass communication messages do have effects.

Social Psychological Evidence

The generic assumption that [mass] communication can and does have societal effects underlies almost all communication behavior (Roberts, 1971, p. 349). The mass media may be seen as transmitters of social heritage and agents of socialization (Wright, 1975). They play a vital role in establishing the norms and mores of contemporary society along with family, education, and peer group influence (Chafee, Ward, & Tipton, 1970).

From the socio-psychological perspective, Bandura writes, "evidence that people can learn as much from symbolic as from actual models indicate that television is an important source of social behavior" (Bandura, 1973, p. 101). Values, norms and expectations are acquired through interpersonal and mediated communication, especially television, a mass medium which conveys those beliefs which people decode selectively (Woelfel & Barnett, 1974).

This notion has cross-national applicability. Bandura claims that representatives of foreign nations voice displeasure about increasing levels of television exports because "there is massive evidence that behavior of role models can shape diverse classes of behavior, attitudes, tastes and preferences, as well as aggressive modes of response" (Bandura, 1973, p. 273). Clearly then, there is considerable scholarly support for the claim that the world

one creates is a function of the information one receives, especially mass mediated information (Saltiel & Woelfel, 1975; Woelfel, Woelfel, Gillham & Mc Phail, 1974).

National Perspectives

This social-psychological effects picture has heightened the concerns of researchers of developing countries, particlarly in Latin America. In that region, television research has shown that "alien" media images "form impressions" and "motivate behaviors" of native viewers (Albornoz, 1962; Salazar, 1962; Colomina de Rivera, 1968; Santoro, 1975; Goldsen & Bibliowicz, 1976). Consequently, the effects of television were believed to be pervasive and instrumental in the communication of ideologies, the actual values, the styles of life and ways of living of viewers (Beltran, 1978).

In Latin America, at least, scholarly consensus was clear. The social implications of these "alien" images should be researched. Beltran argued, specifically, that research which moves beyond the mere identification (explicit and implicit) of "alien" images is needed. He proposed that foreign-media research seek to "find out what really happens in the inner world of persons researched ... in terms of concrete behaviors demonstrably produced by such [foreign message] stimulants" (Beltran, 1978, p. 44).

The "deeper social and psychological processes" and "overt behaviors" which may result from media-cultural imperialism have been studied in North America, Iceland and Taiwan (Formosa) with conflicting results. Davey (1972), Seacrest (1972), Elkin (1972), and Skipper (1975), have found evidence supporting "cultural imperialism" in Canada. But Tsai (1967) found that while imported U.S. television programs in Taiwan affected the superficial customs, it left the deeper values quite undisturbed.

Payne and Peake's (1977) cultural imperialism hypotheses (that viewing U.S. TV affected Icelanders' attitude toward the U.S., transferred political information about the U.S. to Icelanders, and created attitudes in Icelanders which were characteristic of American culture) were not corroborated in Iceland. For example, their analyses provided no support for the idea that viewing of U.S. television is related to attitudes of fear, anger or sadness. Icelanders purportedly thought that these attitudes were characteristic of U.S. culture.

While Sparkes (1977) found no relationship between viewing foreign TV and attitudes toward the sending country in cross-national studies between Canada and the U.S., Payne (1978), also studying the effects of Canadian TV on U.S. viewers, reported mixed effects on viewers' attitudes. His data did not indicate that viewers of foreign television,

when compared with the viewers of local TV, had a less favorable attitude toward their own country or toward groups in that country.

In contrast to these feelings relating to one's own country, Payne reported that viewers of Canadian TV in the U.S. responded with substantially less favorable attitudes toward Canada than viewers of U.S. TV. The researcher argued, "it appears that in the absence of other information about the sending country, TV may shape people's attitudes about it [the sending country]" (Payne, 1978, p. 753).

Other scholars have researched the effects of television imports along a somewhat different conceptual tangent. Nordenstreng and Varis (1973) maintained that capitalist TV should reduce "favorableness of attitude" toward more socialist receiving countries; and studies by Beattie (1967) and Schiller (1974) indicated that foreign TV impeded the growth of national (receiving country) identity.

The national identity aspects of media-cultural imperialism have been addressed empirically by Barnett and McPhail (1980). Sampling one hundred and forty-nine students enrolled in a communication course at Carleton University, Ottawa, Canada, and using metric multidmensional scaling as the basis for their analytical methods, the researchers found that "the high U.S. TV use group perceived themselves to be less Canadian and closer to the United States than the group which uses less American

television ... As viewing of U.S. television increased, people perceived themselves as less Canadian and more American ..." (Barnett & Mc Phail, 1980, pp. 221-228).

The conflicting results and variations in focus of the foregoing studies suggest the "need for more systematic, simultaneous analysis of the effects of cross-national [and imported TV] on a number of clearly different dimensions, ... [a] multivariate framework which could be applied in several different cross cultural [and import] settings ... facilitating formation of a general theory" (Payne, 1978, p. 741).

Here again, scholarly consensus suggests that more research is needed to determine how pervasive the phenomenon of imported television effects is in developing positive or negative national self images. For example, in underdeveloped countries, a particular need might be to determine what role information, particularly mass mediated information, plays in the process of national identity formation (Barnett & Mc Phail, 1980, p. 230). A specific instance of such an investigation may be an inquiry into the impact of mass mediated foreign information on the psychology of nation building.

This study makes a contribution in that direction. It attempts to advance the national identity question, and examines issues related to attitudes toward and values adopted from media exporting nations as functions of foreign

TV (and other media) viewing. In addition, it argues that a rethinking of the theoretical foundations of contemporary empirical cross-national TV effects research is necessary if these phenomena are to be fully understood.

The Theoretical Issues

Two basic theoretical and methodological approaches have been to studying the effects of television imports, one disciplinary and empirical, the other philosophical and critical. A major task of this paper is to bridge those two traditions by using philosophical and critical concepts to structure hypotheses which will be tested at the empirical level. Dependency theory (and world systems theory) will be used as a framework because it provides a paradigm which might potentially incorporate approaches of both critical scholars (Schiller, 1976; Read, 1976; Dorfman & Mattelart, 1971) and empiricists (Payne, 1978; Barnett & Mc Phail, 1980).

Limits to the Disciplinary Focus

Payne (1978), working from a Disciplinary rationale, admits that locating his research in the cross-national setting, between developmentally similar societies, has its limitations when applied to developing societies. In his approach to cross-national effects he does not address structural conditions at the upper, global, levels of generality which might affect questions at the behavioral

level.

Payne might have asked in his studies how does the world image of these nations (U.S. and Canada) help to mediate the information their citizens receive about the other nation. Payne's "guiding orientation was not a particular theory, but an eclectic attempt to provide a broadly conceptualized data base to serve as a first step in constructing a more general theory of mass media effects" (Payne, 1978, p. 741).

However, the importance of international structural differences even among culturally and develpmentally similar countries such as the U.S. and Canada, have been acknowledged by Lee (1980), and Davey (1972). Therefore it seems wasteful of Payne not to have utilized the now prolific literature on international information imbalance as it impinges upon national and international perceptions. This limitation brings into question the validity of any international effects theory developed solely on nationally endogenous data. It highlights the relevance of the emic-etic distinction and the importance of critical scholarship in illuminating international media research issues.

The Critical Position

Critical studies (Dizard, 1964; Wells, 1972; Varis, 1973; Read, 1976; Schiller, 1976; Lent, 1977; Tunstall, 1977; Mattelart & Siegalaub, 1979; Smith, 1980) reveal the necessity of theorizing from the upper level, i.e., global media structure, to the lower levels where they impinge upon indigenous attitudes and values. Criticism of these scholars is based on the contention that they have not succeeded (nor in many cases have they attempted) in specifically defining, measuring, and outlining the dysfunctional parameters of imported and cross-national media effects.

While this is generally the case, Critical scholarship has been of signal importance in the theoretical realm. First, it has focused on the _experience_ of underdevelopment and the role of mass media institutions in that process. Second, it has sensitized media researchers to the fallacies of blithely transplanting metropolitan research values to underdeveloped societies in search of disciplinary truth.

Taken together, the work done by critical scholars support the proposition that the combination of economic and media dependency leads to more complex social, psychological and economic/political effects when the countries are developmentally dissimilar than when they are developmentally similar. Even the empiricist Payne proposed

that the adoption of media related cognitive and behavioral change should be more pronounced in developing countries, where ... "differences should appear in each country due to the different amounts of foreign programming on local TV" (Payne, 1978, p. 753).

Little actual work has been done along the lines suggested by Payne. And scholars who theorize only at the level of behavioral effects while neglecting the international constructs, still chagrin media researches from developing countries, particularly those from Latin America. The Latin Americans, moreso those of a critical analysis persuasion, argue that the push for a more strictly disciplinary, behavioral paradigm is an important aspect of cultural imperialism.

Latin Americans argue that traditional research methodology bears little relevance to the national conditions of Latin America and is more appropriate to the needs of outside forces. Critics suspect an insidious link between traditional economics, metropolitan media, and traditional research methodology. They argue that stripping media research in underdeveloped nations of the international context creates research which is insensitive to the real issues which underlie the historical, sociological and economic context of underdevelopment, and the role the mass media play in that process. Their position is that cultural imperialism is perpetuated through

encouragement and enforcement of particular types of research emphases to the neglect of other, more relevant paradigms (Bodenheimer, 1969).

The differences between the Latin Americans who stress critical analysis, and the empiricists who stress quantification and functionalism, have been outlined by Rogers (1980).

> The empirical school of communication research is commonly characterized by quantitative empiricism, functionalism, and positivism. In the past it had generally emphasized the study of direct effects of communication, while paying less attention to the broader context in which such communication is imbedded. In contrast, the essence of the critical school is more philosophical emphasis, its focus on the broader social structural context of communication, Marxism (although by no means all critical scholars are Marxists), and a central concern with the issue of who controls mass communication systems. Major concerns of the critical scholars today are (1) to criticize empirical studies of communication and development, especially the researches on modernization that were conducted in the 1950s and 1960s; (2) to express concern over such new technology as broadcasting satellites, computers, and cable television systems, which critical scholars feel are mainly controlled by multinational corporations of the U.S. and other industrialized nations; and (3) to analyze "the new international information order," a policy direction oriented, among other things, to provide greater balance, and less bias, in the flow of communication (especially news) among nations. (p. 3)

These theoretical and methodolgical differences have erupted into what has been termed the "critical" versus "empirical" controversy in mass media and development studies. But as Halloran (1980) and Rosengren (1980) point out, by stressing

either school to the neglect of the other, scholars run the risk of conducting bad research. " All theory and research involve both subjective and objective elements which are brought together through the dynamic process of research activity" (Smythe, 1983).

Methodology, Philosophy and Ideology

Basically, this philosophy of methodology question hinges on the issue of how research problems may be conceptualized and operationalized. In such cases the issue turns on what Northrup (1947) calls the initiation of inquiry. Northrup's position is that it is necessary for scholars to establish the validity of the a priori concepts from which they approach their studies because rigor in data analysis can never retrieve a false or superficial beginning in reseach (Northrup, 1974, p. 17). " The essence of the scientific method is not controlled experiments alone but rigour in stating the problem to be researched, in applying historical and other appropriate tools to it, in analyzing the results, and in applying the results in practice" (Smythe, 1983).

Thoughtful initiations of inquiry then, are essentially methods of eliminating competing hypotheses and finding the most relevant research foci. This task is of utmost importance in properly exploring the complex area of foreign media attendance and its socio-psychological correlates in

underdeveloped nations. A leading proponent of the critical approach has emphasized the importance of initial inquiry as follows:

> Any methodology that systematically neglects the interpretive schemeta through which social actions are mediated, that pursues the tasks of concept and theory formation in abstraction from the prior categorical formation of social reality, is doomed to failure. Sociological concepts are, in Alfred Schutz's words, "second level constructs;" the "first level constructs" are those through which social actors have already pre-structured the social world prior to its scientific investigation. Understanding the latter is a necesary point of departure for constructing the former (Habermas, 1976, p. xi).

The 1969 UNESCO Montreal mass media convention addressed this issue. Many delegates felt that research and projects sponsored by UNESCO prior to that time were deficient in theories, models, concepts and methods, and "tended to legitimize and reinforce the existing system and the established order, and in the Third World it tended to strengthen economic and cultural dependence rather than promote (national) independence" (Halloran, 1980, p. 12).

At least part of the solution could be to encourage critical analysis of media in international communication research. In other words, methods involving interpretative understanding i.e, _verstehen_, should play an important part in examining contemporary international mass media problems. But Habermas argued that interpretative research, though important, should not be the sole methodological basis of inquiry. "An adequate social methodology would have to

integrate interpretative understanding ... with an historically oriented analysis of social systems" (Habermas, 1976, xii).

The facts of media dependency and its obvious parallels to economic subordination and the colonial heritage of most underdeveloped countries lend support to those who adopt the critical position. But ultimately, the final impact of mass media imports can be understood only by studying the behaviors of those affected by their national media institutions, which, in their turn are affected by international conditions. A seminal objective of critical media scholarship is to establish the purported link between international media institutions and the socio-cultural effects in specific dependent nations.

The ensuing section outlines a commmercial-communication imbalance from an historical perspective, and shows its relationship to the socio-economic and social psychological premises of dependency analysts. The last several paragraphs link these concepts to media conditions in Trinidad and Tobago, where hypotheses will be tested empirically.

Media Dependency: The International Level

North American media images proliferate in Latin America and the Caribbean, and are particularly evident in the smaller states of the Commonwealth Caribbean (Hosein, in Lent, 1977, p. 144). The use of the English language, small markets and commercial advertising structures help to keep up the foreign, primarily Anglo-American programming trend in the Commonwealth Caribbean region (Perez, 1976; UNESCO, 1979; Smith, A., 1980; 'Smith, K., 1980; Fejes, 1980) but are only part of the global structure which relegates most post-colonial, under-industrialized nations to both economic and media dependency (Nordenstreng & Varis, 1974; Schiller, 1971, 1973, 1974, 1976; Read, 1976).

Dependency structures relating to information matters, particularly international news, are historically related to the communication hegemony of the European colonizers (Smith, A., 1980). This structure of information domination has not changed much, except that the United States and the Soviet Union have replaced Germany as leading world news brokers. These two nations, along with Britain and France, control most of the world's news agencies' output. news (Sterling & Haight, 1978, p. 389). In Latin America, the U.S. agencies, UPI and AP, dominate.

A comparable structure exists for television programming. France, the United States, the United Kingdom, and the U.S.S.R. are the major suppliers of television programs to other countries (Nordenstreng & Varis, 1974). In Latin America and the Caribbean most of the imported television programs come from the United States.

As with the early news agencies, the colonial book publishing system in the early 20th century reflected the contours of colonial power. Britain and France topped the list in the early 1900s with Longman, MacMillan, and Oxford University Press opening offices in the British empire, and Hachette establishing offices in the French empire (Smith, K., 1980). In recent years the United States has taken its own place as a leading publisher for the underdeveloped world (Fisher, 1980).

Although the feature film industry exhibits a different pattern, the structural result is the same. While India and Japan are the world's largest producers of feature films, English language films, and predominantly those of American origin, occupy a very large part of the feature market in almost all countries except the U.S.S.R., Eastern Europe, the People's Republic of China and India (Fisher & Merrill, 1976, p. 116). Again, the overwhelming majority of feature films supplied to the Caribbean and Latin America are American made.

The largest advertising agency in the world is Dentsu of Japan. But the next 14 largest are American, and most of these companies' Third World profit comes from Latin America. Notwithstanding the fact that only a small percentage of the world advertising agency global profit is made in the Caribbean, it is of some interest that the transnational agencies which operate in the region have penetrated 91.8% of the Caribbean market leaving only 9% for the local agencies (UNESCO, 1979).

Historical conditions, colonialism, and the striving for hegemony by world powers have contributed to the present-day structure of the world's media. Two aspects of that historical premise are now summarized using Britain and the U.S. as examples of the relationship between communication technology, commerce and political hegemony.

Historical Trends: Commerce and Communication

Britain

Historically, those who controlled the physical trade routes (sea and land) and the telegraph lines, controlled the globe and its resources. Today, electromagnetic technology may be added to the list. British control of cable lines, telegaphic, and later, wireless technology paralleled British hegemony in global politics. The wiring of the world was said, in fact, to be a "nineteenth century

British accomplishment" (Field, 1978, p. 661).

Their monopolies in both principal technologies and raw materials, e.g., gutta percha, a Malaysian product used in cable insulation, and access to the available capital for investment allowed Britain to set up a world-wide Information network. In physical terms this meant control of an ever-extending network of wires. From the laying of the Dover-Calais cable of 1851, lines subsequently led to Balaclava, Constantinople, and to Bombay (1865). In 1866, the Atlantic cable joined the European and North American cable nets. In 1870, the all-British cable route to India was opened. Japan and China were tied in, both by land lines across Siberia and by cable <u>via</u> India, Singapore, and Saigon. Portugal was linked to Brazil in 1874, and the African coast to Durban in 1879 (Field, 1978, p. 661).

Smith's interpretation was that "an economic network lay behind the system of imperial [economic] preferences that in turn were expressed in and were aided by [these] communication linkages" (Smith, 1980, p. 43). Field observed that "the progress of [long range] communications reflected the image of the world held by those looking outward from London" (Field, 1978, p. 661).

The United States

By the late 1800s the United States had made the transition from a rural to an industrialized society and had become a nation flexing its global muscles. A spirit of national self-assertion was nurtured by politicians, newspaper editors, businessmen and publicists (Grenville & Young, 1966). It was during this period that, along with Anglo-Saxonism, Social Darwinism, psychic imperialism (jingoism), naval power, and national security theories, that mass media (communication) determinism itself became a competing and viable paradigm of American expansionism (Field, 1978; Paolino, 1973, Ch. 3).

If communication control was not a sufficient condition for international hegemony, it seemed at least necessary one. Behind the more universal ideals of developing increasingly reliable communication structures for worldwide development, self-interested economic policies were as paramount for the U.S. as they had been for Britain.

The burden of "civilizing" the world was part of the U.S. rationale of domination as it had been for Britain. Late 19th century apologists for U.S. imperialism, both communication and commercial, saw the United States as a "Christian as well as a commercial nation ... a civilizing as well as an exploiting agency" (Vevier, 1955, p. 4. From Barrett, 1900).

The United States' position on the communication-commercialism concept of global hegemony was most clearly exemplified by William Henry Seward, Secretary of State from 1861 to 1869. Seward apparently eschewed military conquest, opting instead for international domination through a combination of communication and commerce.

> Seward's version of a commercial power was predicated in part on the unification of the world's markets into a global network whose direction and control would be situated in the United States. He hoped to achieve this unification by establishing an international telegraphic communication network and (at the same time) instituting international monetary reforms. (Paolino, 1973, p. 14)

Historians observed, in the end, what was true for Britain was also true for the United States. The U.S. communication incursion into Latin America and the rest of the world was crucial in stimulating business activity abroad, accelerating the pace of diplomcy, shaping maritime strategy and entangling the United States in the politics of the world (East Asia) of 1898 (Beisner, 1978, p. 674, comment to Field).

In effect, this economics-communication dyad was the putative force which helped to shape the culture of the peripheral nations and determined at the same time how peripheral nations were to see dominant ones:

economic hegemony and political control were

> accompanied by the elaboration of a hierarchy of cultures. An idealized European culture was at the apex of this hierarchy ... and each colonizing power, particularly after the mid-nineteenth century, not only destroyed the economic base of the societies they colonized- societies and not only individuals- but attempted to destroy the possibilities of counter ideological systems of control i.e., cultures (Jones, 1978, p. 9).

From this perspective, successful colonialism meant successful destruction of the culture of the colonized. Britain and the United States were not unique. Rodney's (1974) historical socio-economic analysis of Africa and Carnoy's (1974) treatise on colonial educational systems add academic substance to these perspectives of 19th century colonialism.

Dependency Analyses

Socio-economic Paradigms

"Dependency theory," emerging from sociological analyses of economic underdevelopment, is based on the concept that the result of commercial and communication hegemony is underdevelopment and dependency in the non-industrialized world. Most important to this perspective is the notion that development in the metropolitan countries conditions underdevelopment in the periphery.

Weisskopf proposed that the controversial role of metropolitan involvement in poorer countries centers on "the ambivalent character of capitalism ... "on the one hand, the Center can exploit the periphery by virtue of its superior power; on the other hand, in the process of penetrating the periphery, the Center can help break down traditional modes of production and promote growth of a modern capitalist social and economic order" (Weisskopf, 1979, p. 134). Many authors see the exploitative rationale as the more plausible capitalist role. In support of this view, scholars with Marxist leanings, such as Andre Gunder Frank, have studied Latin American and Caribbean societies. Frank (1969), for example, has devoted considerable attention to Latin America, using Chile, Brazil, and their "Indian problems" as case studies in capitalist penetration and underdevelopment of Third World economies.

Caribbean economists have targeted the special cases of plantation economies (Beckford, 1972), and mineral extractive industries (Girvan, 1976), for analysis. Others have highlighted the relationship between rising Third World indebtedness and the resultant international dependency (Payer, 1975).

Studies of plantation economies have shown a stultifying effect on the development of local peasantry. Beckford (1972), Geertz (1963), Jacoby (1959) and Greaves (1935), in their separate treatises on plantation economies, explain that social and economic dependence, marginalization of indigenous peasants, limited educational systems, and competition for scarce land resource are common results of capitalist management of plantation economies. Plantations were shown to be international in character, part of a much wider economic system, dependent upon an international market and financed from the metropole. In the broader sociological, political, and economic sense in which the plantation is defined here, Beckford (1972) explains that:

> there are situations -as in the West Indies- where peasant producers are more numerous than plantation enterprises but where, because the peasantry is a creation of the plantations, their behavior reflects the plantation influence. In the political sphere, political decision makers are imbued with a psychological dependence on an established plantation sector and agricultural development policy tends to reflect this attitude (p. 120).

Furthermore, Beckford (1972, p. 43) shows that plantation social structure led to the creation of a creole elite which was rooted in the political and economic dominance of the metropolitan power. It was color stratified, and was integrated around the conception of the moral and cultural superiority of things English. This system was reinforced and integrated through religion,

education, law and the media.

Girvan's (1976) analysis of the extractive industries of the Caribbean and South America explains why "mineral industries have conspicuously failed in developing countries to act as catalysts for the generation of self sustaining growth" (p. 30). These industries are large, capital intensive enterprises which are typically extended into such areas as heavy industry, and vertically integrated economic complexes "of a type which most underdeveloped countries had previously been excluded" (Girvan, 1976, p. 7). The author also shows that these industries create enclave economies, based on the extraction of one primary mineral "and do little to solve the problem of rural underdevelopment and unemployment that form the basis of mass poverty; neither do they contribute to the achievement of a self centered development model" (Girvan, 1976, p. 7).

Girvan notes: "in the pure case", a dependent economy relies entirely on national income derived from a single subsidiary firm. In such cases national income is basically the value added of the subsidiary firm consisting of wages to employees and taxes to government. Therefore, the production of the firm is not related to national needs but to the needs of the metropolitan office of the subsidiary which controls parallel subsidiaries in other countries. As a result, "the subsidiary lacks integration with the host economy, has close integration with the parent firm, and has

a close relationship with the Center government" ... "the effect is to develop the firm and the firm's home country, but underdevelop the country whose minerals are extracted" (Girvan, 1976, pp. 25-30).

In the consumer and behavior sector this development model creates high-income mining and government employee sectors which eventually bias market demand for relatively expensive consumer durables. This system is supported and promoted through the advertising and mass media patterns which tie consumption to particular brand names which the transnational manufacturing companies have popularized internationally.

There are four basic elements in this dependency and underdevelopment relationship: the ownership or control of the dependent nation's resources and property, ownership of technological patents in these countries, control of local financing through "preferred customer" relationships because their credit is backed by the financial resources of the parent company, and finally control of dependent nations' communication systems through a combination of technology, advertising structures, and the implantation of metropolitan communication values.

In the end, the metropolitan multinational corporation's "extraordinary edge is in using the technology of market manipulation to shape the tastes, goals, and values of the workers, suppliers, government officials, and

of course, customers on whom their own economic success in that country depends" (Barnett & Muller, 1974, p. 142). Underdevelopment, in this view, is a continuing process, and as a function, in part, of media-cultural imperialism, media-dependency and underdevelopment are inextricably linked.

For the dependency theorist, the world system is made up of Center and Peripheral nations. Individuals (and institutions) generate decisions from the Center nations which affect socio-economic progress in the peripheral nations. These decisions affect commodity prices, investment patterns and monetary relations in the economic sector, and values and ideologies in the socio-cultural milieu of the underdeveloped nations (Dos Santos, 1973; Rodney, 1974; Schiller, 1976; Girvan, 1976).

Some socio-economic analysts suggest that the "World System" extends downward, from the richer metropolises to the cities of peripheral societies. From there it continues downward to poorer rural communities. Thus every society is exploited by the more complex society above it. These levels of exploitation are elements in a single world market in which every nation plays its part (Cardoso, 1972; Wallerstein, 1974; Frank, 1976; Amin, 1976). The effects of this system on the underdeveloped and post-colonial nations are economic, institutional and social-psychological (Freire, 1971; Beckford, 19772; Rodney, 1974; Carnoy, 1974).

