

TELEVISION INFLUENCE ON THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN NAIROBI //

BY

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DECLARATION

This is my original work and has not been presented for any of the study programme in the university.



MIRIAM WAITHEGENI SOGO

15/11/12

DATE

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as the university supervisor.



DR. MURIU NGUGI

NOV 15, 2015

DATE

2012

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research thesis to my parents; Mary Sogo and the late Fred Sogo for their unconditional support, emotionally, financially and morally. I also dedicate this research to my supervisor, Dr. MuiruNgugi for guidance and assistance through out the course.

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The author would like to absolve all individuals and institutions mentioned above for any errors of omission and /or commission or any interpretational error (s). For these, the author remains solely responsible.

MIRIAM SOGO

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ABSTRACT

Television is considered to be a must have in each household. Notwithstanding the benefits accruing from television, its effect on education has not been fully analysed. This is especially in language. The central problem of this study is that cumulative watching of television affects the academic performance especially in languages (Kiswahili and English) used by high schools especially day schools in Nairobi. Factors leading to the effect of TV on language have not been fully investigated and well understood hence hindering development of the above mentioned languages especially in day schools. To this end the purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which television influences the academic performance in languages. As a teacher of English in a day school in Nairobi, I have seen the drop in academic performance in languages.

The study sampled schools using purposive sampling techniques using the criteria of boarding status and type of school (boys, girls or mixed). 50 students and 10 teachers from the two schools were sampled. Data was collected using a questionnaire for students and interview schedules. Focus groups and interviews were used to capture the opinion of the parents. Data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics.

The major finding was that students were watching television but not getting to access programmes that educative in terms of fluent language use. Monitoring of what they watched on television by teachers and parents was lacking. Based on the findings, it is recommended that more educational programmes be introduced so as to improve on language. Parents need to monitor what their children watch at home and teachers should make sure that what is viewed helps students in their creativity and academic performance. With a ban put on tuition parents

need to make sure that they strike a balance between time spent on TV, playtime and other activities.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

- TV** - **Television**
- DVD** - **Digital Video Disc**
- HIV** - **Human Immunodeficiency Virus**
- AIDS** - **Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome**

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background Information

This paper evaluates the effects of TV viewership on school-going teens in Nairobi. Most children in Nairobi plug into the world long before they enter school. The earliest research into possible effects of television in the lives of children was fuelled by a growing concern on the issue at a time when the television industry exploded in the American landscape. Between the years 1949 and 1959, the number of television sets in America- which was by now seen as a status symbol-rose from 100,000 to 50 million sets. On average, 88% of American households owned a television set.(DeFleur& Lowery 1995).This can be likened to the rise in popularity of the mobile phone ownership and usage in Kenya between the years 2000 to 2003.

The rapid expansion of the television industry in America was unique in the sense that no other mass communication medium had expanded at such a pace. This massive increase of the medium was bound to raise the concern it did. It is worth noting that the popularity of the television set was due to the peace time economy enjoyed by the American people after the First World War. Americans for more than two decades, a period of uninterrupted, unparalleled economic growth, enjoyed this economy.

The public quickly adopted television technology, making the gadget a must-have in a majority of households. This rapid adoption of the television by the public was quickly followed by the public's concern over its effects on children's lives.

This concern shaped the direction of early research on the role of television in expansion of mass communication systems. The relationship between children and television can only be fully

understood in the context of a wider analysis of the ways in which both are constructed and defined.

Television in the lives of Americans became central in a span of less than ten years. Such a status symbol it was that in the early years, Americans had to cut down on their living expenses in order to purchase a television set. This can be likened to Kenya in the early nineties. With the number of television stations increasing, so did the number of people who owned television sets. Some acquired their sets through the instalment purchases, whilst others bought and installed antennas long before they purchased the sets in order to be identified as the proud owners of television sets. The emergence of television as a status symbol in America even led to occasional public outrage when it was discovered that some people receiving public welfare or other forms of relief had television sets.

By 1960, 150 million Americans had acquired television sets and had rearranged their lives to accommodate the schedule of programmes on their screens. This was more in homes with children, where such homes were twice as likely to have a set as homes that did not have children. At this time, television had become the greatest source of children's entertainment, displacing indoor and outdoor game, playmates, the radio, comic books, and baby sitters by a wide margin. The public however knew very little about the effects of television. A rising concern over what television could be doing to their children, from toddlers to teenagers was apparent. These concerns centred on whether the television medium stunted or stimulated children's mental growth and created armies of juvenile delinquents. They were also concerned that television would turn children into passive robots, incapable of intellectual creativity; that it would propel children into the adult world of sex, liquor, and violence for which they were not prepared.

The few research projects that dealt with the effects of television in early 1950s gave no assurance to allay these concerns. In 1951, a series of surveys undertaken by the National Association of Educational Broadcasters revealed that crime and horror stories comprised 10% of the programming time in four American cities. Other investigations by social scientists revealed that watching television had reduced the amount of time that children spent playing – both indoors and outdoors and reduced the amount of time that children devoted to helping out with household chores. Children who watched television also spent less time bonding with other children through active play and story- telling, listening to the radio, going to the movies and reading books. Observed was that the television medium had affected a majority of previously enjoyed daily life activities, cutting some into half and pushing others into extinction.

As to whether or not television could change attitudes or values, create passivity or creativity, enlarge or limit children's intellectual boundaries was unknown at this point. It was thus apparent that more research, particularly focusing on children to establish more succinctly the effect of television, was required.

Similarly, the definition of what it really means to be a child is an on-going process, which is subject to a considerable amount of social and historical variation. Policies on the regulation of children's programming often reflect much more fundamental assumptions about the nature of childhood. Likewise, the struggle between parents and children over what is appropriate for children to watch and to know is part of a continuing struggle over the rights and responsibilities of children and yet the definition of what is "childish" or "adult" is also a central pre-occupation among children themselves, not least in their discussions of television.

The search for negative effects has nevertheless gradually moved away from the cruder form of behaviourism (the so-called magic bullet theory), which was apparent in some of the early research on children's responses to television violence. Whereas the influence is still seen to flow in one direction, the emphasis now is on the range of intervening variables, which mediate between the stimulus and the response. According to the University of Michigan Health Systems, television (TV) has its good side. It can be entertaining and educational, and can open up new worlds for children giving them a chance to travel the globe, learn about different cultures, and gain exposure to ideas they may never encounter in their own community. Shows with a pro-social message can have a positive effect on a child's behaviour; programs with positive role models can influence viewers to make positive lifestyle changes. However, the reverse can also be true: Children are likely to learn things from TV that parents don't want them to learn. TV can affect a child's health, behaviour and family life in negative ways.

It's worthwhile for parents to think about what role they want TV to play in their family. Spending time watching TV can take time away from healthy activities like active play outside with friends, eating dinner together as a family, or reading. TV time also takes away from participating in sports, music, art or other activities that require practice to become skilful.

TV viewing starts earlier than other forms of media—often beginning before age two. In recent years, TV, video and DVD programs geared to babies and toddlers have come on the market—and now even a cable channel for babies. We don't know yet what effect TV-viewing by babies may have on their development. We do know that time spent watching TV replaces time spent interacting with caregivers and other children. Social interaction is critical to a baby's healthy development.

TV viewing among children is at an eight-year high. On average, children aged 2-5 spend 32 hours a week in front of a TV—watching television, DVDs, DVR and videos, and using a game console. It was also seen that children aged 6-11 spend about 28 hours a week in front of the TV. The vast majority of this viewing (97%) is of live television, 71% of 8- to 18-year-olds have a TV in their bedroom; 54% have a DVD/VCR player, 37% have cable/satellite TV 20% have premium channels.(Boyse, K. & Bushman, B. 2010)

Media technology now offers more ways to access TV content, such as on the Internet, cell phones and iPods. This has led to an increase in time spent viewing TV, even as TV-set viewing has declined. 41% of TV-viewing is now online, time-shifted, DVD or mobile .In about two-thirds of households, the TV is "usually" on during meals. There are no rules about TV watching in 53% of households of 7th- to 12th-graders. In 51% of households, the TV is on "most" of the time. Children with a TV in their bedroom spend an average of almost 1.5 hours more per day watching TV than kids without a TV in the bedroom (Boyce, K. & Bushman, B.2010).

