

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TELEVISION
VIEWING AND SEXUAL INITIATION AMONG
KENYAN YOUTH**

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

(Mass Communication)

**JOMO KENYATTA UNIVERSITY
OF AGRICULTURE AND TECHNOLOGY**

2015

**The relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation
among Kenyan youth**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Mass Communication in the Jomo Kenyatta
University of Agriculture and Technology**

2015

DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

Signature Date

Sammy Yaah Baya

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as the university supervisors.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my late mother, Sophia W. Baya who inspired me to take education seriously thereby giving us wings to fly. May her soul rest in the peace and love of the Almighty God. I wish to also dedicate this work to other members of my family who played an instrumental role in shaping my beliefs, character, and integrity over the years. Finally I wish to thank my supervisors: Dr. Hellen Mberia and Dr. Julius Bosire for their invaluable advice and support. I also wish to thank all my friends and colleagues at work who have encouraged me and supported me throughout this process.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This dissertation would not have been possible without the assistance of many people. I acknowledge the invaluable advice and support I have received from my supervisors, Dr. Hellen K. Mberia and Dr. Julius Bosire. Their keen attention to detail and professional perfectionism is highly appreciated. Much appreciation to Dr. Ndeti Ndati, my research methodology lecturer for his support and advice. I am grateful to my father, David Baya, family and friends for their constant prayers, encouragement and support. I would also like to acknowledge the academic inspiration my late mother, Sophia W. Baya made in order to make me what I am today. This work is done in her loving memory. May her soul rest in peace. I also wish to thank the Director KEMRI for giving me time and opportunity to achieve my academic success.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS	-Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CCK	-Communications Commission of Kenya
DSTV	-Digital Satellite Television
FGDs	-Focus Group Discussions
HIV	-Human Immunodeficiency Virus
KDHS	-Kenya Demographic Health Survey
KEMRI	-Kenya Medical Research Institute
KIE	-Kenya Institute of Education
KIIs -	Key Informants Interviews
KNBS	-Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
MDGs	-Millenium Development Goals
MOH	-Ministry of Health
MOE	-Ministry of Education
NACC	-National AIDS Control Council
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation
SPSS	-Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STIs/STDs	-Sexually Transmitted Infections / Diseases
TV	-Television

UNAIDS	-United Nations Programme on HIV/ AIDS
UNESCO	-United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFP	-The United Nations Population Fund's report
UNICEF	-United Nations Children's Fund
WHO	-World Health Organization

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Casual Sex: The term “casual sex” can be used to refer to non-committal sexual intercourse (intercourse with a partner whom one is not in an established romantic relationship with) with a partner one has just met and/or non-committal sexual intercourse with a partner one is already familiar with (Gebhardt, Kuyper, & Greunsvan, 2003; Hennink, Cooper, & Diamond, 2000). Throughout this study, however, casual sex is operationalized solely as sexual intercourse between partners that occurs within 24 hours of their initial meeting (Herold, Maticka-Tyndale & Mewhinney, 1998; Maticka-Tyndale, Herold, & Oppermann, 2003).

Media Literacy: Level of education or awareness regarding the meaning of media messages. Ability to interpret and analyze media messages (Collins, R., Elliot, M., Berry, S., Kanouse, D., Kunkel, D., Hunter, S., & Miu, A., 2004).

Negative Sexual Consequence: An undesirable outcome related to sexuality. (Herold, Maticka-Tyndale & Mewhinney, 1998; Maticka-Tyndale, Herold, & Oppermann, 2003).

Positive Sexual Consequence: An instance in which a character reaped manifest benefit from sexuality. (Herold, Maticka-Tyndale & Mewhinney, 1998; Maticka-Tyndale, Herold, & Oppermann, 2003).

Sexual behaviour: A psycho-physiological experience influenced by the brain and spinal cord. It is affected by psychosexual development, psychological attitudes towards sexuality and attitudes towards one’s sexual partner (Sadock, 2007).

Sexual content: In this study Sexual content is defined to include sexual health content such as sex education, contraceptive issues as well as romantic kissing, petting, and any form of intercourse (actual or implied). Implied sex could include such things as cars rocking and sexual noises as long as the

sexual nature was clear. It will not include situations where there is no clear verbal or visual reference to sex (e.g, a couple leaving a bedroom without cues to imply sexual interaction). In this study, sexual content is defined as any depiction of sexual activity, sexually suggestive behavior or talk about sex, sexual risks or responsibility, sexual health, or sexuality (Ward,2003).

Sexual Health: Awareness of appropriate sexual behaviors, practices or situations. Understanding of risk factors involved in sexual activity. Practicing safe sex. (Ward,2003).

Sexual initiation: Sexual initiation is defined as any acknowledged attempt on the part of the respondent to establish sexual contact/intercourse (Collins, R., Elliot, M., Berry, S., Kanouse, D., Kunkel, D., Hunter, S., & Miu, A., 2004).

Sexual intercourse: In this study it refers to an act whereby a male inserts his penis into a female's vagina (Lips, 2001).

Television Sexuality: Sexual scenarios, actions or references as aired in television episodes. (Ward,2003).

Youth: In this study, the term youth is used interchangeably with the term adolescents, young people, students and teenager. The adolescent phase runs from approximately age 13 till around age 19 (Chapin, 2000). It is during this period that they begin to find out which sexual behaviours are enjoyable, moral and appropriate for their age (Lips, 2001).

ABSTRACT

Youth in Kenya are increasingly accessing television which has become more saturated with sexual content and sexual initiation is an important social and health issue in Kenya. Early sexual initiation is likely to involve sexual risk-taking and expose young people to unwanted pregnancy. This study sought to establish the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya by addressing the following four fundamental concerns, 1) What is the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and how is it associated with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? 2) What is the association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth, 3) What is the association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? 4) What consequences are portrayed on television as resulting from sexual activities and how are they related to sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? This study employed a mixed-methods research design. The target population of this study were students in public secondary schools in Lang'ata Sub-County, Nairobi County in Kenya. A sample size consisting of 325 respondents of 200 boys and 125 girls was determined. An additional 15 respondents were sampled in order to guard against drop out and attrition. A self-administered questionnaire was used to obtain quantitative data from the respondents. Multi-stage sampling design was used to select the sample for the survey. Focus group discussions and key informant interviews were also conducted to collect the qualitative data. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to aid in the analysis of quantitative data. The themes in the qualitative data were interpreted using thematic analysis. From the study findings, it was established that majority of the youth were sexually active and that there exists a relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation of the youth. Reducing the amount of sexual content in TV programmes, reducing the number of hours adolescents get exposed to this content, or increasing portrayals of possible negative consequences of sexual activity could delay the initiation of early sexual intercourse. The study also recommends that media literacy as a skill needs to be improved to enable the youth

to interpret media content correctly in order to avoid the possible effects that are sometimes not intended by the media practitioners. Alternatively parents could also reduce the effects of sexual content by watching TV with their teenage children and discussing their own beliefs about sex and the behaviours portrayed. It is also hoped that findings of this study will be used to design public policy and interventions designed to help youth. The information and findings attained in this study could also help in understanding sexual decisions that are made by youths and encourage parents to monitor the type of TV programmes their children are exposed to and advise them to adopt healthy life style.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The television media is a powerful source of sexual information for adolescents especially in a society that is closed up on sexual matters (Steele, 1999). Ward (2002) established that heavy viewers of soap operas tend to overestimate the prevalence of sexual activity in real life and that more frequent TV exposure is related to greater expectations of peer sexual experiences. Infact, according to Ward (2003) TV appears to create the impression that “everyone is doing it”. According to Chapin (2000), television has become so influential that it serves as a teacher, often providing a common source of information to young people.

Although there are several potential benefits of accessing television such as the promotion of positive aspects of social behaviour many negative aspects can occur (Roberts, 2000). It has been established that media messages will influence the youth if they are perceived to be realistic and valuable guides to behavior (Truglio, 1990). In cases where youth have little knowledge about sexuality, media may create expectations about sexuality (Baran, 1976). Several studies have observed that television viewing among the youth is pervasive and many of them view television alone with or without input from adults (Roberts, 2000).

During the first two decades of Kenyan independence, there was only one political party, and the media were held in tight check (Bowen, 2010). Kenya television consisted of a single station which was mainly a tool for the government. With the introduction of multi-party politics in the 1990s, the television industry in Kenya was expanded exponentially (Bowen, 2010). The oldest Kenya television station is the Kenya Broadcasting Corporation (KBC), and they are still broadcasting today. The four most popular television stations are Citizen TV, KBC, Kenya Television Network and Nation

TV (Bowen, 2010). However there is growing popularity of satellite television and foreign broadcasts (Clausen, 2009).

The TV scene in Kenya is set to develop dramatically in the coming years after migration from analogue to digital broadcasting. CCK discontinued assignment of broadcasting frequencies for analogue TV broadcasting in order to prepare for digital broadcasting. The transition to digital broadcasting will allow Kenyans to enjoy multiple broadcasting services, improved video and audio quality and increased digital dividends due to greater spectrum efficiency (Mbeke, 2008). One analogue frequency would be able to accommodate 8 digital frequencies. The implication would be that frequencies would readily be available to investors (Mbeke, 2008).

About 3.2 million homes in Kenya own TV sets (1.4 million in urban and 1.8 in rural areas). Liberalization of the airwaves did not benefit the rural population until when the government allowed the major network TVs to expand their reach across the country. TV reaches 39 percent of the population daily (Mbeke, 2008). Kenyan domestic TV is dominated by foreign material such as soap operas, music and movies (Gakahu, 2005). Kenyan television music is laden with staggering sexual graphics (Gakahu, 2010). Most songs include innuendo, partial nudity and sexual situations and behavior. The television media channels depict half-dressed men and women in sexually suggestive body movements and often play lyrics intended to inflame sexual feelings (O'Toole, 1997).

According to Gakahu (2010) Kenya's television media, through the music industry, gives a distorted outlook to sexual behavior. Songs in these media easily contribute to an overdrive in sexual passion among the youth. In essence, the intended message is completely diluted, and the youths are seemingly being encouraged to venture into casual sex. Music television programmes uses fast-paced visuals to grab the attention of a very specific youthful audience-a generation that has been raised with different ways of processing information (Gakahu, 2005).They use sexual images of women through

short, sharp, shots of intense visual pleasure, to encourage viewers to watch closely and stay focused so that they do not miss out anything.

Concerns have been raised about TV as a teacher of sexuality by social commentators (Ward, 1995) and by researchers. According to Chapin (2000), even parents think that television has a large impact on adolescents' sexual behaviour and they recognize that many adolescents spend more time watching television than they do with their parents. Adolescence is a transitional period of physical, emotional, and social maturation that culminates in increased independence, autonomy, and a greater sense of one's personal identity (Kaaya et al., 2002; Kelly, 2001; Lema, 1990).

Teenagers undergo adolescence which is viewed as a time of adjustment and is often characterised by turmoil resulting from issues regarding identity and sexual identity and orientation (Ruane, Kassayira & Shino, 2000). Key developmental processes during adolescence include sexual maturation and definition of sexual self-concept (Haffner, 1998). A key period of sexual exploration and development occurs during adolescence (Carpenter, 1998). During this time, individuals begin to consider which sexual behaviours are enjoyable, moral, and appropriate for their age group. Many adolescents become sexually active during this period. (Haffner, 1997). As young people clarify their sexual values, it is common for them to experiment with sexual behaviors (Kelly, 2001) that may increase the risk of sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and poor reproductive health outcomes. Key developmental processes during adolescence include sexual maturation and definition of sexual self-concept (Haffner, 1997). About half of the boys and girls in secondary schools in Nairobi had already initiated sexual activity (Kabiru & Orpina, 2009).

Content analyses have demonstrated that broadcast television contains a high, growing and increasingly explicit dose of sexual messages, and that a low proportion of such messages display or model either restraint or contraceptive use (Kunkel, et al. 1999;

Greenberg et al. 1996). Research has also demonstrated that young people are heavy consumers of sexually - oriented media including TV. (Brown et al.1990).

When examining the research on TV and sexuality, one concern is that television characters serve as role models for young adults. Bandura's (1977) social learning theory informs that new behaviors seen by individuals are likely to be observed, and reproduced. Researchers argue that television provides adolescents with models whose sexual behaviors are learned and replicated (Chapin, 2000). Kunkel et al. (1999) recognized that, "it is well established that the stories children and adolescents watch on television can influence their lives in important ways. Brown et al. (1990) expand on this idea explaining, "Women often are portrayed as sexual objects available for the pleasure of men".

Buerkel-Rothfuss and Strouse (1993), Ward (2002) and Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) tried to investigate the relationship between television exposure and expectations about the level of activity among peers. They established that heavy viewers of soap operas tend to overestimate the prevalence of sexual activity in real life and that more frequent TV exposure is related to greater expectations of peer sexual experiences. Infact, according to Ward (2003, p. 238) TV appears to create the impression that "everyone is doing it". On the other hand greater TV exposure and greater viewing involvement have been associated with stronger support for recreational attitudes (Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999) and acceptance of stereotypes as "men are sex driven" and women are sexual objects" (Ward, 2002).

Messages with sexual content on TV can have both immediate and long term effects. The implication of this is that exposure to sexual content on television programmes may change a person's state by inducing arousal, leading to inhibition of impulses, or activating thoughts or associations (Santrock, 2001). It may contribute to enduring learned patterns of behaviour, cognitive scripts and schemas about sexual interactions, attitudes, and beliefs about the real world.

Brown and Newcomer (1991) found that neither the total number of hours exposed to television nor the total number of hours exposed to sexual content on television were related to sexual behavior. However, the greater the proportion of television viewing time that contained sexual content, the more likely it was that an adolescent had engaged in sexual intercourse. Only about 1 in 10 of the programs on television that include sexual content mentions the possible consequences or the need to use contraceptives or protection against STDs. Unintended pregnancies rarely are shown as the outcome of unprotected sex, and STDs other than HIV/AIDS are almost never discussed (Kunkel et al., 1999).

According to Donnerstein and Smith (2001), parents who openly communicate and actively co-view television may protect adolescents from potentially detrimental effects of exposure. Frequency of viewing (Malamuth & Impett, 2001) appears to be important as well. Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) examined the media consumption and sexual behavior of 18 to 24 year old undergraduate students. The results indicated that greater exposure to and identification with television programmes that included sexual content were associated with stronger endorsement of recreational attitudes towards sex, higher expectations of the sexual activity of one's peers, and more extensive sexual experience. High-dose exposure to portrayals of sex may affect adolescents' developing beliefs about cultural norms. TV may create the illusion that sex is more central to daily life than it truly is and may promote sexual initiation as a result, a process known as media cultivation (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorelli, 1994).

Although we might hope that parents would be the primary source of sexual guidance for their children, they often find it difficult to present timely and clearly expectations, or even accurate information (Brown, Steele & Walsh-Childers, 2002). Religious leaders, parents, and some politicians, claim that the media encourages youth to be sexually active before they are ready and without the sanction of marriage, and want the media to clean up their acts. Health advocates argue that if we are going to have sex in

the media (television), at the least we should show the risks and responsibilities too. Politicians threaten further regulation if program ratings and content blocking devices such as the V-chip aren't sufficient. But media (television) producers say, "Leave us alone; we're exercising our constitutional rights." Advertising executives believe that sex sells and don't want to give up their potential advantage in a highly competitive market place (Brown et al. 2002).

Kenyan adolescents have today a ready menu of programs, reality shows and soaps rich in sexual content than never before (Gakahu, 2005). Across several studies, frequent viewing of sexually oriented genres, such as soap operas and television music, has been associated with a greater acceptance of premarital sex, common sexual stereotypes, and dysfunctional beliefs about relationships (Haferkamp, 1999; Ward, 2002). Against the above, this study investigated the correlation between television viewing and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

There has been a growing concern over the influence that television may have on the sexual initiation of the youth (Roberts, 2000). Parents and teachers have also shown much concern about the effect of television on young people (Maduewusi, 2005). Information from research has clearly shown that the youth have access to television and that they are exposed to sexual content (Kunkel *et al.*, 1999). Television has the potential to generate both positive and negative effects, (Dietz and Strasburger, 1991). Kenyan television content is laden with staggering sexual graphics, (Gakuha, 2010).

Early sexual initiation is likely to involve sexual risk-taking and expose young people to unwanted sex and teenage pregnancy (Martinez, Copen, & Abma, 2011). Most sexually experienced teens wish they had waited longer to have intercourse and unplanned pregnancies are more common among those who begin sexual intercourse earlier (Collins et al., 2004). Adolescents with a high level of exposure to television shows with

sexual content are twice as likely to get pregnant or impregnate someone as those who saw fewer programs of this kind over a period of three years, (Parkes et al., 2013). However, according to Donnerstein and Smith (2001), parents who openly communicate and actively co-view television may protect adolescents from potentially detrimental effects of exposure.

Fay and Yanoff (2000) state that early sexual initiation is an important health issue, and thus, raises the question of why individuals become sexually involved at young ages. What factors accelerate sexual initiation, and what factors delay its onset? There are many well-documented predictors of age of initiation into intercourse, both social and physical (Roberts, Foehr, Rideout & Brodie, 1999). However, according to several studies (Carpenter, 1998; Le Vay & Valentine, 2003; Paik, 2001; Ward, 2003), one factor commonly mentioned by parents and policy makers as promoting sex among adolescents is television.

Therefore, there is need for a study to be conducted to provide relevant scientific data which can be used for decision-making or putting interventions in place when dealing with issues relating to youth sexual behaviour among the youth in Kenya. It is against this background that this study investigated the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study included the general objective and the specific objectives.

1.3.1 The general objective

The general objective of the study was to establish the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya.

1.3.2 The specific objectives

The specific objectives of the study were:

- (i) To establish the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and its association with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.
- (ii) To find out the association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.
- (iii) To assess the association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.
- (iv) To determine the association between portrayal of sexual consequences on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

1.4 Research Questions and Hypothesis

This study was guided by the following research questions and research hypothesis

1.4.1 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

- (i) What is the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and how is it associated with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?
- (ii) What is the association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?
- (iii) What is the association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?

- (iv) What consequences are portrayed on television as resulting from sexuality and how are they related to sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?

1.4.2 Research Hypothesis

The study was also guided by the following hypothesis:

- (i) There is no association between the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth.
- (ii) There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.
- (iii) There is no association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.
- (iv) There is no association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

1.5 Justification of the Study

This study is important for Kenyan society in understanding the relationship between viewing sexual content on television and sexual initiation among the youth. New information linking sexual content on television with teen pregnancy will help develop prevention programs. It is preferable that public policy and interventions designed to help youth be based on systematically gathered and analyzed evidence.

Furthermore, the information and findings attained in this study could also help in understanding sexual decisions that are made by youths. As the country and the world as a whole are working towards addressing early sexual initiation and teenage pregnancy, it is imperative to try and understand the different aspects (peers, parents, television, as well as the media as a whole) that contribute directly or indirectly to such issues. The findings of the study will encourage parents to monitor the type of TV programmes their children are exposed to and advise them to adopt healthy life style.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will help all children live sexually healthy lives in future. It is also hoped that the findings will help young people and especially students know the implications of imitating scenes from TV programmes. It is also hoped that school counselors and principals will know how to better handle some adolescent's issues as they occur in schools. The findings of the study will be helpful to those responsible for planning TV programmes as it will expose them to some of the problems arising from the televised programmes. The study will also be helpful to students who might want to consult it for further studies.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study broadly explored the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth. The study purposively targeted students (both boys and girls) in public secondary schools within Langata sub-county in Nairobi County. Public secondary schools admit students from across the country hence they have a wide collection of Kenyan youth. The study analyzed two theories namely social-learning theory and cultivation theory to relate television viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Social learning theory predicts that people will imitate behaviours of others when those models are rewarded or not punished for their behavior (Bandura, 2001). The cultivation theory (Gerbner, Gross, & Signorielli, 1994), proposes that televisions' consistent images and portrayals construct a specific portrait of reality, and as viewers watch more and more television, they gradually come to cultivate or adopt attitudes and expectations about the world that coincide with this portrait.

Langata Sub-county was purposively selected to represent the low and middle income settlements in Nairobi County. It is also cosmopolitan in nature with people from different cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, according to Consumer Insight (2006) report, TV has more viewership ratings and coverage in urban areas, with Nairobi having the highest viewership. Early Sexual Initiation, teenage pregnancies and HIV and

AIDS epidemic continues to pose significant challenges to people living in low and middle income settlements (NACC, 2010).

The study used mixed-methods design which utilizes the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell, 2009). According to Campbell et al. (1999), mixed methods are a powerful way of enhancing the validity of results. Therefore, focus group discussions, key informant interviews and self-administered questionnaires were used to obtain data from the respondents. The use of a self-administered questionnaire is particularly useful in the collection of data on sensitive topics, such as sexual behavior. (Campbell et al., 1999).

1.7 Limitation of the Study

The study was limited due to a number of constraints and challenges such as anticipated unwillingness of some potential respondents to participate in the study, unreturned questionnaires, provision of wrong information and lastly the nature and sensitivity of the questionnaire items. To address the concerns of the sensitivity of the questionnaire items and provision of wrong information, the researcher established and maintained the optimum level of confidentiality and assured the respondents that the study was purely an academic requirement and had nothing to do with other relations. Meanwhile, to address the problem of unwillingness to participate in the study and response rate, the researcher personally administered the data collection tool, while encouraging the respondents to voluntarily provide the required information. The use of multiple data collection techniques gave this study more output which otherwise would not have been possible through the use of questionnaires only.

CHAPTER TWO

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1The Introduction

This chapter presents literature concerning previous studies relating directly and indirectly to the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth. Furthermore, this chapter furnishes a detailed description of how different researchers view the underlying assumption of this study together with a consideration of the different methodologies employed to conduct the various studies which have resulted in similar conclusions.

This chapter also presents the theoretical framework underlining this study and as such, is a review of the development of social learning theory with an emphasis being placed on the major developer of the theory, namely Bandura. The social learning theory appears to be a useful framework for the study as it emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling behaviours, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. The study also discusses Gerbner's cultivation theory which has long been used to explain the relationship between viewing violent media and engaging in violent behavior. This theory proposes that the consistent messages in television programming become ingrained into the viewer's pictures of the world.

The chapter also deals with the conceptual framework underlining this study hence demonstrates the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable. Thus, this chapter begins by investigating the developmental aspects of adolescents, especially towards sexuality. This helps one to understand the level of development with which adolescents reason and possibly behave.

2.1.1 The Youth and sexuality

Sexuality encompasses behavioural components with boundaries of sexual activity moving in an increasingly permissive direction. Perceptions appear to be constant through the ages while only the circumstances change. (Jones & Boonstra, 2005). According to Szabo (2006), an emphasis on individual freedom and rights driven culture in societies may be influential in this apparent permissiveness. With increasing globalization, urbanization, and other social changes, there are distinct changes in the sexual values of young people (Gage & Meekers, 1993), with a general trend towards initiating sexual activity earlier in adolescence and increasing value placed on sexual gratification rather than safer sex (Kelly, 2001). A number of factors which include media and the internet, urbanization, electronic communication, peer influences and the breakdown of traditional parental and community structures also play a part (Hall & Sherry,2004;Szabo,2006).

Researchers have examined many of the factors that influence young people's behaviors during their adolescent years. A study found that teens may be more likely to participate in oral sex than in sexual intercourse, and they may be doing it to gain popularity among peers (Prinstein, Meade, & Cohen, 2003). Researchers surveyed 10th grade students about their sexual behavior and the sexual behavior of their best friend. They found that 40.4% of the students surveyed reported participating in oral sex, and 29.8% reported having sexual intercourse. Many of the students reported they did not use protection when engaging in oral sex, putting themselves at risk for STDs. Additionally, it was found that students whose best friends had oral sex were more likely to have oral sex themselves. Students who engaged in oral sex were also reported as more popular by both their male and female peers (Prinstein, Meade, & Cohen, 2003).

Another study of 522 Australian teens asked about the behaviors they felt were appropriate at certain ages (Rosenthal & Smith, 1997). The researchers found that most

of the students said they felt it was appropriate for girls and boys to begin kissing and kissing with tongue between the ages of 12 and 14. Also, the study found the students said they felt that 15 to 17 years of age was the appropriate age to begin other sexual behaviors such as touching breasts, touching between the legs underneath clothing, touching genitals underneath clothing, having sexual intercourse, and engaging in oral sex. The researchers found the more sexually explicit the behavior, the lower the percentage of the participants that found it appropriate for the 15-to-17-year-old age group; however, the majority of the sample said they felt that 15 to 17 was the appropriate time frame to begin having sexual intercourse (Rosenthal & Smith, 1997). This study also suggested little difference in the acceptance of behaviors at a particular age between males and females.

In spite of cultural norms disapproving of premarital sexual intercourse (Gage & Meekers, 1993; Worthman & Whiting, 1987), the prevalence of sexual activity among unmarried youth in Kenya is high. In the most recent Kenyan Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS), 41% and 21% of never-married males and females aged 15 to 24 years reported sexual activity in the 12 months preceding the survey (Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) [Kenya], Ministry of Health (MOH) [Kenya], & ORC Marco, 2004). Thus, sexual activity during adolescence may heighten the risk of acquiring STIs, including HIV. Indeed, in Kenya, 5.2% of women aged 15 to 24 years are living with HIV/AIDS, as are 1.0% of their male counterparts (UNAIDS/WHO, 2005).

Youth reproductive behavior is now recognized as an important social, health and demographic concern in Kenya. Currently, the population of Kenyans under 30 years of age comprises 75% of Kenya's total population, and of this, 8 million are aged between 15 and 24 (Toroitich-Ruto, 1998). The population of youth in Kenya is significant enough to warrant research attention. In their examination of premarital sexual activity among inschool adolescents in Kenya, Kiragu and Zabin (1993) reported that 69% of male and 27% of female secondary school students were sexually experienced and of

these, 53% of males and 5% of females reported at least four sexual partners in their lifetime.

Other correlates of sexual experience included increasing age, low religiosity, having sexually active peers, substance use, and liberal attitudes towards premarital sex. Male gender (Hartell, 2005; Kaaya et al., 2002; Maswanya et al., 1999; Mathews et al., 2008; Siziya, Muula, Kazembe, & Rudatsikira, 2008), low parental supervision (Kiragu & Zabin, 1993; Siziya et al., 2008), and low socio-economic status, especially among females (Brook, Morojele, Zhang, & Brook, 2006; Mathews et al., 2008) have also been associated with increased likelihood of sexual activity and risky sexual behavior (e.g. lack of condom use). Several other studies have found that the age at first sexual intercourse is reducing, suggesting that today's youth are becoming sexually active at increasingly younger ages (Kiragu et al., 1995). This results in situations such as dropping out of school, poverty, early marriage and contracting sexually transmitted diseases (DHS Chartbook, 1993).

Studies from several African countries have shown that school-going or educated youth, particularly females, may be less likely to engage in risky behavior than out-of-school youth (Agha, Hutchinson, & Kusanthan, 2006; Babalola, Tambashe, & Vondrasek, 2005; Flisher & Chalton, 1995; Hargreaves et al., 2008; Mathews et al., 2008; Pettifor et al., 2008). For example, among females surveyed in the 2003 KDHS, level of education was strongly related to age at first sex with about 25% of women 15 to 24 years with no education reporting sexual activity by age 15 compared to only 4% among those with at least some secondary education (CBS, MOH, & ORC Macro, 2004).

2.1.2 Sexuality on television

Although sexual content in the media can affect any age group adolescents may be particularly vulnerable (Ward, 2003) since they are still in the impressionable developmental stages and are attempting to establish their own identity. Adolescents

may be exposed to sexual content in the media during a developmental period when gender roles, sexual attitudes, and sexual behaviours are being shaped (Brown & Newcomer, 1991). Consequently, this group may be at risk because among other things cognitive skills may not allow them to critically analyze messages from the media, while the ability to make decisions based on possible future outcomes is not yet fully developed at this stage (Haferkamp, 1999).

Analyses of broadcast media content in America indicate that, on average, adolescent viewers see (Anderson, 2004; Arnett, 1995; Ward & Friedman, 2006) incidents of sexual behavior on network television at the most important times each week, with portrayals of three to four times as many sexual activities occurring between unmarried partners as between spouse. As much as 80% of all movies shown on television stations have sexual content (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Calfin, Carroll & Schmidt, 1993; Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999, Flowers-Coulson, Kushner & bankowski, 2000; Strong & DeVault, 1994).

An analysis of music on TV indicates that 60% portray sexual feelings and impulses while a substantial minority display provocative clothing and sexually suggestive body movements. An analysis of media content also shows that sexual messages on television are almost universally presented in a positive light, with little discussion of the potential risks of unprotected sexual intercourse and few portrayals of adverse consequences (Anderson, 2004; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001).

In a national study (Ward, 2003), high school students reported an average of 2.9 television sets, while 1.3 out of 10 (13%) American children reported living in homes with two or more televisions, 75% enjoyed access to television, and more than half had a television set in their own rooms. Further, more than 80% of adolescents report that their peers obtain some information, or much, about sex from television shows. However, about 10% of teens acknowledged that they have learned more about AIDS from

television than their parents, school personnel, clergy, or friends (Eggermont, 2005; Ward, 2003).

2.1.3 Television scene in Kenya and sexuality

Kenya has three types of television stations namely cable TV, satellite TV and network TV operating about 16 TV stations across the country (Mbeke,2008). About 3.2 million homes in Kenya have TV sets (1.4 million in urban and 1.8 in rural areas) (Mbeke,2008). Liberalization of the airwaves did not benefit the rural population until recently when the government allowed the major network TVs to expand their reach across the country. TV reaches 39 percent of the population daily. (Mbeke, 2008).

The cable TV market comprise of the Cable Television Network (CTN). It is the least developed media serving only a small “A” class in the city of Nairobi. Other investors such as Wananchi The network TV is the most developed in Kenya comprising of 13 TV channels. These are Kenya Television Network (KTN), Nation Television (NTV), Kenya Broadcasting Corporation (KBC Channel 1), Citizen TV, STV, Family TV, New Star TV, K24, Metro, Channel 5/East Africa TV, Channel 2 TV, ODTV and Sayare TV(Mbeke, 2008).

Kenya’s satellite TV market is emerging with two players that serve only up market audiences in Kenya. These are DSTV operated by Multi-Choice and GTV (Gateway TV) operated by Regional Reach. Multichoice has started offering DSTV services through mobile telephone platforms. Almost all TV stations broadcast on internet through their websites. NTV for instance is linked through U-tube (Mbeke, 2008).