Socio-psychological Paradigms

Not all assessments of underdevelopment have been socio-economic. Social psychologists, as well, have examined the effects of dependency as it relates to underdevelopment. Mannoni, for example, argues that dependency derives, not from economic designs of the rich nations but from universal psychological drives among different kinds of people either to dominate or to be dominated (Carnoy, 1974, p. 59). Memmi (1965) suggests on the other hand, that economic, social, and personal relationships are all important related factors in the dependent-dominant international mileur. Memmi argues that these factors combine to imprint on the colonized person an alien view of himself because he is forced to function within the institutions supplied for him by the colonizer. "The legitimization of the colonialist's role requires the destruction of the colonized's sense of culture and history, so that the colonized is removed from all social and cultural responsibility" (Carnoy, 1974, p. 62).

Support for this metropolitan colonizing influence comes from within the society itself, i.e., from "bridgeheads," wealthy indigenous folk whose interests are harmonized with those of the Center capitalists. This class, and those aspiring to it are alienated from the local culture by the "elements of the metropolitan culture with

which it [this class] is confronted ... the machinery, the books, the movies, the curricula ... " (Clignet, 1971, p. 300).

Fanon argues that in this context the national bourgeois adopt the culture of the metropole and "development" only occurs within the constraints of the metropolitan culture (Fanon, 1968, p. 65). As social and cultural forces from the metropole encourage this system, the whole process becomes self-determinate. Underdevelopment ensues and a "chronic dependency syndrome [becomes] characteristic of the whole population" (Beckford, 1972, p. 234).

Summary

This argument, that colonial dependency is related to psychological conditioning of the colonized, has brought this discussion back to the point from which it started -social psychological effects of communication media in an international community characterized by economic and information imbalances. It is from this framework of imbalance and inequity that media dependency and critical scholars draw their core arguments. And it is from this perspective that they critique the traditional studies of mass media in development.

Eschewing the behavioral aspects of "national" theories, the dependency theorists take an international, historical and critical perspective on Third World media problems. They posit that economic domination of some nations over others is viable only as the dominated nations are socially and pschologically induced to be dependent, and argue that information systems are the objective agents of this dependency. With this orientation, dependency theorists present the only concerted attempt to explore a truly international framework for the study of mass media and underdevelopment.

This research focuses on the role that metropolitan media play in that dependency process. It combines concepts from both disciplinary media scholarship and dependency theorists and develops hypotheses to be tested in a post-colonial Caribbean Commonwealth nation, Trinidad and Tobago. Trinidad and Tobago's economy, media institutions and social conditions reveal strong cohesive bonds with the Caribbean region's Center nation, the United States.

Trinidad and Tobago: General Media Status

The general media development pattern in Trinidad and Tobago is not unique. It is typical of communication history in many Third World countries, particularly those of the non-European Commonwealth. Typically, colonial rulers

brought in mass media technology to facilitate either expatriate links to the mother country or colonial administration. This control resulted in patterns of ownership, media esthetics and publication codes which followed the dictates of erstwhile rulers.

Comtemporary patterns are somewhat different. They appear to be more a reflection of socio-political and geo-political influences. It is the confluence of these old colonial and neo-colonial trends which concerns critical communication scholars. These joint effects are assumed to have dysfunctional effects on national aspirations.

The probable dysfunctional effects of imported American television programming and imitations of U.S. mass media patterns in the Commowealth Caribbean have been documented (Lent, 1977; Hosein, 1976; Perez, 1975; Nunez & Brown, 1979; Draper, 1976). However, few empirical studies have been conducted on the socio-psychological effects of these programming patterns upon the islands' population. This study will make a contribution to that effort by examining the social psychological effects of U.S. mass media, particularly television programming, on the citizens of Trinidad and Tobago. The following section describes and subsequently presents a critical assessment of the mass media in that nation.

Communication Structure

Newspapers

Although Christopher Columbus discovered Trinidad in 1498, the earliest extant product of printing in Trinidad is a 12 page booklet, an "ordenza publicada en el Puerto Espana" of August 1786 (Lent, 1977, p. 24). This lapse between discovery and the establishment of information facilities reflects Spain's disinterest in Trinidad as a colony, but is not uncharacteristic of colonial powers' ordering their communication priorities along the lines determined by the colonists' view of their economic and political needs. In other words, not until Trinidad was deemed worthy by its colonial master of a system for printing information to the public on a regular basis, was it granted one. From the very beginning media was a privelege, not a right, to the average Trinidadian. Even today, Tobago cannot boast an independent regular broadcasting or printing facility.

There were no newspapers in Trinidad between 1700 and 1749. Between 1750 and 1799 there were two, between 1800 and 1849 there were 10, between 1850 and 1899 there were 19, and between 1900 and 1971 there were 18 (Lent, 1977, p. 44). By early 1982, 20 newspapers were published in Trinidad and Tobago. Four of these were dailies: the <u>Trinidad</u> <u>Guardian</u> (Guardian) and its afternoon associate the <u>Evening</u> <u>News</u>,

(News) and the <u>Trinidad</u> <u>and</u> <u>Tobago</u> <u>Daily</u> <u>Express</u>, (Express) and its evening paper, <u>The</u> <u>Sun</u> (Sun). These daily newspapers are all published from the capital, Port of Spain, and are all owned by local investors. The <u>Guardian</u>, established in 1917, and the <u>News</u> circulate about 53,830 and 36,100 copies respectively. The <u>Express</u> circulates approximately 68,644 copies. Each newspaper publishes a Sunday edition. The <u>Sunday</u> <u>Express</u> circulates 93,686 copies and the <u>Sunday</u> <u>Guardian</u>, 101,496 copies (Benn's Press Directory, 1982, Vol. 2, p. 162). Compared to newspaper circulation <u>per</u> <u>capita</u> throughout the world, both Sunday papers would rank near the top, particularly the <u>Sunday</u> <u>Guardian</u> which is bought by one-tenth of the population. About 10 weekly newspapers are published as are, approximately 24 periodicals. The weeklies represent the most vibrant, even if not the most precise, journalism in the islands today. Most of the periodicals are monthly or quarterly issues which deal with political news and "social, religious, legal, commercial and cultural subjects, as well as sports, medicine,and agriculture" (Black, Blutstein, Johnston & Mc Morris, 1976, p. 181).

Radio, Television and Film

Radio service did not arrive in Trinidad until 1935, and was, at first, a wired system. In 1947 Broadcast Relay Services (Overseas) Ltd., London, was granted a franchise to operate the Trinidad Broadcasting System. Today two radio systems are operated in Trinidad and Tobago, the original Radio Trinidad established in 1947, and Trinidad and Tobago Broadcasting Service (TTNBS) or Radio 610, which began broadcasting in October 1957.

Both stations broadcast AM and FM signals. Radio Trinidad's 20 kilowatt, medium wave transmitter covers both Trinidad and Tobago and the Leeward Islands, but its 1 kilowatt frequency modulation (FM) transmitter covers only a portion of Trinidad. Radio Trinidad also broadcasts a 20 kilowatt, FM signal over Radio 95 (FM Stereo). Radio 610's medium wave transmitter broadcasts at 50 kilowatts and its FM signal is broadcast at 20 kilowatts. Approximately 293,000 radio sets are in use, more than 3 times the number reported a decade earlier. In the 1970's TTNBS broadcast about 119 hours a week and Radio Trinidad, 130 hours (Black et al., 1976).

Trinidad and Tobago is essentialy a one-TV-channel nation since both channels 2 and 13 carry the same programs. (Trinidad and Tobago is expected to have a second television station or channel on stream by the time this study is

completed). The Trinidad and Tobago Television Company Limited (TTT) transmitters serve both Trinidad and Tobago, although Tobago's reception is usually flawed.

In the 1970s, programs totaled over 73 hours a week and included feature films (37 hours), programs for community groups designed to contribute to the Government's adult education campaign (13 1/2 hours), news and information (9 hours), programs for special audiences (5 hours), light entertainment (3 1/2 hours), and literature and arts (3 hours) (UNESCO, 1975). Understandably, these categories are not very meaningful in terms of categories defined in the Anglo-American industry. Neither are they of much academic relevance to the student of mass media in Trinidad and Tobago. During the same period 4 to 5 documentary and educational films were produced each year by the Public Relations Division's film unit, under the Prime Minister's Office.

In the mid-1970's there were 70 commercial motion picture houses and four drive-in theatres. Total seating capacity was over 42,100. Annual attendance at that time was about 8.5 million, an average of eight visits per year (Black et al., 1976, p. 182).

In addition, several independent entrepreneural video production businesses are currently in operation, and an Atlantic Intelsat earth station, located on the East coast of Trinidad, has been in operation since November, 1971.

It may be argued that the film and television conditions in Trinidad and Tobago have changed somewhat since the 1970's. But one may also argue that, structurally, the same conditions hold today as in the past two decades.

Socio-economic Aspects

Media Ownership and Financing

Foreign ownership has characterized the national mass media in Trinidad and Tobago for most of their existence. "The very first instance of near dominance of Commonwealth Caribbean media by a foreign enterprise was that of Overseas Rediffusion (also known as Rediffusion International)" (Lent, 1977, p. 91). By 1950, this pattern included Trinidad where the company had incorporated Radio Trinidad among its overseas operations.

During the early 1960s Thompson of Fleet Street was master of the Trinidad media. He owned both dailies, the Guardian and the News, 50 % of the radio facilities (Radio Guardian), and shares in the only television system, Trinidad and Tobao Television (TTT). Soon after, with the urging of the Prime Minister, Dr. Eric Williams, Cecil King established another newspaper, The Mirror, and its Sunday edition. But by 1966, King realized that his profit margin was being sliced, and sold all his Caribbean interests to

Thompson. As a result, Thompson then owned all three dailies on Trinidad.

Meanwhile, a consortium of investors controlled the only televison station. Under this consortium, the Trinidad and Tobago Government and the Columbia Broadcasting System (C.B.S. of the United States) each controlled 10% and Thompson and the British company Rediffusion each controlled 40% of the company's shares.

By 1970 the picture had changed substantially. First, when the Mirror folded in 1967, local investors established a daily tabloid, the Trinidad and Tobago Daily Express. Second, the government purchased the Thompson and Rediffuson shares of TTT, leaving CBS as the only minority shareholder with 10%.

The government also acquired Radio Guardian, subsequently called the Trinidad and Tobago National Broadcasting Service (Radio 610), in 1969, leaving Radio Trinidad as the only foreign owned national medium of communication in the nation. These changes were inspired by the onset of nationalist sentiments at the accomplishment of independence in 1962, and the promulgation of the government's Third Five Year Plan (1969-1973) for national development which stressed the urgent need to develop a positive national identity (Black et al., 1976).

So if the early 1960s was characterized by the interplay of "two patterns of ownership which had their origins in colonial times: ownership by foreign enterprise and ownership by local government or political party" (Black et al., 1976 p. 176), the 1970's changed all that. And by 1980 local businesses had established solid ownership interests, particularly in the national press. But the electronic media remained government and foreign owned. As a result, a more diversified national media is characteristic of Trinidad and Tobago today. The Media are owned by three interests: government, foreign and local business. Since in practice, very little distinction can be discerned in how these businesses actually operate, the diversity may very well be nominal. All these media are very heavily advertising oriented, commercial enterprises.

Media Critique

Financing for all the national daily media in Trinidad and Tobago can be described by one word - advertising. In fact, the government owned media function quite like the advertiser backed, commercial, media, except that they carry more government produced programs. The Trinidad and Tobago Television Company (TTT) operates under the same Board of Directors as the Trinidad and Tobago National Broadcasting Service.

Fraser's (1983) content analysis of Trinidad and Tobago's newspapers revealed that on any given day of the week "65 to 70% of the pages of Express and the Guardian are made up of advertisements." In addition, about half of the Guardian's editorial page and two-thirds of the paper's sports pages were was so devoted. The Express consistently carried advertisements on its front page.

> Of the 30 t0 35% of the paper's column inches left, at least 10 to 15% were [taken up with] foreign i.e., non-Caribbean, news and commentary and corporate [news releases]. In effect, no more than 20% of the newspapers' pages were left for local and Caribbean news and analyses. (Fraser, 1983, p. 14)

The role of advertising in the electronic media was seen as parallel to its function in the print media. Trinidad and Tobago Television was recorded as carrying 84 1/2 hours per week. Out of that, 66 hours (78%) consisted of soap operas (actually a mix of American prime time syndicated shows, situation comedies, crime-dramas, and family shows; not what are usually considered the American standard, day-time, soap opera fare). Government shows accounted for approximately 3 of the 18 hours left.

Three programs, Panorama (news), A TTT Report (information), and Community Dateline (hosted talk) were seen as "the extent of local programming ... Interestingly, this ratio of foreign-local programming has remained almost static for the 20 years of TTT's existence. Technically,

what we have in TTT is [merely a foreign] television transmission station" (Fraser, 1983, p. 14).

Fraser found the same pattern in radio. Its outstanding characteristic was its preoccupation with [North American] popular music. While some may argue that advertisers merely take advantage of this situation, Fraser argued that it is a situation which they have helped to create. He noted that on radio there was a marked absence of current affairs programming on a regular basis. There were no call-in programs, and the analytical documentary was rare.

The advertising structure which supports all the national daily mass media in Trinidad and Tobago has a substantial foreign investment base. In 1976, five of Trinidad and Tobago's approximately 15 advertising agencies with at least 25% foreign ownership controlled 71% of local agency billing (Draper, 1976, p. 16).

Clearly, the issue of "cultural clienthood" was not solved by local and government ownership of the media. Ironically, as it has been shown through Fraser's work, recent trends appear to have exacerbated the problem. Consequently, a strong foreign emphasis in Trinidad and Tobago daily mass media remains a problem for those who argue for national cultural autonomy (World Broadcast News, 1981, p. 6).

Governmental Concerns

The problems of media dependency were not lost on Trinidad and Tobago's government leaders. But parlimentarian rhetoric and official programs designed to address the problem have had little or no effect on the system. Dr. Eric Williams, late Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago, had argued that the psychology of West Indian identity and intellectual confidence were crucial features in the march toward full decolonialization (Deosoran, 1978, p. 91). This perspective engendered an emphasis on media autonomy in the nation's Third Five Year Plan of 1969:

> The plan recognized the unique set of historical circumstances that led to a lack of self confidence on a national scale and the consequent need for a nationally oriented and high quality media system. To this end the principles that were to guide the government's policy toward the mass media were that no transfer of ownership could be made without permission, that foreign enterprise could neither establish new facilities nor buy existing locally owned ones, and that the government would acquire ownership of radio and control of television stations ... Provisions were also made for the quality of advertising and the educational goals to be met by the broadcast media (Black et al., 1976, p. 178).

Two prospects for this plan were development of political unity and cultural autonomy; and two problems were recognized, one financial, the other socio-political. The financial problem was basically one of cost competition between the cheaper and more professionally produced imported programs for television and the more expensive and

less expertly produced local shows. The social issue remained one of using the media in ways sensitive enough to unify an ethnically and culturally diverse nation.

For example, as the government moved to take control of the media they risked accusations of totalitarian ambitions (Da Breo, 1971). These accusations were emphasized in the political sense. But tight political control was not obvious in the everyday experience of the local media. What was most evident was control by default, a kind of Social Darwinism of the information system in which the strongest beast, imported programming, and its adjunct, corporate advertising, survived and all else was displaced.

Summary of Literature Review

This chapter has brought several diverse areas of scholarship to bear on research problems related to the socio-economic and cultural impact of imported mass media on importing nations. The lack of conceptual and inferential strength and theoretical relevance in the disciplinary and administrative literature made this eclectic approach necessary. It was determined, for example, that the traditional, modernization paradigm was not theoretically sufficient for setting out problems of development since it ignored the lines of inquiry established by Third World scholars who deal with questions of underdevelopment and

dependency.

This deficit has meant less than adequate examination of the structural and psychological conditions resulting from centuries of information inequality and colonial media conditioning. In practical terms, this omission is reflected in the fact that neither the disciplinary nor behavioral media literature has produced a significant body of psychological impact studies in the less developed countries. In fact, most of the current scholarship presume a passive audience (Izcaray & McNelly, 1983), not a dynamic involved and diverse citizenry constantly changing and being changed by their erstwhile and modern sociological setting.

However, a prolific literature which examines dependency theory and underdevelopment as functions of historic economic and colonial conditions exists. Most of these studies acknowledge the mediating mental framework, the psychological setting, which impacts upon a nation's drive toward development or underdevelopment. Furthermore, a sound methodology underlies the rational exploration of these phenomena from an historical perspective. For example, Carnoy (1974) has extensively reviewed the impact of colonial education in present-day structural pedogogical dependency. But his is the sort of methodology which has lacked credibility with quantitative purists.

In sum, the value of critical methodology is that it extends knowledge and helps generate theory by including broader societal factors in international media research. This chapter's departure from traditional perspectives stems from its focus on the experience of underdevelopment as an important and necessary source of knowledge and of theory building. Too often the logical method of extracting experience has gone unacknowledged by traditional communication researchers. As a result, critical Third World scholars charge that the major thrusts of international communication research has been excessively oriented to administrative, system supportive studies, directed to the often inappropriate perspective of modernization.

They argue that no general theory of communication and international structure has been properly examined and little work has been done to relate the international structure of communication to the effects on indigenous peoples. Consequently, there continues to be instability across research findings on these topics.

Where this outline differs from most critical media scholarship is in its willingness to accept the contribution of quantitative analysis in social inquiry. It was found that while critical scholarship has provided important philosophical groundwork, it offers little in the way of

systematic analysis of the actual impact of imported media on citizens of the less developed countries. Therefore, this study broaches two research traditions, one critical, the other quantitative, and has developed a dependency framework for examining quantitatively the effects of imported mass media.

The chapter was concluded with a synopsis of media conditions in Trinidad and Tobago. Clearly, the issues raised throughout the chapter are relevant to that nation's social, economic, and mass media conditions. The concepts outlined within this literature review have been presented as theoretical guideposts, not rigorously defined parameters, for addressing these generic media-import concerns. An appropriate paradigm from which hypotheses are drawn for studying imported media effects on indigenous consumers' culture, values and national identity is presented in the following section.

Paradigm Development and Hypotheses

The Paradigm

The call for a new paradigm of communication research in underdeveloped countries comes not only from the more radical scholars but from the traditionalists as well. Everett Rogers, for example, realized that "newer conceptions of development imply a different and generally

wider role for communication," one in which "communication theory might begin to shed some of its 'made in the U.S.A' bias so that its rather monocultural assumptions could be more soundly questioned" (Rogers, 1978, p. 106). Where traditionalists' paradigms have focussed on modernization, others have stressed trade and media imbalances, underdevelopment and dependency.

Galtung's Model

Johan Galtung (1971) treats global media imbalance as an outcome of imperialism and underdevelopment. He outlined five bases in a theory of imperialism which might be applied to underdevelopment: economic, political, military, communication, and cultural imperialism. Of these, economic, communication, and cultural imperialism are most relevant in this context. Galtung argued that one special version of communication imperialism is media-cultural imperialism, which is a combination of cultural and communiction exchange. Galtung sees trade as an important correlate to media imperialism. He notes that Center nation news [and other media commodities] take up a much larger proportion of periphery news media than vice versa, just as trade with the Center represents a larger proportion of Periphery total trade than vice versa. But he is concerned that "how and why this situation occurs is not well analyzed" (Galtung, 1971, p. 92).

Galtung describes his five types of imperialism as species in a genus of dominance which leads to increased sophistication and control by the Center nation and growing dependency in the periphery. This is due, he wrote, to historical conditioning of the dependent relationships. In terms of communication it leads to a basic psychology of self-reliance and autonomy in the Center nation and a basic psychology of dependence in the periphery nation (Galtung, 1971, p. 877).

Hester's Model

Hester's (1978) paradigm of international media flow presents postulates strikingly similar to those developed by dependency theorists. His postulates, assumptions and hypotheses about international media flow describe relationships at the international level and offer a framework which complements Galtung's concepts of media imperialism.

Hester's assumptions include the following: (1) citizens and leaders percieve a hierarchy of nations in the world environment, i.e., a "pecking order," and members of the system perceive the rank or place of their nation in this hierarchy; (2) cultural and historical affinity generate information flow between nations and the lack of such affinity retards the flow of information; (3) economic

relationships also generate the flow of information between nations and the lack of such relationships retards the flow of information and (4) [apparent] self interest in maintaining a particular national system is a key to the selection of types of information from the international flow by a given nation (Hester, 1978, p. 247).

The Eclectic Model

By incorporating elements of both the Galtung and Hester paradigms, and placing them in context of the issues discussed in this chapter it is possible to develop a working definition of media-cultural imperialism from which appropriate research questions could be derived. For the purposes of this paper, cultural imperialism is defined as:

> the processes through which an information system ties a dependent country to a dominant one, when the relationship helps to keep the dependent country in a subordinate position in economic and psychological, as well as cultural terms. This relationship is maintained by information systems (of which mass media are a sub-set) and is manifested through an inter-related set of institutional, socio-cultural and psychological effects on the people of the dependent nation. (Skinner, 1982)

These effects may be analyzed as functions of each other (for example, as trade in commodities grows so do media trade and psychological dependence) or as separate entities.

Several postulates follow from the foregoing postulates. When structurally dependent media relationships are observed, particular types of social-psychological effects may accompany them in the dependent country. And they should be more pronounced in post-colonial, peripheral, countries which have maintained political ties with their colonial Center.

In addition, where language and culture are the same or made similar to that of the colonial power, these effects may be exacerbated. In the event that a dependent nation changes its orientation to a new Center, the media characteristics of the dependent nation would change in the direction of that new Center with the accompanying social and psychological manifestitations. To the extent that that media realignment does not change there will be internal conflict within the dependent nation, and between the dependent and the dominant nation.

Because of its earlier colonial ties with Britain and its modern links with the United States, Trinidad and Tobago is used as a case study where hypotheses derived from such a paradigm may be tested. Within the theoretical paradigm previously discussed, this study is designed to test hypotheses which follow from the work of Barnett and McPhail (1980), and the studies of Tsai (1967), Payne and Peake (1977), and Payne (1978).

The theoretical exposition in the preceding chapters provides the logical basis for developing a comprehensive, hypothetical structural model of media import effects which may be examined statistically. The actual model developed in the ensuing analysis is a simplified form of such an ideal model. The hypotheses tested examine relationships among the following variables: (1) Frequency of U.S. TV Watching; (2) U.S. dependency and (3) Consumption of U.S. goods (the dependency variables); (4) U.S. appreciation, (5) U.S. appeal, and (6) U.S. Values (the U.S. attractiveness variables); (7) Income and (8) Education (the socio-economic or background variables). Particular attention will be placed upon the relationship between the consumption of U.S. television programs and U.S. dependency.

The Research Hypotheses

The salient point of this research is to determine whether or not <u>dependency</u> on the United States can be manipulated by changing the number hours one spends watching U.S. television. In this case, preliminary analyses have revealed a high positive relationship between U.S. television program viewing, U.S. dependency and the propensity to consume U.S. products. What is not known is whether watching U.S. programming is singularly responsible for the <u>dependency</u> exhibited.

The research question focuses on what effect U.S. television viewing has on a Trinidadian's sense of national self. In formal terms:

H1: Consumption of U.S. television programs is a direct cause of U.S. dependency (both in psychological orientation and propensity to consume U.S. goods).

The hypothesis may be extended this way: within the structure of parameters theoretically assumed to affect dependency on the United States, a direct causal path flows from watching United States originated television programs to dependency on United States, minimally disturbed by other variables.

A second, more generalized, hypothesis may also be explored.

H2: Given two structural models, Model A and Model B, the model which best approximates the relationship among U.S. television consumption, socio-cultural attachment to the U.S. and U.S. dependency is the one in which a direct causal path between U.S. television consumption and U.S. dependency is included. The hypotheses will be tested by comparing structural equation models to see which model best approximates the hypothesized theoretical structure existing among these variables. The concept is illustrated through Figures 1 and 2.