Many parents encourage their toddlers to watch television. TV is seen to be replacing activities in the lives of children that you would rather have them do (things like playing with friends , being physically active, getting fresh air, reading, playing imaginatively, doing homework , doing chores).

Children who spend more time watching TV (both with and without parents and siblings present) spend less time interacting with family members. Excessive TV viewing can contribute to poor grades, sleep problems, behaviour problems, obesity, and risky behaviour. Most children's programming does not teach what parents say they want their children to learn; many shows are filled with stereotypes, violent solutions to problems, and mean behaviour.

Advertisers target children, and on average, children see tens of thousands of TV commercials each year. This includes many ads for unhealthy snack foods and drinks. Children and youth see, on average, about 2,000 beer and wine ads on TV each year. (Boyse. K and Bushman, B. 2010)

As children get older, too much screen time can interfere with activities such as being physically active, reading, doing homework, playing with friends and spending time with family. Of course, TV in moderation can be a good thing: toddlers can get help learning the alphabet on public television, students can learn about wildlife on nature shows and parents can keep up with current events on the evening news.

No doubt about it; TV can be an excellent educator and entertainer. But despite its advantages, too much can be detrimental. Children who consistently spend more than four hours per day watching TV are more likely to be overweight. Those who view violent acts are more likely to show aggressive behaviour but also fear that the world is scary and that something bad will happen to them. TV characters often depict risky behaviours such as smoking and drinking and also reinforce gender-role and racial stereotypes. (Boyce K. & Bushman B.2010)

Children's advocates are divided when it comes to solutions. Although many urge for more hours per week of educational programming, others assert that zero TV is the best solution. And some say it's better for parents to control the use of TV and to teach children that it's for occasional entertainment, not for constant escapism. That's why it's so important for parents to monitor the content of TV programming and set viewing limits to ensure that children don't spend too much time parked in front of the TV.

1.2 Problem Statement

There are critical shortcomings and challenges facing day school performance in Nairobi. The problem at hand is the negative influence of television on high school student academic performance especially in languages. With the rise of sheng and slang, English and Kiswahili have deteriorated. Boarding schools have a set routine and are able to study more in the school environment while day scholars do not have that advantage.

1.3 Purpose of study

Based on the problem stated, the purpose of this study will be to analyse what programs students are watching, the average number of hours they spend on television and the availability of educational programs.

1.4 Objectives of the study

- To find out the average number of hours high school students are exposed to television.
- To investigate the appropriate educational programming that is available in the country.
- To explore to what extent television affects language(Kiswahili and English).
- To determine how watching television by high school students affects academic performance.
- To determine if the students are monitored while watching television.

1.5 Research questions

- What is the average number of hours that a student spends watching television?
- What are the educational programs available on television?
- Does watching television affect the students' use of language?

- Does watching television affect student academic performance in secondary school?
- Who monitors what students are watching on television?

1.6 Limitations

There are a number of limitations to the current study. The first and foremost is that this study will limit itself to one county-Nairobi. For a more conclusive result, all counties should be studied. However, it is not possible due to financial and logistical constraints.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on the effects of the television was preceded by two decades of research on the effects of a very similar medium. Before the first television studies appeared the end of the 1940's, there were already several hundred studies of motion pictures. Among these were the important series financed by Payne Fund studies at the beginning of the 1930's and a number of studies on learning from instructional films. It is safe to say that almost every important question raised by television research addiction, effect on leisure time, contribution knowledge, effect of violence, relation to crime and delinquency, effect on mental adjustment and so forth was previously raised and considered in connection with the movies. (Strasburger& Bandura, 2002). Thus , television research began with a number of its chief questions pre-stated, tentative hypotheses ready for testing and some useful experience with methodology.

When television has come to a country, however, it has usually gone through the whole media research cycle. The first studies of its effects on children have usually been descriptions of viewing behaviour. How much time children spend on television, the hours they view television and programmes watched. The second question is the effect of television on leisure time. What it does to children's playtime, their time at home, their study time and their use of radio and movies. Thirdly, their reactions to television; the programmes they like, the content they believe and what frightens or amuses them.

Finally, research faces up to the really hard questions on the effect of television on values, knowledge, physical and mental health and social behaviour. Television effects are the result of an interactive process between the characteristics of television and the characteristics of its users.

Different children could watch the same television content and the effects could be different. A study done by Fritz Redl discussed by the researchers compared the reaction of disturbed children and normal children to selected TV programmes and found that“ ordinary” children would avoid extremely violent and frightening television content while problem children avoided nice and sweet programmes that showed loving parents and warm friendly relationships.(Redl Fritz 1969).

Schramm and associates presented the effects of television in four categories: physical effects, emotional effects, cognitive effects, behavioural effects.

1. Physical Effects

Schramm and associates found that the physical effects of television were not very important. Television caused no special eyestrain (when compared to reading) if the children viewed under the proper conditions. On the other hand, eyestrain was likely to occur if the child sat too close to the set, looked up at it or viewed it in a dark room. In addition, they found no or little evidence of any serious loss of sleep as a result of television viewing.

2. Emotional Effects

Television’s emotional effects were less innocuous. A television program frightened almost all of the children at one time or another. What mainly disturbed the children were situations where harm threatened some character or animal with whom they identified. The children were frightened when they viewed such violent and stressful programs at very early ages, and many became particularly frightened when they viewed television alone or in a dark room.

In general, the children liked and sought excitement on the television as well as in real life. However, they did not like the excitement to spill over into fear. The researchers raised serious questions about the possible effect of the high level of excitement in television, a level they saw as rising. They questioned what the effects of this excitement would be on children's perceptions of reality. Would it take the edge off the actual experience and lead children to demand something of real life that it cannot give to them? The researchers saw signs that this was happening, but felt that the answer could be found only through long-term research.

3. Cognitive Effects

Television probably helped some children more than others to grow into better-informed adults. It specifically helped those children who chose some of the reality experiences of television. On the other hand, television was more effective in stimulating interest in the children and contributing to already existing interest, rather than in stimulating creativity or activity. There were cases where television did stimulate some children to read books that had a relation to some program. However, Schramm and associates cautioned that the most frequent kinds of activities resulting from TV viewing involved either mimicking fads or adopting details that fit into an already existing interest – for example a boy who changes his batting stance following the viewing of a major league game on television.

Some people had hoped that television would raise the level of children's tastes: they wanted television to bring more culture into their lives. There was little sign that this happened, however, there were indications that it was creating a level of taste in children based on what it presented to the children. The researchers were disturbed by their finding that children learned to like

programmes available to them, even though they ordinarily would not have selected them. Another disturbing finding was the treatment of adult life by television: they found that television was portraying a “markedly erroneous” picture of adult life. This, they found was not a positive contribution to the child’s socialization process and might require some very tough adjustments late in life. Such portrayals of life, especially the depiction of sexual behaviour and violence, could lead to “premature aging” and even cause children to fear the process of growing up.

Behavioural Effects

The possible behavioural effects of television were the ones that had caused the most concern to both parents and researchers. Yet, Schramm, Lyle and Parker indicated that they were in almost every case controllable through the non-television life of the child. The researchers addressed the question of whether or not television viewing made children too passive. They concluded that in some cases it did and suggested that long-term studies were needed to determine the magnitude and lasting quality of such effects. They also argued that “the way to avoid an excessive passivity in the children is not to give them television as a mother substitute early in life: rather to make them feel loved and wanted at home, and so far as possible to surround them with friends and activities.”

The most common and most feared charge levelled against television was that it taught delinquency¹ and violent behaviour. The researchers argued that it was a contributory cause in some cases. They found that children who brought aggression to the television were more likely to remember aggressive acts portrayed there. The children wanted to be like the successful

¹ Delinquency is a complex behaviour growing usually out of a number of roots, the chief one being some great lack in the child’s life – often a broken home, or a feeling of rejection by parents or peer groups. Television is at best a contributing cause.

characters, whether those characters were good or bad. The researchers however cautioned that little delinquency could be traced directly to television.