The TV scene is set to develop dramatically in the coming years after migration from analogue to digital broadcasting. CCK discontinued assignment of broadcasting frequencies for analogue TV broadcasting in order to prepare for digital broadcasting. The transition to digital broadcasting will allow Kenyans to enjoy multiple broadcasting

services, improved video and audio quality and increased digital dividends due to greater spectrum efficiency. One analogue frequency would be able to accommodate 8 digital frequencies. The implication would be that frequencies would readily be available to investors (Mbeke, 2008).

According to Onyiengo (2014), youth in Kenya are increasingly accessing television which has become more saturated with sexual content. The content rarely includes messages on safe sex or consequences of engaging in premarital sexual behaviour. This exposure may influence the behaviour and attitudes of the youth negatively leading to them to engage in premarital sexual behaviour leading to unwanted pregnancies among other effects (Onyiengo, 2014).

Music television programmes uses fast-paced visuals to grab the attention of a very specific youthful audience-a generation that has been raised with different ways of processing information (Gakahu, 2005). They use sexual images of women through short, sharp, shots of intense visual pleasure, to encourage viewers to watch closely and stay focused so that they do not miss out anything. Kenyan songs played in the television portray a skewed relationship between clear messages about safe sex and sex for sex sake (Gakahu, 2010). A critical look at the language in these songs leaves a thin line between the two aspects. In ``juala'' (paper bag) for example, despite the fact that the artist is promoting the use of contraceptives, he is, on the other hand encouraging casual sex (Gakahu, 2010). He terms the bottoms of females as coming in all sizes and prices... juala ndio wahitaji (paper bag is what you need).

The artist commercializes sex and gives an okay to casual sex as long as the individuals involved have a condom. Other songs like ``Wee Kamu,'' (you come) ``Kamata dame,'' (catch a lady) ``John nampenda John'' (John I love John) among others primarily describe sex. (Gakahu, 2010) In the song ``Wee kamu,'' the artist uses graphic language and glorifies promiscuity. The songs are heavily done in ``sheng,'' which masks most of the profane language used in them.

In social learning theory (Bandura, 1971), young people can learn about sexuality from others depicted in the television media. With this in mind, the television media in Kenya has utilized the use of musicians and celebrities to advertise the use of contraceptives. What the television media fails to do is to remind the youth that these celebrities are mature enough to make proper sex decisions and are probably married (Gakahu, 2005) Young people listen to adverts, but they do not learn about the contexts in which the behavior depicted occurs.

Behaviour change communication in Kenya has been blurred by the language, content and graphics used in music. The media (television) makes sex appear better than it actually is. Furthermore, it does not provide adequate information on how sex can be dangerous or how to have a healthy sexual relationship. Gakahu (2010) informs that songs in these media (television) easily contribute to an overdrive in sexual passion among the youth. In essence, the intended message is completely diluted, and the youths are seemingly being encouraged to venture into casual sex (Gakahu, 2005).

2.2 The Theoretical Framework

The potential for mass media (television) to influence behaviour has been supported through a number of different psychosocial theories, hypotheses, and models. Although there is considerable variation in theoretical mechanisms by which media might affect adolescents' sexual attitudes and behaviours, most posit that sexually related message content and behaviour act over time as stimuli to change consumer psychological, physiologic, and behavioural function. The study thus utilized two theories namely social-learning theory and cultivation theory to correlate television viewing and sexual initiation among the youth.

2.2.1 Social learning theory

The Social learning theory is the fundamental theory that guided this research. Developed by Albert Bandura (1972), this social scientific theory posits that humans can learn vicariously through observation of actions taken by “influential others” and the associated results of those actions (either reward or punishment) without the need to experience those actions and results firsthand (Howard & Hollander, 1997).

Social learning theory, predict that people will imitate behaviors of others when those models are rewarded or not punished for their behavior. Modeling will occur more readily when the model is perceived as attractive and similar and the modeled behavior is possible, salient, simple, prevalent, and has functional value (Bandura, 2001). Bandura’s social-learning theory provides ample evidence that even when children and adults have not actually performed a behaviour, they can learn by imitation (Bandura, 2001).

The social learning theory of Bandura emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behaviours, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. Bandura (1997) states that learning would be difficult if people had to rely on the effects of their own actions to inform them in terms of what to do. However, most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: by observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action.

Social learning theory, also called observational learning, takes place when an observer’s behavior changes after viewing the behavior of a model (Prochaska & Norcross, 2007). An observer’s behavior can be affected by the positive or negative consequences termed the vicarious reinforcement or vicarious punishment of a model’s behavior. Social learning thus refers to all learning experiences in which social and cognitive factors play a role (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2003).

Bandura identifies three main processes involved in learning: direct experience, indirect or vicarious experience from observing others (modelling), and the storing and processing of complex information through cognitive operations. This theory suggests that behaviours are learned and that they are influenced by social context: “Television is seen as an increasingly influential agent of socialization that produces its effects through children’s propensity to learn by imitation.” (Peterson, Moore & Furstenberg, 1991).

Thus, the theory predicts that people who attend to media content that includes depictions of attractive characters who enjoy having sexual intercourse and rarely suffer any negative consequences will be likely to imitate the behavior (Bandura, 2001). A related idea is that the media provide cognitive scripts for sexual behavior that people may not be able to see anywhere else (Gagnon & Simon, 1973).

Sexually inexperienced people especially may use the media to fill in the gaps in their understanding about how a particular sexual scenario might work (e.g., kissing goodnight at the end of a date, having sex with a new or multiple partners). Walsh-Childers et al., (2002) found that viewers' own expectations for using condoms were affected by depiction of condom use in a soap opera, for example.

What's typically missing from the media's current sexual script, however, is anything having to do with the possible negative consequences of sexual activity or ways to prevent negative outcomes, so it is unlikely that protective behavior could be imitated. Content analyses suggest that media audiences are most likely to learn that sex is consequence free, rarely planned, and more a matter of lust than love (Kunkel et al., 1999; Ward, 1995). From the most sexually explicit media content, now more readily available than ever before on the Internet, cable TV, and videocassettes, they are likely to learn patterns of aggressive sexual behavior, as well (Zillmann, 2000).

The premise of social learning theory is that it focuses on viewers' personal connections with the portrayals via identification and perceived relevance to the self. (Bandura,

2001). The dimensions here emphasize on television characters as models of behaviour. The hypothesis proposes that specific critical portrayals may exert a stronger force on impression-formation and image-building than might the sheer frequency of television characters and behaviours viewed. This notion emphasizes the power of individual performances to affect viewers, most likely portrayals that speak to the viewer in some way (Bandura, 2001).

Social cognitive theory states that individuals have four capabilities - symbolizing, self-reflective, self-regulatory, and vicarious - that they use in order to learn and interact with their environment. Through their symbolizing capability, individuals are able to transform day to day interactions into cognitive models that help to guide future behavior. This capability allows for a person to assign meaning to their environment and the events that occur within that environment. The symbols that are created stand for abstract concepts such as success or popularity (Bandura, 2001). For example, television commercials often show beautiful, desirable people in the advertisements because they hope the audience will transfer the concept of being desirable to the product they are advertising.

Individuals are able to guide their behavior through their self-regulatory capability. This capability allows people to set goals and then use their resources to achieve those goals. People like to view their behaviors as in-line with their goals, so they tend to adapt their behavior so it corresponds to fit their goals. Additionally, the self-regulatory capability allows people to adopt moral standards and ensure their behavior fits within their moral structure. This means that people do not change what they think is right or wrong from week to week, so they are able to change their behavior so it fits within their views of what is acceptable (Bandura, 2001). For example, if a student sets the goal of getting straight A's during a given semester, the self-regulatory capability is what keeps him or her from going out partying the night before a big test.

The self-reflective capability allows people to distinguish between accurate and faulty thinking. People want to verify that their views are correct. They can verify their views either by comparing them to the views of others (social verification) or by examining them for logical flaws (logical verification). However, social verification can sometimes cause faulty thinking, because shared misconceptions are used as the basis of verification (Bandura, 2001). For example, if television constantly sends the message that only the beautiful are successful, it may be used as a basis for social verification and create the misconception that the only way someone will be successful is if he or she is beautiful.

The vicarious capability allows for almost all types of learning to occur through the observation of the actions of others, both intentionally and unintentionally. People are able to model the behaviors they see, and use these as their basis for comparison for their self-regulatory and self-reflective capabilities. Several factors control the amount of observational learning that occurs. For a model to be adopted, the viewer must pay attention to and identify with the model. Additionally, the behaviors will only be reproduced if the behavior is perceived as rewarding (Bandura, 2001). For example, if a woman is shown on television wearing a revealing outfit and this leads to her getting attention from men, a viewer may learn that this is a means of attracting attention. Then she may put this information to use the next time she is getting dressed to go out if she is looking for attention that night.

Although models can be acquired from a variety of sources, performance of learned behavior can be moderated by a variety of motivational factors including the perceived consequences of the actions and an individual's self-efficacy (Bandura, 2001). If someone has seen negative consequences associated with an action, he or she is less likely to engage in the action himself or herself. The behavioral model is devalued when people observe a punishment for the action. Self-efficacy is another important determinate in the replication of modeled behaviors. If a person feels that he or she is

unable to replicate a modeled behavior with the desired results he or she will be unlikely to attempt the behavior. If he or she feels they have the ability to achieve their desired result, behaviors will be more likely to be attempted. Often the experiences of characters on television are integrated into the viewer's behavioral models, especially in situations where they have little or no personal experience (Bandura, 2001).

Television opens up a world to the viewer that they may have little or no personal experience with, but it allows them to learn both acceptable and unacceptable behaviors that they may be able to reference if they are ever in a similar situation. Behaviors with positive outcomes are more likely to be duplicated, so situations where the characters' behaviors are rewarded or valued are more likely to be integrated into the viewer's cognitive map of appropriate behavior.

An early social learning study conducted by Bandura, Grusec, and Menlove (1966) had children view adults engaging in novel activities and then replicate the activities they remembered. One of the groups was told they would receive a small treat for each behavior that they remembered correctly. The researchers found that the group that received the treat remembered more actions than those that did not have an incentive. Sexual experience and satisfaction can serve as a large incentive, or reward, for young adults to attempt to duplicate the behavior they see modeled on television. Content analyses have found that a large proportion of the sex show on television is shown in a carefree fun manner with little risk of negative consequences (Kunkel et al., 2003; Lowery & Towles, 1989).

Additionally, the greater the exposure to a particular behavior model the more likely that it will be integrated into the viewer's cognitive model. This means that if a viewer sees a similar pattern in all the television shows they watch they will be more likely to adopt the behaviors shown as an accepted form of behavior in the real world. The theory also proposes that modeling and integration is more likely to occur when the viewer feels that the characters they see are attractive, or they believe that they are similar to themselves

(Bandura, 2001). Like cultivation theory, this theory has often been used as an explanation for the effects of viewing violent television, but Bandura himself suggests that “sexual viewing fosters more permissive attitudes toward erotic depictions” (Bandura, 1973).

In addition to integrating the behaviors shown on television into their own behavior patterns, people use those televised behaviors as a tool to measure their behaviors against. The models often shown on television are distorted, so using these models as a basis of measure can result in faulty comparison (Bandura, 2001). Researchers have examined the relationship between the perceived reality of the situations shown on television and sexual satisfaction. One study found a correlation between students who felt the sexual situations shown on television were realistic, and a greater satisfaction during both their initial and their subsequent sexual encounters (Baran, 1976).

Bandura's theory predicts that teenagers will imitate or model what they see on television when those television personalities are rewarded or are not punished for their behaviour, and are perceived as attractive, powerful, and similar. Indeed, evidence suggests that perceiving TV figures as sexual role models is associated with more permissive sexual attitudes, more extensive sexual experience, and greater dissatisfaction with one's sexual status and sexual experiences. Thus, it is expected here that the contributions of TV's sexual content will be stronger among teenagers who more closely identify or connect with the portrayals of television personalities (Bandura, 2001).

In light of the aforesaid, the most common examples of social learning situations are television commercials, music television and movies (in television). Sexual content displayed in these programmes may suggest that certain sexual behavior renders girls more attractive and admirable (Brown et al., 1993). Depending on the component processes involved (such as attention or motivation), one may model the behavior shown in the commercial and buy the product being advertised.

According to social learning theory, behavior is modelled by others, observed, and then reproduced (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). This initial imitation is linked to drives (Sears, 1991) and reinforcement (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1997) and Mischel (1993) have argued that reward is not necessary for imitation; it is sufficient for children to perceive the model as being reinforced, causing vicarious reinforcement. In this way modeling, both in the home and through the media, conveys sex role information (Bandura, 1986).

Thus, social learning theory has the potential to explain how the media promotes sex roles and sexual behavior (Bandura, 2001). Depictions of adolescents in the media, their successes, failures, rewards, and punishments, provide models from which beliefs, behavior and attitudes are learned and actions are imitated (Bandura, 2001). Content analyses have found that a large proportion of the sex show on television is shown in a carefree fun manner with little risk of negative consequences (Kunkel et al., 2003; Lowery & Towles, 1989).

Additionally, the greater the exposure to a particular behavior model the more likely that it will be integrated into the viewer's cognitive model. This means that if a viewer sees a similar pattern in all the television shows they watch they will be more likely to adopt the behaviors shown as an accepted form of behavior in the real world. The theory also proposes that modeling and integration is more likely to occur when the viewer feels that the characters they see are attractive, or they believe that they are similar to themselves (Bandura, 2001).

2.2.2 Cultivation theory

Gerbner's (1970) cultivation theory has long been used to explain the relationship between viewing violent media and engaging in violent behavior. This theory proposes that the consistent messages in television programming become ingrained into the viewer's pictures of the world. As viewing increases so does the number of images encountered. The increased exposure eventually leads to a change in the viewers

perceptions about the real world, and this could possibly lead to a change in attitude (Gerbner, 1970). In examining cultivation theory, viewers are divided into *high*, *moderate*, and *low viewers* depending on the amount of total television they watch.

Cultivation studies have shown that *high television viewers* tend to have shared beliefs about the world regardless of demographic or cultural differences (Gerbner et al., 2002). The cultivation theory (Gerbner, Gross, & Signorielli, 1994), proposes that television's consistent images and portrayals construct a specific portrait of reality, and as viewers watch more and more television, they gradually come to cultivate or adopt attitudes and expectations about the world that coincide with this portrait. Accordingly, if content analyses indicate that sex on TV is glamorous, prevalent, recreational, and relatively risk free, the cultivation model predicts that frequent teenage television viewers will be more inclined than sporadic viewers to hold and accept this perspective of sexuality (Gerbner, Gross, & Signorielli, 1994).

Cultivation theory was developed by Gerbner (1970), while working on the Cultural Indicators Project, as an explanation for the effects that media seem to have on the population. The Cultural Indicators Project was an examination of the themes common in the media to determine which ones were being adopted by the public. The prevalence of a theme in the media, such as violence, sex, or gender roles, is examined. It is thought that the more prevalent a theme, the more likely it is that a large portion of the viewing public will view media containing that theme.

The common themes are then ranked by their prevalence in the media, and examined to determine if they have positive or negative qualities. Researchers then observe the extent to which people have adopted these media themes into their views of the real world. Themes that are continuously common in the media for long periods of time are the themes most likely to be adopted. Content analyses have shown that television consistently shows a world in which sex is common and carries little risk or consequence; so the cultivation model would predict that frequent viewers would

incorporate these characteristics into their views about sex (Farrar et al., 2003; Fisher et al., 2004; Franzblau, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein, 1977).

Cultivation research examines effects in two different ways. Researchers first measure a person's perceptions about the world around him or her. These are considered first-level effects and are often measured by asking about the number of people who engage in a certain activity. Researchers then measure respondents' attitudes and beliefs. These are the second level of cultivation effects. If second-level effects are found it means that the viewer has adopted the attitudes of television programming into his or her own attitudes about the world (Gerbner et al., 2002).

An important concept in the cultivation effect is the idea of mainstreaming. Mainstreaming is the idea that *high television viewing* overrides differences in views about the world and behaviors that would ordinarily come from other sources such as family, age, political affiliation, race, culture, or other demographic differences (Gerbner et al., 2002). This means that *high television viewers* are more likely to have more homogeneous views than their lighter viewing counterparts.

Most of the current cultivation research, with regard to sexual themes and attitudes, has examined soap opera viewing. Soap operas often contain situations and characters that are not consistent with the real world. These findings are especially relevant given the large amounts of sex contained in most soap operas (Heintz-Knowles, 1996; Lowry & Towles, 1989). Carveth and Alexander (1985) found that increased exposure to soap operas, looking at both the amount of time spent watching in a week and the number of years of regular viewing, was associated with a version of the real world that contained many of the themes portrayed in soap operas than those who watched little or no soap operas. Soap opera viewers were significantly more likely to provide higher estimates for the number of divorced males and females and the number of people with illegitimate children.

These relationships held true even after controlling for demographic variables such as age, gender, and other daily television viewing. This study surveyed college students enrolled in a communications course. It is possible they would have seen an even greater influence had they surveyed adults who had been regularly watching soap operas for longer periods of time. Some research has indicated that a person's reasons for viewing a program may have an impact on the strength of the cultivation effect (Perse, 1986). In a survey of college students enrolled in undergraduate courses in a variety of majors, Perse found that although people who were *high soap opera viewers* held a view of the world that was more like what was seen in soap operas, with large numbers of female doctors and lawyers, large numbers of illegitimate children and divorced couples, and higher numbers of people who have committed serious crimes. The cultivation effect was stronger in those subjects who watched soap operas for excitement, entertainment, information or escape even after controlling for demographic factors. The researcher also found that the more realistic viewers thought the soap operas were, the stronger the cultivation effect. This study suggests that cultivation may be more likely to occur when the viewers intentions are more goal oriented.

Cultivation theory would support the idea that *high television viewers* would be more likely to have views about sex similar to those shown on television (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Strouse, 1993). Researchers examined the viewing habits and sexual attitudes of undergraduate students enrolled in speech communication classes. Students were asked about the types of shows they regularly watch both during the day and at night. This study found that *high television viewers* gave higher estimates when asked about the amount of sex people typically engage in. *High viewing* is also related to more positive attitudes about engaging in sex without love.

The researchers also discovered the number of years a person had spent watching soap operas and the amount of television sitcoms he or she viewed were both related to the likelihood that he or she would not admit virginity. Years of soap opera viewing and

viewing of action adventure shows was found to be related to not being a virgin at time of marriage. Other research has shown heavy television viewing is related to negative attitudes about remaining a virgin (Courtright & Baran, 1980). Gerbner's cultivation theory depends on the idea that themes are consistent throughout all television programming, which means that the genre of programming a person watched was unimportant (Gerbner, 1970). More current research suggests that themes about sex or violence seem to be more consistent when looking within a particular genre than looking at programming as a whole (Kunkel et al., 2003). Television comedies were shown to contain larger amounts of sexual content than reality or news shows (Kunkel et al., 2003).

According to Cultivation Theory, television is the most powerful storyteller in the culture, one that continually repeats the myths and ideologies, the facts and patterns of relationships that define and legitimize the social order. According to the cultivation hypothesis, a steady dose of television, over time, acts like the pull of gravity toward an imagined center. This pull results in a shared set of conceptions and expectations about reality among otherwise diverse viewers (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, & Signorelli, 1994).

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2.3 Conceptual Framework

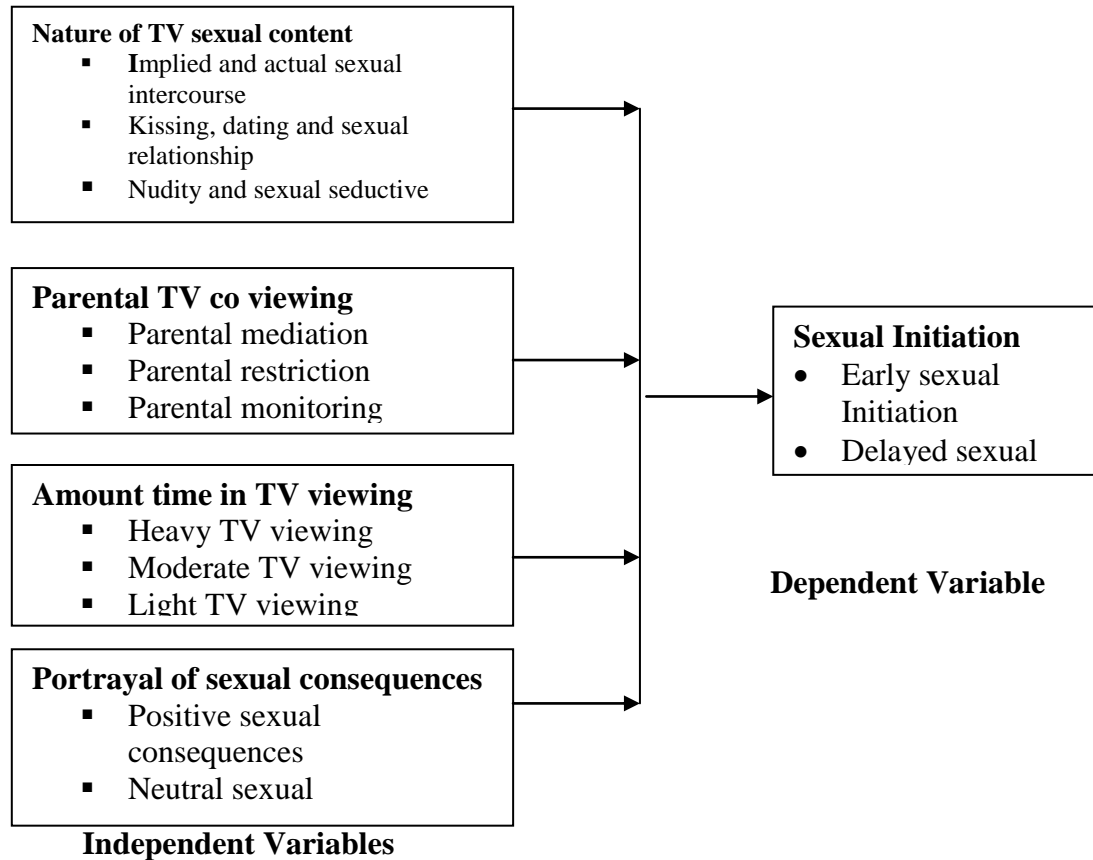


Figure 2.1 Conceptual Framework

The Conceptual Framework, illustrated above is a research tool intended to assist determine the association between television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. The main independent variable is television viewing. The main dependent variable is the sexual initiation among the youth. According to Goetz and LeCompte (1984), and Bliss, Monk and Ogborn (1983) this conceptual framework increasingly strengthens and keeps the researcher on track by providing clear links from the literature to the research objectives and questions. This conceptual framework conceptualizes the problem and provides a means to link ideas and data so that deeper connections can be revealed.

2.3.1 The nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to

Sexual content is prevalent in television programming (Cope-Farrar & Kunkel, 2002; Farrar et al., 2003; Fisher et al., 2004; Franzblau, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein, 1977; Kunkel et al., 2003). Although sexual content in the television media can affect any age group, adolescents may be particularly be vulnerable (Ward, 2003) since they are still in the impressionable developmental stages and are attempting to establish their own identity. Adolescents may be exposed to sexual content in the media during a developmental period when gender roles, sexual attitudes, and sexual behaviours are being shaped (Brown & Newcomer, 1991). Consequently, this group may be at risk because among other things cognitive skills may not allow them to critically analyze messages from the media, while the ability to make decisions based on possible future outcomes is not yet fully developed at this stage (Haferkamp, 1999).

Pardun, L'Engle, and Brown (2005) did a study on the effect of sexual content in media on adolescents. During their study, they found that about 41% of what they considered to be sexual content in media consisted of either partial or full nudity (2005, p. 88). Something as shocking as nudity or graphic sex in media is hard to remove from the mind, and it may linger in a young person's thoughts for a long time. The more one thinks about such things, the more likely one is to be influenced by them.

There has been a growing concern over the influence that television may have on the sexual behaviour of the youth. Information from research has clearly shown that the youth have access to television and that they are exposed to sexual content (Kunkel *et al.*, 1999). Strouse and Buerkel-Rothfus (1993) observe that viewing of sexual content on television may affect sexual behaviour of the youth. Ward (2002) also notes that endorsement of gender stereotypes was likely to promote sexual initiation and dissatisfaction with virginity as well as other perceptions regarding normative sexual behaviour. Researchers have found that some television genres contain more sexual content than others (Kunkel et al., 2003). The influence as a result of exposure to sexual

content may lead youth in engaging in premarital sexual activity which may lead to putting the youth at risk of reproductive health problems such as unwanted pregnancies and contracting sexually transmitted diseases.

Analyses of broadcast media content in America indicates that, on average, adolescent view (Anderson, 2004; Ward & Friedman, 2006) incidents of sexual behavior on network television at the most important times each week, with portrayals of three to four times as many sexual activities occurring between unmarried partners as between spouses. As much as 80% of all movies shown on television stations have sexual content (Brown & newcomer, 1991; Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Flowers-Coulson, Kushner & Bankowski, 2000).

Consistent with previous analysis of television content, Ward (1999) found that sexuality was a common topic (roughly one third of the content of prime-time shows popular with adolescents). The most sexually oriented show consisted of nearly 60% sexual dialogue and suggestion. Male sexuality was featured more often than female sexuality. The three most frequent sexual themes were sexual/romantic relations as competition, men valuing and selecting women on the basis of physical appearance, and sex as the defining act of masculinity (Ward, 1999, 2003).

The media exposes adolescents to sexual scripting of behaviours they may not have observed elsewhere (Brown & Newcomer, 1991). On prime-time television, the occurrence of premarital and extramarital sex far outnumbered sex between spouses, with the rate soaring 24:1 in soap operas (Larson, 1995). The rate is 32:1 in R-rated movies (Greenberg et al., 1996). In action-adventure series, premarital sex and prostitution are the most frequent encounters (Greenberg et al., 1993; Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999). Between 1980 and 1985, references to, or portrayals of, sexual activity increased by 103% (Larson, 1995); thus, the average adolescent viewer in 1985 was exposed to around 2,000 sexual references during this year (Greenberg et al., 1993). In social

learning theory (Bandura, 1971), young people can learn about sexuality from others depicted in the media.

The few studies of the effects of television on adolescents' sexual beliefs have found that prime-time programmes and music videos, focusing on sex outside marriage, promote more justifiable attitudes about premarital sex (Huston et al., 1998; Ward & Friedman, 2006). Ward and Friedman (2006) further state that it is credible to conclude that adolescents who were having sexual intercourse were also those most interested in sexual content in the media, rather than that exposure to sexual media was accelerating the initiation of their sexual activity.

Along with the examination of media usage, several researchers have attempted to explain the relationship between adolescent sexuality and the media. Correlational studies indicate that exposure to sexually suggestive materials is associated with premarital sex, although whether sexually active remains uncertain (Brown et al., 1990; Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Lackey & Moberg, 1998; Malamuth & Impett, 2001; Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987). Other researchers have found sexual content in the media to exert minimal, if any, impact on the sexual activity of adolescents (Peterson et al., 1991). Additionally, watching television to learn about the world has been found to be associated with more recreational attitudes about sex (Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999).

Studies (Aubrey et al., 2003; Brown et al. 2005; Strouse et al., 1995; Ward, 2003) have assessed the associations between the degree and nature of adolescents' exposure to television sexual content and their sexual attitudes and behavior. Experimental studies (Eggermont, 2005; Fay & Yanoff, 2000; Paik, 2001; Ward, 2003) have shown that viewing sexual content can exert moderate effects on sexual knowledge or attitudes, but it is unclear whether these effects are sustained over time or result in changes in sexual intentions or behavior.

A recent nationally representative survey of teens ages 15-17 found that many of them (72%) believe that the sexual messages on television influence the behaviors of teens their age; however, only 22% believe the messages influence their personal behavior (*Teens, Sex and TV, 2002*). Additionally, only about a third of those surveyed said that television with sexual content can act as a catalyst for conversations about sex between parents and teens (*Teens, Sex and TV, 2002*).

An analysis of music television indicates that 60% portray sexual feelings and impulses, while a substantial minority display provocative clothing and sexually suggestive body movements. Therefore, an analysis of media content also shows that sexual messages on television are almost universally presented in a positive light, with little discussion of potential risks of unprotected sexual intercourse and few portrayals of adverse consequences (Anderson, 2004; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001).

Love songs and romance have always been popular in television media (Durham, 1999). However, the music that is popular today is often harsh and sexually explicit and many fear it is contributing to teen pregnancy, sexual assault, substance abuse, depression, and suicide (Durham, 1999; Klein, Brown, Childers, Oliveri, Porter, & Dykers, 1993; Ward, 2003). Furthermore, the music videos that are also shown on television nowadays tend to be sexually explicit as well.

Music Television (MTV) has been found to be associated with premarital sexual permissiveness (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Strouse & BuerkelRothfuss, 1987). Kenyan television music is laden with staggering sexual graphics. (Gakuha, 2010). Most songs include innuendo, partial nudity and sexual situations and behavior. The television media channels depict half-dressed women in sexually suggestive body movements and often play lyrics intended to inflame sexual feelings, (O'Toole, 1997). Gakahu (2010) informs that Kenya's television media, through the music industry, gives a distorted outlook to sexual behavior. Songs in these media easily contribute to an overdrive in sexual passion among the youth. In essence, the intended message is completely diluted,

and the youths are seemingly being encouraged to venture into casual sex (Gakahu, 2005).

Music television programmes uses fast-paced visuals to grab the attention of a very specific youthful audience-a generation that has been raised with different ways of processing information (Gakahu, 2005). They use sexual images of women through short, sharp, shots of intense visual pleasure, to encourage viewers to watch closely and stay focused so that they do not miss out anything.

2.3.2 Amount of time in TV viewing and sexual activity among the youth

According to Brown *et al.* (1996), youths are heavy consumers of sexually oriented media sources including television. In addition, it has been established that television broadcast contains a high, growing and increasingly explicit dose of sexual messages which is directed towards youth (Kunkel *et al.*, 1997). The American Academy of Paediatrics recommends that children and adolescents view television no more than 2 hours each day and that parents take an active role in guiding television use (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2001).

Research has shown heavy television viewing is related to negative attitudes about remaining a virgin (Courtright & Baran, 1980). According to Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss (1987), both heavy regular consumption of experimental exposure to sexually-oriented genres, such as soap operas and music videos, have been related to expressing more liberal sexual attitudes (Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987), to being more accepting of sexual improprieties, and to more increased negative attitudes towards remaining a virgin. In a study done by Hawk, Vanwesenbeeck, de Graaf, and Bakker (2006), it was revealed that the more that either male or female adolescents were exposed to sexual media, the more likely they were to initiate sex (p. 361).