Figure 1　　　　Model A:　Path Structure With Path C Included

| Background Variables (Exogenous) | Predictor Variables (Endogenous) | Criterion Variables (Exogenous) |

United States
Television
Viewing

A

Income
Education

E

Attachment
to the
United States

B

C

D

Dependency on
United States
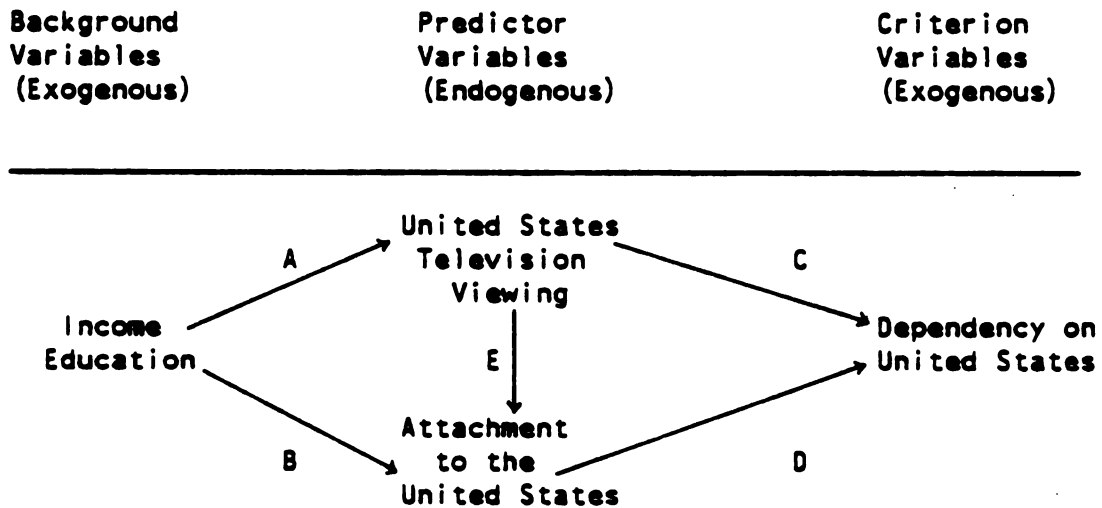
Figure 2　　　Model B: Path Structure With Path C Excluded

| Background Variables | Predictor Variables | Criterion Variables |

United States
Television
Viewing

A

Income
Education

E

Attachment
to the
United States

B

D

Dependency on
United States
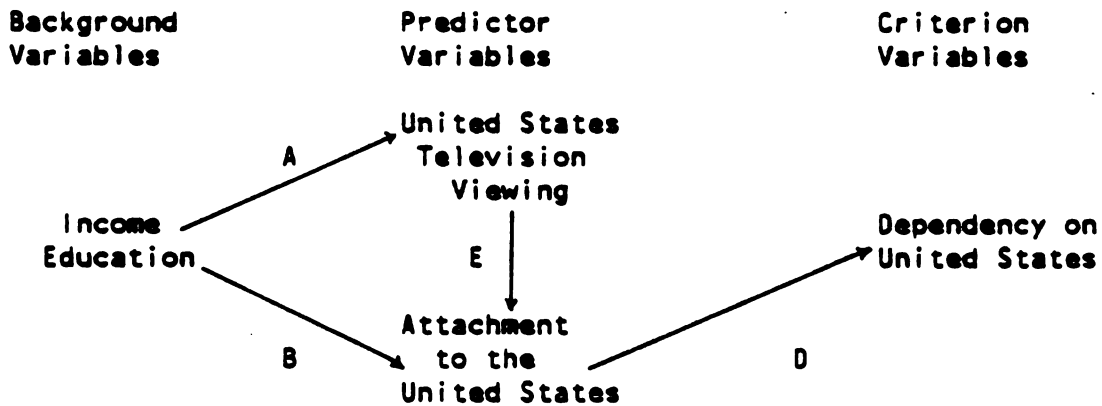
Summary of the Model

This procedure may be conceptualized as follows: Figure 1, Model A, sets out a number of relationships in which the events on the left of the model ostensibly cause events on the right. And path C is an esential and direct component of Model A. A fuller model in which each input variable is specified is presented in Figure 3, Chapter 5.

In Model B, the same variables are involved but it would not be necessary to include path C which asserts a direct dependence on the United States. The hypothesis, in effect, states that, given Model A and Model B, both being relatively accurate pictures of a set of relationships, Model A is a comparatively better statement of reality than is Model B.

The basic model was constructed through a series of preliminary analyses, keeping in mind assumptions about the relationship of the variables and theoretical parameters outlined in previous chapters. These preliminary analyses are discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 3 following, on methods, outlines the research design, addresses questions about sampling, presents details about questionnaire construction, and describes the statistical methods used in model estimation and testing.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Introduction

A cross sectional survey was used in this study. Due consideration was given to the special problems of developing and administering questionnaires in Third World context in which people are sensitive to interviewers probing into their personal habits and opinions. Many practical sampling difficulties had to be solved.

A survey design was used. Methodical collecting of data from randomly selected individuals was the best way of measuring and generalizing the impact of imported media on a Third World population. Furthermore, "sociologists have increasingly relied on surveys as a data source for both theoretical and policy oriented research" (Alwin, 1978, p. 8).

It is extremely important that in both exploratory analysis and hypothesis testing of complex socio-psychological variables in Third World countries, researchers develop reliable measures, another principal challenge of this thesis. In this case where unique measures are to be developed from a theoretical position not yet empirically explored the emphasis has to be on concept

development and scale construction rather than statistical technique; the guiding principle being the maxim: "No matter how sophisticated one's analytical tools, the quality of one's inferences is intimately tied to the quality of one's data" (Alwin, 1978, p. 8).

But the danger in breaking new ground with subtle concepts in difficult environments is that where the quality of one's data is tied to practical judgments, every judgment is a possible source of intractable error in data analysis.

This study must be seen as the initial stage of a theoretical argument. Particular care was taken to ensure that decisions which may have affected the ultimate quality of the survey data were <u>not</u> governed by practical considerations. Many practical problems emerged; most of these in relation to the socio-cultural setting and television industry characteristics. These problems will now be outlined

Design

Problems

First, Trinidad and Tobago is essentially a one-TV-channel nation. U. S. TV signals are not at present beamed directly to Trinidad nor is there a U.S. TV station on the island. Consequently, there is no Anglo-American channel for cross comparison as there was in the Payne and Peake (1971) Iceland study. This situation reduces the

comparability of U.S. program viewers with viewers of local programs. Trinidad and Tobago Television offers its viewers a flat, one dimensional, program schedule so that all viewers may in fact look at all programs. This type of media environment guarantees a situation where no clear cut, forced choice, viewing pattern can emerge.

Second, of the content actually aired on TTT, local programs may be un-equally balanced against U.S. programs. In other words, Trinidad and Tobago does not produce a program comparable to Little House on the Prairie, so liking of programming will be confounded by type of program. If no forced choice alternatives may be made among programs and no comparable program alternatives are offered, chances of successfully carrying out a natural field experiment will be hampered.

Third, the respondents are, in effect, self selected viewers of U.S. television. They might have brought their attitudes to the television instead of having them created by viewing television. Subjects, in fact, will have been viewers of both local and U.S. TV programs for years, and it will be impossible to isolate a priori, any specific period at which U.S. media actually began to impinge upon the subjects' national consciousness, or value structure. This possibility lends credibility to the non-recursive argument which questions the inferred temporal seqence from TV viewing to national consciousness, an assumption which

should be examined in future research.

The fourth problem is the possibility of confounding technological with ideological or cultural change. "Effects [attributable to media] on viewers' knowledge of, and attitides about, cultural and political items may occur independently or to some degree through adoption of technological items" (Payne, 1978, p. 740). This problem becomes more acute when the country being researched is transitional and industrializing, and the national mood is one of rapid adoption of new technologies, as is true of Trinidad and Tobago today. To properly assess this type of impact a longer range, more thorough socio-economic study would have to be done in which economic growth is related to technological desires. A (time series) staggered design, with subsequent inclusion of a media component would then have to be fitted into this more comprehensive model.

The fifth problem, related to the fourth, is the unclear distinction between modernization and dependency. These constructs may in fact be quite related psychologically. In certain instances, both modernization and dependency theorists have used the same or similar world views to describe different constructs. For example, many indicies (such as quickness to adopt innovative practices) included in earlier attempts to measure modernity (Armer & Isaac, 1978, p. 316) may also be used as dependency measures. In other instances, adoption of modern technology

might be seen as positive modernization by one group but as dependent underdevelopment by another.

Sixth, Trinidad and Tobago has been under extensive American political and military influence since the 1940s, when the United States began to operate a naval base at Chaguaramas, in the North-West peninsula of Trinidad. This base was a very influential part of Trinidad and Tobago's social and cultural life from the early 1940's to the 1960's when the Government requested that the United States military leave the island. In addition Trinidad has been a British colony for over a century and a half.

Seventh, Trinidad and Tobago is an English speaking American nation and as such is itself part of "Western Civilization". Although not a truly autonomous, leading member of that group, Trinidad and Tobago too has made its cultural and scientific contributions to that civilization. Therefore, given its cultural history, it is often very difficult to separate Trinidad culture from Anglo-American culture. Homogenized tastes and values may in fact exhibit a circular, not a linearly patterned set of effects. These seven problems pose considerable handicaps for the researcher.

Notwithstanding these enigmatic details, "cultural imperialism" from the North has become a topic of genuine concern to the island's social critics, intellectuals, political nationalists, and students of mass media. One

might add, parenthetically, that more socially conscious calypsonians in Trinidad and Tobago have added anecdotal power to media-cultural imperialism claims (Layne, 1982; Henry, 1982). Cultural imperialism has been the theme of several calypsoes, particularly in the last three years. From the researcher's point of view, complexity of social conditions in Trinidad could be regarded as a challenge as much as a nemesis. But one cannot understand a difficult problem by ignoring it.

Techniques

Conditions in Trinidad and Tobago do not permit selection of TV versus non-TV cities. And since the questions addressed here compare TV viewing conditions, non-TV homes would not offer a viable design alternative, however fascinating the research possibilities using that format. A time series design was also ruled out because of the lack of financial resources and time constraints. Experimentation was also ruled out because it would provide neither data about broadly impactful effects nor would the results be generalizable to the entire television owning population.

The research task was to study the effects of foreign media imports on the whole of Trinidad and Tobago society. That aim was best achieved simply by asking respondents pertinent questions and being able to generalize responses

to as large a segment of the TV viewing population as possible. The question was essentially this: are people's sense of national orientation a reflection of the national origin of the TV programs they view? The concern was with how people's national orientations are affected by foreign TV programming

Several design problems were handled by using appropriate random sampling techniques which offered the best opportunity of generalizing results to the entire adult population in TV-owning households in Trinidad. The single channel, self selection and history problems, for example, were addressed through (1) random sampling, and (2) by incorporating a broad age range in the sample. Randomization also resolved problems of individual and group differences. Details of the sampling procedure are outlined in the next section.

Valid and reliable measurement scales and indexing techniques used with appropriate statistical methods allayed other design concerns. The problem of unequal program type, for example, was approached by recording the proportion of respondents' TV time devoted to each nation's programming. The question of ideology, dependency in this case, was resolved by including a wide range of items on the scale, each of which represented an acceptable (to Trinidadian experts) measure of dependency. Questions such as, what nation's books are most important for your understanding of

the world and; other than your own, what country would you prefer your family to grow up in illustrate this approach. Furthermore, the structural modeling and path analysis statistics used in this study were developed, in part, to adequately handle methodological exegencies where multiple indicators are involved (Heise, 1981, pp. 63-87).

The sampling method employed in this study follows. The survey covered the population of Port of Spain, the capital, and North, Central and South Trinidad. This stratification offered the best opportunity of generalizing results to the TV-household adult population. Tobago was not sampled because of monetary and time limitations. Admittedly, inclusion of Tobago would have been a meaningful addition to this research endeavor.

Sampling

The Nation

History

Trinidad is a two-island nation of approximately 1,980 square miles (about the size of the state of Delaware), located just off the Eastern coast of Venezuela, South America. The nation reflects many of the contradictions of growth and underdevelopment characteristic of post colonial societies. Colonized most recently by Britain, English remains the national language. Hindi, Urdu, Spanish and

French patois are spoken indigenously among some groups, vestiges of the colonial days of East Indian indentured labor, 300 years of Spanish colonialism and French influence. Literacy, at 94% is among the highest levels in the world.

Trinidad and Tobago retains the parliamentary democracy of the British, but one political party has dominated national politics since 1956. That party, the People's National Movement (PNM), has had one leader, the late Dr. Eric Williams, from 1956 until his death in 1981. The PNM secured independence from Britain in 1962 and established a Republic in 1976.

<u>Economics</u>

The nation is one of the most prosperous in the Caribbean. Oil products are featured in the export sector. Per capita income is about $3,000 U.S. and the Gross Domestic product was estimated at four billion dollars (U.S.) in 1978. Trinidad and Tobago trades (imports) primarily with Saudi Arabia (22%) through U.S. oil companies which operate there, the United States (21%), Indonesia (14%), and the United Kingdom (13%). Other industries are rum, cement, and tourism. Chief crops are sugarcane, bananas, cocoa, coffee and citrus fruits. About 69% of its export trade (1977), mostly petroleum products, goes to the U.S.

Demographics

Trinidad's two main cities are Port of Spain, population approximately 250,000, including all of its suburbs and extended metropolitan area, and San Fernando in the South with approximately 50,000 people. Thirty eight percent of the nation is under 14 years of age, and 55.4% of the population is between the ages of 15 and 59. About 50% of the populace is urbanized.

Trinidadian society is a complex mix of ethnic groups. About 43% of the people claim to be of African ancestry, 36% of East Indian ancestry, 2% white and 1% Chinese. The remaining 18% has been described as mixed. The more populous religious groups are, Roman Catholics (30%) Protestants (30%) Hindus (23%) Muslims (6%) and a representative, though usually unspecified, number of people who subscribe to more or less traditional African and other religions.

Procedures

Stratification

Trinidad was divided into three regions using a stratification method practiced by SCICON, the marketing firm hired to consult on interviewing problems. In fact, the island is naturally divided into three geo-political and economic regions. These are the northern East-West corridor

at the foothills of the Northern mountain range; the Central, sugar cane belt; and the Southern region where the oil industry is based. The Northern sector contains the nation's capital, Port of Spain, the commercial center and seat of government.

A purposive selection of districts was taken from each area followed by a random selection of towns from each district. A random selection of streets was taken from each town, and from each street a random selection of households was included.

A household was defined as one person or group of persons, related or not, who live in the same part of a house and share meals, earnings, expenditure and management of the household. Interviewers were asked to select TV-owning households except for every tenth house which was to be a non TV-owning household. In the end, a person to person interview was conducted in 401 randomly sampled households from 25 different districts across the North, Central, and South of Trinidad.

The Population

The sampling frame was designed to include a range of urban and non-urban dwellers as well as a representative mix of ethnic groups. The city and non-city range was important because the dependency literature indicates that urban groups are prime candidates for being affected by mass media

imports.

First, urban groups are assumed to be more saturated
with foreign media (for example, television) imports.
Second, urban groups consist of classes whose interests are
most likely to be harmonized with those of the metropole.
Third, the "center of the periphery" (the Third World
cities) contains a wide range of other imported media such
as bookstores, cinemas, etc., which reflect Center
metropolitan values and social attitudes.

Dependency theory also incorporates the rural districts
as well. Theorists posit that a line of dependency extends
from the rural to the urban areas of the periphery.
Procedures ensured that the Trinidadian population was
generally well represented.

Problems

Unexpected problems demanded that <u>ad</u> <u>hoc</u>, "in-field"
adjustments be made to the formal sampling procedures. A
national electrical workers strike during the weeks of the
questionnaire administration was one such problem. More
difficult was finding appropriate sampling data bases for
reference points.

As Ascroft reminds us, "sampling textbooks were not
written with developing countries in mind. There are
usually no sampling frames, no central registry of all
citizens, no census tracts with home addresses of who's

where. If any of these exist, they are likely to be unreliable except possibly in some areas." (Ascroft, 1976; from Kearl p. 38). Trinidad does not quite fit this description. But access to available information was a problem given time, cost and researcher location constraints.

Distance did make a difference. Being based at a United States university compounded the already difficult research conditions under which media scholar-researchers work in Trinidad. Many contacts were unreliable, perhaps reflecting the value, or lack of value, others attribute to media research of this type. Sources for much background data pertinent to psychological/cultural effects were either non-existent, difficult to attain, or too expensive to acquire.

Additionally, the information eventually found was usually out of date, inadequately assembled or poorly collected and collated. However, the Trinidad infrastructure was still workable. Information was available, albeit at great cost in time, effort and money; and there were individuals willing to work with scholar-researchers for the heuristic purpose of adding to the store of social science knowledge in the island.

Other problems involved staffing the research crew. For example, there was attenuation in the trained interviewing staff from an initial 10 to 8. This created skewing of the work load. Four staff persons did most of the interviewing. Furthermore, the politically charged electrical workers' strike which occurred as the field work was being conducted affected worker morale and sampling structure.

Training

Ten interviewers with two supervisors, including the researcher, were originally selected to conduct the interviews with the expectation that each would conduct 40 interviews over a one week period, from October 17 to October 24. In that ideal case the relevant week of TV viewing would have been from October 10 to October 16. The expectation was that each interviewer would conduct between 5 to 10 interviews each day. The researcher held training sessions with the interviewers on three occasions before the survey was conducted; once as an informal introduction to the survey and on two additional, more formal, occasions where the substantive training took place. In the formal meeting the interviewers were given information about the purpose of the project, the sampling procedure, and how the actual interview should be conducted. The researcher also met with three interviewers at their homes.

In the end, the survey involved a four week period from October 10 to November 9, 1982. The researcher focused on three weeks of actual viewing, from October 10 to October 30, and three weeks of interviewing (asking about the respondent's previous week of TV-viewing) from October 16 to November 9. Eight interviewers were used but four actually conducted 80% of the completed responses.

Forty-two percent of the interviews was done in the first week, 21% in the second and 37% in the third week of of the investigation. The second week was most seriously affected since interviewers had to work around the "brown out" areas of the electrical workers' strike. Seventeen interviews were conducted on the average each day but 42 were conducted on the best day. All the interviewers had had previous interviewing experience. They all had previously conducted national door-to-door surveys for SCICON and other firms.

The Instrument

The Questionnaire

The instrument used in this study is appended for reference. It was developed from several basic sources: (1) concepts derived from the literature on cross cultural and foreign media studies, dependency theory, cultural

imperialism, and social psychology and socialization theory;
(2) media studies conducted in Trinidad and Tobago; (3)
focus group interviews with professional media personnel,
sociologists and economists in Trinidad and Tobago; and (4)
content analysis of Trinidad and Tobago media. A pilot
questionnaire developed from these sources was pretested in
Port of Spain.

The questionnaire was constructed in three basic parts.
Part one contains questions relating to media ownership and
media viewing habits, and preference for programs and media
types. Part two is made up of Likert scales created to
index U.S. values, admired life styles, national
preferences and respondents' dependency. A behavioral
measure based on consumption of various nations' products,
completes this section. Several nations were used as
reference points.

Part three, the demographics section, includes a travel
profile of the subjects as a measure of cosmopolitanism.
The questionnaire is appended with appropriate guidelines
for inspection. Therefore, only a brief description of the
instrument will be offered in this section.

Part one, the media information section, was developed
to obtain a complete picture of the media machinery
respondents had in their homes, and how much time they spent
with each of the media. Trinidad and Tobago (local), U.K.
and U.S. TV viewing, were the media variables of most

interest. They were measured by respondents' self report of what specific TV programs they watched and for how long each day for a week. This figure was then broken down into programs by country of origin. Another general measure of TV watching, TV time, was also recorded. This was constructed simply by asking respondents how much time they spent each day looking at television.

There is a thriving video exchange and rental business in Trinidad, particularly in Port of Spain. And a measure of video use and types of programs seen was also taken. These programs were broken down by country of origin.

Part two was primarily made up of Likert scales. They were used to measure U.S. values and attitudes toward a variety of nations. These measures were all developed by the researcher since no appropriate measures were found in the literature.

Problems of Scale Development

Measurement of constructs such as dependency presented the foremost challenge of this study. Reliability and validity concerns were paramount. The dependency and U.S. value scales were problematic in this regard. The challenge was in attempting to align theoretical formulations with scale items in a survey sensitive environment. Items had not only to be empirically sound but to be socially acceptable as well.

The questionnaire had to be rearranged on two occassions prior to the final administration because of the substance and wording of some sensitive questions. In such cases, balancing demands of social acceptability with concern for soundness, exactness, and technical accuracy forced a shift away from the more precise to the more common language. The dependency scale had to accurately reflect the relevant construct but also to be sensitive to the socio-political environment. For example, it is an emotionally charged notion that someone might be alienated from their native culture through foreign mass media. The more directly this question is addressed the less likely the response will be recordable. This is a common problem in the recording of unobserved variables. The difficulty is that "theoretical [abstract] language not based on precise [wording] is likely to become polemic ... and subject to criticism." (Jackman & Borgatta, 1981, p. 5). However, the scales represented in this study were developed after extensive literature review and focus interviews with Trinidad and Tobago media personnel and social scientists. These scales appear to at least have face validity.

Operationalization of Variables

The following list may be used for cross reference with the hypotheses and questionnaire section of the study. It outlines the basic structure of the research instrument by section and question number. Specific details are presented for each variable wherever necessary.

Questionnaire Profile: Q1a to Q1e.

Media Questions Background: Q2a to Q4a; Q5b1 to Q5e; Q5g1 to Q5g7; and Q8, Q9, and Q10.

General TV exposure: Q5a1 to Q5a21.

TV programs watched, by national origin: Q6

Time spent on TV programs watched: Q7

Influence of TV programs watched: Q12 to Q14

Perceptions of Local Media: Q15 and Q16

U.S. Values scale: Q17a to Q17g.

Dependency scale for various nations: Q18011 to Q18156

Nationality perception measure: Q19a to Q19f

Travel-Cosmopolite measure: Q21 to Q22c5

Demographics: Q23 to Q41b.

Two basic psychological orientation scales and two a dependency scale, and a U.S. values scale; a dependency scale, and a U.S. values scale; and additionally, a nation "appreciation" measure and a nation "appeal" measure.

Most important was the dependency concept from which scales were derived to measure dependency on the United States, United Kingdom, and Trinidad and Tobago. The items in this scale represented a composite list taken from dependency literature, the (limited) media studies done in Trinidad and Tobago and focus group interviews conducted with professional media personnel, sociologists and economists in Trinidad and Tobago. Caribbean, Latin American and African socio-economic and psychological studies were also used.

Respondents were asked to indicate how much they agreed or disagreed with each item on a Likert scale. The items were repeated for each of several countries: the U.K., U.S., Japan, Cuba, the U.S.S.R., and Trinidad and Tobago. Jamaica was included on several items. The additional countries were used as foils. The scale eventually included 15 items:

1. _____ offers its citizens the most economic equality.

2. _____ has the best culture.

3. For immigration purposes you would rather go to (or stay in) _____.

4. _____ offers the best opportunity for improving one's social position.

5. Compared to _____ Trinidad and Tobago has no culture to speak of.

6. You would never prosper as a nation if Trinidad and

Tobago were to rely on _____ for most of its international trade.

7. Were it not for _____ television programs, Trinidad and Tobago could develop little television programming to speak of.

8. You would be more satisfied with the local news media if they had more news from _____.

9. Trinidad and Tobago really needs _____ as a friend if it is to become a truly developed country.

10. Local radio stations could only get worse if they had more _____ music on the air.

11. For honest news about the Caribbean, you would much rather read a newspaper from _____ than one from Trinidad.

12. You wouldn't mind it at all if _____ should become the leader in the world economically.

13. You would feel more secure about the world if _____ should become the world's strongest power militarily.

14. Books published in _____ are most important to your understanding of things in the world.

15. You would like your family to grow up in _____ than in any other country.

The U.S. Values scale was developed similarly and comprised seven items measured on a five point Likert scale. Each item was selected on the presumption that it measured American values. One such item was, "You prefer a family life where mother, father, and young children, but no other relatives live in one house."

This scale incorporated items on values which were thought to be characteristic of the United States. These items are taken from marketing and theoretical literature on culture and socialization.

The national appreciation and national appeal scales were not actually scales, but rather composite sums of responses to series of questions. All the responses were open ended. For example, the Appeal scale asks the respondent to select from television the personalities and life styles most attractive to them. The Appreciation scale was similarly developed except that the items were not directly related to the television list. Items such as "of all nationalities which one cares most about its environment" were used. Again, the responses were sorted by nationality.

Index Summary

Scale Indicators and Demographics

In the final analysis 40 main variables were developed from 676 items. Even though all items provide useful information this study concentrated primarily on the selected 26 variables. Each variable either stands alone or is combined with others to form composite measures in the preliminary data analyses.

Eight variables show leanings toward the U.S.: U.S. dependency (USDEP), and propensity to buy U.S. products (CONSINUS) may be seen as final or dependent variables. They make up the dependency part of the conceptual model. The CONMIS variable measures one's general propensity not to consume market commodities such as cosmetics and appliances. Its converse (CONCON) is used as an index of one's predilection to buy foreign products. These indicators are itemized by national origin of products and are summed across national origin of product.

The appeal of American personalities (USAPPEAL), appreciation of the American image (USAPPRE), and American values (USVALUES), may be seen as mediating attachments to the United States. Travel to the United States might also be important variables which affect dependency on the United States. Two such values are included: TIMESVC and TIMESSPC, the former being the number of times the United States was

visited and the latter, the number of weeks spent in the United States. Each of these concpets (except for U.S.VALUES) is duplicated for Trinidad and Tobago and the United Kingdom. Travel to other West Indian islands was used as an indicator of local travel for Trinidad and Tobago. Ten demographic variables were used: age, sex, income, occupation, education, profession, urbanity, region, and ethnicity.

Media Indicators

Eight media variables were taken. Four were availability of media in the home: TV, radio, stereo, and video cassette recorders (VCR's). The amount of time spent using VCR's (VIDVIEW), and stereo (STERLIST) was recorded. Availability of phonograph records was used as a measure of preference for various types of music. Three music types were compiled: American music (RUT), Jamaican music (RJA) and local music (RLA). This was clearly one area in which problems of circularity of cultural influence would arise. For example, Jamaican reggae has influenced British contemporary music which in turn has influenced American popular music and is often being re-introduced into the Caribbean as American music. Radio listening was broken down by radio station and by AM and FM listening. A general measure of radio listening (ALLRADIO) was also developed.

Two basic sets of general viewing items were developed: TOTPROG and TVTIME. TVTIME was simply the amount of time people said they watched TV each day for a week. TOTPROG was the amount of time one spent looking at each program seen each day for the viewing week. This measure was then broken down by program type and national origin of programs watched. This eventually gave a score of how much U.S., U.K., and local television was seen. These measures were called USPROG, UKPROG and LOCPROG respectively. A proportional measure, propensity to watch a certain nation's television programs was derived from these totals by dividing the total available programming for each nation into the amount each person actually watched. These were called USPROP, UKPROP, and LOCPROP respectively. The most theoretically relevant of these variables were included in the statistical model.

Development of the Model

The General Concept

The primary purpose of this study was to develop a theoretical framework from which a plausible international mass media model may be derived, and to statistically test the assumptions of the model. Trinidad and Tobago was the nation used as a case study in this analysis. Given Trinidad and Tobago's colonial past and its present media

links to the United States, Dependency theory offered the most plausible framework for developing an appropriate model of foreign media effects.