Schramm, Lyle and Parker concluded that generally, the effects of television pointed as much to the parents as to television. Parents who provided their children with warm, secure relationships and an interesting home life had little to fear from television.

Television's effect on values, knowledge, physical and mental health, and social behaviour has been dealt with in a number of countries and cultures. Making allowance for cultural differences and for different kinds and amounts of television available, we can predict with some confidence what children's viewing patterns are likely to be when television becomes available, what changes television is likely to make in their schedules of leisure time, and what reactions to television they are likely to have. (Strasburger & Barbara, 2002).

Concerning questions on the fourth level, however, we are much less sure. We have no reason to think that television has an undesirable effect on health, or that it is a sole and sufficient cause of social behaviour like delinquency or crime. But television's relationship as a contributory cause to a social behaviour, its contribution to values and knowledge, its interaction with maladjustment and mental illness all these are immensely complicated matters and far from completely understood. Four large survey studies published in the last few years two in Europe, one in North America, one in Asia sum up and illustrate the present state of research in this field.

Conclusive evidence concerning the television behaviour, the effect of television on leisure time patterns, and the reactions to television, of large and representative samples of children has been provided. (Strasburger & Barbara, 2002) By reviewing other research, by comparing children

with television to children without television, and by extrapolating from survey data, they also gave some answers to the hard questions of effect. Yet in this latter field effect on knowledge, values, physical and mental health, and social behaviour their answers were less confident than in matters of television behaviour, leisure time effects, and reactions.

These studies have gone about as far as it is possible to go with survey methods toward understanding the effects of television on children. To go farther it will be necessary to make more use of experimental and clinical methods, preferably continued over a considerable time span. There is a promising line of experimentation concentrating chiefly on the relation of television to aggression but surprisingly little clinical evidence is, to be found in the literature. Even a great deal of additional research, however, would not necessarily answer these more difficult questions of effect with the same sureness that we expect in answers to questions about the physical world. It may be helpful to explain why this is the case.

2.1 Why these effects are hard to study:

Effects are harder to study in humans than in things, for one reason because we are unable or unwilling to experiment on humans as we do on things. What we do to a gram of iron, a beaker of hydrochloric acid, or a 3,000kilocycle radio wave, is not restrained by any worry that we might cause it pain, damage its personality, teach it a bad habit, or shame it before its peer group. Yet these considerations are constantly before us when we experiment with children. For example, our ethics forbid researchers to find out whether television produces delinquency by the obvious experimental method of trying to produce delinquency by means of television. Thus, many illuminating but severe experiments are ethically out of bounds when we deal with humans, and particularly with young humans for whose welfare we feel a special responsibility.

Furthermore, these effects which we are so greatly restricted in studying are extremely complex ones. A child responds to a television programme with his whole life. The television stimulus enters into a nervous system where many years of learned responses determine how the new stimulus will be perceived and what shall be done about it. In turn, the new stimulus, if accepted, may contribute to that storehouse and have something to do with a later response to an entirely different stimulus. The response to any television will be influenced to some extent by the group relationships of the respondent. In other words, any of the child's complex behaviour is likely to have a complex cause, and it is extremely hard to decide what part any single television programme played in causing it.

This is particularly important because the effects of a continuing stimulus like television may be cumulative. What seems to have no effect today may contribute to an effect many days from now, just as countless drops of calcareous water falling, during many years, from the roof of a cave build a huge stalagmite. (Adler, 1980) Because the causes are complex, we are likely to overestimate the effect of the television programme that seems related to them; because the effects are cumulative and often remote, we may underestimate the effect of a television programme that seems harmless. No parent, teacher, or communication researcher needs to be told that there are often great differences between the responses of different children to the same programme.

A child responds with all its related experience and whole of its individual personality. The chemical in the test tube waits passively for the experimental substance to be added, but the child comes actively to television, seeking, selecting, disposing, and reacting. What the child brings to television is therefore as important as what television brings to the child. It is a complex interaction, as a researcher, deciding how to study these complicated and obscure relationships

between cause and effect. It is difficult and has to make a cruel choice. If he wants a controlled and "clean" experiment he can set up a laboratory situation in which for a limited time he can control the experiences of two groups of children.

By designing the experiment so that one group has all the experiences of the other, it is possible to observe the different behaviours of the two groups and describe the differences, with some confidence, to the unique experience. But in the laboratory he can control only a fragment of life. He can do very well with the cumulative effects. He must be very cautious and conservative in specifying the conditions under which the effects he has seen in the laboratory will be seen in life outside the laboratory. On the hand, if he experiments in a life situation, then he has less control over his experiment. He may be working, as it were, with a contaminated test tube, or with hidden conditions. None of these problems is unique to television; the situation is common to studies of many kinds of human behaviour. Yet the difficulties are sufficient to warn us not to expect too much, too soon, and too specifically, from research on the effects of television.

2.2 Motivational Factors for Television viewing

The nature of the television medium and its programming content has been described. Valid research has been cited to document the phenomenal amount of time television is utilized by children. It becomes appropriate at this point to ask why? Why do children spend on the average about one-fifth of their waking hours in a sort of transfixed stupor before flickering television screens? Why does television have such a compelling appeal to youth? To begin with, it is close at hand and easy to use. In addition to its availability, television provides an excellent escape from the frustrations and humdrum routine of everyday life. At the same time it fulfils the desire to learn more about real life, that is, the reality which has not been directly experienced. In 1958, Himmelweit et al concluded that television gives children the chance to develop a certain amount

of sophistication about adult activities. It offers the opportunity to go behind the scenes for inside information about the world and people. On the emotional side, television offers security and reassurance through the familiar format and offers constant change, excitement and suspense. It provides escape from everyday demands with light heartedness, glamour, and romance, and permits the child to identify himself with different romantic heroes.

In a similar vein, Schramm et al concluded that television's appeal may be attributed to two main factors: First, the obvious reason; the passive pleasure of being entertained, living a fantasy, taking part vicariously in thrill play, identifying with exciting and attractive people, getting away from real-life problems, and escaping real-life boredom-in other words, all the gratifications that come from having a superlative means of entertainment in one's living room, at one's command. The second major factor according to Schramm and his associates is the acquisition of incidental information related to grooming, manners, custom, etc. In her article, "Why Do Children Watch Television?" Maccoby pointed out that television is used by different children in different ways. A child's motivation for viewing television is related to such factors as intelligence, personality, interpersonal relationships, social and emotional adjustment, age, and socio-economic background. There is varying interaction between different kinds of television programs and different kinds of children. When we say a particular kind of television program is interesting to a child, we make a statement not only about the program but also about the child. If it is interesting, it strikes a responsive chord in him-satisfies a particular need, supplies wanted information, or perhaps offers release from general tension. Schramm et al also suggested that television has sort of a subsidiary appeal related to social activities. It provides group entertainment and common experiences for conversational topics. (Alton Harrison, JR. and Eldon G. Scriven, 1969)

What is the appeal of television to children? For one thing, of course, it is popular because it is near a hand and easy to use. When the researcher digs into the psychological reasons beyond easy availability, he generally comes to about the same conclusion that the chief reasons for going to the cinema are, first, the desire to escape from everyday life, and second, and the desire to get to know real life better. In similar vein, conclude that television's appeal for children consists of giving them a chance to be "in the know" learning about the world and about people. On the emotional side, television offers security and reassurance through the familiar format and themes of many of its programmes, notably the family serials and the Westerns.

It offers constant change, excitement, and suspense. It provides escape from everyday demands with light-heartedness, glamour, and romance, and permits the child to identify himself with different romantic heroes. One can conclude that there are two main classes of reason: "first, the obvious reason: the passive pleasure of being entertained, living a fantasy, taking part vicariously in thrill-play, identifying with exciting and attractive people, getting away from real-life problems, and escaping real-life boredom in other words.