In a study done by a pediatric group, a correlation between sexual exposure through media and teen pregnancies was revealed. This group of doctors found that young girls who were exposed to a high level of sexual content in media were about twice as likely to become pregnant in their teenage years than girls who were exposed to low levels of sexual content (Chandra, Martino, Collins, Elliott, Berry, Kanouse, & Miu, 2007, p. 1052). Girls considered to be under high exposure were in the 90th percentile or higher for sexual exposure, and girls considered to be under low exposure were in the 10th percentile or lower. This correlation shows strong evidence that exposure to sexual content in media can influence the sexual attitudes and behaviors of young girls. This would suggest that not only is the sexual content in media encouraging young people to have sex, but it is encouraging unprotected sex.

The traditional view of cultivation theory is that there will be significant differences in the views of *high* and *low* viewers of television no matter what content they are viewing (Gerbner, 1970). Previous research has also suggested that it is not the content of the programs being watched, but the amount of television a person views that has a relationship with the viewers attitudes about sex (Pardun, L'Engle, & Brown, 2005).

Burrkel-Rothfuss and Strouse (1993), Ward (2002) and Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) tried to investigate the relationship between television exposure and expectations about the level of activity among peers. They established that heavy viewers of soap operas tend to overestimate the prevalence of sexual activity in real life and that more frequent TV exposure is related to greater expectations of peer sexual experiences. Infact, according to Ward (2003, p. 238) TV appears to create the impression that “everyone is doing it”. On the other hand greater TV exposure and greater viewing involvement have been associated with stronger support for recreational attitudes (Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999) and acceptance of stereotypes as “men are sex driven” and women are sexual objects” (Ward, 2002).

Several studies by Aubrey et al., (2003), and Ward (2002) have supported the concept that television's recurrent portrayal of certain sexual acts makes them seem more common or acceptable. According to Strouse, et al. (1987), it has been found that people who view soap operas regularly tend to overestimate the prevalence of sexual activity in real life, and that more frequent television exposure is related to greater expectations of peer sexual experience in a sample of 259 undergraduate students. Television appears to create the impression that everyone is doing it (Ward, 2003).

More recent studies have also found an abundance of sexual references in a variety of programmes (Greenberg & Busselle, 1996; Kunkel et al., 1999). In a study of college students, Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) found that more frequent viewing in terms of the nature of the show (e.g., soap operas, comedies, and dramas) indicated more frequent viewing of sexual content.

Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) examined the media consumption and sexual behavior of 18 to 24 year old undergraduate students. The results indicated that greater exposure to and identification with television programmes that included sexual content were associated with stronger endorsement of recreational attitudes towards sex, higher expectations of the sexual activity of one's peers, and more extensive sexual experience. On the other hand, others have not found evidence of a link between the quantity and content of television viewing and the initiation of sexual activity (Peterson et al., 1991).

The single longitudinal study on this topic found that adolescents (12-17 years old) who watched television shows with more sexual content were more likely than those who viewed fewer shows with sexual content to have engaged in more advanced sexual behavior, as well as sexual intercourse, up to one year later. Larson (1995) is of the opinion that the exposure to portrayals of sex may affect adolescents in developing beliefs about cultural norms as well. Paik (2001) states that television may create the illusion that sex is more central to daily life than it truly is and may promote sexual initiation as a result, a process known as media cultivation.

A study by Bakker et al. (2006) of African American girls aged 14 to 18 years found that teens with either multiple sexual partners or a history of sexually transmitted infections reported a higher rate of viewing television shows which depicted women as sexual objects or prizes. Brown and Newcomer (1991) found that television viewing patterns differed according to the sexual status of the adolescent (virgin versus sexually active), with sexually active teens viewing more television with a high level of sexual content.

A three-wave longitudinal study of junior high school students (Brown & Newcomer, 1991) found that neither the total amount of television viewing nor the total amount of sexually oriented television viewing related to the likelihood of engaging in heterosexual intercourse earlier or later. Rather, the proportion of sexual programming viewed relative to all types of programming viewed was significantly related to adolescents' sexual activity

Two correlational studies have found relationships between the frequency of television viewing and initiation of intercourse in samples of high school students. However, because these were only cross-sectional analyses, it was not possible to say with certainty which came first, the TV viewing or the sexual behavior (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Peterson, Moore, & Furstenberg, 1991). It is possible that teens who were becoming interested in sex had turned to sexual content in the media because it was now salient in their lives. It also is possible that the teens saw the ubiquitous and typically risk-free sexual media content as encouragement for them to engage in sexual behavior sooner than they might have otherwise. It is most likely that both causal sequences are operating, but longitudinal studies of young adolescents are needed to conclude that with more certainty

According to Collins et al., (2004), heavy exposure to sexual content on television related strongly to teens' initiation of intercourse. Youths who viewed the greatest amounts of sexual content were two times more likely than those who viewed the

smallest amount to initiate sexual intercourse during the following year. A different set of factors was found to decrease the likelihood of first intercourse.

Findings indicate that adolescent girls choose network television programmes with sexual content more often than older adolescent males, and spend more time watching it (Aubrey et al.,2003; Bakker et al.,2006; Brown et al., 2005; Eggermont,2005; Greenberg & Busselle,1996; Huston et al.,1998; Roberts,2000; Villani,2001; Ward,2003), (Huston et al., 1998; Ward & Friedman,2006).

Brown and Newcomer (1991) found that neither the total number of hours exposed to television nor the total number of hours exposed to sexual content on television were related to sexual behavior. Roberts (2000) and Villani (2001) state that adolescents of both sexes who watch and listen to much media are more likely to accept stereotypes of sex roles on television as realistic than those who are less frequent viewers.

2.3.3 Parental television co-viewing on sexual initiation among the youth

Co-viewing refers to parents and children watching television together (Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peeters, & Marseille, 1999). Television with sexual content can act as a catalyst for conversations about sex between parents and teens (*Teens, Sex and TV, 2002*). Co-viewing could communicate that parents hold positive attitudes toward the material, leading children to pay closer attention to and learn from programs that are co-viewed. Parents can be key agents in shaping adolescents' sexual outcomes (Handelsman, Cabral, & Weisfeld, 1987; Holtzman & Robinson, 1995; Jaccard & Dittus, 1991; Karofsky, Zeng, & Kosorok, 2000; O'Sullivan, Jaramillo, Moreau, & Meyer-Bahlburg, 1999; Rodgers, 1999).

Several studies have observed that television viewing among the youth is pervasive and many of them view television alone with or without input from adults (Roberts, 2000). Majority of the social scientist have observed that the reason why television is likely to have influence in the sexual behaviour of the youth is because parents are known to

provide very little information on sexuality while schools tends to focus their attention on the biological approach with little attention to romance and interpersonal relationships (Strasburger, 1993).Teens are likely to turn to the media for answers to their questions about what is sexually acceptable (Ward, 2002). Additionally, parents are often hesitant to talk to their teens about sex, because they do not want to believe that their kids are having sex (Aratani, 2005).

Another study found that watching television with sexual content or sexual themes can open up lines of communication between parents and adolescents with regards to sexual issues (Collins et al., 2003).Parental discussion is related to later onset of sex (Fisher, 1987; Pick & Palos, 1995), fewer sexual partners (Leland & Barth, 1993), more effective contraceptive use (Fisher, 1987; Miller, Levin, Whitaker, & Xu, 1998; Thompson & Spanier, 1978), and reduced incidence of pregnancy and AIDS (Jaccard & Dittus, 1993).

Adolescents may infer that co-viewing parents have favorable attitudes toward sex, which could lead to risky sexual behaviors. Restrictive mediation occurs when parents set rules about children’s television viewing (Weaver & Barbour, 1992). The existence of viewing rules can decrease the importance of television for children (Nathanson, 1999). However, Nathanson (2002) found that adolescents were more likely to seek out restricted content elsewhere.

Restrictive mediation of sexual content may generate unintended effects among adolescence, especially with regards to the “forbidden fruit” response, in which the restricted behavior becomes more tantalizing and pursued because it is restricted (Bijvank, Konjin, Bushman, & Roelofsma, 2009; Bushman & Stack, 1996). As a result, restricting sexual content can increase its attractiveness among adolescents (Cantor, Harrison, & Nathanson, 1997). This could lead them to watch more sexual content when parents are absent (Nathanson, 2002), which could increase acceptance of the stereotyped and recreational views of sex portrayed on television.

Similarly, Lewis (1973) reported that by discussing sex, parents can transmit sexual values to adolescents. Likewise, the absence of parent–child communication can send messages about parents’ attitudes about sex (Darling & Hicks, 1982). However, Moore, Peterson, and Furstenberg (1986) found little evidence that parental communication and monitoring discouraged sexual activity. Others (e.g., Jaccard, Dittus, & Gordon, 1996; Widmer, 1997) have observed positive relationships between parent–child communication and sexual activity.

Although early studies have focused on frequency and content of conversations (Rosenthal, Senserrick, & Feldman, 2001), recent work has revealed that communication styles are important predictors of adolescents’ sexual outcomes (Boone & Lefkowitz, 2007). Research on parenting styles makes the distinction between an open, warm communication style and one that is focused on asserting power (Baumrind, 1968), with the former being more effective than the latter (Baumrind, 1997; Hoffman, 1970).

However, adolescents are often dissatisfied with how parents communicate about sex. Adolescents often feel that their parents are controlling and use a lecturing style when discussing sex (Rosenthal et al., 2001). In fact, Pistella and Bonati (1999) found that more than half of teenaged girls wished their parents would listen more and talk with them on an adult level. Researchers (Collins et al., 2004) concluded that entertainment shows that include portrayals of sexual risks and consequences can potentially have two beneficial effects on teen sexual awareness: They can teach accurate messages about sexual risks, and they can stimulate a conversation with adults that can reinforce those messages.

The first RAND study, (Collins et al., 2004) found out that reducing teens’ exposure to portrayals of sex on television poses challenges, however, having parents view programs with their children and discuss their own beliefs regarding the behavior depicted can reinforce the benefits of accurate risk information and positive messages and may help to limit the negative effects of sexual portrayals that do not contain risk information.

According to Donnerstein and Smith (2001), research shows that parents who openly communicate and actively co-view television may protect adolescents from potentially detrimental effects of exposure. Frequency of viewing (Malamuth & Impett, 2001) appears to be important as well. Different mass media serve various social/psychological functions at different stages of adolescence (Fine et al., 1990). Television is often viewed together with parents and siblings.

Parental Mediation behaviours may involve setting rules on how much, when and what television content teenagers can use (restrictive mediation), discussing television content with the teenager (active or instructive mediation), and the act of using television together, such as co-viewing TV (Valkenburg, Krömer, Peeters, & Marseille, 1999). Parental restrictions may lessen exposure to particular forms of media content. Restrictions may also reduce the extent to which children pay attention and attach importance to sexual TV content (Nathanson, 1999).

However, one study of teenagers suggested parental restriction may also have unwanted consequences, encouraging less positive attitudes towards parents and more co-viewing with friends (Nathanson, 2002). A few studies of teenage television viewing have suggested parental restriction of TV is protective against early sex (Ashby, Arcari, & Edmonson, 2006; Bersamin et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2009). Two of these studies (Bersamin et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2009) measured parental restrictions in general terms, taking into account checks on what teenagers were watching, limits on duration of viewing and any prohibition of programmes. Another measured parental restrictions on content, but found a protective effect only for teenagers who also reported strong parental disapproval of sex (Ashby et al., 2006). Despite the near universal prevalence of bedroom Television for teenagers in many high-income countries (Bovill & Livingstone, 2001; Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010), most teenagers still prefer to watch TV in the living room where it provides opportunities for social interaction and discussion of programmes with parents (“active mediation”) (Adriaens, Van Damme, & Courtois,

2011; Nathanson, 1999). Without overt expression of parental disapproval, co-viewing may signal parental endorsement of programmes that parents and children watch together (Nathanson, 2001b, 2002). However, parental TV co-viewing and restrictions on media use both decline through the teenage years (de Leeuw et al., 2011; Sang, Schmitz, & Tasche, 1992).

The ease of access and the frankness of content make television an attractive information source for the answers to questions that people are often too embarrassed to otherwise ask (Greenberg, Linsangan, & Soderman, 1993). It is especially attractive to young people who may not be comfortable enough with parents or peers to talk about sex (Baran, 1976; Courtright & Baran, 1980). Television has always contained some sexual content, but the amount is increasing and the content is becoming more and more graphic (Kunkel et al., 2003).

2.3.4 Portrayal of sexual consequences on television

Content analyses of sex on television have provided a great deal of information about the frequency and explicitness of sexual behavior and dialogue (Fernandez-Collado, Greenberg, Korzenny, & Atkin, 1978; Franzblau, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein, 1977; Greenberg et al., 1993; Kunkel, Cope, & Biely, 1999; Kunkel, Cope, & Colvin, 1996; Kunkel, Cope-Farrar, Biely, Farinola, & Donnerstein, 2001; Sprafkin & Silverman, 1981; Truglio, 1998; Ward, 1995). A common theme from content analyses is that sex on television is virtually free of consequences (Kunkel et al., 1996, 1999, 2001; Sprafkin & Silverman, 1981; Truglio, 1998). For example, Truglio (1998) found that a 1990 representative sample of 109 network television programs contained only 16 references to any form of unwanted pregnancy or STD in the entire sample.

Researchers have typically defined *sexual consequences* as physical and have downplayed the more ubiquitous emotional and social consequences of sex. In biennial content analyses of primetime television shows, Kunkel et al. (1999, 2001, 2003) coded

“risk or responsibility themes,” defined as sexual patience (waiting until a relationship matures and both people are equally ready to engage in sex), sexual precaution (pursuing efforts to prevent AIDS, STDs, and/or unwanted pregnancy), and depiction of risks and/or negative consequences of irresponsible sexual behavior, such as unwanted pregnancy and anxiety about contracting AIDS.

Two of these three themes were hinged on the definition of *consequences* as physical, that is, STDs and unwanted pregnancies. Kunkel et al. (2003) concluded that although risk/responsibility themes were relatively rare amid the large number of scenes with sexual talk or behavior, they had increased modestly since the 1998 sample of television programming. The percentage of scenes with any sexual content that mentioned risk/responsibility was 4% in 1998 and 6% in 2002, and the percentage of episodes with risk/responsibility themes increased from 9% in 1998 to 15% in 2002.

Although researchers have defined the *negative consequences of sexuality* as physical, it appears that adolescents are just as concerned with the *emotional* and *social* consequences of sex. For example, adolescents are relatively unconcerned about the physical dangers of sex and more concerned about the maintenance of their sexual reputations, about uncertainty and confusion about their bodies, and about their emotional relationships with their sexual partners (Martin, 1996).

The social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1997) suggests that adolescents seeing other adolescents enjoying sexual behaviour with no negative consequences have increased probability of observational learning and behaviour imitation. Content analyses have found that a large proportion of the sex show on television is shown in a carefree fun manner with little risk of negative consequences (Kunkel et al., 2003; Lowery & Towles, 1989). An analysis of media content also shows that sexual messages on television are almost universally presented in a positive light, with little discussion of potential risks of unprotected sexual intercourse and few portrayals of adverse consequences (Anderson, 2004; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001).

Teens are likely to turn to the media for answers to their questions about what is sexually acceptable (Ward, 2002). (Truglio, 1992) has observed that adolescents who use television to learn about social relationships believe that TV portrayals are more realistic than do other adolescents. In cases where youth have little knowledge about sexuality, media may create expectations about sexuality (Baran, 1976b). Their questions may be answered by television programs that promote an environment that is sexually open and has few consequences. For example, in the hit show “Friends,” all of the characters have had sex with at least one of the others, but no one contracted a sexually transmitted disease and only one ended up with an unwanted pregnancy (Stepp, 2003). Another example is the HBO show “Sex in the City,” which is about single women and their romantic encounters. All of the women on that show have engaged with sex with a large number of men. One character even calculates that she has had sex with forty-two men. Only one character, however, caught a sexually transmitted disease, and only one got pregnant (Chunovic, 2000). Even teens themselves cannot find many positive role models for sexual decision making on television (*Teens, Sex and TV, 2002*).

Another study surveyed undergraduate students about how they felt sex was portrayed on television and in film (Baran, 1976). This study found that students who viewed television and film portrayals of sexual intercourse as realistic were more likely to be dissatisfied with being virgins. Another study found that those who felt television portrayals were close to the real world expected sex sooner in a relationship and expected a greater variety of sexual acts (Aubrey et al., 2003). A study done by Nabi & Clark (2008) revealed that only 14% of programs with sexual content in 2005 mentioned unwanted consequences such as unplanned pregnancies or sexually transmitted diseases or showed “sexual responsibility” such as using some form of protection during sex (p. 408).

Chia & Gunther (2006) believe that this depiction of sex in media can promote the Sex in the Media misconception that everyone in real life is participating in such risky

behavior, and if one does not participate in them, they are an exception to the norm (p. 303). The lack of messages about sexual risk and responsibility is even more concerning than the sheer amount of sexual content on television. Fisher et al.'s (2004) study found that only 5.2% of shows that contained sexual content also contained messages about sexual patience or precaution. Additionally, another study found that only 2% of prime-time programs containing sexual content also contain sexually responsible program themes (Farrar et al., 2003). Other research has shown that in the few instances when consequences arise from a sexual act they are often shown to be positive (Cope-Farrar & Kunkel, 2002).

Exposure to the social models provided by television may also alter beliefs about the likely outcome of engaging in sexual activity (Chunovic, 2000). Social learning theory predicts that teens who see characters having casual sex without experiencing negative consequences will be more likely to adopt the behaviours portrayed (Greenberg, Brown & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1993). Although televised sexual portrayals can theoretically inhibit sexual activity when they include depictions of sexual risks (such as the possibility of contracting an STI or becoming pregnant), abstinence, or the need for sexual activity, this type of depiction occurs in only 15% of shows with sexual content (Greenberg et al., 1993; Ward, 2003). As a result, sexual content on television is far more likely to promote sexual activity among American adolescents than discourage it (Larson, 1995; Malamuth & Impett, 2001).

It is a commonly accepted belief that adolescents are very impressionable. It is easy to see that they imitate their favorite celebrities, or other role models, in their dress, actions, and speech. However, there may be a scientific basis to their behavior. Keren Eyal of the Interdisciplinary Center and Keli Finnerty of the Department of Communication (2009) believe that adolescents' imitation of what they see, particularly in the media, is an example of Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (2009). Bandura's theory essentially says that there is an increase in the modeling of the behavior we see if

there are positive results and an increase in modeling if there are no negative consequences to those who perform the behavior (2009). According to the Social Cognitive Theory, humans naturally mimic what they see unless there are undesirable consequences to the behavior. Teenagers seem to be especially driven by this pattern of behavior because they are at a critical point in the development of their identity, so they copy almost anything that seems to benefit the image of the people who do them.

There is a wide range of consequences that can result from sexual activities, including emotional reactions (e.g., guilt, regret), effects on social relationships (e.g., improvement or deterioration of a relationship with a partner, peer, or parent), and physical outcomes (e.g., becoming intentionally or unintentionally pregnant). Outcomes can be long-lasting or transient, positive or negative, insignificant or seriously impactful on people's lives. For example, major public health concerns involve the rates of unplanned youth pregnancy and STD contraction in the United States (Alan Guttmacher Institute, 2004; Fox, 2004; Kaiser Family Foundation, 2005).

Considering the high rates of casual sexual relations in which young people engage (Paul, McManus, & Hayes, 2000), it is important to consider the messages to which they are exposed in the media about the outcomes of such behaviors, as these may directly and indirectly affect their behavioral choices. The portrayal of such consequences of intercourse on television can affect viewers' attitudes toward sexual intercourse; their outcome and risk expectancies; and, in turn, their sexual behavior.

In their assessment of the valence of consequences to sexual intercourse, Kunkel and colleagues (1999, 2001) found that whereas consequences were positive in less than one fourth of the programs, the majority showed either no consequences to sexual intercourse or consequences that were primarily negative. Similarly, in a content analysis of prime-time programs that feature teens or young adults, Aubrey (2004) found that only slightly more than one third of the scenes with sexual content made some mention of consequences to sexuality. Of these consequences, 88% were negative, with

the vast majority being emotional and social (disappointment, feeling guilt or anxiety, humiliation, and rejection). Fewer than 1 in 5 references resulted in physical outcomes (unwanted pregnancy, contraction of an STD, and physical abuse by a sexual partner), and less than 1 in 10 were punitive (punishment by others for engaging in a sexual act).

2.3.5 Sexual initiation among the youth

Early sexual debut has been singled out to be the major risk-taking behavior among youths in Kenya (NAS COP, 2007). Anderson et al. (2007) reported that the high prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS infection in South Africa was attributed to the youth initiating sex at an early age; as a consequence most of them spent more years of their lives at the risk of the infection. Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) [Kenya], Ministry of Health (MOH) [Kenya], and ORC Macro (2003) also reported that 18 % of women aged 25-49 had sex before attaining 15 years; more than half had first sex by their 18th year while 25 % of men aged 20-54 had sex before age 15.

According to UNICEF, UNAIDS and WHO (2002), youths who engage in sex before adolescence were more likely to have sex with high-risk partners or multiple partners, and are less likely to use condoms. Thus, delaying the age at which youth engage in sex for the first time could significantly protect them from infection. Studies in Tanzania (Masatu et al, 2003; Exavery et al, 2011) have shown that young adolescents engage in sexual behaviors including sexual initiation at an earlier age, have multiple partners and unprotected sex.

This suggests that the onset of sexual activity define potential exposure of adolescents to the risk of HIV/AIDS infection and again, engaging in first sex is the entry point to the subsequent risk-taking behavior. Unplanned pregnancies and STDs are more common among those who begin sexual activity earlier (Collins et al., 2004). Fay and Yanoff (2000) state that early sexual initiation is an important health issue, and thus, raises the question of why individuals become sexually involved at young ages. What factors

accelerate sexual initiation, and what factors delay its onset? There are many well-documented predictors of age of initiation into intercourse, both social and physical (Roberts, Foehr, Rideout & Brodie, 1999). However, according to Ward, (2003), one factor commonly mentioned by parents and policy makers as promoting sex among adolescents is television. There is scientific reason to think that television may be a key contributor to early sexual activity (Chunovic, 2000, Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999; Ward & Friedman, 2006).

64% of adults in the U.S. believe that television encourages teenagers to initiate early sexual activity (Strouse, Buerkel-Rothfuss, & Long, 1995). According to Martino et al. (2005), television media brings about sexual behaviors, specifically coital, earlier than they would occur without this influence. After viewing sexual behavior on television, adolescents become more confident and are not as afraid or shy to experiment sexually (Martino et al., 2005). Teens who watch sexual content on the television media are more likely to engage in sex and tend to have negative attitudes about being a virgin (Ward,1995).

Adolescents on the verge of their first sexual experience tend to be quite young, and their limited knowledge and experience make them less confident and skilled at all planning ahead and taking the measures needed to avoid unsafe sex. Moreover, their young independence from their parents makes adolescents more susceptible to peer-pressures and norms, especially at younger ages. This issue is compounded through the influence the media plays in young peoples' lives. Sexual initiation is strongly manipulated by culture, and television is an important part of an adolescent's culture (Ward, 2003).Sexual initiation among adolescents and young adults in Sub-Saharan Africa starts early and more males than females are sexually active before marriage; this difference is gradually disappearing (Blum & Mmari, 2005).

Sexual television content affects attitudes and beliefs conducive to early sexual initiation, including more permissive sexual norms, more positive expectations regarding

sex and greater safe-sex self-efficacy (Bleakley, Hennessy, Fishbein, & Jordan, 2011; Braun-Courville & Rojas, 2009; Martino, Collins, Elliott, Kanouse, & Berry, 2009; Peter & Valkenburg, 2009). Several US longitudinal studies have found that exposure to sexual content in TV programmes predicts earlier timing of sexual behaviour (Bleakley, Hennessy, Fishbein, & Jordan, 2008; Brown & L'Engle, 2009; Brown et al., 2006; Collins et al., 2004; Martino et al., 2006; O'Hara, Gibbons, Gerrard, Li, & Sargent, 2012).

Sexual activity among female adolescents has resulted in unwanted pregnancies and illegal abortions, which pose serious health and social problems. In many sub-Saharan African countries, a girl must leave school if she is getting pregnant and abortion tends to be most common among young unmarried women. (Blum & Mmari, 2005). Love songs and romance in the television have always been popular (Durham, 1999), However, the music that is popular today is often harsh and sexually explicit, and many fear it is contributing to teen pregnancy (Durham, 1999; Ward, 2003).

Brown et al. (2005) indicates that the early initiation of sexual intercourse is a risk factor for teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) among adolescents. Adolescents in general do not take appropriate precautions (Chapin, 2000; Fine et al., 1990). Less than 10% of sexually active adolescents use condoms consistently (Centers for Disease Control & prevention, 1998).

Television entertainment content depicting sexual norms, stereotypes, double standards and sexual roles may have profound influence on teens' perception about sex, body image and social norms (Ward, 1995). Teens who watch sexual content on the media are more likely to engage in sex and tend to have negative attitudes about being a virgin (Ward, 1995). Although exposure to sexual content may not guarantee that viewers will take irresponsible steps in their own lives, this exposure may help shape viewers' attitudes and expectations about sexual relationships.

Findings indicate that adolescent girls choose network television programmes with sexual content more often than older adolescent males, and spend more time watching it (Aubrey et al.,2003; Bakker et al.,2006; Brown et al., 2005; Eggermont,2005; Greenberg & Busselle,1996; Huston et al.,1998; Roberts,2000; Villani,2001; Ward,2003), often in the company of parents. Older adolescent boys however are more oriented to the hardcore sexual content found in explicit music lyrics and X-rated films (Huston et al., 1998; Ward & Friedman,2006). Roberts (2000) and Villani (2001) state that adolescents of both sexes who watch and listen to much media are more likely to accept stereotypes of sex roles on television as realistic than those who are less frequent viewers.

Between 1980 and 1985, references to, or portrayals of, sexual activity increased by 13% (Larson, 1995); thus, the average adolescent viewer in 1985 was exposed to around 2,000 sexual references during this year (Greenberg et al., 1993). In comparison, the depiction of efforts to prevent pregnancy or a sexually transmitted disease is relatively infrequent (Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999).

2.4 Empirical Studies

2.4.1 Television sexual content and sexual activity among the youth.

Research provides some empirical support for an effect of exposure to sex content on sexual initiation. Using a national sample of 12-17 year old adolescents, Collins et al. (2004) found that watching sex on television predicted sexual initiation and advanced sexual activity one year later. Brown and colleagues (2006) report similar findings in a sample of youth ages 12 to 14 years from public schools in North Carolina. The authors found that among White adolescents high exposure to sexual content in music, movies, television, and magazines predicted precoital sexual activity and sexual intercourse 2 years after the adolescents were first interviewed.

Additionally, Martino et al. (2006) showed that listening to music with degrading sexual lyrics (when compared to non-degrading sexual content) hastened sexual initiation and

resulted in more advanced precoital activity. These studies, however, did not assume any feedback between exposure and sexual behavior. However, when Kim et al. (2006) examined predictors of exposure to sexual content among adolescents, they provided initial evidence for a non-recursive relationship with their finding that noncoital sexual experience predicted exposure to sexual content. Their interpretation of this finding led them to speculate on the appropriateness of a non-recursive relationship.

Age or the stage of development influences comprehension and interpretation of sexual content. In studies (Chapin, 2000; Villani, 2001) of sexual innuendo on television, 12-year-old youths were less likely to understand suggestive material than 14 and 16 year olds. Similarly, in a qualitative study of adolescent girls aged 11 to 15 (Chapin, 2000), those who were at an earlier stage of physiological development were less interested in sex portrayed in the media, whereas more mature young women were intrigued and more actively sought out sexual content in the media as a means of learning the rules, rituals, and skills of romance and relationships. They reported that the media provided models for achieving the right look (Villani, 2001) to become popular and attract boys, portrayed adolescent characters with problems similar to their own, showed how they solved those problems, and gave examples of how to behave in sexual situations (Chapin, 2000; Villani, 2001).

Content analyses have shown that there is a large amount of sexually explicit content present in television programming (Cope-Farrar & Kunkel, 2002; Farrar et al., 2003; Fisher et al., 2004; Franzblau, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein, 1977; Kunkel et al., 2003). Several researchers have concluded that viewing large amounts of sexual content is related to increases in sexual activity among teens (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Collins et al., 2004; Pardun, L'Engle, & Brown, 2005; Peterson, Moore, & Furstenberg, 1991). Researchers have used a variety of approaches when examining the relationship among television viewing and sexual attitudes and behaviors.

One study used a longitudinal telephone survey of adolescents ages 12 to 17 (Collins et al., 2004). The participants were surveyed in the spring of 2001 and again in the spring of 2002. The researchers retained 88% of the initial sample for the follow-up. They asked about television viewing habits and sexual activities, from things such as kissing someone of the opposite sex to engaging in sexual intercourse. Prior to the conducting the survey, the researchers examined the 23 most-watched programs for the projected demographics of the survey and coded the shows according to their amount of sexual content. Respondents' self-reported viewing frequency for each show was then weighted by the amount of sexual content contained in the show to create a measure of sexual television viewing.

The researchers found that adolescents who watched large amounts of sexual television behaved sexually like adolescents 9 months older who watched an average amount of sexual television. The respondents who reported watching large amounts of sexual television were more likely to have initiated breast or genital touching and intercourse. A television diet high in sexual content was found to be a strong predictor of sexual initiation among respondents who were virgins at their first interview, even after controlling for more than a dozen other variables.

A recent study examined the idea that teens use a variety of media and these all may have an impact on their attitudes and behaviors (Pardun, L'Engle, & Brown, 2005). The researchers used a mail survey to determine media consumption of seventh and eighth grade students, and then recruited a sub-sample of the survey respondents to participate in an in-home health and sexuality interview. The interviews were private and the teens were asked about their sexual behaviors as well as future sexual intentions (Pardun, L'Engle, & Brown, 2005). This study suggested that exposure to movies, television, music, and magazines explained the majority of the difference in sexual behavior and intentions. The data also indicated that television viewing had the strongest influence on participants' future intentions to have sex. Additionally, the data from this study

indicated exposure to media in general was more important than exposure to specific content.

Researchers have found that adolescents often use the media to obtain information about sex (Courtright & Baran, 1980; Greenberg, Linsangan, & Soderman, 1993). To determine how teens and young adults learn about sex, researchers surveyed high school and undergraduate students. Students were asked about their sexual satisfaction, their feelings about virginity, and the amount of sexual information they received from peers and family. The researchers found that teens often turn to the media and their peers to figure out what they should and should not be doing sexually (Courtright & Baran, 1980).