The researcher postulated that foreign dependency is directly related to consumption of foreign mass media. Two dominant, foreign nations were identified in this study, the United States and the United Kingdom. However, in terms of the mass media, the United States was obviously the most dominant in Trinidad and Tobago's mass media system. It was subsequently postulated that the viewing of these U.S. programs was a major cause of dependency on the United States.

In reality, that simply postulated relationship, if it indeed exists, must be embedded in a more complex set of multiple relationships. The problem of path modeling involves identifying what other relationships would be theoretically important, specifying them within the model, and determining how their inclusion would change the hypothesized relationship.

The sets of variables thought to be theoretically relevant were explored in the literature review and refined in the preliminary data analysis sections. This process resulted in the specifying of several variables which plausibly might impact upon U.S. dependency.

Procedures

The following procedures were used in developing the final theoretical model which is the core of this study. First, the data was summarized to give a descriptive feel for the array of variables. Means, variances, and standard deviations were examined. Second, the scales created by the researcher were refined using item to total correlations and reliabilities analysis. Third composite variables such as the national viewing measures were created.

Fourth, correlational analysis was done to get an initial assessment of the relationships in the data. This allowed the researcher to assess the sets of general relationships in the data. Fifth, Analysis of Variance was used as an exploratory tool for examining alternative variables which might be included in the model and to assess the theoretical correctness of the criterion variables. Sixth, a simplified model was developed in order to test the relationship between U.S. television viewing and U.S. dependency.

The Variables

The model was built around four basic sets of variables, one set of background, exogenous variables, two sets of predictor, endogenous variables and one set of criterion, dependent variables. The background variables used in this study are income and education. They follow

from the expectation of dependency theorists that "bridgeheads" which link the metropolitan to the peripheral countries are represented among the upper income and more educated groups. This theme has been elaborated in Chapter 2.

The literature review has also illustrated that both critical and positivist scholars have attempted, in their unique ways, to analyze the impact of foreign television viewing, particularly American programming, on non-United States cultures. Some of these studies have focused on the national identity and culture constructs. The assumptions have been, for the most part, recursive, that viewing foreign media has an effect on these constructs, with no reciprocal effect. The model outlined in this paper adopts a similar, recursive, assumption but recognizes that, theoretically, attraction and subsequent dependency on a country may also lead to seeking out that nation's media output.

The other category of endogenous variables, attachment to the U.S.: U.S.appeal, U.S. appreciation and U.S. values, may also be seen as non-recursive relative to the criterion variable, U.S. dependency. However, for the sake of parsimony, this relationship is tested as only part of a recursive system.

Two "dependency" variables were developed as criterion variables. The first, called "dependency," is a construct which purports to measure psychological bent toward several nations including the United States. Here, there might be a non-recursive relationship with U.S. TV viewing. The second dependency measure, propensity to consume U.S. goods, is less arguably non-recursive. In this measure there is a logical, temporal link between viewing U.S. television programs and subsequently buying U.S. goods, ceteris paribus.

Other variables may have been used in this analysis. For example, background variables such as travel to the U.S., the number of acquaintances one has in that country and one's interaction with foreigners might influence both television viewing and U.S. dependency. On the other hand, other media variables might have been included: U.S. books, movies, newspapers, for example. However, inclusion of all these variables with all possibilities of non-recursive arrows would unnecessarily complicate the model. This is true of many investigations similar to the one under consideration. At times, "the original choice of one set of input variables rather than another [is] only a matter of convenience ... for the sake of simplicity we must stop at one point even when extensions to [other] socialization variables could be made" (Heise, 1975, p. 133).

The LISREL Model

The General Concept

Based upon a critical assessment of the cause of dependency in Trinidad and Tobago a structutal equation model was developed and the LISREL computer program used in exploring variable relationships within the model. Its fundamental assumptions stem from path analysis logic. The premise here is intrinsically one of causality which may be rationalized in the following manner: $X1$ is a cause of $X0$ if and only if $X0$ can be changed by manipulating $X1$ and $X1$ alone (Nie et. al., 1975, p. 384). But "to establish conclusively" that $X1$ is a cause of $X0$, one first must perform an "ideal" experiment in which all other relevant variables are held constant while the causal variable is being manipulated. This should be accompanied by some changes in the dependent variable (Nie et. al., 1975, p. 384). Since an ideal experiment is not possible, path analysis is used as the best alternative for examining the implications of this multiple variable data structure.

Path analysis is primarily a method of decomposing and interpreting linear relationships among a set of variables. It is based upon the theoretical assumption that (1) a weak causal order among the variables is known, and (2) the relationships among the variables is causally closed (Nie et. al. 1975, p. 384). It must be emphasized however, that

path analysis is not a procedure for demonstrating causality. It is a method for tracing out implications of a set of causal assumptions which the researcher is willing to impose upon a system of relationships. In other words, theory is all important. The usefulness of path analysis and the LISREL method in analysis in particular is that it is predicated upon strong theory:

> Many models are so poorly thought out in terms of canons of theory construction that they should be rejected before the data have been collected! Omitting key variables, including irrelevant variables, and using the wrong functional form of relationship are all errors of specification, and a model is worth very little if serious errors of specification are made. (Fink, 1980, p. 135)

In other words, Fink argues, strong theory allows powerful inference, and there is no substitute for theory," ambiguous assumptions and unclear theory leads to uninterpretable results.

The LISREL Concept

The path model developed in this study will be analyzed using the LISREL computer program developed by Joreskog and Sorbom (1978). This LISREL (Linear Structural Relations) program was developed for analyzing multivariate path data sets using maximum-likelihood solutions.

LISREL is a general computer program for estimating the unknown coefficients in a set of linear structural equations. These equations are solved simultaneously and each equation in the model represents an assumed causal link

rather than a mere empirical association. These coefficients do not coincide with coefficients of regression among observed variables (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1978, p. 1)

The LISREL model consists of two parts, the measurement model and the structural equation model. The measurement model specifies how the latent variables or hypothetical constructs are measured in terms of the observed variables and is used to describe the measurement properties (validities and reliabilities of the observed variables). The stuctural equation model specifies the causal relationship among the latent variables and are used to describe their causal effects and amount of unexplained variance (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1978, p. 4).

The LISREL solution allows the researcher to determine: (1) the overall goodness-of-fit of the model using the Chi Square distribution, (2) the relative usefulness of theoretical paths outlined by the researcher through t-ratio analyses, and (3) affords the researcher the opportunity to compare models using Chi-square ratio analysis.

Model Estimation and Testing

The principal test of the model is how well the sample approximates the theoretical values or predictions of the population. This is called fitting the model. It is the process which allows the model to be estimated and tested. Criteria which determine this test include: (1) is the model

correctly specified, (2) is the Chi square test of fit significant or non-significant, (3) are the first order derivatives of the fixed parameters in the model zero, (4) are the residuals of the input minus the predicted matrix (S-E) as small as possible, and (5) is the standard error for the coefficient low enough to ensure that the coefficient is significant.

Specification means assigning values to the parameters involved in the equation structure so that a solution to the simultaneous equations can be reached. If a set of equations is correctly specified the model is said to be identified and the set of equations simultaneously solvable. If not, the equations are said to be not identified and the equations not solvable. Therefore, specification of the model is directly related to its identification.

When the maximum likelihood estimators of the parameters have been obtained, the goodness of fit of the model may be tested under multinormality in large samples by the likelihood ratio techniqiue. Usually, goodness of fit is tested using the Chi square with a value small enough to produce a probability greater than .05. Such a Chi square is but one indictor of the fit of the model. But a Chi square with $p < .05$ is also acceptable if the sample size is large (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1977, 1978). Since changes in the model are reflected in the Chi square, Joreskog and Sorbom suggested that the Chi square may be used to test the

relative improvement in model specifications.

> Let H0 be any specified hypothesis concerning the parametric structure of the general model which is more restrictive than an alternative hypothesis, H1. In large samples one can test H0 against H1. Let F0 be the minimum of F under H0; and let F1 be the minimum of F under H1. Then F1 < F0 and minus twice the logarithm of the likelihood ratio becomes N(F0-F1). Under H0 this is distributed approximately as Chi Square with degrees of freedom equal to S1-S0, the difference in the number of independent parameters estimated under H1 and H0. In many situations it is possible to set up a special case of the preceding and to test these hypotheses (sic). (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1978, p. 14)

Chi square analysis of structural equations models may be used as as an explotatory technique. Using the Chi Square as a goodness of fit, the Chi Square value must be inspected to see if it is large compared to the degrees of freedom. A large discrepancy reflects a not perfect fit of the model. In this case, the fit may be examined by inspecting the covariance residuals, i.e., the discrepancies between the observed (S SIGMA) and the fitted (E SIGMA) and the magnitude of the first derivative of F with respect to the fixed parameters. Often, such an inspection of the results will suggest ways to relax the model by introducing more parameters. The new model then usually yields a smaller Chi square.

> A large drop in Chi square compared to the difference in degrees of freedom, indictes that the changes made in the model represent a real improvement . On the other hand, a drop in Chi square close to the difference in the reduced number of degrees of freedom indicates that the improvement in fit is obtained by "capitalizing on

chance" and the added parameters may not have real significance and meaning. (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1978, p. 14)

Explained variance in endogenous variables are also indicators of the fit of the model since LISREL accounts for a maximum amount of measurement error. Explained variance or R squared, computed as one minus the residual, should thus be relatively high in the theoretical model. The model may also be assessed by referring to the coefficients along each of its multiple causal paths.

In this study, the coefficients of the various causal paths will affirm how useful the hypothesized model is with respect to the hypothesized causal paths of primary interest. The appearance of nonsignificant paths usually indicate large standard errors. If this is the case, the model may be reconstructed. The attainment of new significant coefficients would reflect a relative reduction of the standard error and a better fit of the model.

Few authors pay enough attention to the problems of model reconstruction (Reagan, 1981, p. 66). Joreskog and Sorbom (1978, p. 125) suggest freeing some fixed parameters. One may also eliminate one or more variables (Schmidt, 1981). Another option would be to adjust the statistical model with respect to the theoretical model. Reagan (1981) notes that these procedures take the researcher into the more exploratory realm ... "Even the freeing of parameters has eliminated a strict confirmatory analysis, and if the

results indicate restructuring that does not conflict strongly with theory, "it should be allowable" (Reagan, 1981, p. 66).

But Reagan also supports Woelfel and Fink's (1980, pp. 85-86) assessment that there is a solid statistical reason for altering the model beyond merely freeing some parameters. The proposition, one of "construct validity," states that "to the extent results fit theory, the measurement can be said to be valid" ... and where the measurement fails to attain statistical significance the model can be said to be not valid. For all these reasons, theoretical analysis, statistical comparison across competing models, the possibility of interpreting specific path relationships, and affirmation of the measurement technique itself, the LISREL option was used for assessing the theoretical propositions of this study.

Summary

A cross sectional survey of 401 adults was carried out in TV owning households across Trinidad. The research questionnaire was made up of 40 primary variables organized into demographic, media, cultural, and social-psychological categories. Eight of these variables were ultimately used in developing and testing a LISREL (structural equations model). The model was based on the theory that U.S. TV

viewing in Trinidad is related to some Trinidadians' dependency on the U.S.. Variables represented in the LISREL model included: income and education, U.S. television viewing, U.S. appeal, U.S. appreciation, U.S. values, U.S. dependency and consumption of U.S. goods.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

General Description of the Sample

Four hundred and one citizens of Trinidad and Tobago were interviewed in a random sample of Trinidad's television owning households. A small subsample of non-television households was also included. This sample represented a well balanced number of respondents from the two major cities and 23 towns and villages across North, Central and South Trinidad. Approximately 50% of the sample was taken in the North, 30% in the South, and 20% in the Central region of the island. Tobago was not sampled.

Thirty-nine percent of the sample was male, 61% female. Forty percent of those sampled was age 30 and under, 25% between 31 and 40, 16% between 41 and 50, 10% between 51 and 60 and 8% between 62 and 79 years of age. Average age of the sample was 37. It was a quite literate group. Sixtytwo percent had at least completed high school, and 10% had at least 16 years of education. Nine percent had had some foreign education.

This sampled population was also well traveled. Fifty-nine percent had traveled abroad, including other West Indian islands. In all, 70% countries were visited by this sample of 401 people. Twenty percent of the sample was

self-described as being among the Professional, Business Director/Executive Officer group. Thirteen percent was self-described as Supervisors/Department heads, 16%, Clerical staff, 24% Skilled and Semiskilled, and 21% unemployed.

Twenty percent described themselves as self employed. The self-employed group represented 39 trades and professions. Seven of these were classified as upper level trades. This category included professionals such as medical doctors. Twenty-one occupations were arbitrarily coded as middle level. This group represented entrepreneurs such as boutique owners and small building contractors. The third level comprised 11 relatively low skill trades such as retail vegetable and fish vendors. This arbitrary classification was interpreted as a measure of professional skill as well as status. However one must bear in mind that in Trinidad many "low level" occupations such as coconut selling bring in sizable incomes.

Income was quite evenly distributed among households. Twelve percent made less than $1000 Trinidad and Tobago dollars per month ($417 U.S.). Twenty-one percent claimed that their household income was between $2000 and $3000 per month. Forty-eight percent of all households earned over $2000 but less than $4000 and 22% claimed they made over $4000 per month. The average household income for this sample was in the $3000 to $4000 per month range. This

economic distribution for television viewing households is quite feasible given Trinidad and Tobago's current (1982) oil export situation and the fact that many homes include more than one income earner. Furthermore, television owning households may, on the whole, represent a more affluent group than the population at large.

Ethnicity is a fairly complex phenomenon in Trinidad. Thirty-three percent of the sample described themselves as either African or Negro; 34% described themselves as East Indian; 24%, mixed; 7% White (Caucasian, Syrian and Portuguese), and 3% Chinese. Sixty-four percent was married, 24% single with the remaining percentage being either widowed or cohabiting.

Trinidad: A Media Profile

Media Availability

Ninety-three percent of the sampled population reported having a working television, 66% had one or more working color television. Ninety-seven percent reported having one or more working radio. This survey was focused on television-owning households. The 7% non-television households represented a specifically requested subsample. Twenty-one percent reported having Video cassette recorders and 60% reported having stereos.

The average weekly radio listening reported was 799 minutes or approximately 13 hours per week. Fifty-five people, about 14% of those reported actually seeing video taped movies, spent an average of 324 minutes per week, about 5.89 hours, viewing video tapes. Overall, the average time spent viewing video tapes was 46.165 minutes or .769 hours per week.

Thirty-seven percent or 147 people reported actually listening to stereo. They spent an average of 457 minutes per week, about 7.6 hours. Overall, the mean was 168.5 minutes or 2.8 hours per week.

Trinidad's TV Viewing: The Average Week

Eighty-nine hours or 5368 minutes of TV viewing were presented to the Trinidad and Tobago TV viewer in the average week sampled. The sample response for the TVTIME measure was 741.4221 minutes (12.35 hours) seen per week. This measure, which was developed by simply asking respondents how much television they viewed each day for a week, differed from the TOTPROG measure which was a tally of the time respondents said they spent looking at each program each day during the same week. The TOTPROG measure, the most meaningful one in this study, totaled 1026.48 minutes (17.108 hours) per week viewing time. On the average, Trinidadians reported seeing approximately 2 1/2 hours of television programming per day.

The TOTPROG and TVTIME difference of 285 minutes a week or .68 hours a day seemed an alarming difference. However, both of these variables behaved consistently when correlated with most of the important variables in the study.

Average Trinidadian television viewers make their viewing selections from 121 weekly programs. These program times ranged from in length from the five minute Meditation, to several three-hour long sports presentations. Most program times ranged from 15 minutes to one hour. Sixty-seven of these shows, 55%, were U.S. originated. They represented about 60 hours or 67% of the available time. Little House on the Prairie was the most watched show.

Forty-five locally produced shows occupied 37% of the time slots but represented only 22 hours or 25% of the total time available. Community Dateline was the most watched non-news local show. Nine British shows accounted for 7% of the programs available. This represented about 7 hours per TV week.

The evening situation was not much different. Sixty-two prime-time shows accounted for approximately 43 hours per week. Thirty-one U.S. shows represented 50% of evening show times available. But they account for 27 hours or 63% of total prime-time. Twenty-three local shows accounted for 37% of the evening schedule. The 10 local

hours taken by these shows made up 23% of schedule availability. Eight British shows used 13% of the show slots and made up 14% (6 hours) of total TV time. Most of the local shows were government, information/interview shows or newscasts. The imported shows were primarily entertainment.

Most of Trinidad's TV viewing was done at night in prime-time, in the period between 6:30 and 9:00 pm. Seventeen hours of this prime-time period were regularly consumed each week. The high percentage, 40% focus on this part of the schedule might indicate sparse audiences for many local daytime shows. Put another way, 6% of one's time was usually devoted to British shows, 19% to local shows and 75% of one's viewing time was devoted to U.S. shows.

Not surprisingly, out of a highest score possible of four points, the average scores on the nation Appeal scale (admiration for various people and characteristics on TV programs sorted by nation of production) were, .057 points for U.K. appeal, .237 points for Trinidad-Tobago appeal and 1.865 for U.S. appeal. The following table summarizes these results.

Table 1

Trinidad and Tobago Television Schedule (November 1982)

Time Allocation of Shows by Nation of Origin

Average Weekly Allocations

Country	Number of Shows	% Shows	Total hours taken	% Hours
United States	67	55	60	67
Trinidad and Tobago	45	37	22	25
United Kingdom	9	7	7	7
Totals	121	99	89	99

Average Evening Allocations

Country	Number of Shows	% Shows	Total hours taken	% Hours
United States	31	50	27	63
Trinidad and Tobago	23	37	10	23
United Kingdom	8	13	6	14
Totals	62	99	43	99

Note: Shows are averaged over three weeks and represent
      regularly scheduled programs as well as the
      unique shows of that week.

Analysis of Selected Items

Separate analyses were done on items comprising the Appeal and Appreciation scales. These analyses presented further insight into the kind of program, personality, and life styles preferred by the local viewer.

The Appreciation Scale

The national appreciation scale was an indication of the respondents awareness of different nationalities on various issues. The responses were open ended so that the respondent could mention any nation which represented a salient image on the specific item. Each response was taken to be an indication of how the named nation was perceived by the group on a range of subjective perceptions. A maximum of 30 nations was reached across the six categories showing a rather broad range of national perceptions. Only the most mentioned nations are reported here.

In response to the first question -which nation is the most honest- 16% (64 people) said the United Kingdom; 13% (54) said Trinidad and Tobago; 10% (39) said the United States; 3% (14) said Canada and 1% said the U.S.S.R.

The next question, which was the best dressed nation, Trinidad and Tobago led the list with 27% (107 respondents); the United States was next with 16% (65); France was next most frequently mentioned with 13% (53) and the United

Kingdom was mentioned by 8% (32) of the sample.

Trinidad and Tobago topped the "happiest nation" item with 70% (281) of the responses. Six percent (25) mentioned the United States and 1% mentioned the United Kingdom.

The United States was the most frequently mentioned nation, when interviewers were asked to name the nation most concerned about personal health. The United States was mentioned by 150 respondents representing 37% of the sample. Trinidad was next frequently mentioned with 11% (44 responses). Ten percent (41) mentioned Canada. The United Kingdom was mentioned by 4% (18 responses), and Japan and the U.S.S.R. were both mentioned by 2% of the sample.

Twenty-eight percent of the respondents (113 people) mentioned Canada as the nation most concerned with its environment. Twenty percent (82) said the United States; 8% (31 responses) named the United Kingdom and the same number said that Trinidad was. Barbados was mentioned by 4% and Japan by 2% of the sample.

Twenty-eight percent (112 respondents) felt that Trinidadians cared most about their families. Fifteen percent (62) mentioned India. Six percent (26) said Africa; the same number said the United States; 4% percent (18) said the United Kingdom; 3% said China and Japan, and 2% mentioned Germany.

The Appeal Scale

Each item on the Appeal scale required that the respondent indicate which TV program or person was most attractive or was held to be in some way important to the viewer. The first question was: Of all programs shown on TV this week, both foreign and local, which has the personalities most attractive to you? Twenty-nine percent declined to select. Magnum P.I. was the most frequently mentioned program with 10% of the responses. Little House on the Prairie was next with 6% of the responses. Solid Gold and Three's Company were both mentioned by 5% of the respondents. Knotts Landing, Fall Guy and Benson were mentioned by 4% of the sample. All of these were U.S. programs.

For the question: which program tells you most about how to deal with problems in your daily life 37% did not answer or did not know. Thirty-three percent said Little House on the Prairie. Nine percent said Community Dateline. This daytime interview-talk show was the only local show mentioned.

Responses for the question: what TV program presents a style of life you would most want to follow, 57% did not select a show. Six percent said Magnum P.I., 6% percent said Knotts Landing, and 4% said Little House on the Prairie. The final question in the

series was: what TV program shows you the proper values by which you should live. Forty-seven percent did not respond. Thirteen percent said <u>Lou Grant</u>, and 7% said <u>Little House on the Prairie</u>.

In all, 78 shows were mentioned across these four items. An arbitrary 4% cutoff point was considered adequate for reporting. But even when using this 4% limit, certainly a minimal cutoff, only one local program, <u>Community Dateline</u> appeared. By the same token, <u>Little House on the Prairie</u> was the most named show overall and, by this token, may be considered the most popular show in Trinidad.

It is indeed noteworthy that for each question on the appeal scale significant numbers of respondents failed to select a show or personality which was attractive to them. This pattern was consistent across the entire item list. Especially sobering was the lack of responses for the question: what TV program presents a life style you would most want to follow. The default on this item was 57%.

One may speculate that viwers neglected to fully respond because they did not find that the television programs available reflected their ideals in personalities or styles of life. They may be passive, reluctant spectators in television entertainment, enjoined from becoming active participants due to the lack of self relevant content. This problem needs analysis in further,

in-depth research.

Media Profile Summary

Trinidadians saw 2 1/2 hours of television programming each day. They devoted 75% of their time to U.S. originated shows, 19% of their time looking at local shows and 6% of their time seeing British shows.

Across six categories describing nations, they showed a preference for Trinidad in the best dressed, happiest, and care most about their families categories. The U.S. was most often selected in the "care most about their health" and "care most about their environment" categories. The U.K. was most often selected in the "most honest nation" category.

The Appeal scale showed a decidedly U.S. pattern. Programs and personalities which drew more than 4% of the responses were the only ones reported. But even with this low limit, just one local program, Community Dateline, was mentioned.

Importance of Media in Culture

These results are more interesting when seen in the relief of how people saw the media in general, and television in particular, as contributors to culture. Question 15 asked the respondent to select which medium (radio, television, cinema, newspapers, or magazines) contributes most to Trinidad and Tobago culture. Forty-two

percent said television did. Twenty-five percent said radio. Sixteen percent said newspapers, 2% said magazines, and 1% said cinema.

An additional question: which of the media does most to bring Trinidad and Tobago closer together culturally, elicited responses about the role of the media in national social cohesion. Forty-seven percent said television was the most important medium. Twenty-one percent said radio, 11% said newspapers and 2% magazines.

Reliabilities and Correlations

Scale Analysis

In this section, reliabilities for the dependency and the U.S. Values indices are presented and discussed. The scales: Trinidad dependency, U.S. dependency, U.K. dependency and U.S. values were all developed by the researcher. They were Likert scales.

The only measure of values was the U.S. values index. But the dependency measure was taken across each of several nations. Reliability assessments were then done separately for each scale using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (see Table 2). Reliabilities were strong for the U.S. dependency (.76) and U.K. dependency (.75) measures and acceptable for the Trinidad dependency (.68) and U.S. values (.62) indices. Overall, these results were quite satisfactory for

this type of research. Satisfactory levels of reliability coefficients depend upon how, why and at what point in research a measure is used. "In the early stages of research on predictor tests or hypothesized measures of a construct, one saves time and energy by working with instruments that have only modest reliabilities" (Nunnally, 1978, p. 245).

For basic research, Nunnally argued, "increasing reliabilities much beyond .80 is often wasteful of time and funds" (Nunnally, 1978, p. 245)'. He recommends a reliability of .70 where higher coefficients cannot be easily attained. This advice covered two of the indices used in this study which were above .70, but did not pertain to two measures on dependency included here. The Trinidad dependency and U.S. Values attained reliabilities of .68 and .62 respectively.

These low to modest variables were included in the study because they represent fairly novel attempts to explore problematic constructs. The scores were reasonably close to Nunnally's limits, and several researchers have used scales with lower reliabilities in research on modernization and dependency. For example, Armer and Isaac (1978) reported using the Smith and Inkeles Short Form 5 (OM-11) scale as a measure of modernity, a concept which might be psychologically similar to dependency. The Omega unit-weighted maximum-likelihood reliability of this scale

is .633 (Heise & Bohrnstedt, 1970). The Spearman-Brown conversion of this scale ranges from .62 to .74 (Armer & Isaac, 1978 p. 321).

Another emphasis of Armer and Isaac's study which explored "determinants of behavioral consequences of psychological modernity in Costa Rica was the measurement of "modern behavior". This composite index, developed by the authors, comprised six dependent variable items and was accepted with an Omega coefficient of .533. This is lower than the .62 reliability coefficient for the four-item U.S. values scale presented in this study. The foregoing examples lend legitimacy to the indices developed and utilized in this analysis and reported in Table 2.

Table 2 presents correlations of viewing of nations' programs with the dependency, appreciation, appeal, and U.S. values indices. Tables, 4, 5, and 6, present intercorrelations of the indices. The correlations of the core variables with demographic variables are displayed in Table 7. They represent the full sample (401 respondents) except where otherwise indicated.