But there is, nevertheless, a significant component of information which children also get, usually without seeking, from television .The girls say they learn something about how to wear their hair, how to walk and speak how to choose garments for a tall or a short or a plump girl, by observing the well-groomed creatures on TV. They learn some details of manners and customs. Some of the boys say they learn how young men dress. Some of them say they learn a lot by watching the good athletes. Children will say of television: 'The news is more real when you see where it happens. It can also be suggest that TV is a social utility. For example, teenagers find that television is a useful tool in providing an excuse for boys and girls to enjoy each other's company, or furnishing something to do on dates. (DeFleur, M. &Lowery, S.1995)

The previous evening's television programmes provide an excellent common ground of shared experiences for conversations (Adler, 1980). This social use of television is not essentially different from social use of an automobile or any other instrument that bulks large in a child's world. I found out that when we say television is interesting to a child, we make a statement not only about the programme but also about the viewer: "If it is interesting, it strikes a responsive chord in him - satisfies a particular need, supplies wanted information, or perhaps offers release from general tension." A researcher on why children watch TV turns to describing the different functions of fantasy for different individuals

This has been the trend of many psychological approaches to children's viewing trying to puzzle out the interaction between different kinds of television and different kinds of children, trying to understand what it is in the personality, group relations, and stored experiences of the child that makes him seek one kind of experience rather than another, from television.

2.3 Television's effect on a child's leisure time:

About one thing the research leaves us in no doubt whatsoever: when children have television available, they make a phenomenal amount of use of it. Estimates from a number of countries cited in the following bibliography indicate that the average child of elementary school and high school age(6 to 16)devote so much time to television from 12 to 24 hours a week. The studies also indicate that elementary schoolchildren spend, on the average, a lot more time viewing than do high school students. In the United States, where the most extensive measurements of viewing by children of different ages have been made, (12) it is estimated that a child of 3 is already averaging about 45 minutes a day on television.

By the time the child is in the first grade (age 5 or 6), he is spending about two hours a day in front of the television set. The amount of time spent slowly increases with age and with later bedtimes, until a peak reached an age 12 or 13 when the average child is viewing about three hours a day. During the high school years (13 to 17) the viewing time again decreases to about 2 hours a day. This curve is consistent with other evidence on the subject, and the daily averages are not unlike those found in England or Japan. In England, the study found that children 10-11 and 13-14 years old averaged about 1.9 hours a day, which is a little less than the American average for those ages.

This may be because less television and fewer station choices are available in England. The research found that German youth, 15 to 20 years old, averaged only 7 to 8 hours a week, or barely over an hour a day. It is not known whether this is a result of less television being available in Germany, of the age-group selected, or of a real difference in television's attractiveness to young people of different countries. Wherever television becomes available for a number of hours a day, it dominates the leisure time of children. The study suggested several principles that help to explain the changes television brings about in leisure patterns.

The activities most readily sacrificed are those which satisfy the same needs as television, but less effectively. For example, younger children will go less often to the cinema when they have television in their homes; they will read fewer comic books, and read less magazine fiction; they will spend less time on radio. These activities meet about the same needs as television. On the other hand, the reading of newspapers and non-fiction books will hardly be affected by television, because these activities answer different needs than television. Similarly, the adolescent's movie-going will be less affected than the younger child's, because for the

adolescent the movies represent a valued social experience, whereas for the younger child they represent television in a theatre.

For children, especially adolescents, radio comes to have a different function after television comes into use; instead of a comedy, drama, variety source, it tends to become a source of popular music. And, finally, the marginal and unorganized activities are more likely to be replaced by television than are the organized ones, until there is "a consequent reduction of leisure itself as children's lives inevitably become more crowded". These are the three principles that when television comes in, functionally similar activities will be replaced, whereas functionally different ones will not; that certain activity (for example, radio-listening) will be transformed in function; and that marginal or unorganized activities will be replaced before purposive and organized ones.

Children's bedtime tends to be slightly later in television homes (17 minutes in Japan, 11 in Canada). In Japan, homework time was found to be reduced about 1 minute an evening for when television came in; Canada found a slight, but not significant, difference in homework time. In Canada, the children in a television town spent significantly less time playing than did the children in a comparable town without television. In England and Japan, however, no significant decrease was noted in time devoted to social activity.

2.4 Results and findings

Violence:

To give perspective on just how much violence children see on TV, consider this: The average American child will witness 200,000 violent acts on television by age 18. Children may become desensitized to violence and more aggressive. TV violence sometimes begs for imitation because

violence is often promoted as a fun and effective way to get what you want. Many violent acts are perpetrated by the "good guys," whom children have been taught to admire. Even though children are taught by their parents that it's not right to hit, television says it's OK to bite, hit, or kick if you're the good guy. This can lead to confusion when children try to understand the difference between right and wrong. And the "bad guys" on TV aren't always held responsible or punished for their actions.

Young children are particularly frightened by scary and violent images. Simply telling children that those images aren't real won't console them, because they can't yet distinguish between fantasy and reality. Behaviour problems, nightmares, and difficulty sleeping may follow exposure to media violence. Older children also can be frightened by violent images, whether they appear on fictional shows, the news, or reality-based shows. Reasoning with children this age will help them, so it's important to provide reassuring and honest information to help ease fears. However, consider not letting your children view programs that they may find frightening.

2.5 Theoretical framework

The focus on social learning theory in relation to mass communication is because of the influential role the mass media plays in today's society. Understanding the mechanisms through which symbolic communication influences human behaviour is of great importance. Social learning theorists have shown that behaviour is influenced not only by personal or live models but also by those presented in the mass media. Television and film models, in particular, seem to exert a powerful impact, and one major implication is that television is shaping humans motivation and behaviour on a daily basis.

Social learning theorists have been especially concerned with televised violence and use of alcohol and its effect on children. The potential danger of heavy consumption of television is the exposure to this symbolic world which may make the televised images appear authentic to the state of human affairs. This outcome can be detrimental to those individuals that have no other models that they can observe. In the absence of a parent, guardian or peer that is able to explain reality from fiction, the child may be more inclined to attend and reproduce the modelled behaviour seen on television.

What gives significance to vicarious influence is that observers can acquire lasting attitudes, emotional reactions, and behavioural proclivities toward persons, places or things that have been associated with modelled emotional experiences. They learn to fear the things that frightened models, to dislike what repulsed them and to like what gratified them (Bandura, 1986). At times, television often represents social realities in human nature, social relations, and day to day life of human interactions.

The kinds of models presented in the mass media have been of concern to those seeking social change, such as minorities and women's groups. These groups have pointed out that movies, television programs, and print media (magazines and books) have typically depicted women and people of colour in stereotyped roles and may have affected their general sense of self efficacy. Recently, many organizations have been campaigning to the mass media to offer new kinds of accurate models such as minorities and women as educated, successful professionals. Social learning theorists would agree that this is an advantageous strategy to employ in hope that social change would take place.

In today's society, media has become a powerful influence on our lives. As children enter adolescence, print and electronic media help them define who they are and what they want to become. By the time children reach middle school, they have spent tens of thousands of hours watching television, movies, and videos; listening to the radio, CDs and cassettes; reading magazines, newspapers, and books; playing video and computer games and surfing the Internet.

Advertisers of alcohol use the power and influence of media to convey a positive message for their products. Alcohol advertisements glamorize drinking and play directly into the needs of teen-agers by promising fun, popularity, relaxation and escape. This, through social learning theory, explains that teenagers end up remodelling the same behaviour of drinking. Research has shown that, in fact, it can increase children's aggressiveness and tendency to consume alcohol within their lifetime.

Exposure plays a large role in the process of social learning theory. Bandura and other researchers have concluded that the mass media not only creates personal attributes but also can alter pre-existing ones based on exposure.

According to the statistics generated by the Alcohol Policy Network, alcohol appears in 2/3s of all programs, 8.1 drinking references are made per hour in programs and music videos, over 1.5 alcohol advertisements appear each hour during sports programs (mostly beer), 1 in 4 music videos has the lead performer smoking and drinking. By bombarding viewers with enticing scenes of alcohol use, music videos and other television programming may lure teens to take their first drink, three Stanford researchers have concluded. Their survey of more than 1,500 ninth-graders at six San Jose high schools suggests that the more TV and music videos teens watch, the greater the odds they will start drinking during the next 18 months. Specifically, every

extra hour of music videos per week brought a 31 percent increase in the average risk of starting to drink during the next 18 months. Every extra hour of general TV-watching increased the average risk by 9 percent, said Tom Robinson, MD, assistant professor of paediatrics and of medicine.