Media perceptions of sexual behavior have been found to impact teens' satisfaction with their own sexual status. Courtright and Baran (1980) found that the media played a significant role in determining young adults' satisfaction with their sexual status. They also found that students who were sexually active found media portrayals of sex to be less realistic and believe the characters had less pleasure and prowess than those students who were not sexually active. This is related to the idea that people often turn to the media for information about situations in which they have little or no experience and to be more likely to view media portrayals as realistic.

Another study surveyed undergraduate students about how they felt sex was portrayed on television and in film (Baran, 1976). This study found that students who viewed television and film portrayals of sexual intercourse as realistic were more likely to be dissatisfied with being virgins. It was also found that students who perceived characters' portrayals of sex as more realistic were more likely to be dissatisfied with their own initial sexual experiences.

Research indicates that television viewing trends differ among ethnic groups as well as by gender. One research study examined the entire population of junior high school

students in an urban area of North Carolina (Brown & Newcomer, 1991). The students completed questionnaires at three times: the fall of 1978, the fall of 1979, and the spring of 1981. The researchers were able to retain 78% of the students for all three surveys. Brown and Newcomer found that African Americans were more likely to watch a higher proportion of sexual television than their Caucasian peers. This same study found that teens, both African American and Caucasian, who watched large amounts of sexual television were more likely to engage in sexual behavior. The study discovered that African American males felt that television was more encouraging of sexual behavior than their friends.

Other researchers have also suggested differences in media use and media effects based on gender (Aubrey et al., 2003). A survey of undergraduate students at a large Midwestern University found differences in media use and effects between males and females. Females reported watching more television than males, and males reported viewing television to learn about the world more frequently than females. This study also determined that females who viewed sexual television expected sexual acts to occur earlier in a relationship. Additionally, the researchers found that males who watched more sexual television were more likely to expect a greater variety of sex acts, even after controlling for relationship status, length of relationship, time spent with partner, and relationship satisfaction.

Instead of just surveying undergraduate students, Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) showed students clips from current television shows that portrayed relationship issues of jealousy and insecurity, lust, misunderstandings, infidelity, and temptations. Pre-testing had shown that these themes are common in shows popular with young adults. This study found that women who watched more prime-time television were more likely to have a recreational attitude toward sex. Watching more television comedies and dramas was related to attitudes and experiences close to those typically shown on television. It was also found that females who viewed large amounts of soap operas and television

comedies were more likely to have more relationships, both dating and sexual. Previous research has shown that males say they feel media present more sexually responsible models of behavior than females (Fabes & Strouse, 1987).

The reasons behind a person's viewing choices have been shown to influence the media's effects. Some research has shown that males who view a large amount of sexual programming and use television as a medium to learn about the world expect a greater variety of sexual acts in relationships (Aubrey et al., 2003). Additionally, watching television to learn about the world has been found to be associated with more recreational attitudes about sex (Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999). In addition to a person's motivation for viewing, his or her involvement with a program is often significantly related to his or her sexual attitudes, expectations, and behavior. Participants who were more involved in the programs had sexual attitudes more in line with those shown on television. A strong relationship was found between participants' identification with the characters they see on television and their own sexual attitudes and experiences. The more a subject identified with a character, the more likely he or she was to have sexual attitudes similar to those shown in television programs.

One study showed participants, who were undergraduate students, television clips that contained many of the themes found in television programming, such as men are sex-driven creatures, dating is a game or recreational sport, and women are sex objects (Ward, 2002). A control group viewed a clip containing no sexual content. The participants were then asked about their typical television viewing habits, viewer involvement, attitudes about sexuality and gender roles, perceptions of peers' sexual experiences, and their own sexual experiences. This study found that greater viewer involvement was related to the acceptance of the sexual stereotypes often found on television, such as men are sex-driven creatures, dating is a game or recreational sport, and women are sexual objects.

In addition to viewer involvement, the perceived reality of the programming impacts its effects. Another study showed students video clips containing sexual content, as well as ones without, and then asked the students to fill out a questionnaire containing questions about their television viewing habits, their perceived reality of the clips they saw, and their sexual attitudes and behaviors (Taylor, 2005). This study found that participants who perceived television content as realistic and viewed sexual television programs had more permissive sexual attitudes than those who did not feel television was as realistic. Although perceived reality has been shown to influence attitudes in general, it has also been shown to affect expectations about sexual timing in relationships, or the variety of sexual acts expected (Aubrey et al., 2003).

Other research has examined the effects of watching music videos on networks such as MTV, MTV2, and VH1. Music videos often contain large amounts of sexual content, either through song lyrics, or the images depicted in the videos (Smith, 2005). While much of this content is not explicit, it still seems to have an impact on viewers. Greeson and Williams (1986) conducted a content analysis to determine the themes that are constant in many of the videos on MTV. The themes they found were parental influence, premarital sex, violence, drug use, and the influence of MTV on teens. Researchers then showed the subjects video clips, chosen either for specific thematic content or randomly, to seventh- and tenth-grade students. The researchers found that 47% of MTV programming contained sexual references. They also found increased approval of premarital sex and increased conformity of attitudes among peer groups exposed to MTV (Greeson & Williams, 1986).

Another study looks at the impact of MTV viewing on older teens (Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987). The researchers surveyed undergraduate students enrolled in introductory speech classes about their media usage, sexual behavior, demographic information, and a self-evaluation that looked at ideas of self-esteem and self-concept. This study found that exposure to MTV was a powerful predictor of sexual attitudes and

behaviors. Although strong in both men and women, MTV viewing was found to be the most powerful predictor of the number of sexual partners and more permissive sexual attitudes among women in this study which examined the influences of family, peers, and other television genres. Researchers have found that people who watch large amounts of music videos are more likely to hold stereotypical views on gender roles, as well as to be more likely to view dating as a game or sport (Ward, 2002).

An additional study looking at the effects of music videos was conducted by Kalof (1999). Students were randomly assigned to view a ten-minute clip of music videos containing either traditional gender role models or non-traditional gender roles. The study found that subjects who viewed the video containing traditional gender roles were more accepting of sex role stereotypes and rape myths among men, and more accepting of interpersonal violence among women (Kalof, 1999).

The researchers also found that exposure to the traditional sexual imagery found in many music videos created a significant increase in the acceptance of adversarial sexual beliefs among both men and women (Kalof, 1999). Even though MTV does not show as many videos as it used to, channels such as MTV2, VH1, BET, and CMT show music videos. The effect of music videos may be especially important as music videos become more accessible via the Internet and video-on-demand systems.

In addition to examining television viewing's impact on attitudes about sex, some researchers have examined views about the responsibility level of the sexual messages presented on television. Research examining the differences in responsibility levels of the sexual messages from the media and peers found that the media accounted for 90% of sexually irresponsible models, but only 60% of sexually responsible examples (Fabes & Strouse, 1987). The researchers asked students enrolled in a family and marital relations class to fill out a two-page questionnaire that asked students to identify both responsible and irresponsible sexual role models, as well as questions about their own sexual behavior. This study also found that subjects who felt the media were presenting

sexually responsible model had more permissive sexual attitudes, higher rates of sexual intercourse, more sexual partners, and lower contraceptive use than those that felt the media presented sexually irresponsible models.

Other research, however, indicates that increasing the responsibility of the messages presented on television may have a positive impact on viewers. Researchers asked teens ages 12 to 17 about their viewing habits of the television show *Friends* as part of a larger phone survey (Collins et al., 2003). The survey was conducted within four weeks of the airing of an episode in which one of the characters learns that she is pregnant despite using a condom when she had sex with another character. Students were asked whether they had seen the episode being examined, how often they watched the show in general, their views on condoms, and some demographic questions.

The researchers found that 17% of self-reported viewers learned something new about condoms from viewing the episode. Additionally, about 40% of the teens surveyed reported that their attitudes about condom efficacy changed because of viewing the *Friends* episode. The findings suggest that more messages like these could be an effective way to educate teens about sex and contraception.

Studies have shown television programming containing large amounts of sexual content has an impact on those who view it, but some studies have shown that adolescents feel it has a much stronger effect on the behaviors of their peers than it does on them. One study examined the perceptions of the effect of sex in the media by both parents and adolescents through the use of focus group discussions (Werner-Wilson, Fitzharris, & Morrissey, 2004). Adolescents rarely suggested media as a factor in determining their attitudes about sex, but the parents felt that their children were passive recipients of the messages on television and were just being shown the fun parts of sex. It seems that parents may perceive the media differently from their children.

Other researchers have found that television viewing is related to the amount of sex that young adults feel their peers are having, although it does not have as great an impact on their own behavior (Ward, 2002). Although it seems that adolescents and young adults feel that media portrayals that media portrayals of sex affect their peers more than themselves, other studies have found that many adolescents turn to their peers for sexual information before their parents or schools (Andre, Frevert & Schuchmann, 1989).

As part of a larger study, undergraduate students were asked about the sources of their sexual education. School was often the place that students learned about the reproductive anatomy and sexually transmitted diseases, but were more likely to learn about birth control and sexual behaviors from peers. It also seems that viewing television with parents moderates its effects. Researchers used data from the 1976 and the 1981 national survey of children to examine the effects of television viewing and sexual behavior (Peterson, Moore, & Furstenberg, 1991).

During the 1981 survey the children were between the ages of 11 and 16. The researchers found that the heaviest television viewers had the highest levels of sexual experience in general, but sexual experience was six times more prevalent among heavy televisions viewers who viewed television separate from their parents. Another study found that watching television with sexual content or sexual themes can open up lines of communication between parents and adolescents with regards to sexual issues (Collins et al., 2003).

A number of theories have been proposed to explain why and how media affect behavior. Bandura argues that while all children learn from media, learning is more likely to be translated into behavior when: (a) the role model is similar to the viewer (e.g., gender matched), (b) the behavior and/or context are “realistic” (i.e., similar to real-life), (c) the role model is attractive, and (d) the behavior is positively reinforced (Bandura, 1997). Thus, Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1997) suggests that adolescents seeing other adolescents in media enjoying sexual behavior with no negative

consequences have an increased probability of observational learning and behavioral imitation. Research suggests that this process take place through processes of “priming” and/or acceptance of sexual stereotypes and schemas (Eggermont, 2004; Hansen & Krygowski, 1994; Martino et al., 2006; Ward, 2003; Ward & Friedman, 2006).

The theories of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991) provide a theoretical mechanism for the effects of media sexual content on behavior. According to these theories the underlying behavioral and normative beliefs that guide behaviors are learned from direct experience or significant others. Children and adolescents, who may not all have first hand sexual experience, learn and make inferences about sex and relationships from media. If sexual portrayals in media shape adolescent beliefs, attitudes, and perceived norms about sex and sexual behavior, then sexual portrayals will influence the adolescents' intentions to engage in various sexual behaviors. These intentions are the primary predictors of actual behavior.

Consistent with both explanations is the assumption that media give normative guidance for adolescents around issues of sex and sexuality in the same way that a friend does. Some research supports the idea that the media acts as a “super peer” and is a source of information about sex when or if adolescents are unable to learn from their peer group (Brown et al., 2005). Another study shows that using friends and/or media as sources of information about sex is associated with increased self efficacy for having sexual (Bleakley et al., 2009) Thus adolescents may turn to the media, as they do their friends, to gauge social norms around sex as well as for more “practical information” about overcoming barriers associated with sexual activity (e.g., “how-to” articles in magazines).

2.4.1.1 Influence of TV on Sex education

Sex education, which is sometimes called sexuality education or sex and relationships education, is the process of acquiring information and forming attitudes and beliefs about sex, sexual identity, relationships and intimacy (Forrest, 2002). It is also about developing young people's skills so that they make informed choices about their behaviour and feel confident and competent about acting on these choices.

According to Garbarino (1985), sex education involves much more than reproductive instruction, rather, sex education should seek to teach adolescents to understand and accept themselves as people with sexual feelings and reproductive capacities. It should include learning how to interact with others in a competent, responsible, healthy, and meaningful way. Its goal should be to achieve a balance between social responsibility on the one hand, and personal freedom and growth on the other.

Sex education seeks both to reduce the risks of potentially negative outcomes from sexual behaviour like unwanted or unplanned pregnancies and infection with sexually transmitted diseases, and to enhance the quality of relationships. It is also about developing people's ability to make decisions over their entire lifetime. Sex education that works, that is sex education that is effective, is sex education that contributes to this overall aim (Forrest, 2002).

According to Kirby, Short, Collins, Rugg, Kolbe, and Horward (1991), effective sex education develops young people's skills in negotiation, decision-making, assertion and listening. Other important skills include being able to recognize pressure from other people and to resist them, deal with and challenge prejudice, seek help from adults, community and health and welfare services. Sex education that works also helps equip young people with skills to be able to differentiate between accurate and inaccurate information, discuss a range of moral and social issues and perspective on sex and sexuality.

Adolescents appear to be using media and TV included in an isolated manner: more adolescents seem to have media available in their private bedrooms (Larson, 1995). Both children and adults have been reported to believe the media and TV include is a central source of information on sex and sexuality for young people (Malamuth & Impett, 2001) considering few programs (from the daily news, to "reality-based" TV programs, to TV talk shows, to family-centred TV programming) appear immune to stories of a sexual nature. Content analysis performed on television and other media to determine the types of messages delivered through these sources have shown that adolescents are being exposed to both implicit and explicit sexual content (Ward & Wyatt, 1994).

Depending on their rate of development, some adolescents may succumb to media influences, while others may not. Based on an extensive literature review regarding the influences of sexual content in the media, Malamuth and Impett (2001) state that individual personality factors may also be important, as research suggests that the type of media people select and find gratifying is predictably related to their personalities and other individual differences.

Roberts (1993) has also examined adolescents and determined that they vary greatly regarding their development in areas such as identity formation and the development of formal problem solving and moral reasoning. Roberts suggests that not only do these affect the impact media has on adolescents, but so do the individual abilities, interests, social relationships, and short- and long-term needs of the adolescent. Some adolescents may not be cognitively equipped to interpret the media images they encounter (Brown, Childers, & Waszak, 1990) leading to differences in how messages are processed and utilized by the adolescents. Brown et al (1990) also suggested that media influences may be greater among adolescents who have not had normal personality development. Along with the examination of media usage, several researchers have attempted to explain the relationship between adolescent sexuality and media. Correlational studies indicate that exposure to sexually suggestive materials is associated with premarital sex, although

whether sexually active adolescents seek out sexual content or whether sexual content increases sexual activity remains uncertain (Brown et al., 1990; Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Lackey & Moberg, 1998; Malamuth & Impett, 2001; Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987).

It is widely believed that TV plays a role in hastening the initiation of sexual activity in adolescents. A study by Collins et al (2004), funded by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, examined this issue. Analysts surveyed a national sample of households containing an adolescent from 12 to 17 years old. A total of 1,762 adolescents were asked about their sexual experiences and also their television viewing habits and, one year later, were surveyed again. The researchers measured levels of exposure to three kinds of sexual content on television: (1) sexual behaviour, such as kissing, intimate touching, and implied or depicted intercourse, (2) talk about sexual plans or desires or about sex that has occurred, and expert advice, and (3) talk about or behaviour showing the risks of or the need for safety in regard to sexual activity: abstinence, waiting to have sex, portrayals mentioning or showing contraceptives, and portrayals related to consequences, such as AIDS, STDs, pregnancy, and abortion.

The results showed that heavy exposure to sexual content on television related strongly to adolescents' initiation of intercourse or their progression to more advanced sexual activities (such as "making out" or oral sex) apart from intercourse in the following year. Adolescents who viewed the greatest amounts of sexual content were two times more likely than those who viewed the smallest amount to initiate sexual intercourse during the following year or to progress to more-advanced levels of other sexual activity. In effect, adolescents who watched the most sexual content "acted older": a 12-year-old at the highest levels of exposure behaved like a 14- or 15-year-old at the lowest levels. Two recent studies by Collins (2003) examined the impact of TV sex on teenagers' sexual beliefs and activities. The results supported the view that watching shows with sexual content may influence teen sexual behaviour, but also found that some viewing

effects can be positive. Watching TV shows with sexual content apparently hastens the initiation of teen sexual activity. Sexual talk on TV has the same effect on adolescents as depictions of sex. Shows with content about contraception and pregnancy can help to educate adolescents about the risks and consequences of sex—and can also foster beneficial dialogue between adolescents and parents.

2.4.2 Parental TV co-viewing and youth sexual initiation

Parental mediation of teenagers' television exposure involves any of three different behaviours that occur before, during and after media use and are distinct from other more general aspects of parent–child interactions, such as overall parental monitoring of the teenagers' leisure time (Nathanson, 2001). Mediation behaviours may involve setting rules on how much, when and what television content teenagers can use (restrictive mediation), discussing television content with the teenager (active or instructive mediation), and the act of using television together, such as co-viewing TV (Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peters, & Marseille, 1999).

Parental restrictions may lessen exposure to particular forms of media content. Restrictions may also reduce the extent to which children pay attention and attach importance to sexual TV content (Nathanson, 1999). However, one study of teenagers suggested parental restriction may also have unwanted consequences, encouraging less positive attitudes towards parents and more co-viewing with friends (Nathanson, 2002). A few studies of teenage television viewing have suggested parental restriction of TV is protective against early sex (Ashby, Arcari, & Edmonson, 2006; Bersamin et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2009). Two of these studies (Bersamin et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2009) measured parental restrictions in general terms, taking into account checks on what teenagers were watching, limits on duration of viewing and any prohibition of programmes.

Another measured parental restrictions on content, but found a protective effect only for teenagers who also reported strong parental disapproval of sex (Ashby et al., 2006). It is not clear whether parental restrictions may have an independent protective effect regardless of a teenager's exposure to sexual content and other more general parenting processes already known to protect against early sex, such as supervision of free time (Buhi & Goodson, 2007; Zimmer-Gembeck & Helfand, 2008), since none of the studies of parental restriction took account of both these factors. It is also unknown whether particular aspects of parental restrictions, such as specific rules restricting sexual content, are more important than other restrictions on media use.

Despite the near universal prevalence of bedroom Television for teenagers in many high-income countries (Bovill & Livingstone, 2001; Rideout, Foehr & Roberts, 2010), most teenagers still prefer to watch TV in the living room where it provides opportunities for social interaction and discussion of programmes with parents (“active mediation”) (Adriaens, Van Damme, & Courtois, 2011; Nathanson, 1999). Without overt expression of parental disapproval, co-viewing may signal parental endorsement of programmes that parents and children watch together (Nathanson, 2002). However, parental TV co-viewing and restrictions on media use both decline through the teenage years (Sang, Schmitz, & Tasche, 1992).

Studies of peer group interaction (Durham, 1999; Milkie, 1999) suggest that learning from the media is not only an individual process, but that messages received during peer group interactions may also contribute to how adolescents learn from and interpret media messages. According to Donnerstein and Smith (2001), research shows that parents who openly communicate and actively co-view television may protect adolescents from potentially detrimental effects of exposure. Frequency of viewing (Malamuth & Impett, 2001) appears to be important as well. Different mass media serve various social/psychological functions at different stages of adolescence (Fine et al.,

1990). Television is often viewed together with parents and siblings. Listening to music, however, is largely undertaken alone, which is more common among older adolescents (who, again, are establishing autonomy). Thus, listening to music is seldom done in the presence of family members (Larson & Kleiber, 1993).

Survey data (Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001) indicates that adolescents' access to and use of television media as sources of information are substantial. In a national study (Ward, 2003), high school students reported an average of 2.9 television sets, while 1.3 out of 10 (13%) American children reported living in homes with two or more televisions, 75% enjoyed access to television, and more than half had a television set in their own rooms. Further, more than 80% of adolescents report that their peers obtain some information, or much, about sex from television shows and other entertainment media. However, about 10% of teens acknowledge that they have learned more about AIDS, STIs and pregnancy from these media sources than their parents, school personnel, clergy, or friends (Eggermont, 2005; Ward, 2003).

According to Albert Bandura's cross-species and cultural studies, human sexuality is governed primarily by social conditioning, rather than endocrinal stimulation (Chapin, 2000). The cultivation theorists say that television's consistent images and portrayals construct a specific portrait of reality. Gradually, viewers come to cultivate or adopt attitudes and expectations about the world that coincides with this portrait. In this regard, profane lyrics have an impact on youth's sexual attitude. In a country where parents and schools remain reluctant to discuss sexual topics, adolescents look to the media (television) to find out about the world, in their own language and from their own point of view. The youth generally accept what they see on the television as real because they have nothing to tell them otherwise. Garner et al. (1998) underscores this observation by stressing that young people are most dependent on the media as a source of information when they lack personal experience and interpersonal advice in the area they are seeking knowledge. Carpenter, 1998; Ward, 2003) have linked socio-demographic factors (for

example, sex, age, and ethnicity) to adolescents' viewing preferences and to their understanding and interpretation of sexual material in the media.

Findings indicate that adolescent girls choose network television programmes with sexual content more often than older adolescent males, and spend more time watching it (Aubrey et al.,2003; Bakker et al.,2006; Brown et al., 2005; Eggermont,2005; Greenberg & Busselle,1996; Huston et al.,1998; Roberts,2000; Villani,2001; Ward,2003), often in the company of parents. Older adolescent boys however are more oriented to the hardcore sexual content found in explicit music lyrics and X-rated films (Huston et al., 1998; Ward & Friedman,2006). Roberts (2000) and Villani (2001) state that adolescents of both sexes who watch and listen to much media are more likely to accept stereotypes of sex roles on television as realistic than those who are less frequent viewers.

Similarly, African American adolescents report watching more R-rated movies (Brown et al., 2005; Eggermont,2005; Ward,2003) than white peers, with less parental involvement or mediation. African American and White youths also find different features of video portrayals salient and disagree on story elements. Higher rates of viewing by adolescent African American adolescents, especially of soap operas, make them more likely to be sexual content (Carpenter, 1998; LeVay & Valente, 2003; Ward, 2003).

2.4.2.1 Parents as a source of sex education

At home, young people can easily have a one-to-one discussion with parents focusing on specific issues, questions or concerns. They can have a dialogue about their attitudes and views (Forrest, 2002). Sex education at home also tends to take place over a long time and involve lots of short interactions between parents and children. The benefits of ongoing, in-depth discussions between parents and adolescents regarding sexuality are apparent. First, adolescents become more aware of the steps they must take to prevent sexually transmitted diseases and pregnancy. Furthermore, adolescents' well-being may

be enhanced if they feel more comfortable with their own sexuality. The family may also benefit from open communication, adjusting more successfully to the adolescent's developing sexuality.

However, many surveys (Fox & Inazu, 1980; Simanski, 1998) have reported that adolescents receive relatively little sex instruction from their parents. In fact, some surveys tell us that young people are dissatisfied with sex information available at home, but would really prefer their parents to be the primary source (Simanski, 1998). Some parents are too embarrassed to discuss the subject, or deal with it in negative ways (Rice, 1984.). Many parents have been brought up to feel that all sex is wrong and dirty and become intensely uncomfortable any time the subject is mentioned. If they do discuss sex the messages they give their children are negative ones which interfere with sexual satisfaction (Darling & Hicks, 1982; Simanski, 1998). Not only are parents reluctant to communicate verbally with adolescents about sex, but they may also send nonverbal messages that discourage open communication.

Darling and Hicks (1982) found that women recalled negative nonverbal messages in discussions with their mothers about sexuality. As one woman stated about her mother, "I don't want to say that her idea was that sex was dirty, but that's the impression I got at the time." Thus, parents may find it difficult to provide open and positive communication. Unfortunately, even in families where there has been some communication about sex with young children, research has found that this communication drops as the children approach adolescence (Simanski, 1998).

Apparently, the parent's rejection of child's sexual maturation and the adolescent's desire for independence and privacy make communication difficult. The sexual "coming of age" of a child may be perceived as a family developmental crisis. If the family is unable to deal with the crisis, high levels of anxiety may cause communication to be blocked (Forrest, 2002). Because of parental reluctance, discussion of certain sexual issues may be delayed until early adolescence. The timing is typically too late, as many

adolescents have already turned to peers for information. Hence, the effectiveness of sex education by parents is limited (Forrest, 2002).

According to Kelly (1983), American parents are likely to model negative sexual attitudes and behaviour. For example, parents may discourage expressions of sexuality and, with respect to modesty taboos, communicate negative affect to children. By inhibiting discussion of sexuality or hiding sexual expression between marital partners, parents may lead adolescents to interpret sexuality as something bad (Kelly, 1983).

Worse still, some parents are uninformed and do not know how to explain to their children. According to Nielsen (1987), many well-intentioned parents are poorly informed about reproduction, contraception and venereal diseases. Therefore, parents need more than background knowledge and subject matter. They also have to have practice in putting ideas together in words in ways meaningful to their children (Rice, 1984).

Studies have indicated that few parents adequately educate their children about sex. Despite their reticence, most parents express the desire to openly communicate about sex with their children. Moreover, parents feel they should be the primary providers of sexual information. However, in USA for example, only about 15% of adolescents cite their parents as a major source of sexual information. Parents often feel inhibited and embarrassed when talking about sex and have also indicated that they lack accurate information (Collins, 2003). In fact, the average person is still poorly informed and unable to communicate fully about sexuality. Parents feel especially inadequate discussing the issue of sex and AIDS (Darling Hicks 1992).

2.4.3 Portrayals of sexual intercourse and consequences of sex

2.4.3.1 Portrayals of sexual intercourse

Acts of sexual intercourse on television have steadily become more prevalent over time (Greenberg & Busselle, 1996; Kunkel et al., 2005). From the 1997-1998 television season to the 2004-2005 television season, portrayals of sexual intercourse increased significantly from 7% of programs to 11% of programs (Kunkel et al., 2005). In 2004-05, about one in every nine programs contained a scene with sexual intercourse either depicted on-screen, or strongly implied where it was evident to the viewers that sex would occur, or had just occurred. These numbers illustrate the ease with which a young television viewer can encounter a program containing characters who engage in intercourse.

Therefore, it is important to note the relationship status of the characters who engage in sexual intercourse on television, because outcomes of intercourse often differ amongst sexual partners in the real world. For example, it is expected that more deleterious consequences typically accompany acts of sexual intercourse that take place in casual relationships (Van Empelen & Kok, 2006). As mentioned above, casual sex with a person they have just met puts young people at risk for experiencing negative emotions, unplanned/unwanted pregnancies, and/or STI contractions (Hoff et al., 2003; Paul & Hayes, 2002; SIECUS, 2003).

In most studies, researchers find that less than 20% of intercourse acts on television involve married couples (Eyal & Finnerty, 2006; Greenberg & Busselle, 1994; Gunasekera et al., 2005). For example, Eyal and Finnerty (2006) found that there were almost equal proportions of married characters who had engaged in sexual intercourse acts (15%) as there were characters who had just met (14%). This could convey to young viewers that casual sex is equally as important and prevalent in society as married sexual intercourse. Within their sample of programs, the largest portion of characters

who had engaged in sexual intercourse acts (32%) were those who were familiar with one another but were not involved in a sexual or romantic relationship prior to the act (e.g., a one night stand among friends or co-workers, or friends who decide to start sleeping together). Nearly as common were portrayals in which unmarried characters with established sexual relationships (i.e., partners who had engaged in sexual intercourse with one another at least once in the past) had intercourse (29%).

Additionally, Eyal and Finnerty (2006) found that among all of the sexual intercourse acts portrayed, both the valence and the number of consequences experienced by the characters involved did not differ across these groups. In other words, they did not find a specific couple type who stood out as experiencing a greater number of either positive or negative consequences to their sexual intercourse. In their sample, couples who had just met prior to engaging in intercourse were no more likely to face negative consequences to intercourse (e.g., unplanned/unwanted pregnancies or STI contractions) than were couples who were married or in committed relationships.

The lack of significant differences in consequences to intercourse portrayed on television among different couples could possibly convey to viewers that there is no type of sexual partnership that presents greater risks than another or, even any risk at all. There is consistent evidence that portrayals of the potential negative physical consequences of intercourse, like STI contraction or unplanned/unwanted pregnancies, are scant on television (Huston et al., 1998; Kunkel et al., 1999, 2001; Will et al., 2005). The lack of portrayals of negative physical consequences, and the lack of distinction amongst sexual partnerships, on television, may help to enlighten the effects research. Studies on the effects of exposure to sexual television content have identified relationships between exposure to sexual content and permissive sexual outcomes for adolescents and emerging adults (Aubrey et al., 2003; Bryant & Rockwell, 1994; Taylor, 2005).

2.4.3.2 Portrayal of consequences of sex

Sexual intercourse can yield a variety of consequences for its participants, both positive and negative. Consequences can be physical like pregnancy, STI contraction, and/or experienced physical pleasure. They can also be social or emotional in nature, causing feelings of guilt, regret, embarrassment, happiness and/or self-confidence, and leading to the improvement or deterioration of relationships with others. On television, however, studies have found that the majority of sexual intercourse acts do not lead to any significant consequences, either positive or negative, for the characters involved (Gunasekera et al., 2005; Kunkel et al., 1999, 2001; Will et al., 2005). For example, a recent analysis of prime-time programming found that clear consequences followed only 25% of the total acts of sexual intercourse in the sample (Will et al., 2005).

Possible instances where consequences can be difficult to distinguish on television include: portrayals of acts of intercourse aired immediately before commercial breaks or at the end of programs; scenes where characters simply mention they had sex with someone in the past without references to any consequences; and, portrayals that imply intercourse has just occurred, where characters are seen dressing and talking without making any reference to the positivity or negativity of their sexual experience throughout the remainder of the program. In all of these examples, viewers would not be able to identify any clear positive or negative consequences experienced by characters. When consequences of sexual intercourse are clearly shown on television, the majority are positive, including expressions of happiness, personal satisfaction, enhancement of peer status, and the establishment of desired relationships (Cope-Farrar & Kunkel, 2002; Eyal & Finnerty, 2006; Kunkel et al., 1999). For instance, Kunkel et al. found that positive consequences to intercourse were presented nearly four times more often than negative consequences.

Conversely, negative consequences to sexual intercourse are much less frequent on television (Eyal & Finnerty, 2006; Kunkel et al., 1999; Will et al., 2005). Recently, Eyal

and Finnerty found that among television programs from the 2004-2005 season that contained mentions and/or depictions of sexual intercourse acts, only 35% depicted any negative consequences of intercourse. Additionally, the negative consequences of intercourse that were included within these programs were largely emotional and social in nature, scarcely physical. This finding is consistent with results from other content analyses. When present, negative sexual consequences on television have been found to be largely emotional or social consequences (e.g., guilt or remorse, rejection, peer/partner relationship problems), and rarely physical (e.g., unplanned/unwanted pregnancy, STI contraction) (Cope-Farrar & Kunkel, 2002; Gunasekera et al., 2005; Will et al., 2005). For example, in their analysis of sexual intercourse portrayals in prime-time programming, Will et al. (2005) found that when negative social consequences were shown, fewer than one in three such portrayals depicted pregnancy or AIDs and other STI contractions.