Table 2

Estimated Reliabilities for Constructed Scales

Scale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Dependency on United States (15 items)	42.25	6.41	.76
Dependency on United Kingdom (15 items)	44.05	6.66	.75
Dependency on Trinidad-Tobago (11 items)	32.77	5.37	.68
United States Values (4 items)	14.33	3.20	.62

Note: N = 395

Table 3

Correlation of National Programming Orientation with U.S.

Values and the Appeal, Appreciation, and Dependency Scales

	Proportion of U.S. programs viewed	Proportion of local programs viewed	Proportion of U.K. programs viewed
U.S. Values	.3297**	-.1519*	.3889**
U.S. Appeal	.4776**	-.1747	.4584**
U.S. Dependency	.2362**	.0119	.2234**
U.S. Appreciation	.1730*	-.0211	.1375*
Trinidad Appeal	-.1483*	.3352**	-.1780*
Trinidad Dependency	.2333*	.0387	.1138
Trinidad Appreciation	-.0029	.0527*	-.0439
U.K. Appeal	-.0125	-.0992	.1419*
U.K. Dependency	.1414*	-.0453	.1263*
U.K Appreciation	-.0260	-.0505	.0373

Note: * = $p < .05$.   ** = $p < .01$.   N = 401

Table 4

Intercorrelation of U.S. Scales

	U.S. Values	U.S. Appeal	U.S. Dependency
U.S. Appeal	.4114**		
U.S Dependency	.2703**	.3745**	
U.S. Appreciation	.2021**	.0758	.3299**

Note: * = p < .05. ** = p < .01.   N = 401

Table 5

Intercorrelation of Trinidad and Tobago Scales

	Trinidad Appeal	Trinidad Dependency
Trinidad Appeal	1.0	
Trinidad Dependency	.0297	1.0
Trinidad Appreciation	.1150*	.2929**

Note: * = p < .05. ** = p < .01.   N = 401

Table 6

Intercorrelation of the U.K. Scales

	U.K. Appeal	U.K. Dependency
U.K. Appeal	1.0	
U.K. Dependency	.0209	1.0
U.K. Appreciation	.1172*	.2491**

Note: * = p < .05. ** = p < .01.   N = 401

Table 7

Scales and Proportion of TV Watched
with Age, Income and Education

	Age	Income	Education
U.S. Dependency	-.0528	.1256*	.1190*
U.K Dependency	.0571	.0749	.0179
Trinidad Dependency	.2669**	-.0066	-.2399**
Proportion of U.S. television viewed	-.0655	.0716	.1717**
Proportion of U.K. television viewed	-.0354	.0598	.1590**
Proportion of Trinidad television viewed	.0398	.0521	-.0017
U.S. Values	.1580**	-.0671	-.0451
Age	1.0	-.1379*	-.3555**
Income	-.1379*	1.0	.3634**

Note: * = p < .05. ** = p < .01. N = 401.

Results and Discussion

Table 2 presents the statistics and Cronbach reliability coefficients for the three dependency scales. Three-hundred and ninety-five respondents were used in the analysis. Results were satisfactory. The moderate to high reliabilities indicated that this operationalization of the dependency construct is worthy of further analysis.

However, the reliability analysis did not address certain validity problems which should be examined. For example, what is here called dependency might better represent a propinquity for United States ideals rather than some sort of structural, psychological dependency. In this paper dependency means basic socio-political, economic and cultural need fulfillment.

It is easy to acknowledge the possibility of admiring a foreign country without being dependent upon it, wanting to become part of it, or wanting that system to be world dominant. These complications were avoided as much as possible by wording the questionnaire to separate mere admiration from deeper forms of psychological association.

Table 2 revealed a high positive correlation between proportion of U.S. television consumed and all the U.S. oriented indicators: U.S. values, U.S. appeal, U.S. dependency and U.S. appreciation. Proportion of U.S. programs seen showed a negative correlation with Trinidad

appeal, Trinidad appreciation, U.K. appeal and U.K. appreciation. This was as expected, as was the .0119 correlation coefficient between the proportion of local programs seen and U.S. dependency.

U.S. dependency was positively related to proportion of U.K. programs seen. Trinidad dependency was not related to proportion of local programs viewed but was positively (not significant) related to proportion of U.K. programs seen. Both Trinidad dependency and U.K. dependency showed significant positive correlations with viewing of U.S. television. These counter intuitive results present some difficulties of interpretation and deserve further statistical attention in future research. But they also raise the question of the nature of the dependency concept itself.

These questions revolve around the following possibilities. To begin with, dependency might be an integral part of the Trinidadian's socio-political psyche. One may speculate that dependency goes hand in hand with stability and reason that this is why Trinidad and Tobago has been one of the more stable emerging societies.

Results may also indicate that a person could simultaneously hold ostensibly incompatible allegiances without experiencing much psychological dissonance. Another alternative is that people may keep television viewing in its own perspective where it is separately processed for its

own intrinsic enjoyment and so does not affect national allegiances. Factors other than television may.

Furthermore, some nation's television programs may affect viewers differently, i.e., programs might present different images of different nations which would in turn affect consumers depending upon beliefs already held by the viewers. On the same note, some nation's programming might be ideologically weak, presenting very few situations appropriate for either overt or covert modeling behavior. The .0387 correlation of proportion of local programs viewed with Trinidad dependency may be looked at in this way. One may well argue that the local images produced on Trinidadian television are not definitive enough to create strong models for social, political or cultural patterningn.

It could also happen that a viewer might confuse different nations' programmming when there is similarity in program formats. In some cases an English or Australian production may be mistaken for an American program. Interpretational problems resulting from the positive correlations of U.K. program viewing with U.S. television viewing, U.S. values, U.S. appeal, U.S. dependency and U.S. appreciation may have stemmed from program confusion.

This question cannot be answered until it is determined how a person's expectations of certain nations' characteristics fit in with their expectations of that nation's programming. For example, it may be near

impossible for some not so well informed publics to discriminate among American, Australian, Canadian and English movies. Yet these publics may have quite different images and expectations of those nationalities. It is possible that the international trend of converging or homogenizing cultures, primarily Anglo-American culture, might affect hypotheses which deal with separate socio-political affections. In such cases conflicting results are bound to occur.

Proportion of U.S. TV consumed was not closely associated with U.K. appeal and appreciation. But proportion of U.K. viewing was highly, (and significantly) correlated with U.S. values and other U.S. orientated measures. This is most certainly due to the fact that proportion of U.K. viewing and proportion of U.S. viewing are so strongly correlated, .6759, significant at $p < .001$. Proportion of local programs seen was generally negatively related to U.S. values and other U.S. orientated measures. But the results were not strong. More interesting were some of the findings that dealt with local viewing. Local viewing was positively related to a Trinidad appeal (.3352 $p < .01$) and less so to Trinidad appreciation (.0527, $p < .05$).

Tables 4, 5 and 6 present cross-correlations of the indices by nation. For the U.S. indices all pair-wise comparisons, except the U.S. appeal with U.S. appreciation comparison (non-significant, .0758) were significant at the p < .001 level. Correlations were also positive, if somewhat weaker for the U.K. and Trinidad and Tobago cross comparisons. For both of these nations' scales, the appeal-dependency comparisons were not significant. These results may again reinforce the concept of psychological separation of simple admiration from dependent affiliation.

The last table, Table 7, examines relationships among selected scales with three demographics categories: age, income and education. There is almost no relationship between age and U.S. or (U.K.) dependency, indicating possibly, that older people have no special inclination to foreign dependencies; but age is also negatively (non-significantly) related to proportion of U.K. and U.S. TV viewing. age is positively related to Trinidad dependency. As dependency theorists might predict, both income and education are positively related to U.S. dependency. But only education is significant (p < .05), indicating that this relationship might be more complex than is normally assumed.

Little or no relationship was found between proportion of local programs viewed and people's income and education. A very small negative relationship was revealed between U.S. values and the income and education sales. Among themselves, the demographic measures were as would be expected. age was negatively correlated with income ($p < .05$) and education ($p < .01$). But income was positively correlated with education.

Analysis of Variance:Method

The Primary Variables

The main dependent and independent variables were examined using simple, one-way analysis of variance techniques. Thirteen demographic, independent variables and 27 dependent variables were included in the analysis. The 13 independent variables were: sex, age, ethnic-1, ethnic-2, education-1, education-2, income-1, and income-2, occupation, profession, employment-1, employment-2, region and urbanity. Each of these 13 independent variables was analyzed across 26 dependent variables. The following two tables outline the independent and dependent variables used in these preliminary, exploratory analyses. Taken together, these represent the main group of variables from which a narrower set of items were drawn and used in path model construction and hypothesis testing.

TABLE 8

Independent Variables and Their Categories

Independent Variable	Levels of Analysis
1. Sex	(1) Male (2) Female
2. Age	(1) Younger:under 35 (2) Older:over 35
3. Ethnic-1	(1) Black (2) East Indian (3) Other
4. Ethnic-2	(1) Black (2) East Indian (3) Mixed (4) Other
5. Income-1	(1) Low :up to $3000 per month (2) High :over $3000 per month
6. Income-2	(1) Low :up to $2000 per month (2) Middle:up to $4000 per month (3) High :over $4000 per month
7. Education-1	(1) Low :0-11 years (2) High:12-16 years
8. Education-2	(1) Low :0-6 years (2) Middle 7-12 years (3) High :above 12 years of education
9. Region	(1) North (2) Central (3) South
10. Urban	(1) Least (2) Medium (3) Most urban
11. Occupation	(0) Unemployed (2) Skilled/Semiskilled (3) Clerical Staff (4) Self-employed (5) Supervisor/Department head (6) Professional/Executive Director
12. Profession	(1) Low (2) Middle (3) High
13. Employment	(-1) Unemployed (0) Self employed (1) Otherwise employed

TABLE 9

Table of Dependent Variables

Dependent Variable Name	Operationalization of Variable Name
TATDEP	Dependency on Trinidad and Tobago
UKDEP	Dependency on the United Kingdom
USDEP	Dependency on the United States
TOTPROG	Total time spent viewing television
LOCPROG	Time spent viewing local programming
UKPROG	Time spent viewing United Kingdom programs
USPROG	Time spent viewing United States programs
LOCPROP	Proportion of Local programs viewed
UKPROP	Proportion of United Kingdom programs viewed
USPROP	Proportion of United States programs viewed
USVALUES	Four "U.S. values" measured on a Likert scale
CONSINTT	A measure of consumption of local products
CONSINUS	A measure of consumption of U.S. products
CONSINUK	A measure of consumption of U.K. products
RLA	Number of local records the responsent has
RJA	Number of Jamaican records the respondent has
RUT	Number of U.S. records the respondent has
TTAPPEAL	Appeal of local life styles and personalities
UKAPPEAL	Appeal of U.K. life styles and personalities
USAPPEAL	Appeal of U.S. life styles and personalities
TTAPPRE	Appreciation of a charaacteristic of Trinidad
UKAPPRE	Appreciation of a characteristics of the U.K.
USAPPRE	Appreciation of a characteristics of the U.S.
ALLRADIO	Total radio listening
VIDVIEW	Total video viewing by VCR owners
STERLIST	Total stereo listening by stereo owners

Note: The results of a selected number of the ANOVA (generally significant) tables are presented in Appendix B.

Variable Classifications

Several arbitrary variable classifications were made in the independent variable table. Some of these classifications need elaboration. The ethnic variable was broken down into four categories: Black, Mixed, East Indian and Others (Caucasians, Orientals, Syrians, Portuguese). The Mixed group was a sizeable, if unclear, distinction. Therefore that group was pooled with the Black group for separate analysis.

The Urbanity variable was also arbitrarily divided by allocating each of the 25 cities, towns and villages included in the sample into either one of three levels of urbanization. The most urbanized towns were: Bayshore, Belmont, Goodwood Park, Newtown, San Fernando, St. James and West Moorings. The medium urbanized included: Arima, Barataria, Carenage, Couva, Chaguanas, Diamond Vale, Diego Martin, Petite Valley, Philippine, Point Fortin, Siparia, Tunapuna, Princess Town, and San Juan. The least urbanized list included: Marabella, Oropouche, Point Cumana and Siparia. Admittedly, this was an arbitrary distinction. Different allocations are quite possible (see Appendix B).

There were six levels of Occupation. But these reflected divisions already in use in studies conducted by the marketing firm SCICON in their studies conducted in Trinidad. These categories were not the best possible

classifications for these purposes. Categories of profession were created by the researcher from the self-employed group. Each profession was evaluated on the basis of education and skill necessary and then allocated into high, middle, or low levels of profession. Needless to say, these are not perfect categories. Two variables were used for analysis of education: education-1 and education-2. These duplicated variables were used in many cases because the media impact on these groups in Trinidad have not been previously subject to statistical analysis. These breakdowns give a more refined look at what the categories mean and will be of value, not only in this analysis, but in subsequent studies.

Analysis of Variance: Results

The results of the Analysis of Variance statistics are presented in Appendix A. The results presented are based primarily on the analyses which have had significant results (lowest, p < .05) except where other significance levels are included for hueristic purposes and comparison.

Age

The older age group was significantly different (more dependent) on all the dependency measures, and all at the p < .01 significance level. They were also different on the local television viewing variable (p < .05), U.S. values (p

< .05), and consumption of U.K. goods (p = .014).

The older group had more local records (p < .001). But the younger group had more Jamaican music at home, and listened to more radio, and stereo, each at a significance level less than .001 probability.

Income

The income category revealed a somewhat different pattern. The lower income group was more U.S. appeal oriented (p < .001). But the upper income group was more U.S. dependent (p = .02). They were the greater consumers of U.S. products (p < .001), greater consumers of U.S. records (p < .01), saw more videos (p < .01) and listened to stereo more (p < .001).

Sex and Ethnicity

There was little differentation by sex. However, males tended to look at U.K. programs more (p = .045) and appreciated the U.S. more (p < = .0376). There was more differentiation by ethnicity.

For the variable Ethnic-1, the "Other" group (Caucasians, Chinese, Middle Easterners) was more dependent on the U.K. (p < .001) and on the U.S. (p = .006). They saw more U.K. shows both in viewing time (p < .001) and in proportion of shows seen (p < .001). This group was also a greater consumer of total programming (p < .05), more oriented to U.S. values (p < .01), U.K. appeal (p = .004),

and U.S. appeal. The East Indian group was the highest consumer of video tapes (p = .0172). The ethnic-2 variable added little new information to these results.

Education

Results were almost parallel for the the two education variables, education-1 and education-2. On both variables, the lower educated groups were more Trinidad and Tobago dependent than the more highly educated groups, both significant at p < .001. The lower educated groups consumed more local programming (p < .001 and p = .019), bought more local products (p = .026 and p = .075), and appreciated Trinidad more (p = .019 and p = .0318).

However, the more highly educated groups consumed more U.S. products (p < .001 for both variables), owned more U.S. music (p < .001 and p < .01), and saw more video programs (p < .01 and p < .05).

Region

The region variable showed the most differentiation. The South region was most dependent on all three dependency variables (p < .001 for all three). The North group was more likely to view local programs (p < .05) and higher proportions of local programs as well (p < .05). The South consumed more U.K. programs (p < .001), U.S. programs (p < .001), and a higher proportion of U.K. programs and U.S. programs, both at p < .001. The South was overall a greater

consumer of television programs than was the North (p .< .001).

The South scored higher on U.S. values (p < .001) and in consumption of Trinidad and Tobago products (p = .005). This group had more local as well as U.S records, significant at p < .001 for both variables The Central region showed higher consumption of U.S. products (p < .001) and the North was the highest consumer of U.K. products (p = .013). The Central region registered a greater Trinidad and Tobago appeal (p < .001), the North, greater U.K. appeal (p < .001); and the South, more U.S. appeal (p < .001), and U.S. appreciation (p < .001). Both North and Central groups were greater listeners to radio than the South (p < .001), and the South was greater on video viewing (p = .018).

Urbanization

The low urbanization group was more Trinidad and Tobago dependent (P < .001) and the high urbanization group more U.S. dependent (p = .081). But the low urbanization group scored highest on proportion of U.S. shows (p = .003), U.K. shows (p = < .0012), U.K. programs (p < .002) and U.S. programs (p < .003). There were also significant differences across the three groups on U.S. values (p < .001), low and middle urbanization being different from the high urbanization group.

The low urbanization group reported that they had more local records than the other groups (p < .001). They reported higher scores on U.S. records (p < .01) as well, and significant differences on U.S. appeal (p < .01) and U.S. appreciation (p .< .05). The high urbanization group was the highest consumer of radio programs (p < .05).

Occupation

Six levels of occupation were used in the preliminary analysis. The fifth level, Supervisor/Department-Head scored highest on Trinidad and Tobago dependency (p < .05) and U.S dependency as well (p < .05). This group was also highest on U.K. programs seen (p = .013) and proportion of U.K. shows seen (p < .001). They were the highest consumers of U.S. goods (p < .001), U.S. music (p < .01) and U.S. appeal (p < .001). Because each respondent has an opportunity to respond on each nation on the dependency item it is possible for a group to score highly on more than one nation index.

Profession

There was a significant difference between professions on Trinidad and Tobago dependency. Group 1, the low group scored highest on this variable (p < .05), and on U.K. proportion (p = .0580), U.K. programs (p < .05), total television program viewing (p = .0507) and on consumption of local products (p < .05). .

Employment

Using the employment-1 variable, there was a significant difference between the employed and the unemployed on seven dependent variables. The unemployed saw more local programs ($p < .05$) and proportion of local programs ($p < .05$). They were also higher on U.S. appreciation ($p < .05$). This is probably because the unemployed have more free days in which local programs may be viewed.

The employed group was the higher group on consumer of U.S. goods ($p < .01$) U.S. appeal ($p < .001$), radio listening ($p < .05$) and stereo listening ($p < .05$).

Employment-2 was another measure of employment. Here, three levels of employment were defined: self-employed, unemployed and otherwise-employed. The otherwise-employed group was the highest consumer group for U.S. goods ($p = .014$). The self-employed were most strong on U.S. appeal ($p < .001$) and the unemployed were highest on U.S. appreciation ($p = .019$).

Summary

The population sampled was well educated and well traveled. This group averaged 13 hours a week listening to radio and 17 hours a week watching television. On average, 121 TV programs were available to the Trinidadian viewer

each week. U.S. shows took 67%, local shows 25% and U.K. shows 7% of total programming time.

Most of what the average Trinidadian sees on television is U.S. originated, reflecting the reported propensity to find U.S. media personalities and life styles most appealing. However, a high percentage of viewers did not respond to items on this scale causing a speculation that they felt uncomfortable with, or unconvinced by, the images they saw on television. However, despite the heavy foreign content on television, respondents were most likely to rate television above radio newspapers and magazines as an important contributor to Trinidad and Tobago culture.

Likert scales developed to measure socio-psychological and cultural constructs such as U.S. dependency and U.S. values proved to be reliable. The U.S. variables, dependency, values, appeal and appreciation were all positively correlated with proportion of U.S. television viewed. This finding, as well as the Analysis of Variance results that the higher income and more educated groups were generally more U.S. oriented than the lower income and less educated groups, is in overall support of the dependency framework adopted in this study.

CHAPTER 5

THE PATH MODEL: DEVELOPMENT, ANALYSYS AND RESULTS

Model Development

The data provided enough information for a very complex analysis. Therefore, the model presented in this paper included a limited number of variables and assessed only one of a number of possible representations of the data. The ideal was the most simplicity for maximum information. The model finally developed focused on the United States because most media-cultural imperialism concerns have centered on the United States.Furthermore, the data gathered in this study (Table 2) show strong relationships between U.S. television viewing and all the prospective dependent variables.

The hypotheses ultimately proposed: (1) that U.S. television viewing leads to dependency upon the U.S. and (2) a structural model developed using this path will better represent dependency relationship than one in which this path is excluded. The model was developed using concepts gained from dependency theory and critical media. For example, income and education were used as background, exogenous, variables. Radical theorists have assumed that those with access to educational and economic upper levels

are more likely to be influenced by metropolitan societies.

Rationale

The effects U.S. television viewing was the central theme of the study. So U.S. TV consumption was a necessary part of the model. So was U.S. dependency. The appeal, appreciation and values components were also developed to represent previously hypothesized effects of U.S. television viewing.

This section describes why the variables were included in the model. It gives reviewers an appreciation of how this model was operationalized and developed, facilitates replication of the study and provides a basis for researchers attempting their own conceptual models for similar types of research.

The general statistics of the sample were outlined first. It was shown that U.S. television programming was the most frequent type of program seen on Trinidad and Tobago television. Local and British television programs were not as important conceptually as sources of daily living reference points. The United States thus became the nation of interest.

Subsequent data analysis was concerned with the respondents' self identification with a variety of nations socially, economically and politically. Here again, the strongest reference point was the United States. References

that tended to favor the United States were termed U.S. dependency. The same principle applied to the other nations on the questionnaire. Dependency was evaluated in two ways: (1) a behavioral measure, one's propensity to consume U.S. (and other) goods and (2) a putative psychological measure, one's responses on a Likert scale which measured dependency.

Other exploratory data analysis dealt with the importance of several demographic variables. This aspect helped to substantiate the position of dependency theorists that high income and education groups were more disposed to be dependent on foreign powers. The analyses showed that this was a plausible assumption and allowed a more detailed look at these variables.

Finally, eight variables were considered for the model: education, income, U.S. Television viewing, U.S. appreciation, U.S. appeal, U.S. values, U.S. dependency and propensity to consume U.S. goods. The data were then adjusted for missing data by including the subsample which accounted for all respondents who had answered all questions. The sample size was reduced to 297 respondents. This data tightening procedure strengthened the reliability of the model as a whole.

The Conceptual Framework

The model proposed here is not the most comprehensive model possible given the data available to the researcher at this time. It is a model developed merely to illustrate a point: that it is possible to use dependency theory and derive bases for quantitatively assessing the impact of foreign media on developing nations. The model tested in this study should be looked at as a simplified form of a general concept. The hypothesis was tested by comparing structural equation models to see which best approximates the hypothesized theoretical structure.

The model was developed and analyzed using the LISREL (for structural equation model) computer program. The correlation matrix of the selected variables was used as the basis of analysis. Maruyama and Mc Garvey (1980, p. 509), suggest that data from a single population, cross-sectionally gathered data set are better analyzed this way. Standard deviations are far easier to interpret than are non-standardized coefficients, especially when comparisons of coefficients is necessary. Use of the correlation matrix also gives a better conceptual understanding of the relationships proposed in this analysis.

The correlation matrix of the eight variables used in the model is presented in the following table. The correlations differ somewhat from those in preceding tables because the sample size used here has been adjusted for missing data. If effect, its a more compact, truer representation of the sample responses despite a 25 % loss of sample size. The correlation matrix makes clear the relationships among the U.S. television viewing, and the U.S. dependency and U.S. consumption.

Table 10

Correlation Matrix for Varaiables in the Model

---

1. Education

2. Income   .3093**

3. U.S.
   TV viewing   .1188*   -.0333

4. U.S.
   Appreciation .0900   -.0017   .1828**

5. U.S.
   Appeal   .2446** .0699*   .4815** .1139*

6. U.S.
   Values   .0854   -.0345   .3250** .2173** .4905**

7. U.S.
   Dependency .1031*   .0689   .3181** .3275** .4715** .3906**

8. U.S.
   Consumption .1825** .1097*   .1933** .2690** .3820** .3991** .3796**

               1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Note: * = $p < .05$ and ** = $p < .01$ (N = 297)

The Theoretical and Measurement Framework

Using the theoretical background in Chapter 2, and the preliminary analyses, the following model was outlined:

Figure 3
         Theoretical Model of U.S. TV Viewing and Dependency

```
                              U.S. TV (Y1)
            Path A        →  Viewing  ~ ~ ~          Path C
                                     \        ~ ~ ~
   Education(X1)        /                              → U.S. Dependency(Y5)
   Income    (X2)            Path E                    → Consumption of (Y6)
                                        |                 U.S. Goods
                                        ↓
            Path B      ↘  U.S. Values       (Y4) Path D
                           U.S. Appeal       (Y3)
                           U.S. Appreciation(Y2)
```
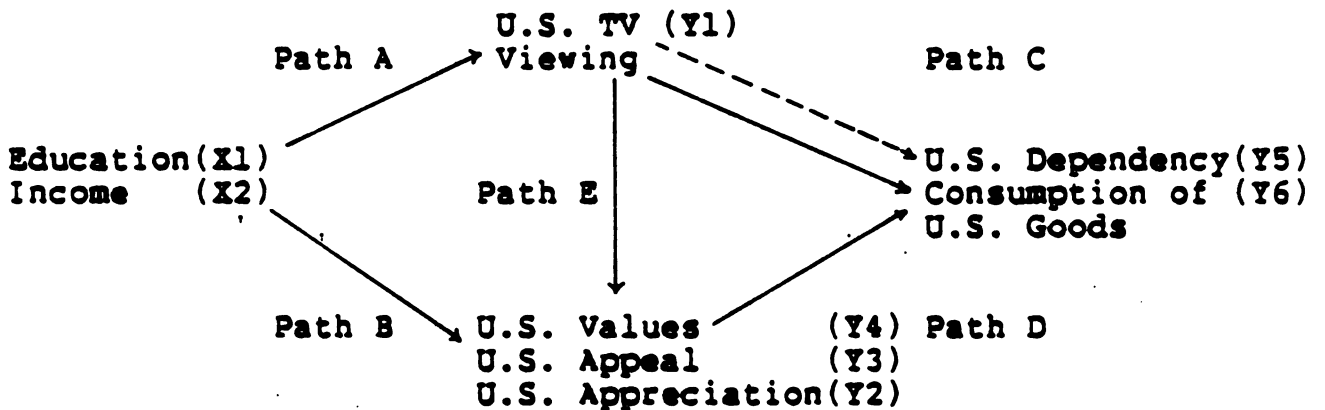
Note: See Table 11 for operalization of these variables. Education was measured by years of education. Income was divided into 6 categories. Category 3 is the $2000 to $3000 category range and an average of 3.5 may be interpreted as close to $3000 monthly income. U.S. television viewing is measured in hours per week. U.S. appeal, U.S. appreciation and U.S. consumption (4, 6, and 6-item scales) were indicies created by summing responses on the appropriate scales. Therefore, the maxima were 4 and 6 possible points. U.S. values and U.S. dependency were measured on 5-point Likert scales.