2.6. Flow of information through social networks

People are intertwined in networks of relationships that include co-workers, friendships, classmates, team-mates, intimate relationships and family members. As noted before, the exposure that one experiences through television is often a contributing factor towards behaviour, but even humans that do not watch television or listen to radio are affected by the mass media.

Because these social networks often overlap, people are often directed by the media to designate what is important to discuss and what the current public agenda may be during a given time period. Therefore, the individual that does not watch television is often involved in social interaction that is based on communication with television viewers and other media consumers. This communication can lead to the same behaviour being displayed by the consumer as well as the non-consumer.

2.7 Applications of social learning theory

Research on modelling comes primarily out of social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) which applies principles of learning to social situations. Application to social learning theory to media violence, (Tan 1986), indicates that people see violent behaviour in the media and result to behaving violently than they otherwise would. For this to happen, relevant behaviour of model

must be attended to, secondly, it must be retained (encoded into a memory as it may be analysed and interpreted through cognitive processing) and for the behaviour to be modelled back factors as motivation need to be in play.

The mass media especially television act as a powerful sexual socializing agent for young people(Brown 2002; Brown and Newcomer 1991).Furthermore, television is considered one of the most important sources of information about sexual behaviours and their consequences (Kunkel et al,2003).

Application of retention processes in social learning theory happens when a repetition of a given message occurs. The frequency of exposure to a given message or modelled exemplar might increase the likelihood that the message will be attended to and retained (Mastro and Atkin2002). This is because the viewer or a reader has had the message for a longer time to internalize and actually model the action or the information.

Social learning theory has been applied extensively to the understanding of aggression (Bandura, 1973) and psychological disorders, particularly in the context of behaviour modification (Bandura, 1969). It is also the theoretical foundation for the technique of behaviour modelling which is widely used in training programs. In recent years, Bandura has focused his work on the concept of self-efficacy in a variety of contexts.

Bandura's theory of the Social Learning of aggression has proven immensely useful in understanding the variations of human aggression. Bandura's research on Social/Cognitive Learning theory has been applied to numerous social problems such as adolescent contraception, coercive sexual behaviour, HIV/AIDS transmission and predator crime. On the premise that

these behaviours may be purposively enacted without it ever having been directly reinforced, Hogben and Byrne (1998) remind us that cognitive elements work in creating expectancies about outcomes and these must be addressed since they serve as incentives and reinforcements for committing such acts.

Social Learning Theory is being used in studies focusing on the cognitive activities of the observer while ingesting the message. In particular, vicarious learning from media forms (e.g. television, computers, video games, music videos, internet sites, print, radio, commercials, etc) is inexorably dependent on a series of mental processes including attention, retention, motor reproduction and motivation (Bandura, 1978).

Proof of the role media plays in teaching aggression lies in the fact that once the ban on television was lifted in South Africa in 1975, the homicide rate increased by 130% (Woods et al, 1998). They go on to report that one of the most salient forms of mass media indictable for provoking aggression is music videos because it is not only attention-getting but also emotive.

Intervention at the initial signs of aggressive responses at early ages should be a priority. A longitudinal study from 1960 to 1982 found that when children, who at age 8, demonstrated a positive relationship between their levels of television watching and aggression were reassessed at ages 19 and 30 those males with the highest rates of television watching at age 8 now had a significant history of aggression, alcohol use, abusive parental practices and convictions or serious crimes (Woods, Goodman, Emans and DuRant, 1998).

Given the underdeveloped frontal lobe of children, they are unable to distinguish between fantasy and reality. For this reason they are very susceptible to unwittingly adopting media

portrayals as reality and generalizing those behaviours, attitudes and circumstances presented in the media (Bar-on, Broughton, Buttross, Corrigan, et al, 2001).

Symbolic models are another type of model that we can learn from. These are non-live models such as those we see on television or read about in books. Understanding the relational context in which individuals from different groups are portrayed on television will provide a better understanding of the ways in which television may contribute to these forms of stereotyping (Greenberg & Atkin, 1982).

Cultivation theory suggests that heavy viewers of television will come to view the real social world in ways that are consistent with television portrayals of that world. Various numerous theoretical perspectives suggest that the media may serve as guides to social behaviour, a perspective that is shared by viewers of certain shows (Greenberg, Neuendorf, Buerkel-Rothfuss, & Henderson, 1982).

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977; Tan, 1986) suggests that television characters may serve as models from which individuals derive appropriate modes of responding. This may be particularly likely when individuals identify with a particular model (Hoffner & Cantor, 1991), and identification may vary with television characters' social group memberships (Harwood, 1999; Harwood & Anderson, 2000).

Social learning theory has been referred to as 'eclectic theory' as it combines three of the most important human communicative processes: behaviour, external/environment forces and individual differences via dispositional determinants and cognition (Tan 1986). This three-fold conceptualization has been labelled by Bandura (2002) as 'triadic reciprocal causation' often

referred to as 'vicarious learning.' Due to watching a particular item in television and being exposed to an environment that reinforces the same behaviour, the chances that one would perform the same behaviour is high.

Commercials suggest that drinking a certain beverage, e.g. Sprite or Coca-Cola, Viceroy Brandy, etc, or using a particular hair shampoo, e.g. Venus, will make us popular and win the admiration of attractive people. Depending upon the component processes involved (such as attention or motivation), we may model the behaviour shown in the commercial and buy the product being advertised.

Other forms of symbolic models include verbal instruction as when an instructor describes for us the actions for driving a car. In this case the teacher's verbal descriptions combined with demonstration, usually teaches us most of what we need to know. This is fortunate, for if we had to learn to drive exclusively from consequences of our own actions, few of would survive the driving process (Bandura 1962).

2.8 Cultivation theory -George Gerbner and Larry Gross

This theory was proposed by George Gerbner and Larry Gross. It is seen as one of the examples of the cumulative effects model which was in the 1960s when scholars started to doubt whether selective exposure was still possible

The cultivation theory holds that through repeated heavy exposure to television, people begin to view the world as similar to the television world. It is said that since there is emphasis on crime and violence in many programs, a heavy TV viewer will perceive the world as a more violent place than it really is.

The cultivation theory sees effects as Cognitive and affective. Cognitive is where there is an alignment of TV and real world while affective is where there is fear and aggression.

This shows that media influences people's behaviour. Television according to Gerbner has surpassed religion as the key storyteller. After research, he categorized viewers as light viewers, moderate viewers and heavy viewers. These categories can be applied to internet and computer games. Heavy viewing was seen as creating an exaggerated belief in a mean and scary world

2.9 Cultivation effects

These effects give explanations as to why cultivation effects differ among groups .The first process is main streaming. It refers to a vanishing group of differences due to similar cultivation of media messages. It could also be seen when heavy viewers from different groups develop a similar stance.

The second process is resonance. It describes a semblance of a person real environment to the portrayed media event. For instance if someone comes from a violent neighbourhood with a high crime rate they get a double dose of the message. In resonance, TV content resonates with real life experiences. Gerbner looks at how TV has emphasized violence. He sees it as TVs central message. He saw that in the 1970s that 2/3rds of prime time programs were on violence. He saw women, African Americans, elderly, children and the less educated as the most often, the victims of violence. Television was actually seen as placing marginalized people in symbolic double jeopardy by simultaneously under- representing them.

The strengths of this theory are, it can apply to different texts and audience members. Also surveys are able to ask specific detailed questions and can be applied over different demographic groups

The weaknesses of this theory are; it is seen as a top down, linear, closed communication model. Secondly, it has been seen to have hypothesized long term effects and has been hard to verify. It does not look at the background, ethnicity and gender of audiences.

This theory assumes that audiences are passive, presenting ideas to society as a mass with meaning open to little interpretation. The audience is seen as vulnerable and easily manipulated and that it cannot think for itself.

Survey questions can be interpreted incorrectly resulting in inaccurate answers and that participants of the surveys may or may not be doing the survey voluntarily which could influence how they respond to the survey and the type of people being surveyed.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This study will target schools in middle class areas, rich neighbourhoods and also the slums to compare the impact of television on student academic performance. It will also describe student routines in boarding schools which will be contrasted with those in day schools. The effect of television on performance will be contrasted with other factors.