In conjunction with these findings on the typical presentation of negative consequences of sexual intercourse on television, it is important to consider additional contextual features of portrayals that have the potential to impact viewer outcomes. The majority of content analyses that have examined consequences of sexual intercourse have only considered the valence and type of consequences portrayed (Gunasekera et al., 2005; Kunkel et al., 1999, 2001; Will et al., 2005).

Social cognitive theory, stipulates that a number of variables may contribute to the effect of sexual intercourse portrayals on emerging adult viewers. These include the relationship status of the couple experiencing the consequences, the duration and strength of the consequences experienced, and the emphasis that the consequences receive throughout the program (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, in their analysis of televised portrayals of consequences to sexual intercourse, Eyal and Finnerty (2006) measured the presence of these specific contextual elements.

Eyal and Finnerty (2006) found the majority of the portrayed consequences of sexual intercourse typically received inconsequential or minor emphasis (84%) within television shows, rarely making meaningful contributions to the program storylines (16%). And, in the majority of the programs, the consequences to intercourse that characters experienced were transient in duration (61%). These findings are particularly important to the current study, as social cognitive theory stipulates that viewer outcomes can be influenced not only by the valence of the portrayals of consequences of sexual intercourse (i.e., if they are positive, negative, or neutral), but also by the type of consequences experienced by models (emotional, social, or physical consequences) (Bandura, 1986).

2.5 Critique of the Existing Literature Relevant to the Study

Television has proven to exert a large influence on people's sexual behavior (Lund & Blaedon, 2003). It has been found to reflect and possibly shape the attitudes, values, and behaviours of young people (Greeson, 1991). According to Chapin (2000), this medium has become so influential that it serves as a teacher, often providing a common source of information to young people. According to Chapin (2000), even parents think that television has a large impact on adolescents' attitudes and they recognize that many adolescents spend more time watching television than they do with their parents.

Baran (2004) observes that although many of people are quick to condemn the media for the influence on behaviour, they rarely question their own role in the mass communication process. He continues to observe that individuals always overlook their role because they participate in mass communication naturally without making any conscious effort and that they possess high level interpretive and comprehensive skills that make even the most sophisticated television show, movie or magazine story understandable and enjoyable. The implication of this observation is that sometimes individual participation in the mass communication process through interpreting media content may lead to interpretation of a meaning that was not the intended purpose.

Factors such as difficulties in collecting sensitive information about adolescents' sexual exposure and behavior have included barriers to conducting research more widely. Nonetheless, some research has considered the empirical relations between media and sexuality. An early study by Brown and Newcomer (1991) revealed that adolescents who watched a heavier proportion of what were defined as sexy shows were more likely to have had intercourse than to have been virgins at the time. Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) examined the media consumption and sexual behavior of 18 to 24 year old undergraduate students. The results indicated that greater exposure to and identification with television programmes that included sexual content were associated with stronger endorsement of one's peers, and more extensive sexual experience. Brown (2000) reviewed the then existing empirical studies on this topic and found that although the studies are sparse, there is evidence that the mass media can influence how aware one is of sexual topics, one's beliefs about it, and one's actual behavior. Furthermore, Ward's (2003) review of empirical studies revealed links between sexually orientated media and such outcomes as there being a greater acceptance of casual attitude about sex and more advanced sexual experience.

On the other hand, others have not found evidence of a link between the quantity and content of television viewing and the initiation of sexual activity (Peterson et al., 1991). Two texts on media and sexuality (Brown, Steele, & Walsh-Childers, 2002; Bryant & Thompson, 2002) indicate that much of the existing literature on television and sexuality has been descriptive, because there are many challenges, mainly ethical, to exploring these issues regarding adolescents. It is also unclear whether time spent watching sexual television is more predictive of sexual outcomes, or whether it is the explicitness of the sexual nature of the shows that is a stronger predictor of sexual outcomes. Measurement and coding of sexuality in television programming has varied, with many studies measuring sexual content descriptively or anecdotally (Jones, 2004). For example, some have used undergraduates to rate the content (Brown & Newcomer, 1991), and some

categorized teens' self-reported media viewing patterns (Peterson et al., 1991), and some have carried out laboratory manipulations (Kalof,1999).

According to Brown et al. (2005) ,adolescents consistently refer to the mass media including television, as the most important sources of sexual information. Previous surveys (Brown et al., 2005) show that white adolescents spend on average five to six hours a day with some form of mass media and black youth spend even more. The sexual content in much of the media to which these adolescents refer is frequent, glamourised, and consequence free (Greenberg, Brown & BuerkelRothfuss, 1993). In 2002, most of the television shows watched frequently by adolescents included sexual content, but very few of those shows included any depiction of sexual risks and/ or responsibilities. Research has also indicated that television viewing can cultivate a distorted world view and influence several behavioural domains, as has been amply demonstrated; therefore it is expected that it may affect sexual learning as well (Strouse et al., 1995). Furthermore, these authors found that out of 1500 adolescents who participated in their study, 1,043 considered television to be their greatest source of pressure to become sexually active.

Brown et al. (2005) indicates that the early initiation of sexual intercourse is a risk factor for teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) among adolescents. Bakker et al. (2006) states that both male and female adolescents who are younger at first intercourse are less likely to use precautionary measures, which has resulted in the increase of teenage pregnancies as well as HIV/AIDS in South Africa. According to ward & Rivadeneyra (1999), the use of media (television) as stated in previous research, appears to exert an influence on sexual attitude and behaviours of adolescents.

Although the research with regards to the said topic has been sparse, Ward & Friedman (2006) state that several findings do associate the amount of television viewing (both in terms of programmes and time spent) with sexual activity of viewers. Furthermore, they state that greater television exposure has been linked to viewers' attitudes about sex and

sexual relationships. According to Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss (1987), both heavy regular consumption of and experimental exposure to sexually-oriented genres, such as soap operas and music videos, have been related to expressing more liberal sexual attitude (Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987), to being more accepting to sexual improprieties, and to more increased negative attitudes towards remaining a virgin.

Secondly, greater television exposure has been linked to viewers' expectations about the prevalence of certain sexual outcomes frequently depicted on television (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Strouse, 1993). For example, undergraduates who frequently view soap operas offer higher estimates of the numbers of real people who divorce or have illegitimate children than frequent viewers do.

Furthermore, there is tentative evidence that greater television exposure is linked to viewers' sexual behavior. Although the amount of general television viewing typically has not been related to levels of sexual activity amongst viewers (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Peterson et al., 1991), links between exposure and greater sexual experience emerge when more sexually-oriented programming is examined (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987; Strouse et al., 1995). Together, these findings provide tentative evidence of a link between the amount of time spent watching sexually-oriented programming and viewers' own sexual attitudes, expectations, and behavior.

Television's abundant yet often stereotypical sexual content has raised concern that frequent exposure to these portrayals might misguide the developing sexual attitudes and behavior of adolescents. Current evidence suggests that these concerns are warranted, indicating that both regular and laboratory exposure to television's sexual content are associated with stronger support of non-relational sex and specific sexual stereotypes (Brown et al., 2005). However, the strength of these conclusions is tempered by methodological and conceptual limitations that underscores the need for additional evidence of causal connections, purposeful sampling of adolescent viewers and broader

assessments of media use and sexual behavior. According to Brown et al. (2005), drawing from several theoretical perspectives, these limitations are addressed by examining associations between multiple dimensions of television use and adolescents' sexual beliefs and behavior.

The few studies of the effects of television on adolescents' sexual beliefs have found that prime-time programmes and music videos, focusing on sex outside marriage, promote more justifiable attitudes about premarital sex (Huston et al., 1998; Ward & Friedman, 2006). Two cross-sectional surveys have linked frequent exposure to sexual television content and transition to sexual intercourse. However, because time order was not clear in these studies, Ward and Friedman (2006) further state that it is credible to conclude that adolescents who were having sexual intercourse were also the most interested in sexual content in the media, rather than that exposure to sexual media was accelerating the initiation of their sexual activity. The single longitudinal study on this topic found that adolescents (12-17 years old) who watched television shows with more sexual content were more likely than those who viewed fewer shows with sexual content to have engaged in more advanced sexual behavior, as well as sexual intercourse, up to one year later. The aforementioned study which focused on only 25 television programmes, however, combined younger and older adolescents in the same analysis and paid relatively little attention to race differences (Brown et al., 2005).

One concern is that the prevalence of sexual content on television overemphasizes the role of sex in male-female relationships. Of equal concern is the impression that television provides a one-dimensional picture of sexual relationships, one in which sex is only for the young, single, beautiful and where sexual encounters are always spontaneous, romantic and risk free (Bakker et al., 2006). Thus, because of the prevalent yet limited nature of television's sexual content, researchers and educators have become interested in whether heavy viewing of these portrayals is associated with distorted

expectations, irresponsible sexual decision-making, and permissive or stereotypical sexual attitudes.

Larson (1995) is of the opinion that the exposure to portrayals of sex may affect adolescents in developing beliefs about cultural norms as well. Paik (2001) states that television may create the illusion that sex is more central to daily life than it truly is and may promote sexual initiation as a result, a process known as media cultivation. Exposure to the social models provided by television may also alter beliefs about the likely outcome of engaging in sexual activity (Chunovic, 2000). Social learning theory predicts that teens who see characters having casual sex without experiencing negative consequences will be more likely to adopt the behaviours portrayed (Greenberg, Brown & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1993).

Although televised sexual portrayals can theoretically inhibit sexual activity when they include depictions of sexual risks (such as the possibility of contracting an STI or becoming pregnant), abstinence, or the need for sexual safety, this type of depiction occurs in only 15% of shows with sexual content (Greenberg et al., 1993; Ward, 2003). In other words, only one in every seven television shows that include sexual content includes any safe sex messages, and nearly two-thirds of these instances (63%) are minor or inconsequential in their degree of emphasis within the scene. As a result, sexual content on television is far more likely to promote sexual activity among American adolescents than discourage it (Larson,1995; Malamuth & Impett, 2001; Remez, 2000; Singh & Darroch,19990. Television has already been shown to influence violent and aggressive behavior among youths (Anderson, 2004; Donnerstein, Staby & Eron, 1995; Smith & Donnerstein,1998; Strasburger,1997) and although an extension of the principles involved in the realm of sexual behavior is not a foregone conclusion, the hypothesis that television promotes early sexual initiation logically follows from previous media effects theory and several existing studies.

Research carried out by various authors (Brown & Newcomer,1991; Calfin et al., 1993; Chunovic,2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999, Flowers-Coulson et al., 2000) demonstrated links between the viewing of sexual content on television and attitudes towards sex, the endorsement of gender stereotypes likely to promote sexual initiation, and dissatisfaction with virginity, as well as a wide range of perceptions regarding normative sexual behavior.

In addition to these studies, articles published in the early 1990s examined the question of whether exposure to sex on television influences the sexual behavior of adolescents (Calfin et al., 1993; Fine, Mortimer & Roberts, 1990; Strong & DeVault,1994). The above mentioned research found positive associations between intercourse and television viewing among adolescents, but methodological limitations rendered the results inconclusive (Brown & Newcomer,1991; Calfin et al., 1993; Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham,1999; Flowers-Coulson et al., 2000; Strong & DeVault,1994).Higher levels of exposure to sex on television might have led to sexual initiation, but a credible alternative interpretation was that this resulted because sexual content closely reflects the identities and interests of sexually active adolescents who choose to watch more of it than their inactive peers (Ward, 2003). This possibility could not be excluded because the relative timing of these events was unknown to the researchers.

These studies were also limited in their ability to attribute the sexual behavior of youths to differences in television exposure to sex, rather than to other closely related factors (Chunovi,2000; Paik, 2001; Ward, 2003). For example, youths who receive little supervision may be free to watch more television and to choose programmes with sexual content and may also experience more opportunities to engage in sexual activity. Finally, previous work was forced to rely on indefinite measures of content, making it difficult to be certain that exposure to sexual content per se was the source of the

associations observed (Aubrey et al., 2003; Eggermont, 2005; Haferkamp, 1999; Ward, 2003).

Both children and adults have been reported to believe that the media is a central source of information on sex and sexuality for young people (Malamuth & Impett, 2001), considering that few programmes appear immune to stories of a sexual nature. Content analysis has been performed on television in order to determine the types of messages delivered through these sources, with results showing adolescents being exposed to both implicit and explicit sexual content (Carpenter, 1998; Durham, 1998; Flowers-Coulson et al., 2000; Kehily, 1999; Strong & DeVault, 1994; Ward & Wyatt, 1994). While neither prior research nor the general public appear to dispute the sexual content of the media, the perceived influence on adolescents and their sexuality appears to warrant further examination. Few studies examine whether adolescents themselves find the media influential in determining their sexual activity, sexual initiation include. (Malamuth & Impett, 2001).

Correlational studies (Aubrey et al., 2003; Brown et al., 2005; Carpenter, 1998; Ward, 2003) have linked socio-demographic factors (for examples, sex, age, and ethnicity) to adolescents' viewing preferences and to their understanding and interpretation of sexual material in the television media. Findings indicate that adolescent girls choose network television programmes with sexual content more often than older adolescent males, and spend more time watching it (Aubrey et al., 2003; Bakker et al., 2006; Brown et al., 2005; Eggermont, 2005; Greenberg & Busselle, 1996; Huston et al., 1998; Roberts, 2000; Villani, 2001; Ward, 2003), often in the company of parents. Older adolescent boys however, are more oriented to the hardcore sexual content found in explicit music lyrics and X-rated films (Huston et al., 1998; Ward & Friedman, 2006). Roberts (2000) and Villani (2001) state that adolescents of both sexes who watch and listen to much media are more likely to accept stereotypes of sex roles on television as realistic than those who are less frequent viewers.

Other researches (Eggermont,2005; Ward 2003; Ward & Rivadeneyra,1999) indicate that ethnicity plays an important role in media viewing choices. Compared with their white peers, African American spend more time watching television, are more likely to choose fictional programming with African American characters (brown,2002), and are more likely to perceive those characters as realistic. Similarly, African American adolescents report watching more R-rated movies (Brown et al., 2005; Eggermont,2005; Ward,2003) than white peers, with less parental involvement or mediation. African American and white youths also find different features of video portrayals salient and disagree on story elements. Higher rates of viewing by adolescent African American adolescents, especially of soap operas, make them more likely to be sexual content (Carpenter, 1998; LeVay & Valente, 2003; Ward, 2003).

Age or the stage of development also influences comprehension and interpretation of sexual content. In studies (Chapin,2000; Villani,2001) of sexual innuendo on television,12-year-old youths were less likely to understand suggestive material than 14 and 16 year olds. Similarly, in a qualitative study of adolescent girls aged 11 to 15 (Chapin, 2000), those who were at an earlier stage of physiological development were less interested in sex portrayed in the media, whereas more mature young women were intrigued and more actively sought out sexual content in the media as a means of learning the rules, rituals, and skills of romance and relationships. They reported that the media provided models for achieving the right look (villain,2001) to become popular and attract boys, portrayed adolescent characters with problems similar to their own, showed how they solved those problem, and gave examples of how to behave in sexual situations (Chapin,2000; Villani,2001).

Studies (Aubrey et al., 2003; brown et al. 2005; Strouse et al., 1995; Ward, 2003) have assessed the associations between the degree and nature of adolescents' exposure to sexual content and their sexual behavior. A study by Bakker et al. (2006) of African American girls aged 14 to 18 years found that teens with either multiple sexual partners

or a history of sexually transmitted infections reported a higher rate of viewing television shows which depicted women as sexual objects or prizes. Experimental studies (Eggermont, 2005; Fay & Yanoff, 2000; Paik, 2001; Ward, 2003; Werner-Wilson et al., 2004) have shown that viewing sexual content can exert moderate effects on sexual knowledge or attitudes but it is unclear whether these effects are sustained over time or result in change in sexual intentions or behavior. Brown and Newcomer (1991) found that television viewing patterns differed according to the sexual status of the adolescent (virgin versus sexually active), with sexually active teens viewing more television with a high level of sexual content.

Along with the examination of media usage, several researchers have attempted to explain the relationship between adolescent sexuality and the media. Correlational studies indicate that exposure to sexually suggestive materials is associated with premarital sex, although whether sexually active remains uncertain (Brown et al., 1990; Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Lackey & Moberg, 1998; Malamuth & Impett, 2001; Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987). Other researchers have found sexual content in the media to exert minimal, if any, impact on the sexual activity of adolescents (Peterson et al., 1991).

According to several studies (Kunkel, Cope, & Colvin, 1996), it has been reported that nearly seven in 10 television programmes contain a sexual message. Furthermore, an average of 10 reference to sexual intercourse per hour occurs in soap operas (Greenberg & Busselle, 1996; Heintz-Knowles, 1996), and an average of 20 instances per hour occur in programmes most preferred by young people (Ward, 1995). Therefore, it is argued that adolescents pay attention to such portrayals, because romantic and sexual relationships are both new and important in adolescence (Jeffres & Perloff, 1997).

Several studies by Aubrey et al., (2003), and Ward (2002) have supported the concept that television's recurrent portrayal of certain sexual acts makes them seem more common or acceptable. According to Strouse, et al. (1987), it has been found that people

who view soap operas regularly tend to overestimate the prevalence of sexual activity in real life, and that more frequent television exposure is related to greater expectations of peer sexual experience in a sample of 259 undergraduate students. Television appears to create the impression that everyone is doing it (Ward, 2003).

Overall, one-third to one-half of the television shows which adolescents commonly watch comprise programmes which contain verbal references to sexual issues (Ward, 1995). In 1990, relative increase in the frequency of both sexual references and explicit content on television were noted (Brown et al., 1990). More recent studies have also found an abundance of sexual references in a variety of programmes (Greenberg & Busselle, 1996; Kunkel et al., 1999).

In a study of college students, Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) found that more frequent viewing in terms of the nature of the show (e.g., soap operas, comedies, and dramas) indicated more frequent viewing of sexual content. Two texts on media and sexuality (Brown, Steele, Walsh-Childers, 2002; Bryant & Thompson, 2002) indicate that much of the existing literature on television and sexuality has been descriptive, because there are many challenges, mainly ethical, to exploring these issues regarding adolescents.

Fay and Yanoff (2000) state that early sexual initiation is an important health issue, and thus, raises the question of why individuals become sexually involved at young ages. What factors accelerate sexual initiation, and what factors delay its onset? There are many well-documented predictors of age of initiation into intercourse, both social and physical (Roberts, Foehr, Rideout & Brodie, 1999). However, according to several studies (Carpenter, 1998; Le Vay & Valentine, 2003; Paik, 2001; Ward, 2003), one factor commonly mentioned by parents and policy makers as promoting sex among adolescents is television. There is scientific reason to think that television may be a key contributor to early sexual activity (Chunovic, 2000, Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999; Ward & Friedman, 2006).

Brown et al. (2005) indicates that the early initiation of sexual intercourse is a risk factor for teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) among adolescents. According to Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss (1987), both heavy regular consumption of experimental exposure to sexually-oriented genres, such as soap operas and music videos, have been related to expressing more liberal sexual attitudes (Strouse & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1987), to being more accepting of sexual improprieties, and to more increased negative attitudes towards remaining a virgin.

Exposure to the social models provided by television may also alter beliefs about the likely outcome of engaging in sexual activity (Chunovic, 2000). Social learning theory predicts that teens who see characters having casual sex without experiencing negative consequences will be more likely to adopt the behaviours portrayed (Greenberg, Brown & Buerkel-Rothfuss, 1993). Although televised sexual portrayals can theoretically inhibit sexual activity when they include depictions of sexual risks (such as the possibility of contracting an STI or becoming pregnant), abstinence, or the need for sexual activity, this type of depiction occurs in only 15% of shows with sexual content (Greenberg et al., 1993; Ward, 2003). As a result, sexual content on television is far more likely to promote sexual activity among American adolescents than discourage it (Larson, 1995; Malamuth & Impett, 2001).

There are good theoretical reasons to believe that television and other media can play an important role in educating children and adolescents about sexuality. The few experimental studies show that television has the potential to change viewers' attitudes and knowledge. Correlational designs provide weak evidence that television viewing is linked with sexual behavior and beliefs. Much more empirical work is needed to substantiate the claim that naturally occurring sexual content in the media actually does cause changes in attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors. (Huston, Wartella, & Donnerstein, 1998, p. 16)

That call for study, coupled with increased investment in research funding for this topic area from the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), recently led to a significant surge in important empirical evidence regarding the effects of sexual media content on young people. These new studies, dramatically enhance the level of knowledge about the effects of sexual content presented in mainstream entertainment television programming. The brief summaries below provide highlights from some of the key studies:

A longitudinal study of a nationally representative sample of 12-17 year old adolescents found that heavier viewing of sexual content on television accelerates the initiation of sexual intercourse and other advanced sexual activities. Exposure to content that included talk about sex was associated with the same risks as exposure to depictions of sexual behavior. In applied terms, youths who watched one standard deviation more of sexual content than average behaved sexually like peers who were 9 to 17 months older but watched typical amounts of sex on television. The longitudinal nature of the study design allowed the researchers to identify television exposure as a causal factor. (Collins et al., 2004).

Researchers analyzed the extent to which more than 3,000 seventh and eighth graders were exposed to sexual content in the media, creating for each subject an index known as their Sexual Media Diet (SMD). Adolescents' SMD was significantly related to their levels of sexual activity and future intentions to be sexually active. The study found that the overall amount of exposure to sexual content was the strongest indicator of these relationships. (Pardun, L'Engle, & Brown, 2005)

In an experiment with college students, subjects viewed a television program that included talk about sex or sexual behavior described as "permissive" (i.e., portraying casual sex as acceptable) from such series as *Ally McBeal*, *Dawson's Creek*, and *Friends*. For subjects who perceived that the program content was realistic, significant effects from viewing were observed on their perceptions of normative sexual behavior.

In addition, their attitudes toward casual sex became more permissive, consistent with the program portrayals. Significant effects were observed for viewing both sexual talk and behavior. (Taylor, 2005) In a survey study examining college students, researchers found that increased exposure to sexual TV content was positively correlated with expectations about sex for males and females. Among the findings were that males with more exposure to sexual content expected a broader range of sexual activities with their partners, whereas females with more exposure expected sex to occur earlier within a relationship. (Aubrey, Harrison, Kramer, & Yellin, 2003)

The above group of studies helps to confirm the long-standing hypothesis that exposure to sexual media content is a significant factor in shaping young people's views and behaviors involving sex. Moreover, a persistent finding among these studies is that cumulative exposure to sexual content on television is a strong predictor of the identified effects. In addition, a number of recent studies focus specifically on the effects of exposure to television content that includes sexual risk or responsibility messages, addressing such topics as sexual patience, sexual precautions, and the risk of negative outcomes from unsafe sexual intercourse:

When an episode of *Friends* focused on the issue of condom failure, researchers found increases in knowledge about condoms for as much as 17% of a nationally representative sample of 12-17 year old adolescents who saw the show. A telephone survey was conducted after the show aired, so respondents were naturally exposed to the television content. The study also found that 10% of adolescent viewers reported talking with an adult about condom efficacy as a result of watching the episode. (Collins, Elliott, Berry, Kanouse, & Hunter, 2003)

In an experiment with college students, each subject viewed three episodes of one-hour prime-time dramas within one week. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three treatment conditions: "typical sex" in which sexual intercourse was portrayed among characters in each of the programs but no safe sex messages were included; "responsible

sex” in which sexual intercourse in each program was portrayed accompanied by prominent sexual risk or responsibility messages in the same show; and a control condition in which programs included no sexual content. Females in the “responsible sex” condition had significantly more positive attitudes toward condom use after viewing the programs than subjects in the other two treatment conditions (Farrer, 2001).

CDC researchers examined the effects of a four-episode story arc in the situation comedy *Girlfriends* that included a sympathetic portrayal of an HIV-infected character. In a web-based survey, respondents who reported watching *Girlfriends* were less likely to stigmatize HIV victims and more likely to consider getting an HIV test for themselves (Kennedy, O’Leary, Wright-Fofanah, Dean, Chen, & Baxter, 2005). In an experiment with college freshmen (mean age=18.07 years), researchers found that viewing television drama programs that portray negative consequences such as guilt and remorse resulting from sexual intercourse performed by young adult characters with new partners led to significantly more negative attitudes toward premarital sex and significantly more negative moral judgments of the program characters who engaged in the intercourse. (Eyal & Kunkel, 2005).

In sum, there is currently a sharply accelerating curve in the growth of scientific knowledge about the effects of exposure to sexual media content. The studies that comprise this new wave of evidence consistently demonstrate significant impacts on viewers, particularly among teens and young adults. This group of studies provides consistent evidence that incorporating risk or responsibility messages into television programs with sexual themes and topics can significantly increase viewer sensitivity to critical sexual health concerns.

Thus, this is a particularly timely moment for the delivery of our most recent assessment of the sexual content on television, as well as our examination of the frequency with which risk or responsibility concerns accompany television’s treatment of sexual themes and topics. In general, television’s influence on social beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors

tends to occur by a gradual, cumulative process that is most likely to develop with repeated exposure over time to common patterns of portrayals.

Therefore, it is the goal of this study (The Correlation between TV Viewing and Sexual Initiation among the Kenyan youth) to identify the common patterns or approaches that are employed in the realm of sexual messages on television. If television is an important source of information and influence about sex for young people, then obviously it is critical to understand the nature and extent of the sexual messages it conveys.

Identifying patterns in the portrayal of sex on television has been a goal of researchers for many years. Yet while numerous studies have examined the topic in the past, the accumulation of knowledge from these various efforts has been constrained because of two key factors. First, most previous studies have limited their analysis to just a fraction of the overall television landscape. For example, studies have examined soap operas (Greenberg & Buselle, 1996; Heintz-Knowles, 1996; Lowry & Towles, 1989), talk shows (Greenberg & Smith, 1995; Greenberg, Sherry, Buselle, Hnilo, & Smith, 1997), teens' favorite programs (Aubrey, 2004; Cope & Kunkel, 2002; Greenberg et al., 1993; Ward, 1995), and "Family Hour" programming (Kunkel, Cope, & Colvin, 1996), with the broadest analysis encompassing all prime-time broadcast network shows (Franzblau, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein, 1977; Lowry & Shidler, 1993; Sapolsky & Taberlet, 1991; Silverman, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein, 1979).

This left many aspects of the television environment, such as cable channels for example, largely unexamined. Although these studies delivered important pockets of knowledge, they failed to provide any clear and comprehensive picture of the patterns of sexual content across the overall television landscape. The second factor limiting the utility of previous research is the lack of any consistency across studies in defining and measuring sexually-related content in television programming. Idiosyncrasies across the research strategies employed render comparisons from one project to another difficult, as some examine sexual behavior but not talk, while others have done just the opposite.

Certainly, some patterns at a very basic level have been established, including the repeated finding that sexual portrayals are common throughout television, and that negative consequences resulting from sex are relatively infrequent (Huston, Wartella, & Donnerstein, 1998). Still, more precise comparisons are often problematic because of the lack of any common definitions and research measures. The research presented here, the relationship between TV Viewing and Sexual Initiation has attempted to overcome these limitations, and thereby to significantly enhance the level of knowledge that exists about the nature and extent of sexual messages conveyed on television.

2.6 Research Gap

Empirical studies have focused on western contexts with little emphasis on developing countries and particularly Kenya. Few studies have examined televisions viewing of sexual content on youths' sexual initiation in Kenya. It cannot also be assumed that findings are equivalent in countries with generally more collectivist cultures such as Kenya's compared to U.S. individualistic culture. Most studies have focused generally on television viewing influence on sexual behavior. However this study specifically focused more on sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya. This study investigated the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth a factor which has lacked in most of the previous studies.

New information linking sexual content on television with consequences resulting from early sexual initiation such as teen pregnancy would help develop prevention programs. The research findings would also be important for theoretical extensions. Too often, conclusions about the effects of the media seem to be based on conjecture. (Brown, Steele & Walsh-Childers, 2002). It is therefore preferable that public policy and interventions designed to help youth be based on systematically gathered and analyzed evidence.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter, the TV scene in Kenya has been discussed. Previous studies relating to this research topic have also been described. This chapter also focused on discussing the theoretical framework that underlines this study. A review of social learning theory is provided with the main emphasis placed on Bandura's theory. The importance of observing and modelling behavior, attitudes and emotional reactions of others is addressed, as it is the fundamental which proposes that television's consistent images and portrayals construct a specific portrait of reality, and as viewers watch more and more television, they gradually come to cultivate or adopt attitudes and expectations about the world that coincide with this portrait.

Accordingly, if content analyses indicate that sex on TV is glamorous, prevalent, recreational, and relatively risk free, the cultivation model predicts that frequent teenage television viewers will be more inclined than sporadic viewers to hold and accept this perspective of sexuality. This chapter also looked at the Conceptual Framework, which is a research tool intended to assist the researcher develop awareness and understanding of the situation under scrutiny which is to investigate the correlation between television viewing and sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya. Finally the chapter looked at the research gaps that this study has looked into.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter shows how the research was carried out. It discusses the research design, the area of study, the target population, sample size and sampling techniques, sample procedures, the data collection instruments, data collection procedures, piloting, the data analysis procedures employed in the study and the ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

This study employed a mixed-methods design which utilizes the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell, 2009). Campbell et al. (1999) argues that mixed methods are a powerful way of enhancing the validity of results. Denzin (1978) argues that any bias inherent in one particular method would be neutralized when used in conjunction with other data sources. Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) and Nzioka (1994) say that data produced by combined methods enhances the validity and reliability of research findings. The use of mixed methods in this study was meant to get confirmation of findings through convergence of different perspectives.

3.3 Area of Study

The research site was Lang'ata Sub-county in Nairobi County in Kenya which was selected purposively to represent the Nairobi concentrated population of urban youth who are avid consumers of television content. According to Consumer Insight (2006) report of January 2006, TV has more viewership ratings and coverage in urban areas, with Nairobi having the highest viewership. Television coverage in Nairobi is very wide, with virtually all television stations available in Kenya being broadcast within Nairobi and its environs. The Sub-county was also selected purposively because it has five public day secondary schools. Public secondary schools admit students from across the country hence they have a wide collection of Kenyan youth.

Lang'ata Sub county is also cosmopolitan in nature with people from different cultural backgrounds. Lang'ata Sub county is also a low and middle income settlement area in Nairobi County. Early sexual initiation, teenage pregnancies and HIV and AIDS epidemic continues to pose significant challenges to people living in low and middle income settlements (NACC, 2010).