Table 11

Descriptive Table of Variables For Model in Figure 3

Variable	Description	Mean	Standard Deviation
Exogenous			
X1: Education (Q. 29)	Years of formal education	10.48	4.02
X2: Income (Q. 34)	Monthly Income	3.51	1.56
Endogenous			
Y1: U.S. TV Viewing	Time spent viewing U.S. TV programs	11.98	9.45
Y2: U.S. Appreciation	Appreciation Index for the U.S. in daily living	0.97	1.10
Y3: U.S. Appeal	Appeal Index for U.S. programs and life styles from TV	2.14	1.52
Y4: U.S. Values	Likert index: measure of U.S. values	3.47	
Y5: U.S. Dependency	Likert index: measure of U.S. Dependency	5.58	0.55
Y6: Consumption of U.S. goods	Propensity to buy U.S. goods where others are available	3.14	1.55

Note: Likert items are all five point scales.
N = 297 for all variables.

The theoretical proposition is based on the general dependency premise that citizens who are from high income homes and who have high education would be more likely to attend popular foreign media. They should be more attracted to foreign personalities, values and life styles and therefore more inclined to be psychologically dependent on the foreign nation for security in their world view: their need for books, information, a distant haven of security and a possible retreat in times of national insecurity.

In the case of Trinidad and Tobago, the United States seems to be the nation which fulfills all these functions. A practical result of this mentality would be to buy that nation's consumer products. This general proposition was graphed earlier in Figure 3 (above), which included all other possible path relationships. This "saturated" model formed the initial conceptual framework from which the hypothetical models were later developed and tested.

It was possible to examine the saturated model, or a more comprehensive inclusion of variables from the background data. But for purposes of this theoretical study, and for simplicity, the hypotheses were tested using the least complicated formulations. Conceptually, the test of hypotheses involved specific as well as generalized comparison of two different conceptual models. The first involved inspecting Model A, the full model, to see if it

represents an acceptable theoretical proposition. The second test of hypothesis was a test of the causal relationship between the U.S. television variables and the U.S. dependency variables. These conceptual propositions, comparison of Model A with Model B, are presented in Figure 4 and Figure 5.

Figure 4

Conceptual model of U.S. TV viewing and dependency
Model A: Path C included

U.S. Television (Y1)
Viewing

Income   (X2)
Education (X1)

U.S. Dependency (Y5)
Consumption of (Y6)
U.S. Goods

U.S. Appeal   (Y3)
U.S. Appreciation (Y2)
U.S. Values   (Y4)
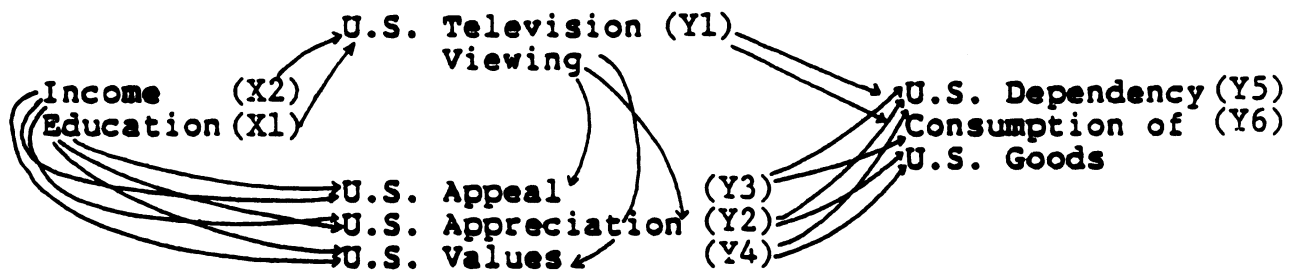
Figure 5

Conceptual model of U.S. TV viewing and dependency
Model B: Path C excluded

U.S. Television (Y1)
Viewing

Income   (X2)
Education (X1)

U.S. Dependency (Y5)
Consumption of (Y6)
U.S. Goods

U.S. Appeal   (Y3)
U.S. Appreciation (Y2)
U.S. Values   (Y4)
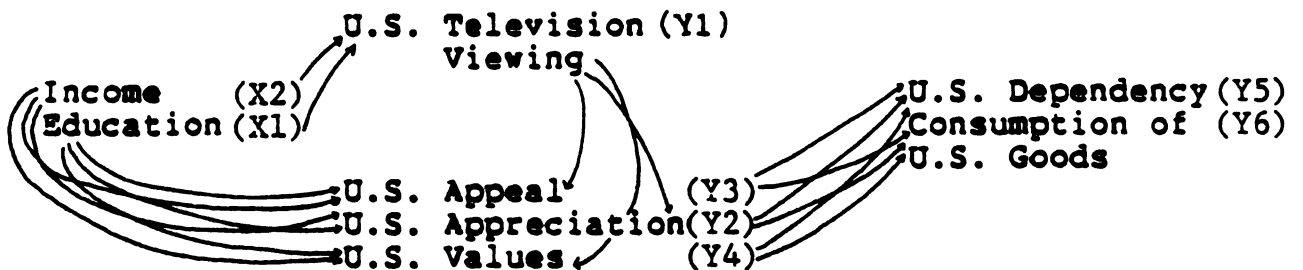
In evaluating the results of the models the researcher examined whether: (1) the models were correctly specified, (2) were the Chi Squares significant or non-significant, (3) are the first order derivatives of fixed the fixed parameters zero, (4) were the residuals as small as possible, and (5) were the standard error of The coefficients low enough to provide statistically significant estimates? Tables 12 and 13 present the relevant LISREL estimates for Model A and Model B. Only those path estimates directly related to the hypotheses are outlined in the tables.

Table 12

Selected LISREL Estimates for Model A

Path	Coefficient	R Square	Residual	Modification Index	First Order Derivative
X1: Education (Q. 29)					
X1 to Y1	.355*				
X1 to Y2	.021				
X1 to Y3	.068*				
X1 to Y4	.009				
X1 to Y5			-.049	.541	.385
X1 to Y6			.394	3.167	-.422
X2: Income (Q. 34)					
X2 to Y1	-.470				
X2 to Y2	-.014				
X2 to Y3	.029				
X2 to Y4	-.016				
X2 to Y5	____		.045	.655	-.164
X2 to Y6	____		.176	3.231	-.165
Y1: U.S. TV Viewing		.020			
Y1 to Y2	.020*				
Y1 to Y3	.074*				
Y1 to Y4	.019*				
Y1 to Y5	.003				
Y1 to Y6	-.006				
Y2: U.S. Appreciation		.038			
Y2 to Y5	.122*				
Y2 to Y6	.203				
Y3: U.S. Appeal		.268			
Y3 to Y5	.132*				
Y3 to Y6	.199*				
Y4: U.S. Values		.110			
Y4 to Y5	.148*				
Y4 to Y6	.500*				
Y5: U.S. Dependency		.391			
Y6: Consumption of U.S. goods		.241			

Note: Chi Square = 7.15; df = 4; p = .128; RMSR = .073
Model R squared = .076; Index = .949; Adjusted Index = .738
* = Individual coefficients are significant beyond the .05 level

Table 13

Selected LISREL Estimates for Model B

Path	Coefficient	R Square	Residual	Modification Index	First Order Derivative
X1: Education					
(Q. 29)					
X1 to Y1	.355*				
X1 to Y2	.021				
X1 to Y3	.068*				
X1 to Y4	.009				
X1 to Y5	____		-.050	.536	.382
X1 to Y6	____		.395	3.163	-.421
X2: Income					
(Q. 34)					
X2 to Y1	-.470				
X2 to Y2	-.014				
X2 to Y3	.029				
X2 to Y4	-.016				
X2 to Y5	____		.042	.533	-.148
X2 to Y6	____		.181	3.487	-.171
Y1: U.S. TV Viewing		.020			
Y1 to Y2	.020*				
Y1 to Y3	.074*				
Y1 to Y4	.019*				
Y1 to Y5	____		.233	1.155	-1.295
Y1 to Y6	____		-.391	.747	.480
Y2: U.S. Appreciation		.038			
Y2 to Y5	.126*				
Y2 to Y6	.198*				
Y3: U.S. Appeal		.268			
Y3 to Y5	.132*				
Y3 to Y6	.184*				
Y4: U.S. Values		.110			
Y4 to Y5	.154*				
Y4 to Y6	.491*				
Y5: U.S. Dependency		.316			
Y6: Consumption of U.S. goods		.239			

Note: Chi Square = 9.34; df = 6; p = .156; RMSR = .105
Model R squared = .076; Index = .774; Adjusted Index = .095
* = Individual coefficients are significant beyond the .05 level

Results: Comparison of Model A With Model B

Usually, the goodness of fit is tested with a Chi square where the value of Chi square is small enough to produce probability greater than .05. Joreskog and Sorbom (1978) suggest that Chi square can also be used to test the relative improvement in model specifications. This can be done by comparing the reduction in Chi square with changes in degrees of freedom as the model is changed. The changed model then represents a different theoretical position. When the alternative model is examined, changes in which the relationship between the Chi square and degrees of freedom remain relatively unchanged should be considered just capitalization on chance, whereas changes in the Chi Square that are substantively larger than the changes in degrees of freedom indicate a genuine improvement in the fit of the model.

In this comparison, model A is compared with model B, and the tests of hypotheses pertain to the coefficient path from U.S. television viewing to U.S. dependency. The subsequent paragraphs outline the procedures used in testing the hypotheses.

In Model A the Chi Square value of 7.15, p= .128, was not significant. It could be concluded that model A is acceptable. The overall rooted mean square residuals was .073. For the paths of interest- U.S. television viewing to U.S. dependency and to consumption of U.S. goods (Y1 to Y5 and Y6)- the coefficients were .003 and -.006 respectively. Neither of these estimates was significantly different from 0 at the .05 level. Therefore, Hypothesis 1, that there is a direct causal relationship between U.S. television viewing and U.S. dependency must be rejected.

For Hypothesis 2, that excluding the path just described would result in an improved structure, model A was compared with model B. The hypothesis was tested by taking out the paths of interest (above) and comparing the Chi Square of both models in the traditional way, using the probability, p < .05 to test the comparison.

The results were as follows. As with Model A, Model B was acceptable, though the Chi Square value was increased to 9.36, with 6 degrees of freedom, with p = .156 and the first order derivatives of the fixed parameters were not substantially different from those in Model A. Aside from the paths fixed at 0 (Y1 to Y5 and Y1 to Y6), there were no dramatic changes in estimates for other parameters. These differences were essentially proportionately relative to those found in Model A. Therefore paths from U.S TV viewing

to U.S. values, appeal, and appreciation (Y1 to Y2, Y3 and Y4) remained significant whether or not the path from U.S. TV viewing to U.S. dependency and consumption of U.S. goods (Y1 to Y5 and Y6) are included. These observations were then statistically assessed.

The hypothesis was tested by subtracting the Chi Square of Model B from that of Model A and testing for significance at the .05 level. This subtraction (9.34 - 7.21) resulted in a Chi Square of 2.13 which was less than the table value of 6.0 necessary for confirmation of the hypothesis at the .05 level. It was then necessary to conclude that the inclusion of the U.S. TV-viewing to dependency paths do not result in significant improvement to the overall fit of model A. They may be left out with no important effect on the model, so that Model B is a more parsimonious representation of reality than is Model A.

One must necessarily conclude from the results of both these tests that the hypothesis- U.S. television viewing is a direct cause of U.S. dependency- was not supported. However, as a whole, the model may be considered a useful one. In fact, a review of Tables 12 and 13 shows that there is a relationship between the television viewing and dependency variables but that these are mediated through the values, appeal and appreciation constructs. Therefore, television viewing directly affects these (values, appeal and appreciation) constructs significantly and they, in

turn, directly affect the dependency variables. All these relationships are significant at the .05 level (See Table 13). In summary, viewing U.S. television programs does affect dependency but only indirectly.

Discussion

Going back to the original assumptions of this study, one may conclude that the seminal point of this study has been made. It has been shown that (1) critical studies can be used to develop, clarify and accurately picture social relationships and (2) that quantitative analyses may be used to further sharpen concepts based on critical theory. The dependency notion is such a concept. It is now possible to build up specific dependency constructs, either utilizing the items developed here or from other sources, which might be affected by foreign mass media. Only through such concept formation can researchers evaluate complex questions of national identity as they are affected by communication industries. Furthermore, the results justify the holistic media research undertaken by Schiller, Smythe, Halloran and others and points out the theoretical relevance of dependency analysis in international media research.

The study demonstrates, for example, that the holistic notion of cultural imperialism may provide a better representation of <u>what</u> affects indigenous culture than does the specific-media-effects notions of the media imperialism approach. This discovery through the unlikely source of empirical research should have far reaching implications for the role of critical research in determining the effects of the mass media on society as a whole and the impact of foreign media in particular. Thus, it has far reaching implications for critical research in setting out which foreign media impacts are necessary and which are unwanted, and directs research efforts to those issues and media most relevant to critical action and public involvement, the <u>raison d'etre</u> of critical theory.

It is also necessary to look at these results in terms of the huge task of researching cultural imperialism. There certainly is room in this model for other determinants of dependency. Thus Clignet's position, outlined earlier, that foreign cultural effects on local cultures and population might be the result culture: the machinery, the books, the movies, [not merely of television] the curricula which affects indigenous culture (Clignet, 1971, p. 300) might prove to be an insightful one.

Unfortunately, overly generalized studies cannot provide sufficient specificity to show what are the most and least important factors in the dependency process. This lack of detail has probably led to the general rejection of all aspects of the critical/dependency studies done so far.

What quantitative analysis has done in this case is help determine how foreign TV-viewing is related to dependency. By so doing it makes possible the targeting of specific areas for future critical and quantitative research.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Summary and Discussion

This study demonstrates that critical research is vital in understanding the psychological makeup of and socio-cultural agenda of Third World citizens as they interface with burgeoning metropolitan media. Not only is critical theory important in giving knowledge, it is also important in generating theory. Third World scholars should break out of the mold of the quantitative versus empirical argument because there is no logical or scientific necessity in separating these two sets of procedures. Indeed, they can be simultaneously considered. An eclectic approach seems best able to contribute to knowledge in researching the question of foreign media impact on Third World societies.

Too many traditional researchers have felt that theirs is the only approach to science. By so doing they have arbitrarily, and sometimes arrogantly, discounted the scholarship and experience of a large and growing number of critical scholars from the Third World and metropolitan countries alike which have focused on the meaning of

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colonialism and underdevelopment in the national experiences of the poorer nations.

This paper earlier illustrated in the literature review that there has been an historical trend of both political/colonial dependency and media imperialism which have led to the more broadly based problem of information dependency between the dominant, colonial nations and the dependent, colonized countries. This unequal relationship among nations still exists, albeit in more modern forms and made more complicated by an increasingly sophisticated international information environment. The more this unequal relationship is unavoidable for Third World countries, and the more foreign mass media make up significant components of that inequality, the more acceptable should the term media-cultural imperialism become to the objective observer.

The pressing need for Third World countries is to develop constructive and relevant theory which will elicit the most meaningful questions from their media environments. This means, discarding, or at least holding in abeyance, the core assumptions of traditional approaches to international mass media research. As outlined earlier in the literature review, traditional media research, metropolitan oriented or not, has not offered Third World scholars a structure for properly analyzing their media environments, not because of the research tools themselves but because of the paradigms

they have come to represent. Therefore, theories traditionally developed should be scrutinized only skeptically before being incorporated into the corpus of research on underdevelopment. However, Third World scholars should not repeat the errors of their metropolitan colleagues. Their methods for generating new knowledge and developing theory must be eclectic when necessary, and comprehensive when a broad range of ideas need to be explored.

This study shows that one may logically outline a theoretical link between media effects in developing countries to media exports from metropolitan societies. But this link may be representative of a more complex set of concerns that may begin with economic relationships, and end with psychological dependency. At least the study makes clear two phenomena: U.S <u>dependency</u> does exist in Trinidad and Tobago in the socio-cultural realm and in U.S. media software. The question which followed was: how are these two dependencies related?

The initial analysis showed that the critical theorists' argument that income and educational level and urbanization played a role in media dependency had some basis in fact. And the initial, full sample correlations showed indeed a structure supporting the position that U.S. television viewing is positively related to U.S. values, appeal, dependency, and appreciation.

A structural equations model was used to to test the model. The results indicated that the path from U.S. Television viewing to U.S. dependency, as a direct path, is not the best description of the relationship. U.S. dependency seems to be more properly indirectly affected through U.S. appeal, U.S. appreciation, and U.S. values.

Future Research

In general, intelligent exploration ' of the relationships between social theory and socio-cultural environments ought to be undertaken, particularly in the communication sciences. This would be primarily an intellectual and pedagogic exercise leading to the development of social theory relevant to Third World conditions. Specifically, this would lead to relevant social theory in each underdeveloped nation. Only by subsequent analysis of this diverse body of work will appropriate generalized theory eventually emerge. The eventual result would be the creation of an indigenous culture of science in Third World environments contributing to nations' control of their own social and cultural health. As European science developed from a dialogue between people and all their environments, similarly must the Third World person discover their reality through dialogue with their own environment. First, however, more basic yoeman's tasks,

such as the development of data bases and sampling frames, must be accomplished. (Note 1)

The primary task of the researcher following on this study is a theoretical one; it is the task of understanding the importance of national autonomy, the level of consciousness which creates autonomy and the increasing levels of national consciousness that autonomy in turn creates. This must be based on normative and critical analysis of (in this case) Trinidad and Tobago society and its place in the world system. The blind transfering of metropolitan models in analyzing indigenous problems should be a thing of the past. Critical analysis will help shape our experiences in science. In the economic sphere it means critically exploring media ownership and how it is integrated with other economic enterprises in the society. It means evaluating the role and function of advertising enterprises and how they impact upon the social and cultural process- _vis_ _a_ _vis_ the necessity of having an informed and intelligent public. The rationale for this work is the maintenance of democratic institutions through the labor of social science. It means action for critical change.

Stressing critical research does not mean neglecting the quantitative sciences. It means simply putting quantitative enterprise in its appropriate context. Future research in the area of international effects of metropolitan media messages must, by definition, be

concerned with the effects of these messages. Effect is eventually expressed in behavioral terms. Therefore behavioral research must be undertaken, but informed and directed by the spirit of critical knowledge.

Behavioral work would entail finding and defining unique and indigenous, forms of socio-cultural expressions and attitudes. The world views of the Trinidad and Tobago citizen should be understood, and not only anecdotally, but scientifically. This, for national direction and development as well as for understanding the impact events beyond national control have on citizens.

Specific applications of these principles to this study are possible. Clearer definitions of local culture should be attempted, the concept of dependency should be tested and re-tested across a broader range of issues. It should be investigated in terms of its validity as a concept.

One may argue for instance, that at any given point in time dependency, as it is defined here, might have different meanings, or change in different ways, to a populace. Furthermore, mere thinking about a rich and powerful neighbor in a positive light may not reflect one's dependence on this neighbor. In other words, admiration may be a mere human expression, an innate human quality.

Here again, one may reflect on the defaults on the appeal scale. This may be seen as supporting evidence for Tsai's (1967) finding that imported media do affect superficial values but leave but the deeper essenses of the self undisturbed. Just as there are various levels of cultural selves there may be various levels of dependencies. For example, viewing <u>Dallas</u> may evoke an almost patronizing "those crazy Americans again" kind of entertainment addiction but never fully develop into "I wish I was an American" syndrome. These issues need further consideration in the media dependency literature.

The concepts of U.S. culture and values also must be explored more fully. For example, some popular American journals have expressed both Reggae and Punk forms of music as Western, meaning American. Caribbean and British sociologists might wish to argue with that sort of assessment.

Eventually, more case studies on foreign media impact should be done across several nations. This research should should follow consistent theoretical lines where necessary and where possible. Future research should be conceptually sound and every specific work should be seen as part of a theoretical chain leading from concrete metroplolitan transfers of information enterprises to their implantation in smaller countries and subsequent effects on indigenous

peoples.

Although this dependency framework gives theoretical form to international media research, it does not address substantive cultural issues. These have been expressed through critical analysis in this study but other systems of thought such as phenomenology (Alfred Schutz, Peter Berger and others) or symbolic interactionism (George Herbert Mead, Charles Horton Cooley and others) may also provide relevant perceptions without unduly disturbing indigenization concepts.

Both phenomenology and symbolic interactionism are relevant to media-cultural studies. Symbolic interactionism holds that people collectively shape ideas about the environments in which they live. Society is a system of shared meanings in which individuals participate. The bonds that unite people and shape their beliefs about themselves are personal constructions of meanings emerging from symbolic interaction (De Fleur & Ball-Rokeach, 1982, p. 21) Phenomenology stresses inter-subjectivity, shared understanding based upon social interaction. As a field of thought it is oriented toward the source of knowledge and being (Wuthnow, Hunter, Bergesen & Kurzweil, 1984, p. 8). Both of these paradigms focus on the individual as part of a socio-cultural environment through which the individual must be interpreted to be understood.

Generalized Implications

This research bears mainly on the principle of national identity. It is based squarely on the principle that a nation's people have the ultimate responsibility for how they see and define their place in the international community and how the international community sees and defines them. This interchange of images must be managed as much as possible by each small nation. They must allocate resources for the development of all information and cultural enterprises. In Trinidad and Tobago, Steel Piano or Steel Pan should be continually researched and marketed, folk dances, music, and arts should be <u>researched</u> and developed. A national archive of calypso and carnival should be established as part of a revitalized national museum; a modern people's library is a necessity; and funds should be allocated for journalists and scholars to handle the information and cultural needs of the society. Marketing the national image to the outside world should be a high priority. It must go along with internal control of unwanted foreign intrusion. This is a national responsibility and part of government trust.

The issue is not a media issue as much as it is an information one. Expanding, increasingly sophisticated, international information systems will certainly exacerbate Third World leader's trauma in making decisions in the

information sphere. Telematic systems, linking computers to satellites, Direct Broadcast Satellites, and their impact on information control and definition will make it increasingly difficult for underdeveloped nations to go the road of self expression. This new information era might indeed be one of permanent colonialism where some nations must merely choose sides.

On a more general level, significant national resources will have to be reallocated in developing new strategies for communication survival if Third World countries are to, at least, forestall the impending inundation of their concerns to those of the metropolitan powers. The basis of any countermeasures by Third World governments must be knowledge through research. Despite the implications of international organization involvement in articulating measures for controlling international information flow, the responsibility for informed regulation, if necessary, is ultimately the prerogative of the affected nations' governments. Research which addresses these points cannot be expected to gain funding from metropolitan societies. For these purposes information research must be focused and continuous. Ministries of Information should be efficiently organized for data gathering and analysis, and well equipped for both research and training.

Science itself is information. It is usually information of a specific purpose with a specific agenda. In a conditioning sense, it formulates what is to be argued and how the argument is to be carried out. In other words science is culture bearing. In pathology, its agenda might be epidemiology and tropical diseases; in agriculture, it might be animal parasites; in information the agenda might be national self definition in a post colonial dependent society.

To this end, necessity and urgency takes the place of ideology. Freedom of information should not mean a triumph of foreign images, ideologies and development priorities defined in far off nations. Freedom of information should begin in each country according to its own national interest for development.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS : ANOVA TABLES

TABLE A-1

F statistic is used. Significance level .05 or less.