Purposive sampling is a non- random sample selected because prior knowledge suggests it is representative, or because those selected have the needed information. (Fraenkel, J., Wallen, N., & Hyun, H., 2012).

This sampling technique will be applied to identify schools according to such criteria as public mixed day schools in Nairobi versus public boarding day schools. There will be a good mix of parents and children who get the low income and those of high income to assess how television affects them. The schools to be sampled are Karen C Secondary School (public mixed day) and Hospital Hill Secondary School (public mixed boarding).

3.1 Data collection

Data will be collected through interviews with key informants such as counsellors, pastors, educators, Heads of Departments and principals. The various groups named above will offer insight into the lives of students and what they go through in school and their observations of the television watching habits. Counsellors will include the Guidance and Counselling departments in both schools. This group is in a better position to give their opinion on matters brought to their attention on violence, delinquency and whether television is one of the factors. These counsellors will also be able to analyse social groupings in students and explain whether they are in any way

affected by television. According to Schramm and other associates, television's effects are as a result of an interactive process between the characteristics of television and the characteristics of its users. Different children could watch the same television content and the effects could be different. For example, Schramm and associates discussed a study done by Fritz Redl,(1949) who compared the reactions of disturbed children and normal children to selected TV fare. He found that "ordinary" children would avoid extremely violent and frightening TV content. Such was not the case, however, with the problem children. They sought to avoid the "nice" and "sweet" programs that showed loving parents and warm friendly relationships. Those kinds of programs, Redl argued, were likely to cause the disturbed children to lie awake or to have bad dreams because they reminded the children of what was lacking in their own lives. (Defleur, M. and Lowery, S 1995)

Teachers and Head of Departments will also be able to give their opinion on whether television affects student performance. They will also share the results of the exams thus there will be a comparison between the two schools.

Focus group discussions with parents, teachers and students will add more information. This is a group discussion where respondents hear the views of each other. In these groups, my role becomes that of a facilitator. This method provides an open atmosphere for the various groups to give their opinion and also experiences. Parents play a major role in this study since one of the issues will be restrictions they put on their sons and daughters watching of TV or none at all. In this century, parents have become busy and the TV has become the nanny or babysitter. The issues in restrictions will be in terms of hours, that is, if there are a restricted number of hours a student can sit and watch television. The second issue in restriction is days. How many days on

average do these children watch television? Thirdly, what kind of programmes do the students watch?

Questionnaires for students will be prepared and presented to the two schools. This will be done after carefully listing objectives that the questionnaire would accomplish. This will have a mix of close –ended and open- ended type questions. These questions will seek to establish what channels the students watch, when and where.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The respondents among the students are between the ages of 14-20yrs. According to the research, 94%of the respondents have access to television at home. 60% of the respondents are restricted to watch television. When asked the reasons given for restrictions, some of the respondents said that restrictions are given when they are about to do their examinations.

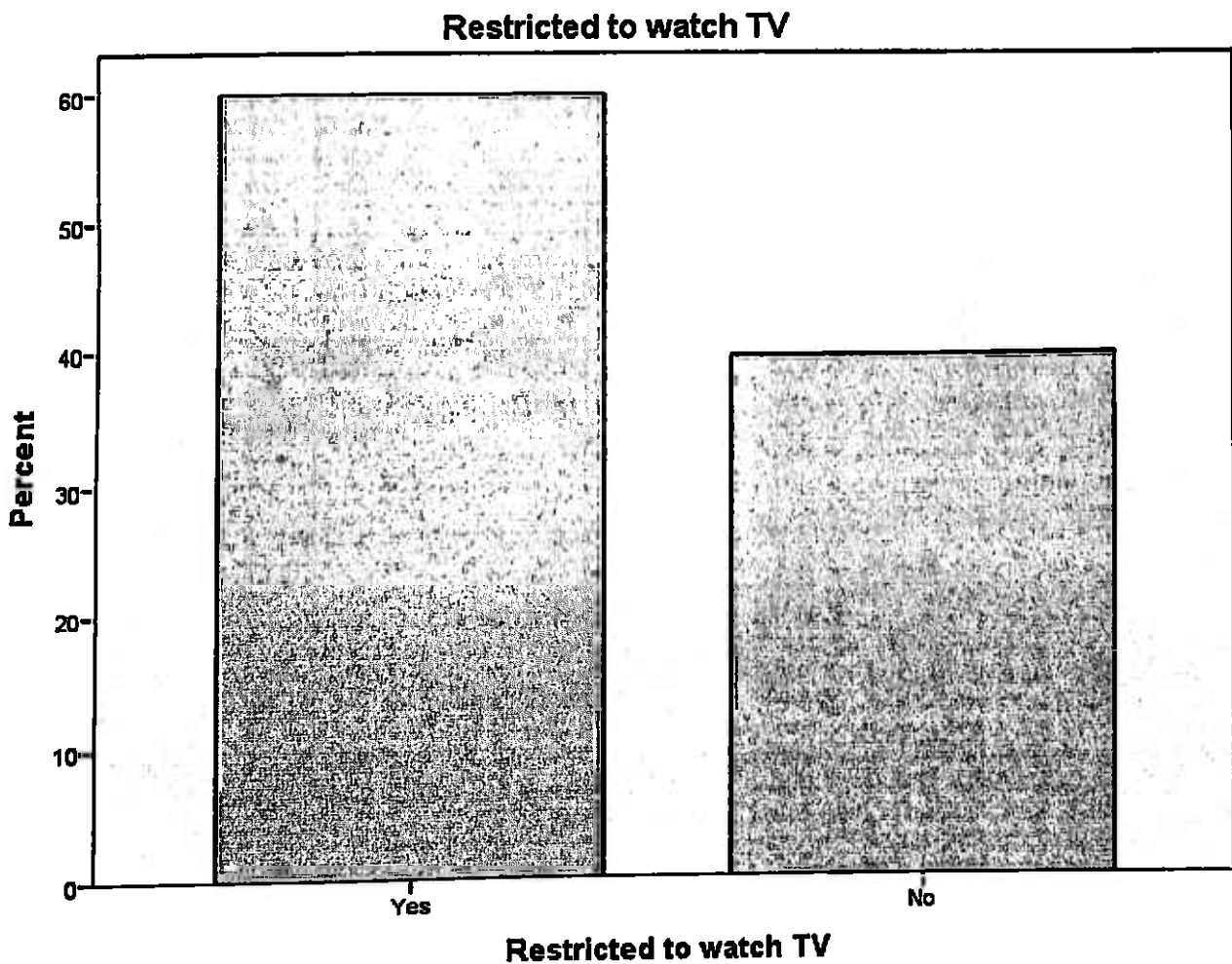


Figure 1: Restrictions on watching TV

It should be noted that 28% of respondents watch television in the company of the house-help, 16% watch television in the company of their parents, 18% watch alone whereas 14% watch with their siblings. (see the chart below)