3.4 Target Population

The study purposively targeted students (both boys and girls) in public secondary schools within Lang'ata Sub-county in Nairobi County. The District has five public secondary schools, hence the purposive selection of the five schools. The total number of students enrolled in all the five public schools is approximately 2,163. Out of these; there are about 1,334 boys and 829 girls (MOE, 2011) The schools are Lang'ata Barracks, Raila Educational Centre, Olympic High School, Karen C and Lang'ata High Schools.

3.5 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Based on the target population indicated above, a sample size of 325 respondents was determined in line with the arguments advanced by Fisher *et al.* (1983) as explained below. Other scholars who agree with Fisher (1983) on the sample size of 325 (if the target population is less than 10,000) are Moser and Kalton (1979) and Mugenda and Mugenda (2003).

If the target population is less than 10,000, the required sample size will be smaller. In such cases, the final sample estimate (n_f) is calculated using the following formula:

$$nf = \frac{n}{1 + (n/N)}$$

Where:

nf= the desired sample size(when the population is less than 10,000)

n= the desired sample size (when the population is more than 10,000)

N= the estimate of the population size

The sample size therefore will be:

$$nf = \frac{384}{1 + (384 / 2163)} = 325$$

In order to get the sample size of the boys and girls that were studied, the formula below was used:

$$\frac{n}{N}$$

Where:

n is the sample size (325)

N is the entire population

Therefore, the number of boys sampled was calculated as follows:

$$\frac{325}{2163} \times 1334 = 200 \text{ boys}$$

Similarly, the number of girls sampled was calculated as shown below:

$$\frac{325}{2163} \times 829 = 125 \text{ girls}$$

This therefore means that the sample size of 325 respondents consisted of 200 boys and 125 girls.

3.6 Sampling Procedures

Multi-stage sampling design was used to select the sample for the survey. This sampling technique was appropriate because the study sample was selected in stages using stratified random sampling and simple random sampling technique. In stratified random sampling, the population is first subdivided into homogenous subgroups and then a simple random sample is taken in each subgroup.

First, the study population was divided into males and females. Secondly, a simple random sample was taken from each group while ensuring that the sub-samples of both boys and girls were calculated proportionately to their sizes in the population in each school. Stratified sampling ensured adequate representation from sub samples. The third stage was to get the exact number of respondents needed from each class in the selected schools. The study proportion (for each school) was multiplied by the number of students in each class, and then divided by the total population of the school. In the fourth stage, once the number of respondents in each class had been calculated, class lists or class registers were used as the sampling frame to select the respondents through simple random sampling technique. Respondents selected randomly were representative of the entire class and school.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

3.7.1 Questionnaires

The survey method was used to assess the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among the target group. A self-administered questionnaire was used to obtain data from the respondents. The researcher used this method because the main advantage of the questionnaire method is that it avoids the potential embarrassment of face-to-face dialogue and it guarantees complete anonymity. Campbell *et al.*, (1999) say that the use of self-administered questionnaires is particularly useful in the collection of data on sensitive topics, such as sexual behavior. Another advantage of self-administered

questionnaires, according to Campbell *et al.*, (1999) is that they are appropriate methods for obtaining data from literate study populations.

3.7.2 Focus group discussions

A focus group is a small group discussion focused on a particular topic and facilitated by a researcher (Tonkiss, 2004). This is a special type of group in terms of its purpose, size, composition, and procedures. The value of focus groups as a social scientific research method is characterized by Tonkiss (2004) as the method's ability 'for exploring the attitudes, opinions, meanings and definitions *on the participants' own terms*'. Indeed, as Ann Cronin (2008) says, 'the main goal of a focus group is to gain insight and understanding by hearing from representatives from the target population'.

Cronin (2008), in a text book chapter on focus groups, states that 'ideally, focus groups should consist of between six to ten people'. Peek and Fothergill (2009), who have a lot of experience with the method conclude that 'groups that included between 3-5 participants ran more smoothly than the larger group interviews we conducted,' and that 'managing the larger focus groups, from anywhere from 6- 15 participants, was difficult (2009: 37-8). Cronin (2008) agrees that managing groups of more than ten is difficult and, in addition, that such focus groups 'result in data lacking both depth and substance'. Also, in larger groups participants might rely on others to do the talking, a phenomenon termed 'social floating', (Cronin, 2008).

A focus group is usually composed of 6-8 individuals who share certain characteristics, which are relevant for the study (Morgan, 1997). The discussion is carefully planned and designed to obtain information on the participants' beliefs and perceptions on a defined area of interest. Special predetermined criteria are used in selecting focus group participants. This include the following: The topics to be discussed are decided beforehand, there is a predetermined list of open ended questions, focus relies on

discussion among participants about the topics presented,(Krueger,1988).This method requires thorough planning and training of group moderators.

Focus groups should usually be composed of homogenous members of the target population, for instance, similar in age, education level, gender, profession. Focus group discussions can produce a lot of information quickly and are good for identifying and exploring beliefs, ideas or opinions in a community. However, the researcher has less control over the flow of the discussion and results are hard to analyze (Morgan, 1997). In this study, two focus group discussions were held in each school. Each FGD consisted of eight students drawn purposively from each class. Thus form one produced 4 participants, and the same case applied to form two, three and four. From each school, 16 students participated in the focus group discussions. In total, 80 students participated in the FGDs.

Care was taken to ensure that the groups were as homogenous as possible in terms of sex and other relevant characteristics like familiarity with each other. Familiarity had advantages such as reducing initial tension or embarrassment. Homogeneity also reduced the danger of the discussions being inhibited by considerations of status or hierarchy (Campbell et al., 1999). Each discussion lasted between 60 and 90 minutes and they were tape-recorded.

3.7.3 Key informant interviews

Key-informant interviews were of a conversational style rather than a formal question-answer format (Campbell *et al.*, 1999). These were conducted using a semi-structured interview guide. Key informants were mostly the professional in the schools who had knowledge and experience about sexual behavior with regards to youth. They included two head teachers, two guidance and counseling teachers, two games teachers, one school nurse and three biology teachers.

A total of ten key informants were interviewed. These in-depth interviews were used to provide insights in understanding the correlation between television viewing and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth. Other advantages included greater detail of information and opportunity to share and understand the viewpoints of informants, and how their beliefs, experiences and vocabularies relate to wider issues.

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

The data was collected using mixed-methods approach with the aid of structured questionnaires, focus group discussions and key informant interviews. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected concurrently and then the two databases were triangulated to determine if there were any convergence, differences or some combination (Creswell, 2009). The purpose of using this strategy was to offset the weakness inherent within one method with the strengths of the other. The quantitative data was necessary to guarantee a generalization of the results and to statistically test the hypothesis and answer the research questions. Complementary qualitative data was collected to provide plausible explanations for quantitative data (Cresswell, 2009). Using both the structured questionnaire and the interview schedule to collect data served as a mutually validating procedure.

According to Campbell et al. (1999), while the survey is useful for measuring the incidence of a specified behavior, it is often unsatisfactory for full investigation of motivations, beliefs and values that may have a major influence on behavior. Alternative approaches, including key informant interviews and focus group discussions can complement large-scale survey methods. This is consistent with the assertion of Lincoln & Guba (2000) that double measure of the same construct enables the researcher to get more accurate data and thus reduce measurement errors. Hence, the mixed-methods approach was used to increase the trustworthiness of the conclusions made from this study.

The side by side integration of data provide quantitative statistical results which were followed by qualitative quotes that supported or disapproved the quantitative results. The advantage of mixed methods is that it resulted in well-validated and substantiated findings. The quantitative data was collected from a sample size of 340 students using self-administered questionnaires. Although the desired sample size was 325, an additional 15 respondents were sampled in order to guard against drop out and attrition. The self-administered questionnaires were short, simple and very easy to follow. The respondents filled the questionnaires in their classrooms. The researcher supervised this exercise assisted by their teachers.

The researcher facilitated all the discussions. He also made some field notes. Each focus group discussion began with an introduction. The researcher then outlined the goals of the research and the reasons for recording the sessions. In order to exploit group dynamics and enhance the quality of data collected using this method, the participants were allowed a free atmosphere to express themselves. Issues that were covered in the focus group discussions included: the topic sexual initiation, what could be done to delay it, what influences youth to have early sexual intercourse, how was sex portrayed on TV, whether the youth watched TV with their parents, how many hours do the youth spend watching TV and whether watching TV influences the youth to have sexual intercourse. The researcher only intervened to bring out salient issues, particularly when group participants did not do so. The choice of the venue was also an important practical consideration. The venue was neutral with regard to the substance of the discussion, informal and congenial. Eight focus group discussions were held under trees in the open fields. This helped to guard against eavesdropping by the rest of the students. The other two focus group discussions in one of the schools were held in a classroom. The teacher on duty helped to identify a classroom that was ideal and away from the rest of the students.

In this study, two key informants were purposively selected from each school. The researcher encouraged the respondents to talk freely and guided the discourse towards new topics from time to time. The researcher started by establishing a rapport with each informant. He then provided information on the issues to be covered during the interview. These included: portrayals of consequences of sexual activity on TV, watching TV with parents and whether it delays sexual initiation, what TV sexual content do the youth pay attention to, frequency of sexual content on TV. The emphasis here was on understanding the youth's perspectives and descriptions (according to the informants) about the correlation between TV viewing and sexual initiation. The interviews were tape-recorded to enable the researcher to listen to the flow of discussion and to take note of the exact vocabulary used by the informants. The researcher also wrote down some field notes which were expanded at the end of each interview.

3.9 Piloting

Piloting was carried out in a mixed public secondary school in Dagoretti District where a sample size of twenty boys and thirteen girls were selected through convenient sampling technique. The primary purpose of the test was to check content validity of the questionnaire. It also provided feedback on the wording of the questions. Reliability of the questionnaire was attained through the use of Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. Scholars suggest that an Alpha value of above 0.50 is an indication of reliability (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003; Cresswell, 2009). In this study, a 0.70 value was used to indicate reliability of the questionnaire.

The final element of the thematic analysis was to check the credibility of the interpretation. This, according to Babbie and Mouton (2001), implies that the researcher must ensure that there is a congruency between the constructed reality of the participants and the realities that are attributed to them by the researcher. Durrheim (1999) rephrases this as the degree to which the research findings are believable observations for the researcher, participants and the readers of the study. Because it was not possible to

regain access to the participants in the schools, the researcher did not refer the analysis back to the participants. This constitutes a limitation to the credibility of the analysis.

The researcher constructed a valid argument for choosing the themes, which was accomplished by reading the related literature. By referring back to the literature, the researcher gained information that allowed him to uncover themes from the interview (Constas, 1992). Once the themes were collected and the literature had been studied, the researcher formulated these statements to develop a story line. When the literature was interwoven with the findings, the story that the interviewer constructed was one which contained value. A developed story line helps the reader to comprehend the process, understanding and motivation of the interviewer (Ryan & Bernard, 2000).

To ensure the validity of the research, the researcher tried to make certain that the participants' viewpoints, thoughts, intentions and experiences were accurately understood and reported (Struwig & Stead, 2001). Emphasis was placed on the perspective and language of the participants rather than on the interpretations and terminology of the researcher. The researcher was transparent and explicit (Ryan & Bernard, 2000) on the findings in maximizing the interpretative validity of the findings

3.10 Data Analysis Procedures

3.10.1 Quantitative data

The researcher was assisted by a statistician during the data management and processing stage. The data was collected using the researcher designed Students TV Viewing Habit Questionnaire (STVHQ). The questionnaire was then checked for completeness and arranged according to codes then entered for computer analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to interpret the quantitative data obtained on variables relevant to the study objectives and research questions. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17 was used to aid in the analysis of all the descriptive and

inferential statistics. The results of the processed data were presented using percentages, means, standard deviations, frequencies, graphs and tables for easy understanding.

The relationship between the dependent variable (sexual initiation) with the independent variables (The nature of TV sexual content, the amount of time, parental co-viewing and portrayal of sexual consequences) was determined using Contingency Tables and Chi-Square Statistics. A contingency table is a table that shows the relationship between two categorical variables. The Chi-square statistic reflects the strength of this relationship. All else equal, the greater the chi-square statistic, the stronger the relationship. The Chi-square statistic is usually reported at the bottom of a contingency table. Specifically, this approach was appropriate because the study sample was selected in stages using stratified random sampling and simple random sampling techniques, the variables under study were categorical, and the expected frequency count was at least 5 in each cell of the contingency table. Chi-square was used to test the hypotheses. The significance level of the stated hypotheses was at 0.05. ODDS RATIO with 95% Confidence Interval was also used to measure the strength of association between variables.

3.10.2 Qualitative data

The qualitative data produced from the focus group discussions and key informant interviews was transcribed and coded into common themes. The themes in qualitative data were interpreted using thematic analysis. A narrative report enriched with quotations from key informants and focus group participants was written and triangulated with quantitative responses in order to capture convergence or differences (Creswell, 2009). Data from the survey, the key informant interviews and the focus group discussions was triangulated to enhance the reliability and validity of the results.

Qualitative data analysis comprises a variety of processes and procedures where one moves from the qualitative data that has been collected into some form of explanation, understanding or interpretation of the people and situations one is studying (Gibbs,

2002; Seidel, 1998). The intention behind qualitative data analysis is to examine the meaningful and symbolic content of qualitative data. Consequently, data analysis in qualitative research consists of preparing and organizing the data for analysis, then reducing it into themes through the process of categorizing and condensing codes and finally representing data in figures, tables or discussion (Hiles & Cerma,2008).

Further, the process of qualitative data analysis involves two aspects, the writing and identification of themes. Looking for themes involves categorizing (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Creswell, 2002; Hiles & Cerma, 2008). This is the identification of passages of text and applying labels to indicate that they are examples of a thematic idea. Gibbs (2002) states that this labeling or categorizing process enables researchers to quickly retrieve and collect all the text and other data that they have associated with some thematic idea so that they can be examined together and different cases can be compared in that respect. Therefore, after the data was collected and formulated, there was a need to analyse it in order to arrive at the findings and conclusions. As a result, content thematic analysis (Gibbs, 2002; Neuman, 2006; Braun & Clarke, 2006) was adopted to analyse the data which the researcher first transcribed onto paper.

Content thematic analysis is an approach dealing with data that involves the creation and application of 'categories' to data. Thus, it involves summarizing the mass of data collected and presenting the results in a way that communicates the most important features (Hancock, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The data being analysed might take any number of forms: an interview transcript, field notes and documentation. Thematic analysis concerns discovering themes and concepts embedded throughout the interviews (Neuman, 2006). This relates to the social learning approach which states that humans learn from observing others and through modeling. By picking up themes in other people, human beings start to model them (Brown et al., 1993). Thus, this research aimed at uncovering themes that adolescents learn from watching television and at exploring how these patterns of themes influence their sexual initiation.

Furthermore, content can be analyzed on two levels (Hancock, 1998). The basic level of analysis is a descriptive account of the data (Hancock, 1998; Silverman, 1993), that is, what was actually said with nothing read into it and nothing assumed about it. This is also referred to as the manifest level/type of analysis. The higher level of analysis is termed interpretative (Bryman & Burgess, 1993; Hancock, 1998), which is concerned with what was meant by the response, or what was implied. It is also referred to as the latent level of analysis.

3.10.2.1 The process of thematic content analysis

A theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data. Consequently, the process of conducting a thematic analysis, according to (Braun & Clarke, 2006) is as follows:

Firstly, in *the pre-analysis stage*, the researcher familiarized himself with the data, transcribing recorded data into written text, reading and re-reading the data (immersing himself in the data and thoroughly reading through the notes over and over again, including the transcriptions). Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999, p. 141) suggest that this should be done up to the point where the researcher knows the data “well enough to know more or less what kinds of things can be found where, as well as what sort of interpretations are likely to be supported by the data and what not.” The units of analysis were phrases and passages in the text, and not only the repeated occurrence of certain words. These passages were marked as possible themes. Since the data consisted of the texts of various individuals, the texts were examined for similarities and contradictions within each individual, as well as between all individuals.

Secondly, in the *inducing themes*, the researcher made a list of the different types of information he found. He then categorized interesting features of the data in a systematic manner across the entire data set, collecting data relevant to each category. The

researcher created many categories and decided to reduce them later (Hancock, 1998). Thirdly, the researcher began to link some of the categories that he felt could be connected. The researcher then listed minor and major categories. Hence, themes were developed. The researcher began to search for potential themes, gathering all data for each potential theme. Common themes were then grouped together under relevant topics.

Fourthly, the researcher continued to follow these steps until all his FGDs and interview transcripts had been completed. After all the relevant transcript data was sorted into minor and major categories, the researcher again reviewed the data within the system of categorization. Fifthly, once the researcher had sorted all the categories and was sure that all the items of data had been correctly categorized, he established the major themes of the study.

According to Terre Blanche and Kelly (1999), this process should move beyond a summary of the texts, and the identifying and labeling of themes must be related to the research focus (Rossman & Rallis, 2003). The marked passages were therefore revisited several times and refined into main themes with sub-themes under each theme. The final step was to interpret the results using the thematic categories as sub-headings. Data was interpreted according to how the adolescents described their experiences and how the researcher, understood their lives.

Although these themes were based on what was presented in the interviews and focus group discussions with the participants, at this stage the researcher became the interpreter of the perceptions and experiences of the participants (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In very simple terms, he aimed to answer the `` what and how'' questions with which the researcher is confronted at the end of the analysis process. The product of this phase is presented in the next chapter where the results are discussed. It is a written account of what was found by the researcher's investigation into the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Participants in the study were informed about the purpose, procedure and benefits of the study. Furthermore, the sensitivity of the context of the study was acknowledged; as a result, participants were reassured of privacy and confidentiality of the information they provided. They were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they had a right to refuse to answer any questions or even withdraw from the study at any time.

Before each session, respondents and participants were asked to sign a consent form. All individuals were allowed to ask for any clarification they needed. Participants in key informant interviews and FGDs were asked to consent to audio recording of their discussions. They were informed that the recordings of the interviews and discussions would be erased upon completion of the project. No monetary incentives were provided.

3.12 Conclusion

This chapter has focused on how the study intended using mixed methodology research design which utilizes the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Creswell,2009). Campbell et al. (1999) inform that mixed methods are a powerful way of enhancing the validity of results. The first step of the study was to determine which individuals or groups or other social systems would be involved in the study, namely youth who view television which may influence their sexual initiation. Once a sample of respondents and participants were selected, the researcher had to determine what information was required. Different ways of obtaining this information has been described and made relevant to this study. The next chapter will deal with the presentation and analysis (results and discussion) of the data obtained.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and explains the findings of the study with regard to study objectives. The general objective of the study was to establish the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth. The study aimed at answering four research questions: 1) What is the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and how is it associated with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? , 2) What is the association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? 3) What is the association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? , 4) What consequences are portrayed on television as resulting from sexuality and how are they related to sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?

One of the instruments used to obtain information on these questions was a self-administered questionnaire. Campbell et al., (1999) say that the use of self-administered questionnaires is particularly useful in the collection of data on sensitive topics, such as sexual behavior. Dorfman et al., (1992) also found out that neither a quantitative nor a qualitative data alone was sufficient for understanding sexual behavior. Hence focus group discussions and key informant interviews were conducted to collect the qualitative data. The collection of data began in January, 2015 and concluded in March; 2015. The study achieved 100% response rate since 340 out of the 340 questionnaires administered were filled and returned. Both quantitative and qualitative data was triangulated in order to enhance validity and reliability of the results (Nzioka, 1994).

The chapter is divided into five sections, namely: section one deals with the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents, section two presents the descriptive

statistics of the items in the questionnaire relating to particular objectives of the study. Section three deals with the inferential statistics of the items in the questionnaire relating to objectives of the study and verification of the hypotheses derived from the study's research questions. Section four presents the results and discussion of the qualitative data. Section five explains and discusses the study findings according to the study objectives.

4.2. Section One: Background Information of Respondents

4.2.1: Student socio-demographic information

Presentation of findings of this study started by an examination of socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. This provided a background for presentation and tabulation of data. A total of 340 youths completed a self-administered questionnaire. The distribution had 130 (38.2%) girls and 210 (61.8%) boys, aged 13-19 yrs, by age, religion, education level (class), how often they go to church, who they live with currently, who pays their school fees, what is their current marital status and parity (i.e. the number of children they have). The distribution of the respondents by their sex was proportional to their numbers in the study sample. Table 4.1 shows that cumulatively, Catholics and Protestants were more (83.2%) compared to other religions. Also, the findings indicate that the mean age was 17 years, with males having a representation of 21.2% and females 8.5% within the mean age. Those who were 18 years and 19 years were cumulatively 15.6% of the respondents.

Table 4.1 Socio-Demographic Profile of Survey Respondents by Gender

Demographic Characteristics	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female		N	%
	No.	%	No.	%		
Age (Years)						
13	4	1.2	4	1.2	8	2.4
14	8	2.4	7	2.1	15	4.5
15	42	12.4	30	12.4	72	24.8
16	49	14.4	30	8.8	79	23.2
17	72	21.2	29	8.5	101	29.7
18	24	7.1	13	3.8	37	10.9
19	11	3.2	5	1.5	16	4.7
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Religion						
Protestants	110	32.4	57	16.8	167	49.1
Catholics	67	19.7	49	14.4	116	34.1
Muslims	20	5.9	17	5.0	37	10.9
Other	13	3.8	7	2.1	20	5.9
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Go to church						
Daily	20	5.9	11	3.2	31	9.1
Weekly	130	38.2	101	29.7	231	67.9
Hardly	51	15.0	15	4.4	66	19.4
Never	5	1.5	3	0.9	8	2.4
Other	4	1.2	0	0.0	4	1.2
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Schools						
Lang'ata Barracks	66	19.4	25	7.4	91	26.8
Karen C	13	3.8	62	18.2	75	22.0
Lang'ata High School	24	7.1	0	0.0	24	7.1
Olympic High School	59	17.4	17	5.0	76	22.4
Raila Educational Centre	48	14.1	26	7.6	74	21.7
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Class/Form						
Form one	33	9.7	28	8.2	61	17.9
Form two	59	17.4	42	12.4	101	29.7

Form three	61	17.9	35	10.3	96	28.2
Form four	57	16.8	25	7.4	82	24.1
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Living with parents						
Both Parents	144	42.4	75	22.1	219	64.5
Father Alone	33	9.7	10	2.9	43	12.6
Mother Alone	30	8.8	34	10.0	64	18.8
Other	3	0.9	11	3.2	14	4.1
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Marital Status						
Single in a relationship	62	18.2	24	7.1	86	25.3
Single not in a relationship	143	42.1	100	29.4	243	71.5
Cohabiting	0	0.0	2	0.6	2	0.6
Other	5	1.5	4	1.2	9	2.7
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
No. of Children						
None	207	60.9	127	37.4	330	98.3
Has at least one child	3	0.9	3	0.9	6	1.8
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Who pays your fees						
Mother	34	10.0	38	11.2	72	21.2
Father	68	20.0	34	10.0	102	30.0
Both parents	57	16.8	41	12.1	98	28.9
Relatives	14	4.1	3	0.9	17	5.0
Other	37	10.9	14	4.1	51	15.0
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

From Table 4.1, 9.1% of respondents go to church daily and 67.9% go to church weekly. 19.4% of the respondents hardly go to church and 2.4% never go to church at all. 19.4% and 7.4 % respondents representing males and females respectively are from Lang'ata barracks, 3.8% representing males and 18.2% representing females are from Karen C, 17.4% males and 5% females are from Olympic while 14.1% males and 7.6% females are from Raila Educational Centre. 7.1% respondents are from Lang'ata High School.

In reference to the Table 4.1 above, 9.7% males and 8.2% females were in form 1 (entry level into secondary education). There are 17.4% males in form 2 and 12.4% females. In form 3, 17.9% are male while 10.3% are female and in form 4, 16.8% of the respondents are male while 7.4% are female. The Table 4.1 also shows that 64.5% of the respondents live with both parents while 12.6% live with father alone, 18.8% live with mother alone and 4.1% represents those not accounted for, while 18.2% male respondents and 7.1% female respondents are single and not in a relationship. 42.1% males and 29.4% female respondents were single and in a relationship and 0.6% female respondents are cohabiting.

Table 4.1 above also shows that 21.2 % of respondents say that their school fees is paid by their mothers, while 30% say that it's their fathers who pay the school fees and 28.9 % of the respondents say it is both parents who pay their school fees.5% of the respondents say its other relatives. The Table also shows that 98.3% of the respondents do not have children. The Table 4.2 below shows the association between the social demographic characteristics and sexual initiation using the Chi square statistics.

Table 4.2 Chisquare Test of association between Socio-Demographic Profile of Survey Respondents and Sexual initiation

Demographic Characteristics	Sexual initiation				Total
	Delayed(n=158)		Early(n=182)		
	No.	%	No.	%	n/%
Age (Years)					
Less than or Equal to median age(13-16)	102	54.8	84	45.2	186(100)
Greater than median (17-19)	56	36.4	98	63.6	154(100)
Total	158		182		340(100)
<i>Chi-square statistic is 11.560; Pvalue=0.001; The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1</i>					
Religion					
Protestants	81	48.5	86	51.5	167
Catholics	56	48.3	60	51.7	116
Muslims	14	37.8	23	62.2	37
Other	7	35.0	13	65.0	20
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chi-square statistic=2.596; Pvalue=0.458; The result is not significant at <0.05 d.f=3</i>					
Go to church					
Daily	17	54.8	14	45.2	31
Weekly	106	45.9	125	54.1	231
Hardly	33	50.0	33	50.0	66
Never	1	12.5	7	87.5	8
Other	1	25.0	3	75.0	4
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chisquare statistic= 5.687; Pvalue=0.224; The result is not significant at <0.05 d.f=4</i>					
Schools					
Lang'ata Barracks	43	47.3	48	52.7	91
Karen C	14	18.7	61	81.3	75
Lang'ata High School	14	58.3	10	41.7	24

Olympic High School	54	71.1	22	28.9	76
Raila Educational Centre	33	44.6	41	55.4	74
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chi-square statistic=43.255; Pvalue=0.0001; The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1</i>					
Class/Form					
Form one	45	73.8	16	26.2	61
Form two	31	30.7	70	69.3	101
Form three	50	52.1	46	47.9	96
Form four	32	39.0	50	61.0	82
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chi-square statistic=31.427; Pvalue=0.000*; The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1</i>					
Living with who?					
Both Parents	106	48.4	113	51.6	219
Father Alone	18	41.9	25	58.1	43
Mother Alone	23	35.9	41	64.1	64
Other	11	78.6	3	21.4	14
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chisquare statistic=9.350; Pvalue=0.025; The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1</i>					
Marital Status					
Single in a relationship	34	39.5	52	60.5	86
Single not in a relationship	120	49.4	123	50.6	243
Cohabiting	0	0.0	2	100	2
Other	4	44.4	5	55.6	9
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chi-square statistic=4.243; Pvalue=0.236; The result is not significant at <0.05 d.f=1</i>					
No. of Children					

None	158	47.0	178	53.0	336
Has at least one child	0	0	4	100	4
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chi-square statistic=3.514; P-value=0.061; The result is not significant at <0.05 d.f=1</i>					
Who pays your fees					
Mother	33	45.8	39	54.2	72
Father	54	52.9	48	47.1	102
Both	37	37.8	61	62.2	98
parents					
Relatives	9	52.9	8	47.1	17
Other	25	49.0	26	51.0	51
Total	158		182		340
<i>Chi-square statistic=5.140; Pvalue=0.273; The result is not significant at <0.05 d.f=1</i>					

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variables and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. It was concluded: That there was a relationship between Age and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation since the P-value (0.034) is less than the significance level (0.05), with a chi-square statistic of 13.621. There was also a relationship between School and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation since the P-value (0.000) is less than the significance level (0.05), with a chi-square statistic of 43.255. There is a relationship between Form and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation since the P-value (0.0001) is less than the significance level (0.05), with a chi-square statistic of 31.427 and that there was also a relationship between Who do you live with and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation since the P-value (0.025) is less than the significance level (0.05), with a chi-square statistic of 9.350. However the remaining social demographic characteristics namely Religion, Frequency of going to church, Marital status, Number of children respondents had and who pays school fees all had relationships which were not significant since their P values were all more than the significance level 0.05 as shown in Table 4.2 above.

4.3. Section two: Descriptive Statistics of the Items Relating to Particular Objectives of the Study

In this section, descriptions of respondents' opinions per the items of the questionnaire relating to the objectives of the study are presented. Respondents were requested to react to the items by ticking (checking) the option that best described their opinions.

4.3.1 Respondents' opinion on the nature of TV sexual content the youth are exposed to.

The first objective of the study was to establish the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and its association with sexual initiation among the youth. Several items in the questionnaire were presented to the respondents to find out the nature of TV sexual content the youth are exposed to. When respondents were asked which TV channel had they watched most of the sexual content, they responded as shown in Table 4.3 below. Majority of the respondents at 31.8% had seen most of the sexual content in KISS TV which is dominantly a music TV channel while 19.1% of the respondents had seen most of the sexual content in CITIZEN TV.

Table 4.3 Distribution of respondents according to what TV channels they have watched most of the TV sexual content

<u>TV Channel</u>	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>		<u>Cumulative</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
CITIZEN	35	10.3	30	8.8	65	19.1
DSTV	15	4.4	14	5.3	29	10.9
FAMILY	3	0.9	0	0	3	0.9
K24	5	1.5	2	0.6	7	2.1
KBC	9	2.6	1	0.3	10	2.9
KISS TV	64	18.8	44	12.9	108	31.8
TN	17	5	5	1.5	22	6.5
NTV	16	4.7	6	1.8	22	6.5
OTHER CHANNELS	34	10	23	6.8	57	16.8
Zuku TV	12	3.5	5	1.5	17	5
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

Table 4.3 above also showed that 10.9% of the respondents had watched most of the sexual content in DSTV channels. 6.5% of the respondents had seen most of the sexual content on KTN, 6.5% of the respondents had seen most of the sexual content in NTV. 5.0% of the respondents had seen the sexual content in Zuku TV channels and 2.9% of the respondents had seen the content in KBC. 2.1% of the respondents had seen the sexual content on K24 and only 0.9% of the respondents had seen the sexual content in Family TV.16.8% of the respondents had seen the sexual content in other channels.

When respondents were asked where they first learnt about sex, they responded as shown below in Table 4.4. Majority of the respondents at 37.9% got their information about sex first on TV programs while13.2% first learnt about sex from books and magazines.

Table 4.4 Distribution of respondents by where they first learnt about sex.