Dependent Variable:				Dependency on Trinidad and Tobago			
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean		Ethnic-2			
1. Younger	159	3.460		1. Black	120	3.6160	
2. Older	394	3.791	.0000	2. East Indian	126	3.7467	
				3. Mixed	79	3.4841	
				4. Others	18	3.6497	.0449
Education-1	N	Mean	p <	Education-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	149	3.8396		1. Lower	129	3.8225	
2. Higher	193	3.5061	.0000	2. Middle	154	3.5374	
				3. Higher	59	3.5749	.0009
Region	N	Mean	p <	Urbanization	N	Mean	p <
1. North	150	3.5030		1. Lower	31	4.1098	
2. Central	80	3.5691		2. Middle	253	3.6680	
3. South	119	3.9029	.0000	3. Higher	63	3.3577	.0000

TABLE A-1 (Continued)

Dependent Variable:				Dependency on Trinidad and Tobago			
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Occupation	N	Mean	p <	Profession	N	Mean	p <
0. Unemp.	27	3.6344		1. Lower	8	4.0260	
2. Skilled Semiskilled	76	3.7102		2. Middle	44	3.7771	
3. Clerical	60	3.4697		3. Higher	8	3.2698	.0372
4. Self-employed	65	3.6996					
5. Supervisor Dept. Head	42	3.8523					
6. Professional Exec. Dir.	73	3.5408	.0433				

TABLE A-2

Dependent Variable:				Dependency on the United Kingdom			
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	198	3.0624		1. Black	226	3.0602	
2. Older	199	3.2260	.0016	2. Other	36	3.3790	
				3. East Indian	135	3.2228	.0002

TABLE A-2   (Continued)

Dependent Variable:				Dependency on the United Kingdom			
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <	Region	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	130	2.9887		1. North	184	3.0531	
2. East Indian	135	3.2228		2. Central	82	3.0298	
3. Mixed	95	3.1616		3. South	117	3.4009	.0000
4. Others	36	3.3790	.0000				

TABLE A-3

Dependent Variable:				Dependency on the United States			
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Income	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	200	3.4342		1. Lower	225	3.4701	
2. Older	201	3.6207	.0010	2. Higher	176	3.6013	.0222
Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <	Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	230	3.4548		1. Black	130	3.3622	
2. Others	36	3.7157		2. East Indian	135	3.6019	
3. East Indian	135	3.6019	.0067	3. Mixed	95	3.5443	
				4. Others	36	3.7157	.0005

TABLE A-3 (Continued)

Dependent Variable:		Dependency on the United States					

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Region	N	Mean	p <	Urbanization	N	Mean	p <
1. North	188	3.3729		1. Low	36	3.7675	
2. Central	82	3.3276		2. Middle	293	3.4896	
3. South	117	3.9642	.0000	3. High	72	3.5630	.0186

Occupation	N	Mean	p <
1. Unemployed	27	3.3872	
2. Skilled Semiskilled	97	3.4616	
3. Clerical	63	3.4270	
4. Self-employed	82	3.5282	
5. Supervisor Dept. Head	50	3.7150	
6. Professional Exec. Dir.	78	3.6182	.0296

TABLE A-4

Dependent Variable:		Time Spent Looking at Local Programs (minutes/week)					
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Education-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	163	142.5031		1. Lower	103	209.3689	
2. Older	143	180.7241	.0434	2. Higher	199	137.0503	.0003

TABLE A-4 (Continued)

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Dependent Variable: Time Spent Looking at Local Programs (minutes/week)							
Education-2	N	Mean	p <	Employment-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	88	202		1. Unemployed	11	270	
2. Middle	158	140		2. Employed	295	157.59	.0253
3. Higher	56	160.2	.0190				

TABLE A-5

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Dependent Variable: Time Spent Looking at United Kingdom Programs							
Sex	N	Mean	p <	Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Male	110	73.8636		1. Black	176	66.6409	
2. Female	197	57.0508	.0456	2. Others	29	100.3448	
				3. East Indian	103	45.5340	.0005
Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <	Education-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	90	54.7111		1. Lower	103	47.2816	
2. East Indian	103	45.5340		2. Higher	199	70.2563	.0069
3. Mixed	81	75.5556					
4. Others	29	100.3448	.0002				

TABLE A-5 (Continued)

Dependent   Variable: Time Spent Looking at United Kingdom Programs

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Region	N	Mean	p <	Urbanization	N	Mean	p <
1. North	151	50.1060		1. Lower	23	110.2609	
2. Central	60	24.4167		2. Middle	226	61.1858	
3. South	83	101.7229	.0000	3. High	59	50.848	.0021
Occupation	N	Mean	p <	Profession	N	Mean	p <
0. Unemployed	11	32.2727		1. Lower	4	150.0000	
2. Skilled Semiskilled	75	70.0000		2. Middle	37	58.6486	
3. Clerical	53	40.7547					
4. Self-employed	63	69.6826		3. High	8	78.7500	.0448
5. Supervisor Dept. Head	39	88.1538					
6. Professional Exec. Dir.	65	55.9385	.0132				

TABLE A-6

Dependent   Variable: Time Spent Looking at United States Programs

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <	Region	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	176	764.000		1. North	151	573.8742	
2. Others	29	770.517		2. Central	60	453.2833	
3. East Indian	103	603.047	.0592	3. South	83	1088.9036	.00

TABLE A-6 (Continued)

Dependent Variable: Time Spent Looking at United States Programs

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Urbanization	N	Mean	p <	Profession	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	23	985.6522		1. Lower	4	1159	
2. Middle	226	727.2832		2. Middle	37	766.0541	
3. High	59	540.3898	.004	3. Higher	8	446.2500	.083

TABLE A-7

Dependent Variable: Proportion of Local Programs Seen

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Education-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	163	.1062		1. Lower	103	.1521	
2. Older	145	.1316	.0718	2. Higher	199	.1020	.0008
Education-2	N	Mean	p <	Region	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	88	.1465		1. North	151	.1376	
2. Middle	158	.1037		2. Central	60	.1144	
3. Higher	56	.1191	.0351	3. South	83	.0970	.050
Employment	N	Mean	p <				
1. Unemployed	11	.1960					
2. Employed	295	.1155	.0345				

TABLE A-8

Dependent Variable: Proportion of United Kingdom Programs Seen							

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	**Sex**	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	163	.1423		1. Male	110	.1868	
2. Older	145	.1793	.0707	2. Female	197	.1454	.0524
Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <	**Ethnic-2**	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	176	.1687		1. Black	90	.1387	
2. Others	29	.2580		2. East Indian	103	.1165	
3. East Indian	103	.1165	.0005	3. Mixed	81	.1913	
				4. Others	29	.2580	.0002
Region-1	N	Mean	p <	**Urbanization**	N	Mean	p <
1. North	151	.1267		1. Lower	23	.2866	
2. Central	60	.0610		2. Middle	226	.1543	
3. South	83	.2637	.0000	3. Higher	59	.13091	.0012
Occupation	N	Mean	p <	**Profession**	N	Mean	p <
0. Unemployed	11	.0825		1. Lower	23	.2866	
2. Skilled Semiskilled	75	.1764		2. Middle	37	.1509	
3. Clerical	53	.1035					
4. Self-employed	63	.1763		3. Higher	8	.1994	.0580
5. Supervisor Dept. Head	39	.2273		**Education-1**	N	Mean	p <
6. Professional Exec. Dir.	65	.1428	.0117	1. Lower	103	.1221	
				2. Higher	199	.1744	.0105

TABLE A-9

Dependent	Variable:		Proportion of United States Programs Seen			

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <	**Region**	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	176	.2147		1. North	151	.1619	
2. Others	29	.21631		2. Central	60	.1242	
3. East Indian	103	.1695	.0607	3. South	83	.3089	.0000
Urbanization	N	Mean	p <	**Profession**	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	23	.2791		1. Lower	4	.3283	
2. Middle	226	.2041		2. Middle	37	.2157	
3. Higher	59	.1522	.0036	3. Higher	8	.1249	.0788

TABLE A-10

Dependent	Variable:		Total Time Spent Watching Television			

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	**Ethnic-1**	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	163	870.3		1. Black	176	1003.699	
2. Older	145	1010.3	.0709	2. Others	29	1008.2759	
				3. East Indian	103	801.0485	.0462
Region	N	Mean	p <	**Urbanization**	N	Mean	p <
1. North	151	812		1. Lower	23	1225.1	
2. Central	60	735.00		2. Medium	226	959.35	
3. South	83	1327.99	.00	3. Higher	59	735.77	.01

TABLE A-10 (Continued)

Dependent	Variable:	Total Time Spent Watching Television (minutes/week)						

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <

Profession	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	4	1524	
2. Middle	37	1008	
3. Higher	8	591	.0507

TABLE A-11

Dependent	Variable:	United States Values					

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	**Ethnic-1**	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	200	3.348		1. Black	230	3.4996	
2. Older	201	3.816	0	2. Others	36	3.9236	
				3. East Indian	135	3.6333	.0083
Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <	**Region**	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	130	3.465		1. North	188	3.2948	
2. East Indian	135	3.633		2. Central	82	3.0955	
3. Mixed	95	3.5570		3. South	117	4.3283	.0000
4. Others	36	3.9236	.0188				

TABLE A-11 (Continued)

Dependent	Variable:	United States Values							

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <

Urbanization	N	Mean	p <	Profession	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	36	4.4491		1. Lower	9	4.0278	
2. Middle	293	3.5060		2. Middle	46	3.5380	
3. Higher	72	3.4618	.0000	3. Higher	10	3.1250	.0845

TABLE A-12

Dependent	Variable: Propensity to consume Trinidad and Tobago products							

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <

Age	N	Mean	p <	Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	200	1.2700		1. Black	230	1.4348	
2. Older	201	1.4328	.0611	2. Others	36	1.1111	
				3. East Indian	135	1.2741	.0516

Education-1	N	Mean	p <	Education-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	150	1.4667		1. Lower	130	1.4769	
2. Higher	243	1.2675	.0267	2. Middle	196	1.3010	
				3. Higher	67	1.2029	.0754

TABLE A-12 (Continued)

Dependent   Variable: Propensity to Consume Trinidad and Tobago Products

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Region	N	Mean	p <	**Profession**	N	Mean	p <
1. North	188	1.3245		1. Lower	9	2.000	
2. Central	82	1.2439		2. Middle	46	1.2609	
3. South	117	1.5983	.0054	3. Higher	10	1.4000	.0455

TABLE A-13

Dependent   Variable: Propensity to consume U.K. products

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	**Education-1**	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	200	.0950		1. Lower	150	.0333	
2. Older	201	.0348	.0144	2. Higher	243	.0823	.0535
Education-2	N	Mean	p <	**Region**	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	130	.0385		1. North	188	.0904	
2. Middle	196	.0663		2. Central	82	.0610	
3. Higher	67	.1045	.1948	3. South	117	.0085	.0130
Urbanization	N	Mean	p <				
1. Lower	36	0					
2. Medium	293	.0614					
3. Higher	72	.1111	.0785				

TABLE A-14

Dependent Variable: Propensity to Consume United States Products							

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Income	N	Mean	p <	**Ethnic-1**	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	225	2.8711		1. Black	230	3.0043	
2. Higher	176	3.2727	.0004	2. Other	36	3.4444	
				3. East Indian	135	3.0148	.0879
Education-1	N	Mean	p <	**Education-2**	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	150	2.7200		1. Lower	130	2.7692	
2. Higher	243	3.2675	.0000	2. Middle	196	3.1429	
				3. Higher	67	3.3721	.0006
Region	N	Mean	P <	**Urbanization**	N	Mean	p <
1. North	188	2.787		1. Lower	36	3.556	
2. Central	82	2.817		2. Medium	293	3.007	
3. South	117	3.564	.0000	3. Higher	72	2.959	.0172
Occupation	N	Mean	p <	**Profession**	N	Mean	p <
0. Unemployed	27	2.444		1. Lower	9	2.3556	
2. Skilled Semiskilled	97	3.0103		2. Middle	46	3.1522	
3. Clerical	63	2.8254					
4. Self employed	82	3.0732		3. Higher	10	2.7000	.2434
5. Supervisor Dept. Head	50	3.5600					
6. Professional Exec. Dir.	78	3.1538	.0007				

TABLE A-14 (Continued)

Dependent Variable: Propensity to Consume United States Products							
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Employment-1	N	Mean	p <	Employment-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Unemployed	27	2.4444		-1. Unemployed	27	2.4444	
2. Employed	370	3.0973	.0038	0. Self-employed	82	3.0732	
				1. Otherwise employed	288	3.1042	.0148

TABLE A-15

Dependent Variable: Ownership of local phonograph records							
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Region	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	128	.5000		1. North	125	.5840	
2. Older	104	.9135	.000	2. Central	40	.3250	
				3. South	59	1.2373	.0000

Urbanization	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	14	1.3571	
2. Medium	169	.5680	
3. Higher	49	.8980	.0000

TABLE A-16

Dependent	Variable:	Ownership of Jamaican phonograph records				

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Education-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	128	.3125		1. Lower	67	.1045	
2. Older	104	.1058	.0005	2. Middle	160	.2750	.0103
Education-2	N	Mean	p <	Region	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	55	.1091		1. North	125	.2320	
2. Middle	125	.2800		2. Central	40	.3750	
3. Higher	47	.2128	.0689	3. South	59	.1017	.0131

TABLE A-17

Dependent	Variable:	Ownership of United States phonograph records				

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Income	N	Mean	p <	Sex	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	107	1.4886		1. Male	87	1.483	
2. Higher	125	1.7920	.009	2. Female	145	1.724	.0768
Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <	Education-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	134	1.6418		1. Lower	67	1.2090	
2. Others	27	2.0000		2. Higher	160	1.8062	.0000
3. East Indian	71	1.4789	.0712				

TABLE A-17 (Continued)

Dependent Variable:		Ownership of United States phonograph records					
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Education-2	N	Mean	p <	Region	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	55	1.2182		1. North	125	1.5120	
2. Middle	125	1.7440		2. Central	40	1.4000	
3. Higher	47	1.8085	.0021	3. South	59	2.0339	.0012
Urbanization	N	Mean	p <	Occupation	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	14	2.1429		0. Unemployed	3	1.667	
2. Middle	169	1.5030		2. Skilled Semiskilled	56	1.2857	
3. Higher	49	1.9388	.0039	3. Clerical	32	1.9063	
				4. Selfemployed	44	1.5682	
				5. Supervisor Dept. Head	39	2.0256	
				6. Professional Exec. Dir.	57	1.6140	.0087

TABLE A-18

Dependent Variable:		Appeal of the United Kingdom					
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <	Ethnic2	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	230	.0522		1. Black	130	.0385	
2. Others	36	.1667		2. East Indian	135	.0370	
3. East Indian	135	.0370	.0282	3. Mixed	95	.0632	
				4. Others	36	.1667	.0479

TABLE A-18 (Continued)

Dependent Variable: Appeal of the United Kingdom							
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Region	N	Mean	p <				
1. North	188	.0957					
2. Central	82	.0122					
3. South	117	0	.0008				

TABLE A-19

Dependent Variable: Appeal of the United States							
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Income	N	Mean	p <	**Ethnic-1**	N	Mean	
1. Lower	225	1.6356		1. Black	230	1.8862	
2. Higher	176	2.1591	.0009	2. Others	36	2.6111	
				3. East Indian	135	1.6370	.0041
Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <	**Education-1**	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	130	1.6077		1. Lower	150	1.2867	
2. East Indian	135	1.6370		2. Higher	243	2.2099	.0000
3. Mixed	95	2.2000					
4. Others	36	2.6111	.0003				

TABLE A-19   (Continued)

Dependent Variable: Appeal of the United States							
Independent Variable	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**	**Independent Variable**	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**
Education-2	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**	**Region**	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**
1. Lower	130	1.3308		1. North	188	1.6649	
2. Middle	196	2.0969		2. Central	82	.9756	
3. Higher	67	2.1791	.0000	3. South	117	2.7094	.0000
Urbanization	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**	**Occupation**	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**
1. Lower	36	2.6111		0. Unemployed	27	.5185	
2. Middle	293	1.7611		2. Skilled			
3. Higher	72	1.9167	.0008	Semiskilled	97	2.0130	
				3. Clerical	63	1.3651	
				4. Self-			
				employed	82	2.0000	
				5. Supervisor	50	2.4400	
				6. Professional			
				Exec. Dir.	70	2.0641	.0
Employment-1	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**	**Employment-2**	**N**	**Mean**	**p <**
0. Unemployed	27	.5185		-1. Unemployed	27	.5185	
1. Employed	370	1.9676	.0000	0. Selfemployed	82	2.0000	
				1. Otherwise			
				Employed	288	1.9583	.0000

TABLE A-20

Dependent	Variable:		Appeal	of	Trinidad and Tobago			

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Education-1	N	Mean	p <	Region	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	150	.3333		1. North	188	.3191	
2. Higher	243	.1770	.0075	2. Central	82	.3780	
				3. South	117	.0256	.0000

Urbanization	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	36	.0556	
2. Middle	293	.2662	
3. Higher	72	.2083	.0948

TABLE A-21

Dependent	Variable:		Total Time Spent Listening to Radio					

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	198	1042.5455		1. Black	227	871.7357	
2. Older	200	558.6500	.0000	2. Others	36	971.2500	
				3. East Indian	135	631.8889	.0669
Education-1	N	Mean	p <	Education-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	149	598.7584		1. Lower	130	591.8846	
2. Higher	242	921.1116	.0032	2. Middle	194	928.8351	
				3. Higher	67	820.6716	.0179

TABLE A-21 (Continued)

Dependent Variable:			Total Time Spent listening to radio				

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Region	N	Mean	p <	**Urbanization**	N	Mean	p <
1. North	186	939.108		1. Lower	35	363.2857	
2. Central	82	939.634		2. Middle	291	840.6944	
3. South	116	370.431	.000	3. Higher	72	845.6944	.0379

TABLE A-22

Dependent Variable:			Total Time Spent looking at video				

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Income	N	Mean	p <	**Ethnic-1**	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	223	29.0583		1. Black	228	25.1316	
2. Higher	176	67.8409	.0080	2. Others	36	66.6667	
				3. East Indian	135	76.2222	.0034
Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <	**Education-1**	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	129	18.1395		1. Lower	149	18.7248	
2. East Indian	135	76.2222		2. Higher	243	64.3210	.0027
3. Mixed	94	36.0638					
4. Others	36	66.6667	.0085				
Education-2	N	Mean	p <	**Region**	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	130	21.4615		1. North	186	30.3226	
2. Middle	195	53.6923		2. Central	82	38.7805	
3. Higher	67	77.0149	.028	3. South	117	78.2051	.0189

TABLE A-23

Dependent Variable:		Total time spent listening to stereo					
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Income	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	198	41.9697		1. Lower	223	111.9955	
2. Older	201	50.2985	.0534	2. Higher	176	240.000	.0002
Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <	Employment-1	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	229	1.7205		1. Unemployed	27	40.00	
2. Others	36	275.83		2. Employed	268	179.718	.0414
3. East Indian	135	128.44	.064				

Table A-24

Dependent Variable:		Appreciation of Trinidad and Tobago					
Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Ethnic-1	N	Mean	p <	Ethnic-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Black	229	1.7205		1. Black	129	1.7984	
3. Others	36	1.0278		2. East Indian	134	1.5970	
3. East Indian	134	1.5970	.0172	3. Mixed	95	1.4632	
				4. Other	36	1.0276	.0141

Table A-24   (Continued)

Dependent	Variable:	Appreciation of Trinidad and Tobago					

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Education-1	N	Mean	p <	Education-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	148	1.8176		1. Lower	129	1.8682	
2. Higher	243	1.4897	.0197	2. Middle	195	1.4974	
				3. Higher	67	1.4627	.0318

Table A-25

Dependent	Variable:	Appreciation of the United Kingdom					

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Age	N	Mean	p <	Employment-2	N	Mean	p <
1. Younger	199	.9196		-1. Unemployed	27	.4074	
2. Older	200	1.0200	.0033	0. Self employed	82	.5854	
				1. Otherwise Employed	286	.3671	.0721

TABLE A-26

| Dependent | Variable: | Appreciation of the United States | | | | | | |

Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <	Independent Variable	N	Mean	p <
Sex	N	Mean	p <	**Region**	N	Mean	p <
1. Male	153	1.118		1. North	187	.7059	
2. Female	243	.8765	.038	2. Central	81	.9385	
				3. South	117	1.4188	.0000
Urbanization	N	Mean	p <	**Occupation**	N	Mean	p <
1. Lower	36	1.4722		0. Unemployed	27	1.4444	
2. Middle	291	.9175		2. Skilled Semiskilled	96	1.0208	
3. Higher	72	.9306	.0186	3. Clerical	62	.8226	
				4. Self-employed	82	.7561	
				5. Supervisor Dept. Head	50	1.1400	
				6. Professional Exec. Dir.	78	.9872	.0194
Employment-1	N	Mean	p <	**Employment-2**	N	Mean	p <
1. Unemployed	27	1.4444		-1. Unemployed	27	1.4444	
2. Employed	368	.9375	.0236	0. Self-employed	82	.7561	
				1. Otherwise employed	286	.9895	.0194

APPENDIX B

MAP OF TRINIDAD WITH SAMPLED AREAS BLOTTED (●).
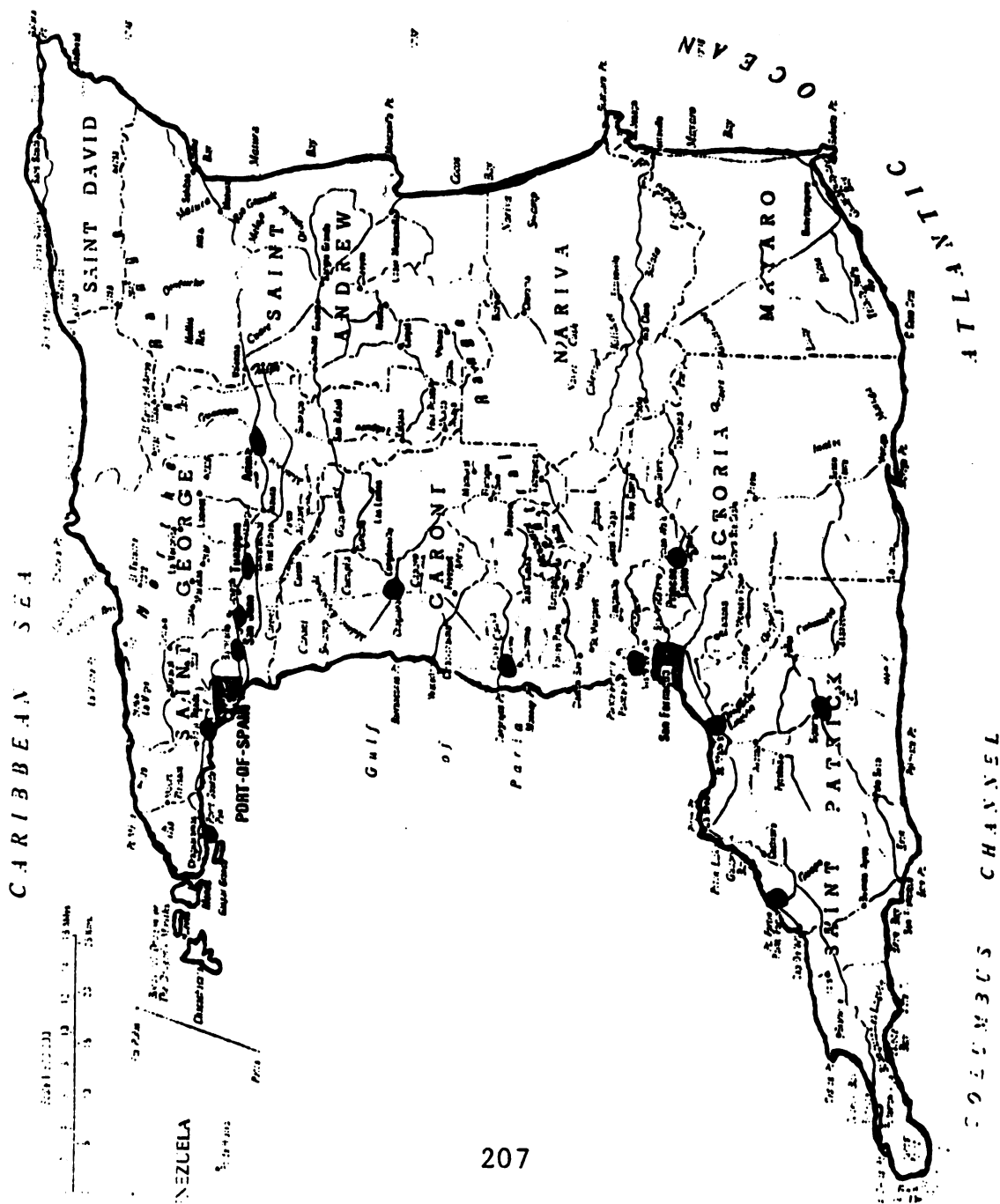
APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

MASS MEDIA USE AND CULTURE

Household Survey

Introduction

For: 400 Respondents

PLEASE ASK TO SPEAK TO AN ADULT IN THE HOUSEHOLD:

BEST CHOICE: ADULT OVER 18

REMEMBER: SELECT A GOOD MIX OF AGE AND SEX

CODE

Q1a   CARD NUMBER Q1a _____

Q1b   CASE NUMBER Q1b _____

Q1c   Good morning/afternoon/evening,
my name is _____ and I
am a field researcher for SCICON Associates
Limited. We are conducting a survey for one
of our Clients on Mass Media and Culture and
would be grateful if you answer a few
questions for us.

Let me assure that your name is not part of
the questionnaire and such is not required
for this survey.

We expect to utilize no more than 30 minutes
of your time.

CODE

Q1d   Week of Viewing   1   2   3   Q1d _____

      (INTERVIEWEE) ADDRESS: STREET AND NUMBER

      _____

Q1e   PLACE/LOCATION OF INTERVIEW: Q1e _____

      _____

Q1f   DATE INTERVIEW WAS CONDUCTED: Q1f _____

      _____

2.   Do you have a working Television set in
     your home?

Q2a   YES ☐   NO ☐   Q2a _____

Q2b   Number black and white _____   Q2b _____

Q2c   Number colour _____   Q2c _____

3.   Do you have a working radio in your home?

Q3a   YES ☐   NO ☐ IF NO, GO TO # 4.   Q3a _____

Q3b   If YES, How Many? _____   Q3b _____

Q3c   If Yes, How Many Short Wave? _____   Q3c _____

Q3d   If YES, What Station do you Listen to   Q3d _____
     Most on Short Wave? _____

4.   Do you have a working record player
     (stereo) in your home?

Q4a   YES ☐   NO ☐   Q4a _____
     If YES, what kind of records do you have?

Q4b   _____ Q4b1 _____

                                        2 _____

                                        3 _____

                                        4 _____

                                        5 _____

5. During the course of last week (.   )
    could you indicate how your time was spent
    using the different electronic media? Please
    estimate hours. ASSIST INTERVIEWEE.