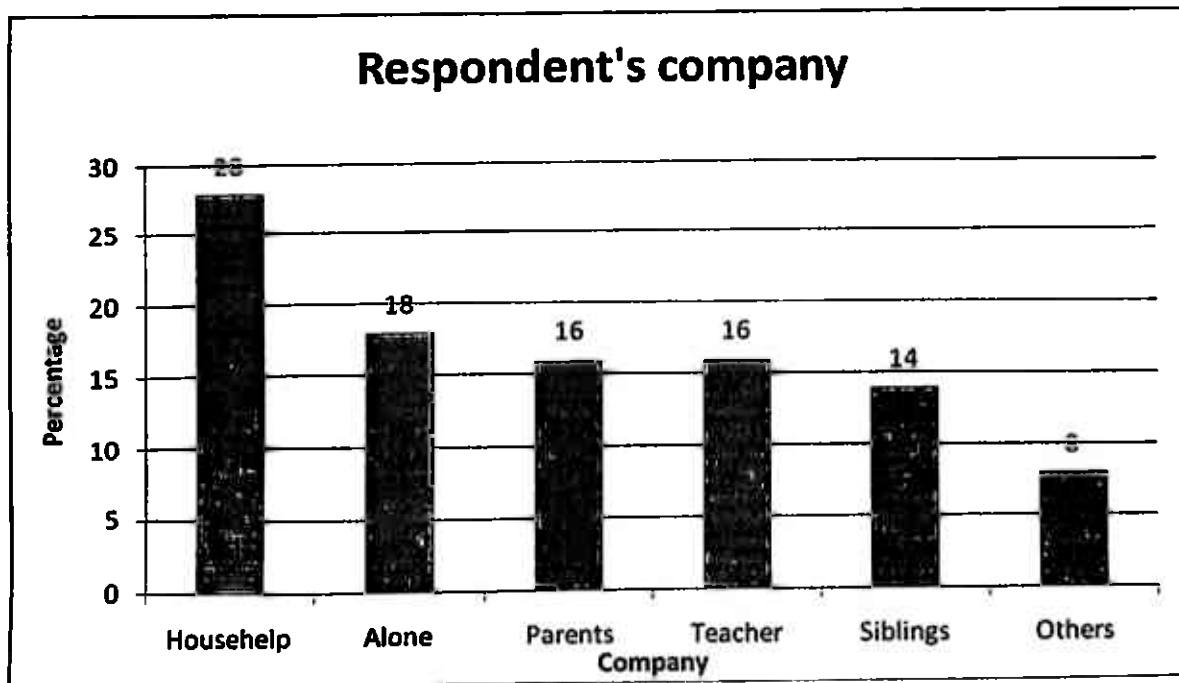


Figure 2: This chart shows the people who accompany the respondents when watching TV
 It is therefore noted that parents are not monitoring their children as much as they should. The house-help is therefore left to watch TV with the respondents. Teachers are not present in all television viewing sessions. This is especially seen in boarding schools. 18% of the respondents are not supervised when watching television.

It is interesting to note that 36% of the respondents strongly agreed with the statement "*The number of educational programs should be increased on television.*" 34 % agreed with the statement. However, when asked to name two examples of educational programs, majority gave news and soap operas (Eva Luna and Full House) as examples.

54% of the respondents said that they watch what they consider to be educational programmes. (See figure 3 below.)

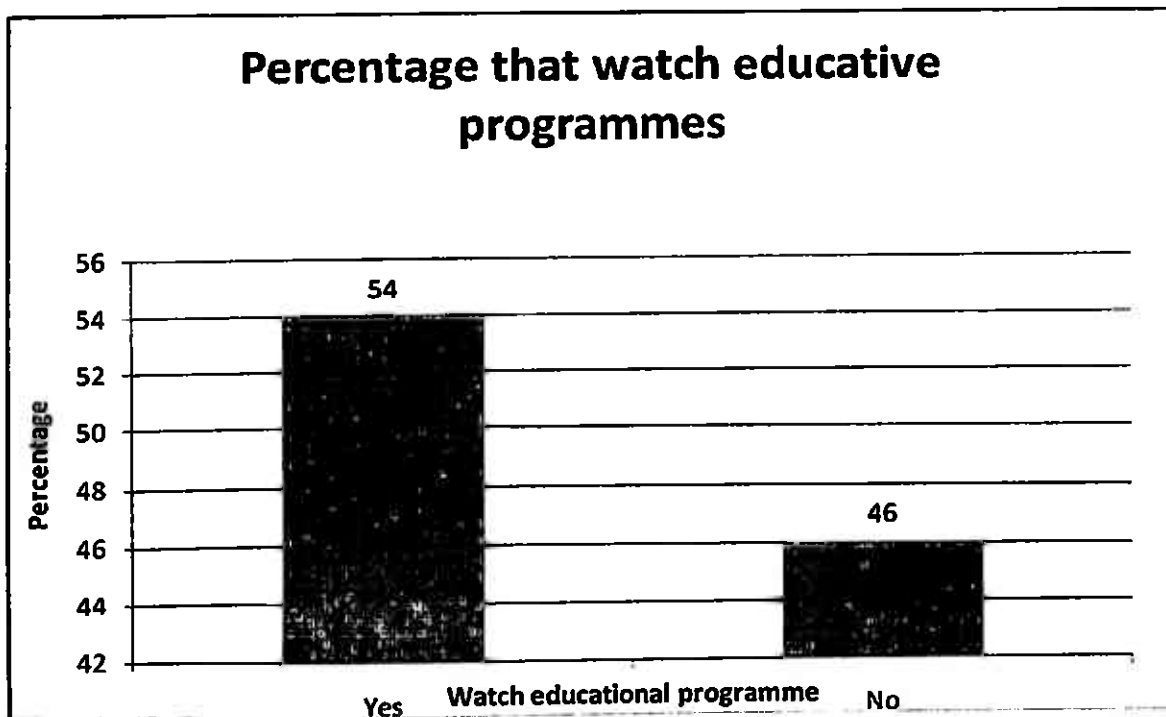


Figure 3: This bar chart shows the respondents who watch educational programmes

As mentioned before, 94% of the respondents said that they access television at home. However, only 22% of all respondents have access to cable /pay TV. (Dstv, Zukuetc). 78% of the respondents watch local programmes on television. (See figure 4 below). This therefore challenges the government to provide educational programmes since there is an audience for that. From the responses given, most of the respondents watch citizen TV (*Eva Luna, Machachari, Tahidi High, Kungfu, Action Night, wedding show* etc.) and a lot of movies.

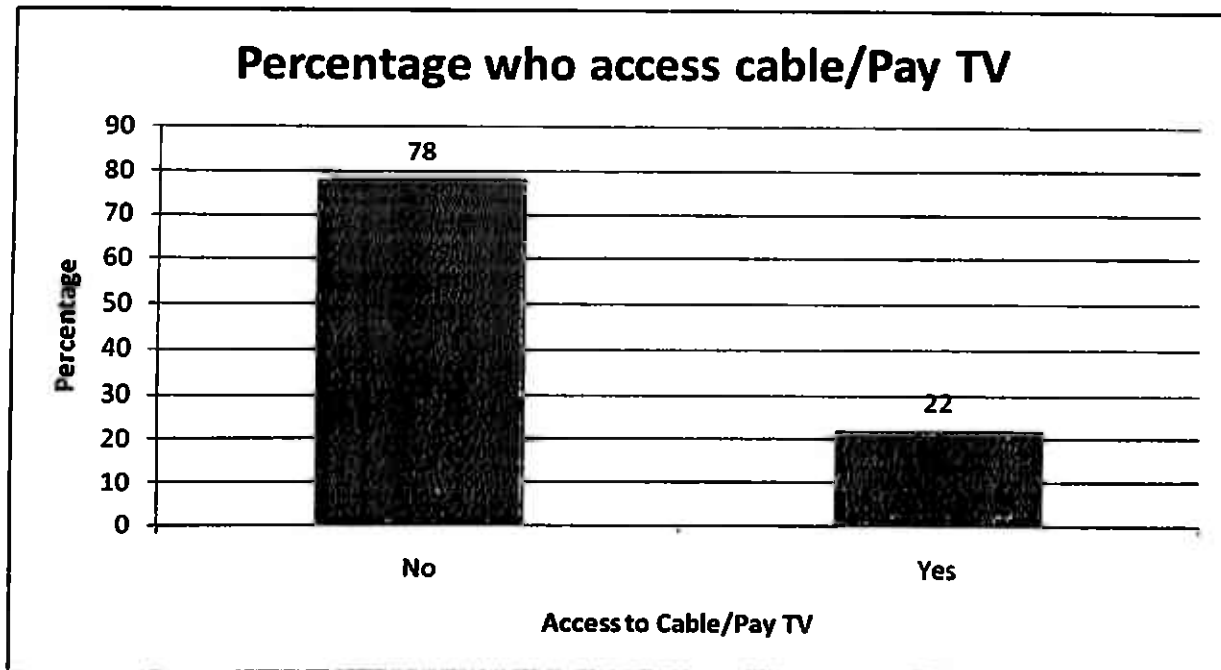


Figure 4: Those who have access to cable/pay TV

After analysing the number of hours that the respondents spent watching television, it is interesting to note that day scholars spend an average of one and a half hours on television in the weekdays as compared to the boarders who spend less than an hour. Therefore, this can be said to influence their studying habits since those in boarding school are in for preps at the same time. However, the number of hours spent on television on weekends by both the day scholars and boarders seem to be similar. The table below analyses the average number of hours high school students spend watching television.