Parameter	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	N	%	n	%
Where they first learnt about sex						
Parents	24	7.1	17	5.0	41	12.1
Siblings	8	2.4	11	3.2	19	5.6
Books/magazines	30	8.8	15	4.4	45	13.2
TV programs	82	24.1	47	13.8	110	37.9
Internet	20	5.9	13	3.8	33	11.8
Friends	27	7.9	10	2.9	37	10.8
Teachers	19	5.6	17	5.0	36	10.6
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0

Findings in Table 4.4 above also shows that 12.1% learnt about sex first from their parents.10.9% first learnt about sex from friends. 10.6% got their sex information first from teachers. 9.7% from the internet and only 5.6% of the respondents first learnt about sex from their siblings.

The respondents were presented with randomly selected statements to find out to what extent they agreed with them as shown in Table 4.5 below. Respondents were requested to react to the items by ticking (checking) the option that best described their opinions on a Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. Likert scale used for the responses was (1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4=Agree 5= Strongly Agree). The responses were analyzed through using the mean to rank each attribute.

Table 4.5 Distribution of respondents by description statements about TV (I like to watch TV...)

Parameter	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min	Max	Rank
I like to watch TV... to be more like the celebrities/ musicians I see on TV	340	4.76	0.868	1	5	1
see what other people my age are doing	340	4.67	0.979	1	5	2
TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends	340	4.64	1.054	1	5	3
I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes	340	4.61	1.026	1	5	4
So as to be educated on sexual matters	340	3.17	1.397	1	5	5
As a hobby	340	2.53	1.265	1	5	6
I look forward to watching new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV	340	2.22	1.311	1	5	7

In reference to Table 4.5 above, it was established that most respondents strongly agree with the statement ``I like to watch TV to be more like the celebrities/musicians I see on TV. This statement was ranked 1 and this was evidenced by the statement having a mean of 4.76 and a standard deviation of 0.868 which implies to `strongly agree` on the Lickert scale. Other statements which had their mean implying `strongly agree`

included: `` So as I can see what other people my age are doing'' ranked 2 with a mean of 4.67 and a standard deviation of 0.979. ``TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends'' was ranked 3 with a mean of 4.64 and a standard deviation of 1.054. ``I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes'' was ranked 4 with a mean of 4.61 and a standard deviation of 1.026.

So as to be `educated on sexual matters' was ranked 5 with a mean of 3.17 and a standard deviation of 1.397 implying `Neutral' on the Lickert scale. `As a hobby' had a mean of 2.53 and a standard deviation of 1.265 implying `Neutral' on the Lickert scale. It was ranked 6. The statement with the lowest mean was `I like to watch TV... I look forward to watching new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV.' It had a mean of 2.22 with a standard deviation of 1.311 implying Disagree.

The respondents were also asked how they responded to TV programmes about dating, sex and relationships. They responded as shown below in Table 4.6 below. Majority of the respondents, up to 70%, said they were extremely interested in watching TV when they saw TV programs about dating, sex and relationships 13.5% of the respondents were somewhat interested. 6.8% were quite interested, 5.6% were a little bit interested and only 4.1% of the respondents were not at all interested.

Table 4.6 Distribution of respondents by reaction to TV programs about dating, sex and relationships and warning messages restricting viewing to a certain age group shown before the start of certain programs on TV

Parameter	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Interest in watching TV programs about dating, sex and relationships						
I'm not at all interested	13	3.8	1	0.3	14	4.1
I'm a little bit interested	16	4.7	3	0.9	19	5.6
I'm somewhat interested	30	8.8	16	4.7	46	13.5
I'm quite interested	18	5.3	5	1.5	23	6.8
I'm extremely interested	133	39.1	105	30.9	238	70.0
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0
Do you pay attention to the warning messages?						
Yes	38	11.2	29	8.5	67	19.7
No	172	50.6	101	29.7	273	80.3
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Do you think these messages are effective?						
Yes	71	20.9	28	8.2	99	29.1
No	139	40.9	102	30.0	241	70.9
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

Table 4.6 above also shows that cumulatively majority of the respondents, 80.3% do not always pay attention to the warning messages restricting viewing to a certain age group shown before the start of certain programs on TV. Only 19.7% of the respondents said they pay attention to these warning messages. 29.1% of the respondents said they thought the warning messages were effective. However, majority of the respondents, at 70.9% said they thought the warning messages restricting viewing to specific age groups shown before the start of certain programs on TV were not effective

4.3.2 Respondents' opinion on the amount of time spent in TV viewing of sexual content

The second of objective of this study was to find out the association between the amount of time the youth spend in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Several items in the questionnaire were presented to the respondents to find out the amount of time the youth spend in viewing television sexual content. When respondents were asked whether they had a TV set at home, they responded as shown in Table 4.7 below. Majority of the respondents represented by 90% had a TV set at home while 10% of the respondents did not have a TV set at home.

Table 4.7. Distribution of respondents according to whether they have a TV set at home, how many hours they spend watching TV per week and how frequently they watch TV

	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	n	%	N	%
Whether they have a TV set at home						
No	17	5.0	17	5.0	34	10.0
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
How many hours do you spend watching TV?						
1 hour	10	2.9	4	1.2	14	4.1
2 hours	16	4.7	7	2.1	23	6.8
3 hours	13	3.8	5	1.5	18	5.3
4 hours	9	2.6	5	1.5	14	4.1
5 hours	7	2.1	3	0.9	10	3.0
6 hour	11	3.2	4	1.2	15	4.4
7 hours	39	11.5	22	6.5	61	17.9
More than 7 hours	105	30.9	80	23.5	185	54.4
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
How frequently do you watch TV?						
Everyday	118	34.7	86	25.3	204	60.0
Only on weekends	65	19.1	35	10.3	100	29.4
3-4 times a week	27	7.9	9	2.6	36	10.6
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

Table 4.7 also shows that 4.1% of the respondents spend 1 hour watching TV weekly, 6.8% spend 2 hours, 5.3% spend 3 hours, 4.1% spend 4 hours, 3.0% spend 5 hours, 4.4% spend 6 hours, 17.9% spend 7 hours and 54.4% of the respondents spend more than 8 hours per week. The Table 4.7 above also shows that majority of the respondents at 60.0% watch TV every day. 10.6% of the respondents watch TV 3-4 times a week while 29.4% of the respondents watch TV only on weekends.

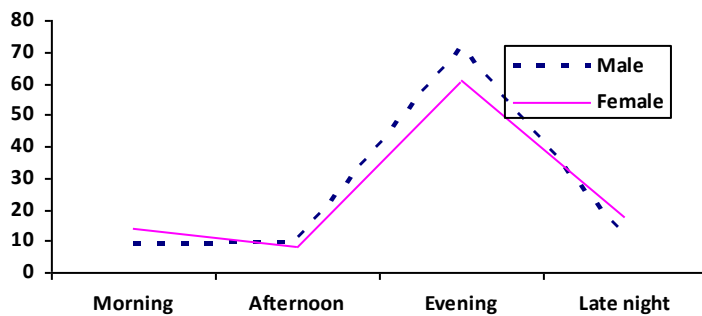


Figure 4.1: Period of viewing TV by gender

When the respondents were asked what time they usually watched TV, they responded as shown in Figure 4.1 above. 13% of the respondents said that they watched TV during Late night, 67.1% of the respondents watched TV in the evening. 9.1% of the respondents watched TV in the afternoon while 10.9% of the respondents watch TV in the morning. The respondents were also asked approximately how many hours per week did they view sexual content in the TV. They were presented with randomly selected sexual content. Likert scale was used for the responses (1=1 hour of TV viewing, 2=2 hours of TV viewing, 3= 3 hours of TV viewing, 4=More than 3 hours of TV viewing).The response was analysed through using the mean response to rank each attribute as shown below in Table 4.8. It was established that sexual lyrics and feelings

in TV music was the sexual content ranked 1 meaning it was the most viewed by respondents on TV. This was evidenced by the sexual content having a mean of 3.56 which implies to ‘more than 3 hours of TV viewing’ on the Likert scale. Other sexual content which was viewed on TV for more than 3 hours included Sexual seductive dressing with a mean of 3.54, Intimate touching with a mean of 3.53 and Implied sexual intercourse with a mean of 3.51.

Table 4.8 Distribution of respondents by how many hours per week they view sexual content in the television.

Frequency of TV viewing of sexual content in hours	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min	Max	Rank
TV music (sexual lyrics & feelings)	340	3.56	0.813	1	4	1
Sexual seductive dressing	340	3.54	0.849	1	4	2
Intimate touching	340	3.53	0.86	1	4	3
Implied sexual intercourse	340	3.51	0.864	1	4	4
Kissing	340	2.46	1.253	1	4	5
Nudity (Partial nudity)	340	2.19	1.099	1	4	6
Actual sexual intercourse	340	2.09	1.073	1	4	7
Sexual talk and discussion	340	1.91	1.076	1	4	8
Contraceptive issues (Condoms, pills)	340	1.32	0.76	1	4	9
Sex education	340	1.22	0.625	1	4	10

Table 4.8 above also shows that Kissing with a mean of 2.46, Nudity with a mean of 2.19, Actual sexual intercourse with a mean of 2.09, and sexual talk and discussion with a mean of 1.91 are the sexual contents receiving a viewership of 2 hours per week. This was evidenced by their mean which implies to 2 hours of TV viewing’ on the Likert scale. Contraceptive issues and sex education had the mean of 1.32 and 1.22 respectively implying to ‘1 hour of TV viewing’ on the Likert scale.

4.3.3 Respondents' opinion on parental television co-viewing of sexual content.

The third objective of the study was to assess the association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Several items in the questionnaire were presented to the respondents to find out their opinion on parental television co-viewing of sexual content. When respondents were asked how often did they watch TV with their parents, they responded as shown in Table 4.9 below. 43.3% of the respondents said that they watched TV everyday with their parents or guardians. 17.0% said they watched TV most days with their parents or guardians while 2.9% of the respondents watched TV with their parents or guardians weekly. 25% of the respondents watched TV with their parents less often and 11.8% of the respondents said that they never watched TV with their parents or guardian.

Table 4.9 Distribution of respondents according to how they watch TV with their parents.

Parameter	Gender				Total	
	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
How often they watched TV with their mum, dad or guardian?						
Everyday	74	21.8	73	21.5	147	43.3
Most days	32	9.4	26	7.6	58	17.0
Weekly	9	2.6	1	0.3	10	2.9
Less often	62	18.2	23	6.8	85	25.0
Never	33	9.7	7	2.1	40	11.8
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0
I am not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity						
Agreement	57	16.8	34	10.0	91	26.8
No agreement	153	45.0	96	28.2	249	73.2
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

I can watch anything I like						
Agreement	137	40.3	86	25.3	223	65.6
No agreement	73	21.5	44	12.9	117	34.4
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of TV						
Agreement	111	32.6	74	21.8	185	54.4
No agreement	99	29.1	56	16.5	155	45.6
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Do you discuss sexual topics on TV with your parents?						
Yes	97	28.5	73	21.5	170	50.0
No	113	47.0	57	18.0	170	50.0
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

Table 4.9 above also shows that 26.8% of the respondents said that they were not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them while 73.2% disagreed. 65.6% of the respondents said that they could watch anything they liked while 34.4% of the respondents disagreed. 54.4% of the respondents said that they were only allowed to watch a certain amount of TV however 45.6% the respondents did not. The Table also shows that 50% of the respondents said that they discussed sexual topics on TV with their parents while the other 50% disagreed.

4.3.4 Respondents' opinion on consequences portrayed on TV programmes resulting from sexual activities

The fourth objective of the study was to determine the association between portrayals of possible consequences of sexual activity on TV and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Several items in the questionnaire were presented to the respondents to find out their opinion on consequences portrayed on TV programmes resulting from sexual

activities. When the respondents were asked whether they had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy. They responded as shown below in Table 4.10. 20.6% of the respondents said they had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy while 79.4% of the respondents had not seen.

Table 4.10 Distribution of respondents by whether they have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others.

Parameters	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	n	%	N	%	N	%
TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy						
Agreement	46	13.5	24	7.1	70	20.6
No agreement	164	48.2	106	31.2	270	79.4
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in STD/HIV/AIDS						
Agreement	30	8.8	43	12.6	73	21.5
No agreement	180	52.9	87	25.6	267	78.5
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity						
Agreement	59	17.4	41	12.1	100	29.4
No agreement	151	44.4	89	26.2	240	70.6
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse						
Agreement	71	20.9	41	12.0	112	32.9
No agreement	139	40.9	89	26.2	228	67.1
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in guilt and regret						
Agreement	79	23.3	60	17.7	139	41.0
No agreement	131	38.6	69	20.4	220	59.0
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0
TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others						
Agreement	46	13.5	25	7.4	71	20.9
No agreement	164	48.2	105	30.9	269	79.1
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

Table 4.10 above also shows that 21.5% of the respondents had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS while 78.5% of the respondents had not seen. On the other hand 70.6% of the respondents had not seen TV

programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity and only 29.4% of the respondents had seen. 32.9% of the respondents had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner. On the other hand, 67.1% of the respondents had not seen. The Table also shows that 41% of the respondents had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret while 59 % of the respondents had not seen. 79.1% of the respondents had not seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others while only 20.9% of the respondents had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others. Table 4.10 also shows that 81.5% of the respondents had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner. On the other hand, 18.5% of the respondents had not seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner.

When the respondents were asked what they thought were the potential dangers associated with sexual activity seen in TV programmes, they responded as shown in Table 4.11 below. 8.3% of the respondents thought that unwanted pregnancy was the potential danger associated with sexual activity as seen on TV programmes while 4.8% of the respondents thought that it was STD/STIs.

Table 4.11 Distribution of respondents by what they think are the potential dangers associated with sexual activity seen on TV programmes.

Variables	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	n	%	N	%
The potential dangers associated with sexual activity seen on TV programmes						
Unwanted Pregnancy	21	6.20	7	2.1	28	8.3
HIV/AIDS	5	1.5	10	2.9	15	4.4
Death	0	0.0	3	0.9	3	0.9
Abortion	1	0.3	4	1.2	5	1.5
STD/STIs	8	2.4	8	2.4	16	4.8
Rejection	4	1.2	7	2.1	11	3.3
Others	171	50.2	91	26.6	262	76.8
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
The positive consequences of sexual activity seen on TV programmes						
Love	86	25.3	48	14.1	134	39.4
Happy Couples	93	27.4	52	15.3	145	42.6
Happy Family	23	6.8	14	4.1	37	10.9
Success	1	0.3	3	0.9	4	1.2
Good life	7	2.1	13	3.8	20	5.9
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
How is sex portrayed in TV programmes						
Glamorous	25	7.4	19	5.6	44	12.9
Exciting	133	39.1	81	23.8	214	62.9
Fun	42	12.4	28	8.2	70	20.6
Success	9	2.6	2	0.6	11	3.2
Bad	1	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.3
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100

Table 4.11 above also shows that 4.4% of the respondents thought that HIV/AIDS was the potential danger associated with sexual activity on TV programmes while 3.3% of them thought it was rejection. 1.5% of the respondents thought it was abortion and only 0.9% of the respondents thought death was the potential danger associated with sexual activity on TV programmes. 76.8% of the respondents simply chose others. The Table

also shows that 39.4% of the respondents thought that love was a positive consequence associated with sexual activity seen on TV programmes while 42.6% thought it was happy couples. 10.9% of the respondents thought that it was happy family and 1.2% of the respondents thought it was success. 5.9% of the respondents thought it was Good life. Table 4.11 also shows that 62.9% of the respondents thought that sex was portrayed as exciting. 20.6% thought it was portrayed as fun, 12.9% thought it was portrayed as glamorous and 32% thought it was portrayed as success. Only 0.3% of the respondents thought it was portrayed as bad.

4.3.5 Respondents' opinion on sexual behavior

Several items in the questionnaire were presented to the respondents to find out their sexual behavior. When respondents were asked whether they had ever had sexual intercourse, they responded as shown in Table 4.12 below. 53.5% of the respondents said they had never had sexual intercourse, while 46.5% said they had had sexual intercourse.

Table 4.12 Distribution of respondents according to whether they have ever had sexual intercourse.

Variables	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	n	%	N	%
Have you ever had sexual intercourse?						
Yes	90	26.5	92	27.0	182	53.5
No	120	35.3	38	11.2	158	46.5
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Did you use contraceptives						
Yes	34	10.0	10	2.9	44	12.9
No	176	51.8	120	35.3	296	87.1
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Reasons for abstaining from sex-Those who have never had sex						
Religious values	29	18.4	0	0	29	18.4
Fear of pregnancy	18	11.4	2	1.3	20	12.7
Wish to wait for	53	33.4	29	18.4	82	51.8

marriage						
Not emotionally ready	8	5.1	4	2.5	12	7.6
Fear of HIV/AIDS	4	2.5	1	0.6	5	0.3
Fear of other STIs	6	3.8	0	0	6	3.8
Other	2	1.3	2	1.3	4	2.6
Total	120	75.9	38	24.1	158	100
Age they first had sex for the first time						
Below 13	12	3.5	31	9.1	43	12.6
13	11	3.2	9	2.6	20	5.8
14	13	3.8	3	0.9	16	4.7
15	26	7.6	7	2.1	33	9.7
16	16	4.7	21	6.2	37	10.9
17	7	2.1	11	3.2	18	5.3
18	2	0.6	8	2.4	10	3.0
19	3	0.9	2	0.6	5	1.5
I have never had sex	120	35.3	38	11.2	158	46.5
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0

Table 4.12 above also shows that 87.1% of the respondents said they never used contraceptives when they had sex for the first time. 51.8% of the respondents who had never had sexual intercourse wished to wait till marriage.12.7% of the respondents who had never had sexual intercourse feared getting pregnant while 18.4% say they had never had sexual intercourse because of religious values.7.6% said they were not emotionally ready.3.1% feared HIV/AIDS and another 3.8% of the respondents feared STIs. Table 4.12 also shows that 12.6% of the respondents had sexual intercourse for the first time when they were below 13 years old. 10.9 % of the respondents had sex for the first time when they were 16 years old.5.3% said they were 17 years old. 5.8% had sex for the first time when they were 13 years old.9.7% were 15 years old and 4.7% were 14 years old.13.0% of the respondents said they had sex for the first time when they were 18 years old and only 1.5% of the respondents were 19 years old.46.5% of the respondents said they had never had sex.

When respondents were asked whether they had ever been pregnant or impregnated they responded as shown in Table 4.13 below. 16.9% of the female respondents said that they had ever been pregnant while 10.6% of the male respondents said that they had ever impregnated.

Table 4.13 Distribution of respondents according to whether they have ever been pregnant or impregnated, and what factors influenced the pregnancy, and if they were likely to have sex before KCSE

Variables	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	n	%	N	%
Have you ever been pregnant?						
Yes	0	0	22	16.9	22	16.9
No	0	0	108	83.1	108	83.1
Total	0	0	130	38.2	130	100
Have you ever impregnated?						
Yes	7	10.6	0	0	7	10.6
No	59	89.4	0	0	59	89.4
Total	66	100.0	0	0	66	100
Factors influenced pregnancy						
Parents	3	10.3	5	17.2	8	27.6
Siblings	0	0	2	6.9	2	6.9
Books/magazines	0	0	2	6.9	1	6.9
TV programs	3	10.3	9	31.0	12	41.4
Internet	0	0	4	13.8	4	13.8
Friends	1	3.4	0	0	1	3.4
Total	7	75.0	22	25.0	29	100
likely to have sex before KCSE						
Not at all likely	11	3.2	10	2.9	21	6.2
Somewhat likely	32	9.4	6	1.8	38	11.2
Likely	46	13.5	5	1.5	51	15.0
Extremely likely	121	35.6	109	32.1	230	67.6
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0

Table 4.13 above also shows that. Majority of the students who had experienced pregnancy or impregnated at 41.4% said that TV programs was the factor that influenced their pregnancy. 27.6% of the respondents said its parents who influenced their pregnancy.13.8% said it was the internet.6.9% said it was siblings, another 6.9% said it was Books/magazines, and only 3.4% said it was Friends who influenced their pregnancy. 67.6% of the respondents said that they were extremely likely to have sex before they did KCSE.15.0% of the respondents said that they were likely to have sex before they did KCSE. 11.2% of the respondents said that they were somewhat likely to have sex before KCSE while 6.2% of them were not at all likely to have sex before KCSE.

When the respondents were asked how they agreed or disagreed on whether they could say no to someone who was pressurizing them to have sex. They responded as shown in Table 4.14 below. 55.9% of the respondents agreed that they could say no to someone pressuring them to have sex. 22.4% strongly disagreed that they could say no to someone pressuring them to have sex and 13.8% of the respondents disagreed while 7.9% of them strongly agreed that they could say no to someone pressuring them to have sex.

Table 4.14 Distribution of respondents by ``I can say no to someone who is pressuring me to have sex. How likely they would use a condom, whether they desire to delay their first sexual intercourse and whether they regret to ever have had sexual intercourse

Variables	Male		Femal e		Cumulative	
	N	%	n	%	N	%
I can say no to someone pressuring me to have sex						
Strongly disagree	49	14.4	27	7.9	76	22.4
Disagree	37	10.9	10	2.9	47	13.8
Agree	109	32.1	81	23.8	190	55.9
Strongly agree	15	4.4	12	3.5	27	7.9
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	130	100
How likely would you be to use a condom						
Not at all likely	115	33.8	63	18.5	178	52.4
Somewhat likely	26	7.6	19	5.6	45	13.2
Total	141	41.4	82	24.1	223	65.6
Whether they desire to delay their first sexual intercourse.						
Yes	45	28.5	16	10.1	61	38.6
No	75	47.5	22	13.9	97	61.4
Total	120	76.0	38	24.0	158	100
Whether they regret to ever had sexual intercourse.						
Yes	62	34.1	58	31.8	120	65.9
No	28	15.4	34	18.7	62	34.1
Total	90	49.5	92	50.5	182	100.0

Table 4.14 above also shows that 52.4% of the respondents were not at all likely to use a condom were they to have sex while 13.2% were somewhat likely.13.8% of the respondents were likely to use a condom while 20.6% of the respondents were extremely likely to use a condom if they were to decide to have sex. Only 38.6% of the respondents who had not had sexual intercourse desired to delay their first sexual intercourse. 61.4% said they did not desire to delay their first sexual intercourse. 67.2% of the respondents said they had already had their first sexual intercourse. 65.9 % of the respondents who had ever had sex regretted ever having sex while 34.1% of them did not regret.

When respondents were asked what they thought having a girl/boyfriend meant, they responded as shown below in Table 4.15, 50.6% of the respondents thought that having a girl/boyfriend means caring and loving relationship with sex. However 42.6% of them thought that it means having a caring relationship not necessarily with sex. Only 6.8% of the respondents thought it's having a partner for sex. The Table also shows that 54.7% of the respondents said that they had a boyfriend/girlfriend while 45.3% of the respondents said that they did not have a boyfriend/girlfriend.

Table 4.15 Distribution of respondents by “What do you think having a girl/boyfriend means”

Variables	Male		Female		Cumulative	
	N	%	n	%	N	%
What do you think having a girl/boyfriend means						
Having partner for sex	14	4.2	9	2.6	23	6.8
Caring and loving relationship with sex	119	35.0	53	15.6	172	50.6
Caring relationship not necessarily with sex	77	22.6	68	20.0	145	42.6
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	130	100
Whether they have a boyfriend/girlfriend						
Yes	113	33.3	73	21.4	186	54.7
No	97	28.5	57	16.8	154	45.3
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0
It is okay for young people to have sex as long as						
They love each other	72	21.2	44	12.9	116	34.1
They have safe sex	51	15.0	21	6.2	72	21.2
They are married	38	11.2	40	11.8	78	22.9
They are above 18	49	14.4	25	7.4	74	21.8
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100
Where do you get information about sex when you need it						
Parents	8	2.4	14	4.1	22	6.5
Siblings	6	1.8	1	0.3	7	2.1
Books/magazines	14	4.1	14	4.1	28	8.2
TV programs	53	15.6	35	10.3	88	25.9

Internet	100	29.4	49	14.4	149	43.8
Friends	16	4.7	10	2.9	26	7.6
Teachers	13	3.8	7	2.1	20	5.9
Total	210	61.8	130	38.2	340	100.0

Table 4.15 above also shows that 22.9% of the respondents said that it's okay for young people to have sex as long as they are married. 21.2% said that it's okay so long as they have safe sex. 21.8% said it's okay so long as they are above 18. About 34.1% of the respondents said that it's okay for young people to have sex as long as they love each other. Table 4.15 above also shows that 43.8% of the respondents get information about sex when they need it from the internet. 25.9% of them get the information from TV programs. 6.5% of the respondents get the information from parents. 8.2% get information from Books/magazines. 2.1% get information from siblings. 7.6% get information from friends. 5.9% get information from teachers.

4.4. Verification of Hypothesis .

4.4.1 There is no association between the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth.

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Nature of TV sexual content (Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships) and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Nature of TV sexual content (Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships) and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Table 4.16 below shows that The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable (nature of TV sexual content) Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

.Table: 4.16 Contingency Table: Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships with sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Interested in TV programmes about dating, sex & relps					
I'm not at all interested	14	9	64.3	5	35.7
I'm a little bit interested	19	12	63.2	7	36.8
I'm somewhat interested	46	18	39.1	28	60.9
I'm quite interested	23	4	17.4	19	82.6
I'm extremely interested	238	115	48.3	123	51.7

Chi-square statistic is 13.055* P value= 0.011 The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=4

Since the P-value (0.011) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between the nature of TV viewing and sexual initiation.

4.4.2 There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

H₀: The amount of time (Frequency of TV Viewing) and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

H_a: The amount of time (Frequency of TV Viewing) and Sexual Initiation are associated.

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable Frequency of TV viewing and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. Results: Since the P-value (0.0001) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Frequency of TV viewing and sexual initiation.

Table 4.17 Contingency Table: Frequency of Watching TV by engaging in Early Sexual Initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Frequency of Watching TV					
Everyday	204	78	38.2	126	61.8
On weekends	100	55	55.0	45	45.0
3-4 times a week	36	25	69.4	11	30.6

Chi-square statistic is 16.125*.P-value is 0.0001* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f =2

The Chi-Square results have been presented in a contingency table as shown above. In a contingency table if the independent variable is on the side, you report the row percent.

If the independent variable is on the top, you report the column percent. In interpreting the contingency table, you compare percent of each independent category. Therefore, in this case, 61.8% of those who watch TV everyday, compared to 45.0% of those who watch TV on weekends only and 30.6% of those who watch TV 3-4 times a week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Those who watched TV everyday were almost twice as likely to engage in early sexual initiation. The relationship between Frequency of watching TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 16.125 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between frequency of TV viewing and sexual initiation.

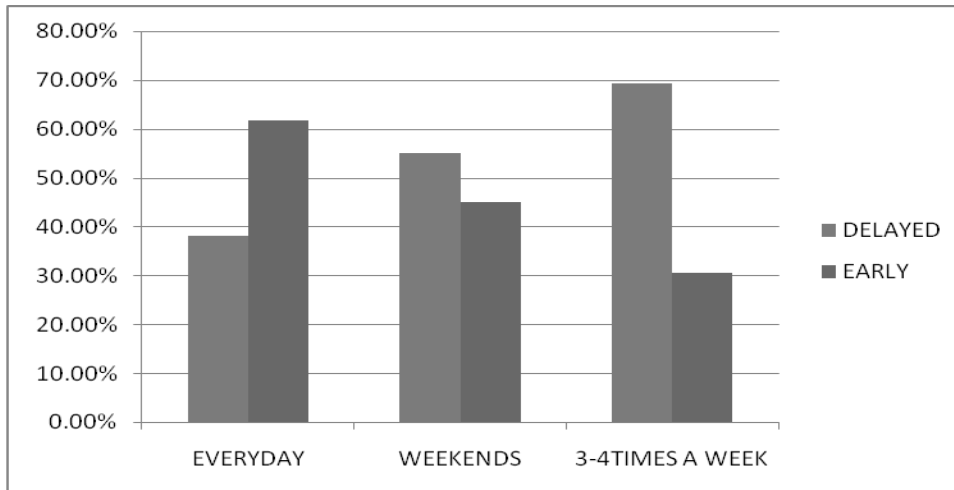


Figure 4.2. Graph interpreting Chi-Square Results as they appear in the Contingency Table 4.17

4.4.3 There is no association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: There is no association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Ha: There is an association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.18 below shows that 46.9% of those who watch TV everyday with their parents, compared to 53.4% of those who watch TV with their parents most days, compared to 20.0% of those who watch TV with their parents weekly compared to 51.8% of those who watch TV with their parents less often compared to 90% of those who never watch TV with their parents, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.18 Contingency Table: How often do you watch TV with your parents and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
How often do you watch TV with your parents					
Everyday	147	78	53.1	69	46.9
Most days	58	27	46.6	31	53.4
Weeekly	10	8	80.0	2	20.0
Less often	85	41	48.2	44	51.8
Never	40	4	10.0	36	90.0

Chi-square statistic is 28.581* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=4

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable How often do you watch TV with your parents and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

The relationship between Frequency of watching TV with parents and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 28.581 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between frequency of TV viewing with parents and sexual initiation. We therefore reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that there is significant association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

4.4.4 There is no association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: There is no association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Ha: There is an association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.19 below shows that 70% of those who have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy compared to 49.3% of those who disagree, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.19 Contingency Table: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for Sexual Initiation		P value
		Delayed (n=182)		Early (n=158)			Lower	Upper	
		(n)	%	(n)	%				
I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy Agreement	70	21	30.0	49	70.0	2.4035	1.3672	4.2252	
No agreement	270	137	50.7	133	49.3				

Chi-square statistic is 9.613* P value= 0.002* The result is significant at <0.05

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The relationship between having seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 9.613 is 0.002* which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between having seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy and sexual initiation.

Results: Since the P-value (0.002*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy and Sexual Initiation. The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the

strength of relationship between two variables. The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =2.4 meaning that those who were in agreement (had seen unwanted pregnancy in TV) were 2.4 times more likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

4.4.5 Inferential statistics of other variables relevant to research objectives of the study

Table 4.20 below shows that 5.0% of those who watch implied sexual intercourse on TV for 1 hour per week, compared to 50.0% of those who watch it for 2 hours per week, compared to 56.7% of those who watch it for 3 hours per week, compared to 57.2% of those who are exposed to implied sexual intercourse for more than 3 hours per week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table 4.20 Contingency Table: The amount of time taken (hours) of Watching TV sexual content (implied sexual intercourse) by probability of engaging in Early Sexual Initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Hours of TV Viewing of implied sexual intercourse					
1 hour exposure	20	19	95.0%	1	5.0%
2 hours exposure	24	12	50.0	12	50.0%
3 hours exposure	60	26	43.3%	34	56.7%
More than 3 hours exposure	236	101	42.8%	135	57.2%

Chi-square statistic is 20.573* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3

The relationship between hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 20.573 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation.