Q5   RADIO

	TV	730	610	95 FM	100 FM	VD	ST
	5A1	5B1	5C1	5D1	5E1	5F1	5G1
Sunday Sign on - 12:00							
12:01 - 6:00							
6:01 - Sign off							
Monday Sign on - 12:00							
12:01 - 6:00							
6:01 - Sign off							
Tuesday Sign on - 12:00							
12:01 - 6:00							
6:01 - Sign off							
Wednesday Sign on - 12:00							
12:01 - 6:00							
6:01 - Sign off							
Thursday Sign on - 12:00							
12:01 - 6:00							
6:01 - Sign off							
Friday Sign on - 12:00							
12:01 - 6:00							
6:01 - Sign off							
Saturday Sign on - 12:00							
12:01 - 6:00							
6:01 - Sign off							

CODE

6. Now here is a list of TV programs shown last week on TTT. (GIVE THE RESPONDENT THE LIST OF TV PROGRAMS FOR THE LAST WEEK). Please look through the list carefully. (PAUSE TO ALLOW THE RESPONDENT TO LOOK THROUGH THE LIST). First, go through the list DAY by DAY and please tell me which TV programs you actually watched last week. PUT (✓) for all programs seen.

7. About how much time did you spend looking at each program you checked? Please say if you saw "The whole program" (all), "about half" ($\frac{1}{2}$), or a small part of the program ($\frac{1}{4}$). (QUESTIONS 6 AND 7 ARE AT END OF QUESTIONNAIRE).

8. Do you have a working video-cassette in your home?
   YES ☐   NO ☐   Q8   _____

9. If you viewed video last week, could you tell me the <u>names</u> of the shows you saw last week? Select the most memorable five.
   Q91 _____ Q91   _____
     2 _____   2   _____
     3 _____   3   _____
     4 _____   4   _____
     5 _____   5   _____

10. What video tapes do you have available now in the home? Select the most important five.
   Q101 _____ Q101   _____
     2 _____   2   _____
     3 _____   3   _____
     4 _____   4   _____
     5 _____   5   _____

Now let me ask you a few questions about the programs you watch on TTT. For each question, you must name only one program.

11. Of <u>all programs</u> on the list both foreign and local, which program has the person- alities (Actors/Actresses/News Announcers) most attractive to you? (WRITE IN THE PROGRAM NAME).
PROGRAM NAME: _____
(00) no program (99) Don't know/Refused   Q11 _____

12. Of <u>all TV programs</u> on the list, which program tells you most about how to deal with problems in your daily life?
PROGRAM NAME: _____
(00) no program (99) Don't know/Refused   Q12 _____

13. Many TV programs show appealing styles of life (life styles). What TV program on this list presents a style of life (life style) that you would most want to follow?
PROGRAM NAME: _____
(00) no program (99) Don't know/Refused   Q13 _____

14. Many TV programs, some people say, show them the proper values to live by. Which TV programs from the list best shows you the proper values to live by? (PROBE: values are: how to treat others at work, as friends, as business competitors etc.)
PROGRAM NAME: _____
(00) no program (99) Don't know/Refused   Q14 _____

CODE

15. Of these media: Radio, TV, Cinema, Newspapers and Magazines, which <u>one</u> do you think contributes most to Trinidad - Tobago culture? (CIRCLE RESPONSE)

   (1) Radio   (2) TV   (3) Cinema

   (4) Newspapers (5) Magazines (0) None

   (9) Don't Know/Refused   Q15 _____

16. Of these media: Radio, TV, Cinema, Newspapers, and Magazines, which do you think brings Trinidad - Tobago closer together culturally?

   (1) Radio   (2) TV   (3) Cinema

   (4) Newspapers (5) Magazines (0) None

   (9) Don't Know/Refused   Q16 _____

For the following set of statements please say whether you <u>STRONGLY AGREE</u>, <u>AGREE</u>, <u>ARE NEUTRAL</u>, <u>DISAGREE</u>, OR <u>STRONGLY DISAGREE</u>.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5
SA	A	N	D	SD

17a The needs of your community are more important than your individual needs.

   ___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q17a _____

17b The main goal of your life is to be financially comfortable.

   ___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q17b _____

17c The best type of society is not one in which time schedules are strictly kept.

   ___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q17c _____

17d Capitalism is the best socioeconomic system for you to live under.

   ___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q17d _____

CODE

17e You prefer the type of society where people do things rather than think about things.

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q17e _____

17f You admire priests more than you admire scientists.

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q17f _____

17g You prefer a family life with mother, father, and young children, but no other relatives in one house.

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q17g _____

18. An additional number of statements are listed below. Several countries are also listed. Answer EACH statement for EACH of the listed countries and say whether you: STRONGLY AGREE, AGREE, ARE NEUTRAL, DISAGREE, OR STRONGLY DISAGREE.

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1	2	3	4	5
SA	A	N	D	SD

18a Of all countries _____ offers its citizens the most economic equality.

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18011 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18012 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18013 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18014 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18015 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18016 _____

CODE

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
	1 SA	2 A	3 N	4 D	5 SD

18b Of all countries _____ has the best culture.

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18021 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18022 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18023 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18024 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18025 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18026 _____

18c For immigration purposes you'd rather go to _____ than anywhere else (or stay in Trinidad-Tobago).

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18031 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18032 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18033 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18034 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18035 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18036 _____

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE		

18d _____ offers the best opportunities for improving your social position.

Trinidad-Tobago

___	___	___	___	___	Q18041	_____

United Kingdom

___	___	___	___	___	Q18042	_____

United States

___	___	___	___	___	Q18043	_____

Japan

___	___	___	___	___	Q18044	_____

Cuba

___	___	___	___	___	Q18045	_____

USSR (Russia)

___	___	___	___	___	Q18046	_____

18e Compared to _____, Trinidad-Tobago has no culture to speak of.

Jamaica

___	___	___	___	___	Q18051	_____

United Kingdom

___	___	___	___	___	Q18052	_____

United States

___	___	___	___	___	Q18053	_____

Japan

___	___	___	___	___	Q18054	_____

Cuba

___	___	___	___	___	Q18055	_____

USSR (Russia)

___	___	___	___	___	Q18056	_____

18f We would never prosper as a nation if Trinidad-Tobago were to reply on _____ for most of our international trade.

Jamaica

___	___	___	___	___	Q18061	_____

CODE

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE		

United Kingdom

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18062 | _____ |

United States

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18063 | _____ |

Japan

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18064 | _____ |

Cuba

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18065 | _____ |

USSR (Russia)

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18066 | _____ |

18g If it were not for _____ television
programs, Trinidad-Tobago could have little
television programming to speak of.
West Indian

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18071 | _____ |

United Kingdom

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18072 | _____ |

United States

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18073 | _____ |

Japan

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18074 | _____ |

Cuba

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18075 | _____ |

USSR (Russia)

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18076 | _____ |

18h You would be more satisfied with the local
news media in Trinidad-Tobago if they had
more news from _____.
Trinidad-Tobago

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18081 | _____ |

United Kingdom

| ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | Q18082 | _____ |

CODE

STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18083 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18084 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18085 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18086 _____

18i Trinidad-Tobago really needs _____ as a friend if it is to become a truly developed country.

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18091 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18092 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18093 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18094 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18095 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18096 _____

18j Local radio stations could only get worse if they had more _____ music on the air.

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18101 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18102 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18103 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18104 _____

CODE

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18105 _____

Jamaican

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18106 _____

18k For honest news about the Caribbean you'd
much rather read a newspaper from _____
than one fron Trinidad-Tobago.

Jamaican

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18111 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18112 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18113 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18114 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18115 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18116 _____

18l You wouldn't mind it at all if _____, as
a nation should become the undisputed leader
in the world economically.

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18121 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18122 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18123 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18124 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18125 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18126

CODE

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE		

18m You would feel most secure about the future of the world if _____ were to be the strongest world power militarily.

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18131 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18132 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18133 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18134 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18135 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18136 _____

18n Books published in _____ are most important to your understanding of the world.

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18141 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18142 _____

United States

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18143 _____

Japan

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18144 _____

Cuba

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18145 _____

USSR (Russia)

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18146 _____

18o You would like your family to grow up in _____ than in any other country.

Trinidad-Tobago

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18151 _____

United Kingdom

___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Q18152 _____

CODE

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEUTRAL	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE		

United States

___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q18153 _____

Japan

___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q18154 _____

Cuba

___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q18155 _____

USSR (Russia)

___   ___   ___   ___   ___ Q18156 _____

19. Below are a number of statements. Please name the country which best fits the description.

Q19a   Of all nationalities _____ are the most honest.   Q19a _____

Q19b   Of all nationalities _____ are the best dressed.   Q19b _____

Q19c   Of all nationalities _____ are the happiest.   Q19c _____

Q19d   Of all nationalities _____ are most
- careful about their personal health.   Q19d _____

Q19e   Of all nationalities _____ are most careful about their environment (or living surroundings).   Q19e _____

Q19f   Of all nationalities _____ care most about their family.   Q19f _____

20. If you had to use each of the following commodities which brand (or COUNTRY'S PRODUCT) would you most likely use?

Q20a   Soft drink _____   Q20a _____

Q20b   Fast Food outlet (NAME CHICKEN PLACES, ETC).

_____   Q20b _____

Q20c   Toothpaste _____   Q20c _____

CODE

Q20d	Television sets _____	Q20d	_____
Q20e	Canned meat/Frozen vegetables _____	Q20e	_____
Q20f	Fresh Fruit (from which country) _____		
	_____	Q20f	_____

Now, just a few more questions before we end.

21. Have you ever traveled outside of Trinidad-Tobago?

Yes ☐   No ☐   IF NO GO TO 23   Q21 _____

If Yes, Go to 22

22. If yes, what countries have you visited? How many times have you visited each country? And how much total time have you spent in each country you have visited? LIST UP TO FIVE COUNTRIES ONLY.

	COUNTRY VISITED (1)	NO. OF TIMES VISITED (2)	TOTAL TIME SPENT (DAYS WEEKS OR YEARS) (3)		
Q22a	_____	_____	_____	Q22a1	_____
				Q22a2	_____
				Q22a3	_____
Q22b	_____	_____	_____	Q22b1	_____
				Q22b2	_____
				Q22b3	_____
Q22c	_____	_____	_____	Q22c1	_____
				Q22c2	_____
				Q22c3	_____
Q22d	_____	_____	_____	Q22d1	_____
				Q22d2	_____
				Q22d3	_____
Q22e	_____	_____	_____	Q22e1	_____
				Q22e2	_____
				Q22e3	_____

CODE

23. Could you please tell me your age? _____   Q23 _____

24a Could you please tell me the occupation
of the breadwinner of this household?   Q24 _____
1. Professional/Director/Executive Officer
2. Supervisor/Head of Department
3. Clerical Staff
4. Skilled/Semiskilled
5. Unemployed
6. Self Employed/Own Business*
(IF SELF EMPLOYED GO TO Q25. IF NOT GO TO Q26).

*25. If self employed - Ask nature of business   Q25 _____

26. How long have you lived at this address?
In Months/Years _____   Q26 _____

27. Where did you live prior to your present
address? _____   Q27 _____

28. RECORD SEX OF RESPONDENT

Male ____   Female ____   Q28 _____

29. What is your highest level of education?
_____   Q29 _____

30. Have you been educated abroad? _____   Q30 _____

31. Where? _____   Q31 _____

32. What is your marital status?
_____   Q32 _____

33. What is your ethnicity (racial background)?
_____   Q33 _____

34. Please tell me which income group your
    household is in: Q34 _____
    Less than $1,000 per month_____
    $1,000 - $2,000 per month _____
    $2,001 - $3,000 per month _____
    $3,001 - $4,000 per month _____
    $4,001 - $5,000 per month _____
    $5,001 - $6,000 per month _____
    $6,001 + per month _____

35. Could you identify the people who live in the
    household?   Male   Female

	Male	Female	
Pre Schoolers under 5	Q35a ____	Q35b ____	Q35a ____
			Q35b ____
Primary School Children (5-11)	Q36a ____	Q36b ____	Q36a ____
			Q36b ____
Secondary School Children (12-16)	Q37a ____	Q37b ____	Q37a ____
			Q37b ____
Adults 17-21	Q38a ____	Q38b ____	Q38a ____
			Q38b ____
22-25	Q39a ____	Q39b ____	Q39a ____
			Q39b ____
26-30	Q40a ____	Q40b ____	Q40a ____
			Q40b ____
Over 30	Q41a ____	Q41b ____	Q41a ____
			Q41b ____

6. Now here is an actual newspaper listing of TV programs
   shown last week on TTT. (GIVE THE RESPONDENT THE LIST OF
   TV PROGRAMS FOR LAST WEEK. BE SURE TO SELECT THE
   APPROPRIATE WEEK OF TV VIEWING). Please look through
   the list carefully. (PAUSE TO ALLOW THE RESPONDENT TO
   LOOK THROUGH THE LIST). First, go through the list DAY
   by DAY and please tell me which TV programs you actually
   watched last week. PUT ( ) for all programs seen.

7. About how much time did you spend looking at each
   program you checked? Please say if you say "The whole
   program" (all), "about half" (½), or a small part of
   the program (¼).

TV Week 1: October 10-16, 1982

SCHEDULE

SUNDAY 10th OCTOBER, 1982

A.M.
- 9.00 SIGN ON
- 9.05 SESAME STREET
- 10.00 MEDITATION
- 10.05 PEARLES AND BAM BAM
- 10.30 THE PRINCE OF CENTRAL PARK
- 11.00 RELIGIOUS UNITY
- 11.30 INDIAN VARIETY SHOW
- 12.30 CAPITOL SPORTS WRESTLING

P.M.
- 12.30 LOCAL SPORTS — BOXING — EDDIE MARCEL vs AVAILABLE STEWART vs RICARDO RICHARDSON
- 1.30 NATIONAL SPORTS FESTIVAL — August 1, 1982
- 2.30 CBS SPORTS SPECTACULAR
- 3.30 TPA GOLF 198 — THE DANNY THOMAS MEMPHIS CLASSIC
- 5.00 THE MISADVENTURES OF SHERIFF LOBO — Buster
- 6.00 BUCK ROGERS IN THE 25TH CENTURY — Time Of The Hawk

MONDAY 11TH OCTOBER, 1982

A.M.
- 7.00 NEWS
- 7.30 FURTHER SCHEDULE
- 7.30 LITTLE HOUSE ON THE PRAIRIE
- 9.30 A SHORT STORE OF BREATH — The Seven Part
- 10.00 DIAMOND — Ace In The Hole
- 10.30 NATIONAL PROGRAMME — Pace Of The Development
- 11.00 SERENGETI
- 11.30 THREE'S COMPANY
- 11.55 NEPTUNE JOURNAL — DR. SAMMY
- 12.00 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — PACE OF THE DEVELOPMENT
- 12.20 NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC SPECIAL — MEN OF THE SEA

P.M.
- 12.30 SIGN ON
- 12.40 MEDITATION
- 12.45 SESAME STREET
- 1.45 PANORAMA
- 2.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
- 2.30 SIGN OFF

TUESDAY 12TH OCTOBER, 1982

A.M.
- 9.00 SIGN ON
- 9.05 SESAME STREET
- 10.00 ROOM 222 — Dream's Raiders
- 10.30 MEDITATION
- 11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
- 11.30 PANORAMA
- 12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.
- 12.30 SIGN ON
- 12.40 MEDITATION
- 1.00 BATTLE OF THE PLANETS — Space Rocket Escort
- 1.45 READING FOR PLEASURE — Introduction And Motivation
- 2.00 PAINTING FOR PLEASURE — Homemaps
- 4.45 ANDIE AND ANDY — Newcomen
- 4.45 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — PACE OF THE NATION
- 7.00 PANORAMA
- 8.00 TAXI — I Wanna Be Armed
- 8.30 KNOTS LANDING — One Of A Kind
- 9.30 BORDIA BUDDIES — Haley's Dirt Hair
- 11.30 SIGN OFF

WEDNESDAY 13TH OCTOBER, 1982

A.M.
- 9.00 SIGN ON
- 9.05 SESAME STREET
- 10.00 THE UNTOUCHABLES — A Line For Pineapple
- 10.30 SCOUTING FOR TALENT
- 11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
- 12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.
- 12.30 SIGN ON
- 12.40 MEDITATION
- 1.00 MORK AND MINDY
- 1.30 BRANDON OUTDOOR ADVENTURES — Market And Trade
- 4.30 RAINBOW COUNTRY
- 4.45 MR. MERLIN
- 6.00 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — PACE OF THE NATION
- 7.00 PANORAMA
- 8.00 THE GREATEST AMERICAN HERO
- 8.00 YOU ASKED FOR IT
- 10.00 HOUSE — Fever
- 10.30 SIMONE A BREAK — Newsery
- 11.00 BENSON — Nutfruit A Restaurant
- 11.30 SIGN OFF

THURSDAY 14TH OCTOBER, 1982

A.M.
- 9.00 SIGN ON
- 9.05 SESAME STREET
- 10.00 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — NATIONAL DEVE...
- 11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
- 11.00 SCOUTING FOR TALENT — Odour Junior
- 11.30 SESAME STREET
- 12.00 THE ODD COUPLE — Password
- 12.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
- 12.30 SIGN OFF

P.M.
- 12.30 SIGN ON
- 12.40 MEDITATION
- 12.45 SESAME STREET

FRIDAY 15TH OCTOBER, 1982

A.M.
- 4.5 ABBOT AND CASTELLO CARTOON
- 5.00 HEROES HIGH
- 5.00 THE WORLD OF BUGS
- 5.30 FURTHER ADVENTURES OF OLIVER TWIST — Old Part #4
- 7.00 DOCUMENTARY
- 7.45 DOCUMENTARY
- 5.45 BARNEY MILLER — The Elections
- 8.30 COMMUNITY SPECIAL
- 9.00 SPECIAL — PRISONER OF CONSCIENCE
- 10.00 ANDIE AND ANDY — Italian Escort
- 11.30 BEST SELLER — GOLDEN MOMENT Pt. 5
- 12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.
- 12.30 SIGN ON
- 12.40 MEDITATION
- 1.00 SESAME STREET
- 1.00 ZORRO
- 6.30 ANIMAL EXPRESS — Police Dogs/Cascade Capers
- 10.30 TAXI — Honor Thy Father
- 10.45 TBD UNSEEN
- 12.15 FAD UNSEEN
- 7.00 PANORAMA
- 8.00 ARCHIE BUNKER'S PLACE
- 9.00 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
- 9.30 THE FALL GUY
- 10.00 SESAME STREET — Tyler, Black Page
- 10.00 KING'S CROSSING — Steve
- 11.00 NIGHT MOVIE — THE PURPLE HEART
- 11.30 SIGN OFF

SATURDAY 16TH OCTOBER, 1982

- 9.00 SIGN ON
- 9.05 MEDITATION
- 9.05 SESAME STREET
- 10.00 MANNIX — Murder Me
- 10.15 AGRICULTURE IN ACTION
- 10.30 SPECIAL — CHILD OF THE BORDA
- 10.30 SPECIAL — ADIN MANARE ENISAYE
- 11.00 SESAME STREET — Private Little War
- 11.30 MISSION IMPOSSIBLE — Steve
- 11.00 INDIAN MOVIE

P.M.
- BIG LEAGUE SOCCER
- NBA BASKETBALL — BOSTON CELTICS vs LOS ANGELES LAKERS — February 14, 1982
- 5.00 — DIVALI/DEEPA-VALI AT MATHURA
- 5.30 — MEMORIES OF MOHAMMED RAFI AND MUKESH
- 7.00 NEWS
- 7.30 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — NATIONAL LOTTERY
- 8.00 PIECE OF THE — Land Of Blue Ice
- 8.00 THE LOVE BOAT
- 9.00 SATURDAY NIGHT — GIRL, GOLDWATCH AND DYNAMITE
- 11.30 MOVIE NIGHT II — HOUSE OF USHER

TV Week 3: October 24-30, 1982

SUNDAY

A.M.

8.00 SIGN ON
8.10 MEDITATION
8.15 OUTREACH
8.30 CARTOONS
9.00 FAMILY THEATRE
10.30 INDIAN VARIETY SHOW
11.00 RELIGIOUS UNITY —
11.30 SPORTS — LOCAL AND INTERNATIONAL

P.M.

5.00 (TO BE ADVISED)
6.00 BUCK ROGERS IN THE 25TH CENTURY
7.00 — NEWS
7.15 SPORTS ROUNDUP
7.30 LITTLE HOUSE ON THE PRAIRIE
8.30 A SHARP INTAKE OF BREATH
9.00 SOLID GOLD
10.00 I REMEMBER NELSON
11.00 SEAGULL ISLAND
12.00 SIGN OFF

MONDAY

A.M.

8.30 SIGN ON
9.00 SESAME STREET
10.00 JUDD FOR THE DEFENCE
11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.

1.30 SIGN ON
2.00 MEDITATION
2.15 SESAME STREET
4.45 SHAZAM/LAND OF THE GIANTS
6.00 ABC CHILDREN'S FEATURES
6.30 AT HOME
6.45 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — FACE OF THE NATION
7.30 PANORAMA
7.45 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
8.00 BENSON
8.30 NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC SPECIAL
9.30 DIAL 999 — CRIME PREVENTION
9.35 THREE'S COMPANY
10.00 THE ROCKFORD FILES
11.00 MOVIE NIGHT
12.30 SIGN OFF

TUESDAY

A.M.

8.30 SIGN ON
9.00 SESAME STREET
10.00 ROOM 222
10.30 THE BRADY BUNCH
11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.

1.30 SIGN ON
2.00 MEDITATION
2.15 SESAME STREET
4.45 BATTLE OF THE PLANETS
5.15 RIKKI TIKKI
6.00 PAINTING FOR PLEASURE
6.15 MORK AND MINDY
6.45 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — FACE OF THE NATION
7.30 PANORAMA
7.45 DOCUMENTARY
8.00 TAXI
8.30 SCOUTING FOR TALENT
9.30 KNOTS LANDING
10.30 LILLIE
11.30 SOAP BUBBLES
12.00 SIGN OFF

WEDNESDAY

A.M.

8.30 SIGN ON
9.00 SESAME STREET
10.00 THE UNTOUCHABLES
11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.

1.30 SIGN ON
2.00 MEDITATION
2.15 SESAME STREET
4.45 RAINBOW OUTDOOR ADVENTURES
6.15 MR. MERLIN
6.45 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — FACE OF THE NATION
7.30 PANORAMA
7.45 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
8.00 PLAY OF THE MONTH
8.30 LOU GRANT
9.30 NURSE
10.30 THE TOP SECRET LIFE OF EDGAR BRIGGS
11.00 SHANNON
12.00 SIGN OFF

THURSDAY

A.M.

8.30 SIGN ON
9.00 SESAME STREET
10.00 JOY OF CRAFT
10.30 THE ODD COUPLE
11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.

1.30 SIGN ON
2.00 MEDITATION
2.15 SESAME STREET
4.45 ABBOT AND COSTELLO CARTOON
5.15 HERO'S HIGH
5.30 INSIDE TRACK
6.00 THE WORLD OF BIRDS
6.30 FURTHER ADVENTURES OF OLIVER TWIST
7.30 PANORAMA
7.45 DOCUMENTARY
8.00 BARNEY MILLER
8.30 HARPER VALLEY P.T.A.
9.00 A TTT REPORT
9.30 MAGNUM P.I.
10.30 BEST SELLER
12.00 SIGN OFF

FRIDAY

A.M.

8.30 SIGN ON
9.00 SESAME STREET
10.00 MANNIX
11.00 COMMUNITY DATELINE
12.00 SIGN OFF

P.M.

1.30 SIGN ON
2.00 MEDITATION
2.15 SESAME STREET
4.45 CARTOON
5.15 CARTOON
5.30 ANIMAL EXPRESS
6.00 12 AND UNDER
6.30 BEST VILLAGE
7.30 PANORAMA
7.45 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
8.00 — ARCHIE BUNKER'S PLACE
8.30 DANGER U.X.B.
9.30 WORLD IN ACTION
10.00 KING'S CROSSING
11.00 MOVIE NIGHT
12.30 SIGN OFF

SATURDAY

A.M.

8.55 SIGN ON
9.00 MEDITATION
9.00 TARZAN, LORD OF THE JUNGLE
9.30 PEBBLES AND BAM BAM
10.00 STAR TREK
11.00 MISSION IMPOSSIBLE
12.00 FAITH REVIVAL (fortnightly)

P.M.

12.30 SPORTS — LOCAL AND INTERNATIONAL
5.00 — VOYAGE TO THE BOTTOM OF THE SEA
6.00 (TO BE ADVISED)
7.00 NEWS
7.15 GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME — NATIONAL LOTTERY (fortnightly)
8.00 CODE RED
9.00 THE LOVE BOAT
10.00 MOVIE NIGHT I
11.30 MOVIE NIGHT II
1.30 SIGN OFF

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NOTES

1. For the Trinidad and Tobago researcher, specific recommendations following from this study would entail, first, the creation of more adequate sampling frames for social research in Trinidad and Tobago. This would ensure that meaningful data will be accurately collected. The aim should be efficiency and continuity of sampling methods so that latter methods can be an improvement on earlier attempts. Subsequent researchers and research would substantially benefit from this enterprise. This would be particularly helpful in replicating this or other studies which will necessarily depend upon sound antecedent sampling traditions.

    Availability of a well trained, articulate and honest cadre of interviewers is also an absolute necessity. Interviewers must be clear in their approach, consistent and follow interviewer instructions. They must have at least some notion of the science of sampling, and its art. The ultimate quality of social research depends upon the data which are gathered.