	Weekdays (average number of hours)	Weekends (average number of hours)
Day scholars	1.51	2.81
Boarders	0.328	2.83

Figure 5: Average hours spent watching television

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with some statements that were given. (See table below) 30% of the respondents strongly disagreed that parents should monitor what was viewed on television. Interestingly, 28 % agreed with the statement.

36% of all respondents agreed with the statement that watching television negatively affects use of language (English and Kiswahili). However, 52% of all respondents agreed that television improves language.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Watching TV Improves language	34%	52%	0%	10%	4%
Watching TV negatively affects use of language	26%	36%	8%	14%	16%
Watching TV Improves personal studies	18%	28%	14%	30%	12%
Watching TV is one of the causes poor performance	20%	20%	10%	16%	18%
Fashion is determined by what is on TV.	38%	36%	6%	12%	8%
Parents should monitor what you view on TV	22%	28%	8%	12%	30%
Behaviour can be determined by what is seen on TV	28%	42%	6%	16%	8%
Number of educational programmes should be increased on TV.	36%	34%	8%	14%	8%

Focus group sessions provided parents with the opportunity to give their opinion about the extent to which they thought television influenced their children's academic performance. It was noted that most of the parents felt that their children spent most of their time watching television. Teachers complained that parents had abdicated their responsibility since some students in the

lay school (Karen C Secondary) came late. Some of the reasons given were that students slept late because they were watching television late in the night. Others said that students were not completing their assignments because they spend time watching television. However, other factors like discipline or lack thereof were mentioned. In boarding schools, the teachers felt that poor studying habits and entry behaviour played a role.

Interviews with teachers showed that television is one of the factors that lead to poor performance in school. However, other factors like background, entry behaviour and poor studying habits also play a part. Teachers felt that students mostly ape what they see on television. (For instance, sagging of school trousers)

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION

Students learn a lot from television. Whether the effect is positive or negative, television plays a major role in socialising students and giving them a sense of culture. The findings of this research show that the students are able to watch television for more hours than those in boarding schools. Needless to say there are other factors that contribute to poor academic performance of day schools as compared to boarding schools. However, the impact of television cannot be ignored. Further research needs to be done to fully isolate the effect television has on academic performance of teenagers.

Television is seen to be accessible to 94% of the respondents at home. It can be deduced that majority of the students can access television. Therefore the government and media stakeholders need to ensure that there are educational programmes available on television. This should not be limited to language only but to content. Programmes like Sesame Street made a positive impact on children.

Parents need to monitor the programmes watched on television. Most of the programmes need parental guidance. Most of the teenagers are exposed to sexual content through what they view on television. Television acts as a powerful sexual socialising agent for young people (Brown 1991). However, from the findings, house-helpers seem to share more time with the students when watching television. This brings to fore the lack of guidance from parents themselves to their children.

While the researchers generally agree that television violence increases rather than reduces aggressive behaviour, they are unwilling to say that it causes delinquency or crime. A juvenile

may attribute delinquency to television and a number of prominent individuals blame television for the rise in crime and juvenile delinquency. Therefore monitoring of these programmes and movies would help parents guide their children.

In terms of language, students imitate what they see and hear. Programmes that offer lessons in language can go a long way. There are few programmes with fluent Swahili and English (British) that we use in all our academic papers. These programmes can foster good use of language. An example of such programmes is Kiswahili na Sanaa which used to air on the national broadcaster K.B.C.

Television should be able to shed light on the issues affecting students and teenagers as a whole. It should offer edutainment, help students think creatively in a global capacity. Talents should be explored and exposed through the same medium.

In summary, this research shows that parents have a huge role to play in monitoring and limiting the amount and content of television programming viewed by their children. Teenagers pick up what they see on television, thus this affects how they behave and react to situations. There is a considerable difference between teenagers that watch television and those that do not. Such differences show in their behaviour, emotions, thinking and reasoning. It is thus best to state that it is vital to control the amount of television viewing as it gravely affects children in totality.

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APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Dear respondent,

I am an M. A. Communication Studies student at the University of Nairobi. I am conducting a research study on the influence of television on academic performance of high school students in Nairobi. I am glad to inform you that your school has been selected to participate in this study.

You are kindly requested to sincerely respond to the items in this questionnaire.

Do not write your name anywhere. All the information will be confidential

1. What is your age? _____

2. Please tick your class according to the choices given below

A. Form One ()

B. Form Two ()

C. Form Three ()

D. Form Four ()

3. What is your gender; tick appropriately

Male ()

Female ()

4. Do you have access to television? Yes/No _____

If yes, tick where you access television

A. At home ()

B. Your school ()

C. Neighbor's home ()

D. Others () Please specify _____

5. Do you have cable television (DSTV/Zuku/ etc)

Yes () No ()

6. Do you watch television?

(a) At home? Yes () No ()

(b) At school? Yes () No ()

If yes, indicate the day of the week, the programs watched and the time in the table below.

Day of the week	HOME Programmes watched and time of day	SCHOOL Programmes watched and time of day
Monday	1. 2. 3.	
Tuesday	1. 2. 3.	
Wednesday	1. 2. 3.	

Thursday	1. 2. 3.	
Friday	1. 2. 3.	
Saturday	1. 2. 3.	
Sunday	1. 2. 3.	

7. In whose company do you watch T.V?

A. Parents () B. House help () C. Siblings () D. Alone () E. Others ()

If others, please
specify _____

8. Are there any restrictions on when you are supposed to watch TV?

Yes/No _____

If Yes, specify _____

9. Do you watch any educational programs on TV? Yes () No ().

Give two examples of such programmes (and the channel) if
any _____

10. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements on the influence of television in student academic performance.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Watching TV affects your use of language(English and Swahili)					
2. Watching TV negatively affects your use of language.(English and Swahili)					
3. Watching TV improves your personal studies					
4. Watching TV is one of the causes of poor performance in school					
5. Your fashion is determined by what you see on TV.					
6. Parents should monitor what you view on TV					
7. Behaviour can be determined by what is seen on television					
8. The number of educational programs					

should be increased on TV					
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APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STUDENTS

Interview guide will be used by the researcher to gather relevant information from the school about the influence of television on academic performance in high school students in Nairobi.

The researcher is an M.A Communication Studies student at the University of Nairobi. Information gathered through this interview will be made available to policy makers in the education sector and interested stakeholders in order to assist in the regulation of television watching among the school going population. This will harness the strength while minimize the weakness of this communication medium.

Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide the researcher with accurate information. Your responses will be treated as confidential and your contribution is highly appreciated in advance.

1. What is your age? _____
2. Do you have a television in your home? _____
3. At what time do you watch TV? _____
4. What is your favourite program? _____
5. Do you have cable TV (DSTV, Zuku etc.)? _____
6. In whose company do you watch television? _____

7. Do you have to ask for permission to watch TV? _____

If yes, from who?

8. In your own opinion how does television contribute to issues like fashion and violence?

9. Do you think watching TV has contributed to your school performance in any way?

Yes ()

No ()

If yes how?

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

Dear respondent,

This interview guide will be used by the researcher to gather relevant information from the school about the influence of television on academic performance of high school students in Nairobi.

The researcher is an M. A. Communication Studies student at the University of Nairobi. Information gathered through this interview will be made available to policy makers in the education sector and interested stakeholders in order to assist in the regulation of television watching among the school going population. This will harness the strength while minimizing the weakness of this communication medium.

Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide the researcher with accurate information. Your responses will be treated as confidential and your contribution is highly appreciated in advance.

Do not write your name anywhere.

1. How old are you? _____

2. What are your teaching subjects? _____

3. How long have you been teaching? Please tick appropriately

A. 0-5yrs () B. 6-15yrs () C. 16- 25yrs () D. More than 25yrs()

4. Are you in the Guidance and Counselling Department? Yes/No

5. In your opinion, does television affect students' use of language (English & Kiswahili)?
(Yes () No ()

If yes how?

6. In your opinion, does television affect students' behaviour(violence, fashion e t c)

Yes () No ()

If yes how?

7. In your opinion does watching television affect student academic performance?

Yes () No ()

If yes how?