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth; and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Table 4.18 below shows that 100% of those who watch sexual lyrics and feelings in TV music for 1 hour per week, compared to 64.9% of those who watch it for 2 hours per week, compared to 69.8% of those who watch it for 3 hours per week, compared to 47.0% of those who are exposed to TV music with sexual lyrics and feelings for more than 3 hours per week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table 4.21 Contingency Table: The amount of time taken (hours) of Watching TV sexual content (sexual lyrics & feelings in TV music) by probability of engaging in Early Sexual Initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
	N	%	n	%	
Hours of TV Viewing of Sexual lyrics and feelings in TV music					
1 hour exposure	11	0	0%	11	100%
2 hours exposure	37	13	35.1	24	64.9%
3 hours exposure	43	13	30.2%	30	69.8%
More than 3 hours exposure	249	132	53.0%	117	47.0%

Chi-square statistic is 20.302* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3

The relationship between hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and feelings and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 20.302 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and feelings and Sexual Initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated.

Ho: hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth; and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.22 below shows that 5.6% of those who view intimate touching on TV for 1 hour per week, compared to 51.7% of those who watch it for 2 hours per week, compared to 53.2% of those who watch it for 3 hours per week, compared to 57.3% of those who are exposed to intimate touching on TV for more than 3 hours per week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table 4.22 Contingency Table: The amount of time taken (hours) of Watching TV sexual content (Intimate touching) by probability of engaging in Early Sexual Initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Hours of TV Viewing of intimate touching					
1 hour exposure	18	17	94.4	1	5.6
2 hours exposure	29	14	48.3	15	51.7
3 hours exposure	47	22	46.8	25	53.2
More than 3 hours exposure	246	105	42.7	141	57.3

Chi-square statistic is 18.113* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3

The relationship between hours of watching intimate touching on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 18.113 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between hours of watching intimate touching on TV and Sexual Initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable hours of watching intimate touching on TV and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: hours of watching intimate touching on TV and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: hours of watching intimate touching on TV and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between hours of watching intimate touching on TV and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth; and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.23 shows that 89.5% of those who view sexual seductive dressing on TV for 1 hour per week, compared to 82.6% of those who watch it for 2 hours per week, compared to 64.8% of those who watch it for 3 hours per week, compared to 45.8% of

those who watch it on TV for more than 3 hours per week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table 4.23 Contingency Table: The amount of time taken (hours) of Watching TV sexual content (Sexual seductive dressing) by probability of engaging in Early Sexual Initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Hours of TV Viewing of sexual seductive dressing					
1 hour exposure	19	2	10.5	17	89.5
2 hours exposure	23	4	17.4	19	82.6
3 hours exposure	54	19	35.2	35	64.8
More than 3 hours exposure	244	133	54.5	111	45.5

Chi-square statistic is 26.788* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3

The relationship between hours of watching seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 26.788 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

H₀: hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth; and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Table 4.24 below shows that 47.8% of those who view sex education on TV for 1 hour per week, compared to 82.4% of those who watch it for 2 hours per week, compared to 100% of those who watch it for 3 hours per week, compared to 100% of those who watch it on TV for more than 3 hours per week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table 4.24 Contingency Table: The amount of time taken (hours) of Watching TV sexual content (Sex Education) by probability of engaging in Early Sexual Initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
Hours of TV Viewing Sex Education					
1 hour exposure	291	152	52.2	139	47.8
2 hours exposure	34	6	17.6	28	82.4
3 hours exposure	4	0	0	4	100.0
More than 3 hours exposure	11	0	0	11	100.0

Chi-square statistic is 28.263* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05
d.f=3

The relationship between hours of watching sex education on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 28.263 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between hours of watching sex education on TV and Sexual Initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable hours of watching sex education on TV and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: hours of watching sex education on TV and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: hours of watching sex education on TV and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth; and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Table 4.25 below shows that 43.8% of those who viewed sexual talk and discussion on TV for 1 hour per week, compared to 52.6% of those who watch it for 2 hours per week, compared to 75.8% of those who watch it for 3 hours per week, compared to 72% of those who watch it on TV for more than 3 hours per week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table 4.25 Contingency Table: The amount of time taken (hours) of Watching TV sexual content (Sexual talk and discussions) by probability of engaging in Early Sexual Initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Hours of TV Viewing of sexual talk and discussions					
1 hour exposure	162	91	56.2	139	43.8
2 hours exposure	95	45	47.4	28	52.6
3 hours exposure	33	8	24.2	4	75.8
More than 3 hours exposure	50	14	28.0	36	72.0

Chi-square statistic is 19.573* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3

The relationship between hours of watching sexual talk and discussion on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 19.573 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between hours of watching sexual talk and discussions on TV and Sexual Initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable hours of watching sexual talk and discussion on TV and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: hours of watching sexual talk and discussion on TV and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: hours of watching sexual talk and discussion on TV and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between hours of watching sexual talk and discussion on TV and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth; and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.26 below shows that 47.8% of those who viewed contraceptive issues on TV for 1 hour per week, compared to 80.6% of those who watch it for 2 hours per week, compared to 68.8% of those who watch it for 3 hours per week, compared to 86.7% of those who watch it on TV for more than 3 hours per week, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table 4.26 Contingency Table: The amount of time taken (hours) of Watching TV sexual content (Contraceptive issues-condoms, pills) by probability of engaging in Early Sexual Initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Hours of TV Viewing of contraceptive issues-condoms, pills					
1 hour exposure	278	145	52.2	133	47.8
2 hours exposure	31	6	19.4	25	80.6
3 hours exposure	16	5	31.3	11	68.8
More than 3 hours exposure	15	2	13.3	13	86.7

Chi-square statistic is 20.890* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05

d.f=3

The relationship between hours of watching contraceptive issues on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 20.890 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between hours of contraceptive issues on TV and Sexual Initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable hours of contraceptive issues on TV and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: hours of watching contraceptive issues on TV and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: hours of watching contraceptive issues on TV and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between hours of watching contraceptive issues on TV and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth; and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table: 4.27 Contingency Table: Attention paid to the Warning Messages before start of TV programmes and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Pay attention to Warning messages					
Yes	67	0	0	67	100
No	273	158	57.9	115	42.1

Chi-square statistic is 72.440* P value= 0.000*

Although the result is statistically significant at <0.05 , the results of the above association are not valid due to empty cells. Table 4.27 below shows that 9.1% of those who said that warning messages before the start of TV programmes are effective, compared to 71.8% of those who said the warning messages are not effective, engaged in early sexual initiation.

The relationship between Effectiveness of warning messages on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 110.878 is 0.0001* which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between the warning messages on TV before start of TV programmes and sexual initiation.

Table: 4.28 Contingency Table: Effectiveness of Warning Messages before start of TV programmes and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Effectiveness of Warning messages					
Yes	99	90	90.9	9	9.1
No	241	68	28.2	173	71.8

O.R=0.0393 Lower Limit=0.0187 Upper Limit=0.0824; Pvalue=0.0001

Chi-square statistic is 110.878* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable Effectiveness of Warning Messages before start of TV programmes and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Effectiveness of Warning Messages before start of TV programmes and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Effectiveness of Warning Messages before start of TV programmes and Sexual Initiation are associated.

The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables. The odds ratio of the yes group to effectiveness of warning messages before start of TV programmes relative to the No group is =0.04 meaning that the yes group were less likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no group.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Effectiveness of Warning Messages before start of TV programmes and Sexual Initiation. Table 4.29 below shows that the Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable Watching TV as a hobby and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.29 Contingency Table: Watching TV as a hobby and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
Watch TV as a hobby					
Strongly disagree	27	17	63.0	10	37.0
Disagree	45	32	71.1	13	28.9
Neutral	104	44	42.3	60	57.7
Agree	99	47	47.5	52	52.5
Strongly agree	63	18	28.6	45	71.4

Chi-square statistic is 22.787* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=4

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Watching TV as a hobby and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Watching TV as a hobby and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.000*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Watching TV as a hobby and Sexual Initiation. Table 4.30 below shows that the Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a

significant association between the independent variable Watching TV to see what other people my age are doing and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.30 Contingency Table: Watching TV to see what other people my age are doing and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	n	%
To see what other people my age are doing					
Strongly disagree	18	3	16.7	15	83.3
Disagree	66	26	39.4	40	60.6
Neutral	38	12	31.6	26	68.4
Agree	70	32	45.7	38	54.3
Strongly agree	147	85	57.8	62	42.2

Chi-square statistic is 18.766* P value= 0.001* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=4

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Watching TV to see what other people my age are doing and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Watching TV to see what other people my age are doing and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Watching TV to see what other people my age are doing and Sexual Initiation. Table 4.31 below shows that the Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent

variable Watching TV as TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.31 Contingency Table: Watching TV as TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends					
Strongly disagree	26	14	53.8	12	46.2
Disagree	38	20	52.6	18	47.4
Neutral	75	31	41.3	44	58.7
Agree	115	64	55.7	51	44.3
Strongly agree	85	29	34.1	56	65.9

Chi-square statistic is 11.049* P value= 0.026* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=4

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Watching TV as TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Watching TV as TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.026*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Watching TV as TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends and Sexual Initiation. Table 4.32 below shows that The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable Watching TV as I would like to be more

like the individuals I see in TV programmes and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.32 Contingency Table: Watching TV as I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes					
Strongly disagree	23	18	78.3	5	21.7
Disagree	21	12	57.1	9	42.9
Neutral	27	9	33.3	18	66.7
Agree	27	13	48.1	14	51.9
Strongly agree	242	106	43.8	136	56.2

Chi-square statistic is 12.903* P value= 0.012* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=4

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Watching TV as I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Watching TV as I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.012*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Watching TV as I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes and Sexual Initiation.

Table 4.33 below shows that the Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable Watching TV to watch new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.33 Contingency Table: Watching TV to watch new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
to watch new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV					
Strongly disagree	41	18	43.9	23	56.1
Disagree	16	13	81.3	3	18.8
Neutral	43	25	58.1	18	41.9
Agree	123	68	55.3	55	44.7
Strongly agree	117	34	29.1	83	70.9

Chi-square statistic is 28.342* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=4

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Watching TV to watch new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Watching TV to watch new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.000*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Watching TV to watch new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV and Sexual Initiation. Table 4.34 below shows that the Chi-

Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable Watching TV so as to be educated on sexual matters and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.34 Contingency Table: Watching TV so as to be educated on sexual matters and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
To be educated on sexual matters					
Strongly disagree	72	32	44.4	40	55.6
Disagree	90	65	72.2	25	27.8
Neutral	55	24	43.6	31	56.4
Agree	56	22	39.3	34	60.7
Strongly agree	64	15	23.4	49	76.6

Chi-square statistic is 39.034* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05,d.f=4

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Watching TV so as to be educated on sexual matters and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Watching TV so as to be educated on sexual matters and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.000*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between Watching TV so as to be educated on sexual matters and Sexual Initiation. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and sexual

initiation among Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and sexual initiation among Kenyan youth. Table 4.35 below shows that 98.9% of those who agree to being not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them compared to 36.9% of those who disagree, engaged in early sexual initiation. Those who are in agreement were almost three times likely to engage in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.35 Contingency Table: I am not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for		P value
		Delayed (n=182)		Early (n=158)			Sexual Initiation		
		(n)	%	(n)	%		Lower	Upper	
I am not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them									
Agreement	91	1	1.1	90	98.9	153.587	21.045	1120.86	0.000*
No agreement	249	157	63.1	92	36.9				

Chi-square statistic is 102.830* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1

The relationship between being not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 102.830 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between not being allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them and sexual initiation.

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable I am not allowed to watch TV

with a lot of sexual activity in them and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: I am not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: I am not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.000*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between “I am not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them” and Sexual Initiation. The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables. The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =154 meaning that those who were in agreement(not allowed to watch TV with a lot of TV sexual content in them) were 154 times more likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group.

Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Table 4.36 below shows that 48.9% of those who agree to being able to watch anything they like on TV compared to 62.4% of those who disagree, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.36 Contingency Table: I can watch anything I like and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for Sexual Initiation		P value
		Delayed (n=182)		Early (n=158)			Lower	Upper	
		(n)	%	(n)	%				
I can watch anything I like									
Agreement	223	114	51.1	109	48.9	0.5763	0.3649	0.9102	0.000*
No agreement	117	44	37.6	73	62.4				

Chi-square statistic is 5.634* P value= 0.018* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=1

The relationship between being able to watch anything they like on TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.018* at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 5.634 is 0.018* which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between being able to watch anything they like on TV and sexual initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable I can watch anything I like and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: I can watch anything I like and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: I can watch anything I like and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.018*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between I can watch anything I like and Sexual Initiation.

The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables. The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =0.58 meaning that those who were in agreement (can watch anything in TV) were less likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that H_0 : There is no association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that H_a : There is an association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.37 below shows that 43.8% of those who agree to being only allowed to watch a certain amount of TV compared to 65.2% of those who disagree engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.37 Contingency Table: I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of television and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for		P value
		Delayed		Early			Sexual Initiation		
		(n=182)	(n=158)	Lower	Upper				
		(n)	%	(n)	%				
I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of television									
Agreement	185	104	56.2	81	43.8	0.4164	0.2682	0.6465	0.000*
No agreement	155	54	34.8	101	65.2				

Chi-square statistic is 15.494* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=1

The relationship between being only allowed to watch a certain amount of TV and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 15.494 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between being only allowed to watch a certain amount of TV and sexual initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of television and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of television and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of television and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.000*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of television and Sexual Initiation. The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables.

The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =0.42 meaning that those who were in agreement (I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of TV) were less likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.38 below shows that 38.2% of those who agree to discussing sexual topics on TV with parents compared to 68.8% of those who disagree, engaged in early sexual initiation. Those who disagreed to discussing sexual topics on TV with their parents were almost twice likely to engage in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.38 Contingency Table: Do you discuss sexual topics on television with your parents and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for Sexual Initiation		P value
		Delayed (n=182)		Early (n=158)			Lower	Upper	
		(n)	%	(n)	%				
Do you discuss sexual topics on television with your parents									
Agreement	170	105	61.8	65	38.2	0.2804	0.1791	0.4391	0.000*
No agreement	170	53	31.2	117	68.8				

Chi-square statistic is 31.971* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=1

The relationship between discussing sexual topics on TV with parents and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 31.971 is 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between discussing sexual topics on TV with parents and sexual initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable Do you discuss sexual topics on television with your parents and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: Do you discuss sexual topics on television with your parents and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: Do you discuss sexual topics on television with your parents and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.000*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a

relationship between Do you discuss sexual topics on television with your parents and Sexual Initiation. The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables.

The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =0.28 meaning that those who were in agreement (discuss sexual topics with parents) were less likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Table 4.39 below shows that 58.8% of those who have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner compared to 30.2% of those who disagree, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.39 Contingency Table: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for		P value	
		Delayed (n=182)		Early (n=158)			Sexual Initiation		Lower	Upper
		(n)	%	(n)	%					
I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner										
Agreement	277	114	41.2	163	58.8	3.3112	1.8376	5.9666	0.000*	
No agreement	63	44	69.8	19	30.2					

Chi-square statistic is 16.979* P value= 0.0001* The result is significant at <0.05, d.f=1

The relationship between having seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 16.979 is 0.0001* which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between having seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and sexual initiation.

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation. The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables.

The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =3.3 meaning that those who were in agreement (seen TV programmes with improvement in relationships) were 3.3 times more likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Table 4.40 below shows that 65.2% of those who have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner compared to 47.8% of those who disagree, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.40 Contingency Table: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for Sexual Initiation		P value
		Delayed (n=182)		Early (n=158)			Lower	Upper	
		(n)	%	(n)	%				
I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner	112	39	34.8	73	65.2	2.0435	1.2803	3.2618	0.003*
Agreement									
No agreement	228	119	52.2	109	47.8				

Chi-square statistic is 9.111* P value= 0.003* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1

The relationship between have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 9.111* is 0.003* which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between having seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and sexual initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

H₀ I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.003*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation. The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables.

The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =2 meaning that those who were in agreement (physical abuse by a sexual partner) were 2 times more likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

Table 4.41 below shows that 38.8% of those who have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret compared to 63.5% of those who disagreed, engaged in early sexual initiation.

Table: 4.41.Contingency Table: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n=340)	Sexual Initiation				O.R	95% C.I for		P value
		Delayed		Early			Sexual Initiation		
		(n=182)		(n=158)			Lower	Upper	
		(n)	%	(n)	%				
I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret									
Agreement	139	85	61.2	54	38.8	0.3652	0.2337	0.5706	0.003*
No agreement	200	73	36.5	127	63.5				

Chi-square statistic is 20.025* P value= 0.0001* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=1

The relationship between have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret and Sexual Initiation is significant with a P-value of 0.0001 at significance level of 0.05. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 20.025* is 0.0001* which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between having seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and sexual initiation. The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation. The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.0001*) is less than the significance level (0.05), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is a relationship between I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner and Sexual Initiation. The odds ratio is a measure of effect size (as is the Pearson Correlation Coefficient) and therefore provides information on the strength of relationship between two variables.

The odds ratio of the agreement group relative to No agreement group is =0.37 meaning that those who were in agreement (sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt) were less likely to engage in early sexual initiation than the no agreement group. Therefore we also reject the null hypothesis that Ho: There is no association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth and accept the alternate hypothesis that Ha: There is an association between sexual consequences portrayed on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. Table 4.42 below shows that the Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.42 Contingency Table: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS					
Agreement	73	30	41.1	43	58.9
No agreement	267	128	47.9	139	52.1

**Chi-square statistic is 1.080* P value= 0.299* The result is not significant at <0.05
d.f=1**

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.299*) is more than the significance level (0.05), we accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is no relationship between TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS and Sexual Initiation. Table 4.43 below shows that the Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.43.Contingency Table: I have seen TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
I have seen TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity					
Agreement	100	47	47.0	53	53.0
No agreement	240	111	46.3	129	53.8

Chi-square statistic is 0.016* P value= 0.899* The result is not significant at <0.05 d.f=1

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.899*) is more than the significance level (0.05), we accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is no relationship between TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity and Sexual Initiation. Table 4.44 below shows that the Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the independent variable TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others and the dependent variable Sexual Initiation.

Table: 4.44. Contingency Table: I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others and sexual initiation by probability of engaging in Early Sexual initiation.

Variable	Total (n)	Sexual Initiation			
		Delayed (n=158)		Early (n=182)	
		N	%	N	%
I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others					
Agreement	71	40	56.3	31	43.7
No agreement	269	118	43.9	151	56.1

**Chi-square statistic is 3.513* P value= 0.061* The result is not significant at <0.05
d.f=1**

The null hypothesis and the alternate hypothesis were stated:

Ho: TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others and Sexual Initiation are not associated.

Ha: TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others and Sexual Initiation are associated.

Results: Since the P-value (0.061*) is more than the significance level (0.05), we accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternate hypothesis. Thus, we conclude that there is no relationship between TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others and Sexual Initiation.

4.5 Results and Discussion of the Qualitative Data (Focus Group Discussions and Key Informant Interviews)

4.5.1 Introduction

The researcher collected data from focus group discussions and key informant interviews. Two focus group discussions were held in each school. Each FGD consisted of eight students drawn purposively from each class. Thus from one produced 4 participants, and the same case applied to form two, three and four. From each school, 16 students participated in the focus group discussions.

In total, 80 students participated in the FGDs. Key-informant interviews were of a conversational style rather than a formal question-answer format (Campbell et al., 1999). These were conducted using a semi-structured interview guide. Key informants were mostly the professionals in the schools who had knowledge and experience about sexual behavior with regards to youth. They included two head teachers, two guidance and counseling teachers, two games teachers, one school nurse and three biology teachers. A total of ten key informants were interviewed. These in-depth interviews were used to provide insights in understanding the correlation between television viewing and sexual initiation.

The recorded data was transcribed to provide textual data for purposes of analysis. In this chapter, the researcher summarized the stories and discussions of the participants, highlighting important details and the main themes that emerged from their experiences. Thus, consideration was given to the researcher's preconceived ideas that were formulated prior to the analysis. This was deemed necessary because these ideas could have influenced the reading of the texts; him being eager to find evidence in the data that proves the researcher's assumptions may have led to him overlooking responses that were not in line with or related to these preconceived themes. These prejudices were influenced by the literature reviewed, as well as the researcher's own experience (Bauer,

2000; Rossman & Rallis, 2003). However, evidence was found for some of these themes, while some were found to be inaccurate, whereas in other instances the researcher's prejudice was only partly accurate.

In the second part of the section, the researcher furnishes his interpretation of the major themes that emerged from the experiences of all the participants in the FGDs and the Key informant interviews. Furthermore, the results of the study are the responses of the participants to the issues that were discussed in the focus group discussions and during the key informants interviews (Appendix VI and VII). This section presents the researcher's interpretation and understanding of the correlation between television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth as a single text given the nature of the data.

4.5.2 Demographic description of the sample

A pertinent starting point for presentation of findings in a study of this nature is an examination of the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. These brief demographic parameters provided contextual information on the respondents which aided in understanding and situating responses. My data revealed that all the respondents are in their youth. (Between 13 and 19). This group rightly constitutes the target group for this study.

Adolescents may be exposed to sexual content in the media during a developmental period when gender roles, sexual attitudes, and sexual behaviours are being shaped (Brown & Newcomer, 1991). Consequently, this group may be at risk because among other things cognitive skills may not allow them to critically analyze messages from the media, while the ability to make decisions based on possible future outcomes is not yet fully developed at this stage (Haferkamp, 1999). Research has shown that many people

begin their sexual development during their teen and early adult years (Metzler, Noell, & Biglan, 1992; Prinstein, Meade, & Cohen 2003; Rosenthal & Smith, 1997). During this time these young people are exposed to a variety of information sources about sex: schools, parents, siblings, friends, medical professionals, and the media (Sutton et al., 2002). This media influence, especially the impact of television, could have a significant influence on the sexual initiation of young people. A total of 90 participants took part in the FGDs and the key informant interviews. These were 80 students participated in the FGDs and 10 professionals in the schools who were experts and had knowledge in sexual behaviour.

4.5.3 Content thematic analysis

Qualitative data analysis deals with uncovering themes. The themes that the researcher has identified stemmed from the literature review, the phenomena being studied, as well as the researcher's theoretical orientation (Bulmer, in Ryan & Bernard, 2003). The themes were clustered together as meaningful components for gaining insight on the correlation between television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. To help the researcher to identify themes from the data he collected, he considered the literature review (previous studies conducted that were directly and indirectly related to this study) as well as the research questions of this study. The literature review helped him to express the underlying assumptions behind the research questions and to demonstrate the need for the study.

Focus group discussions and key informant interviews were also employed with the aim of exploring, describing and gaining a deeper understanding of the association between television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. The process described in Chapter three was then followed so as to uncover the themes. As a result, four major themes were identified from the data:

- i).The Nature of Television Sexual Content that the youth like watching and how the sexual content influences them
- ii).How much Time the youth spend watching TV and how it influences their sexual initiation
- iii).Adolescents' view of Parental Co-viewing
- iv).Consequences of engaging in sexual activities as portrayed by television.

The themes and interpretations were discussed jointly, integrating the literature and giving plausible accounts of the challenges and influences posed by television among the Kenyan youth when they watch it.

4.5.3.1 The Nature of Television Sexual Content that the youth like watching and how the sexual content influences them.

During the focus group discussions, when asked about where young people do get their sexual information, participants said the following: P1: *I think TV contributes a lot in terms of maybe they show a celebrity engaging in sex and you know that everyday as young people we would like to look up to those people and do the things they do even if those things are wrong. I think TV plays a big role in a teenagers life because they like doing things that tend to be wrong you know, but just because it's an ``in thing'', so we continue doing that.*

P2: *I think TV gives messages to the youth...sawasawa (it's okay) but then in most soaps, heeh. Sex scenes, sex talk, infidelity... sisemi kitu.(I wont say anything.)*

P3: *There's a lot of depictions of sex, whether actual or implied. Sex noises, deep kissing, touches, sexual talks. These are common on TV programmes. Every time I watch music in KISS TV, I see a lot of partial nudity and a lot of sexual messages in the music*

expressing sexual feelings and so on. The way the musicians move their bodies seduces anyone who watches. Even the name of the TV channel is called KISS...hahaha! Insinuating lots of kisses in the programmes. Am serious...hahaha!

According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1997), sexual contents displayed in the programmes shown on television may suggest that certain sexual behaviours make girls more attractive and admirable (Brown et al., 1993). Depending on the component processes involved (such as attention or motivation), one may model the behavior shown in the commercial and buy the product being advertised. Thus, in describing the kind of programmes that they like to watch on television, most of the participants indicated that they mainly enjoy soap operas, movies and dramas. According to Kunkel et al. (2001), it has been reported that nearly seven in 10 television programmes contain a sexual message. This is what some of the participants said when asked what their favourite programmes were:

Participant 1: *“Ummh!..U know! Late night movies that appear on TV, I’m also referring to those other soapies that are shown on television such as Mientras Haya Vida.”*

Participant 2: *“Ooh! It will depend on the kind of person, how they are. I usually watch eeh...soapies, yaaah... comedies, yaaah...that kinda programmes.”*

Participant 3: *“I love watching this soap called the Bold and the Beautiful on KBC. It’s normally aired on Wednesdays at around 10.30 pm. I am told it used to be aired even before I was born. I was even told it was even more popular than another old Mexican soap which used to be called No one But you.”*

Participant 4: *“I love watching music on TV.I would like to be like those musicians. Dress like them, dance like them...I love the way they shake their ... (you know what)...I*

never miss watching The Beat on NTV every weekday at 5.00pm.It's a music entertainment programme."

Participant 5: *"I love watching this entertainment show...wrestling on KBC every Friday at 8.00pm.I admire the strength this men have. Their huge bodies, shoulders, muscles wow. I hope to be married to a man like them."*

Participant 6: *"Me its Soaps all the way. Especially the soaps in CITIZEN. "I don't trust many anymore. 'It's at 10 pm on Citizen TV everyday apart from Monday. The other one is "wild at heart" on citizen TV everyday between 8pm and 9pm just before news. Another soap that I never miss is called "her mothers daughter" on KTN every Monday to Friday from 6pm to 7pm just before news."*

One of the key informants, a guidance and counseling teacher said that some programmes are very important to the youth. She added to the debate by saying that *"Discovery +254, for example, It's an entertainment magazine talk show which seeks to inspire young people develop their talents and realize their full potential. In each episode, youth reporters would seek opinions of everyday Kenyans on the issues affecting them. I always encourage students to watch this programme every Saturday on NTV at 8.00pm. The feedback I get from them is always encouraging."* Other TV programmes mentioned by participants during the FGDs included Big Brother Africa aired on DSTV channels and KTN, Straight up Live on KTN an entertainment talk show aired on KTN, Local Dramas like Pendo aired every Wednesday at 8.00pm in NTV, and the Mexican soap operas in CITIZEN TV. The participants in the focus group discussions contributed in the discussion by adding:

Participant 7: *"I enjoy watching the Beat everyday...Monday to Friday at 5.00p.m on NTV, I also love this soapie called Catalina and Sebastian."*

Participant 8: *"I love laughing. Churchill Raw, every Thursday at 8.20pm on NTV is my favourite proggy. Again, I also used to watch This Soap Opera called...eeehh yeah... The*

Bold & the Beautiful. It was on KBC...eeehhh... I think on weekends at 9.45pm. There are things on these soopies that when you watch them and actually think about them they are actually not a positive aspect in a person's life. How can a father and his son have an affair with the same woman? "

Based on these discussions, it can be said that the participants are most likely to watch soopies, dramas and movies, which, when one considers their frequency, they occupy most of the TV time. However, while television's sexual messages are not necessarily visually explicit, they often provide information adolescents may not find elsewhere (Ward & Rivadeneira, 1991). Through their dialogue, characterizations, storylines, and themes, television programmes present adolescents with numerous verbal and visual examples of how dating, intimacy, relationships, and sex are handled. On the other hand, concern is often expressed that the messages broadcast via television about sexuality are limited, stereotypical, and potentially harmful (Comstock et al., 1978; Haferkamp, 1999). Furthermore, the social learning theory of Bandura (2001) states that depictions of adolescents in the media- their successes, failures, rewards, and punishments- provide models from which beliefs, behavior and attitudes are learned and actions are imitated. However, it is important to note that adolescents are aware of these sexual images, especially negative portrayals of women, such as prostitution and sexual promiscuity (Miller et al., 2001).

Still regarding programmes that they watch, one of the Key informants said that TV programmes that have two sides, there are positive programmes that one can enjoy and have something later as an influential aspect and there are negative ones that actually at the end of the day can destroy one's life. He further explored the difference between positive and negative programmes. He described the negative ones by giving example of the late night movies that appear on TV, for example the James Bond movies. He said that these movies contained a lot of implied sexual scenes, a lot of kissing and oftenly

sexual talks. James Bond is portrayed as a womanizer who can get any woman he wants. He described the positive broadcasts by giving examples of TV programmes like Tujuane and Discovery +254.

During the focus group discussions, the participants were asked whether watching TV influences the youth to engage in early sexual intercourse. They said the following:
Participant 1: *Yaaaah! I think so because it's on our eyes everyday, it's something that we see, I'm not saying it contributes to us doing wrong things but it also you know... it's an everyday thing for us, you know, so I think it really does contribute to us engaging in sexual activities such as kissing and even sex. I first learnt about sex from TV. and somehow I imitated what I saw. and... eeh.. you know what I mean.*

Participant 2: *eeh! Everyday can say I. I watch these programs daily. Sexual talks and kisses are always there in many programs especially in soap operas. I also love watching the beat on weekdays at NTV at 5.00 pm. It has a lot of partial nudity, and love lyrics with lots of sexual messages. I get turned on...hahaha! Especially when I see those beautiful semi naked girls. Its entertaining though...*

Participant 3: *Nowadays, there are thousands of TV programmes about dating, love, relationships and mostly sex. Most of these programmes are soap operas. They are all over in Citizen TV, NTV, KTN, QTV, K24, KBC, I mean in all channels. These soap operas are mainly about love and sex and relationships. Many young people end up imitating what they see in these soaps.*

Strouse et al. (1995) argue that exposure to sexually-oriented genres, such as soap operas and music videos, have been related to expressing more liberal sexual attitudes, to being more accepting of sexual improprieties, and to more increased negative attitudes toward remaining a virgin. Furthermore, an average of 10 references to sexual intercourse per hour occurs in soap operas (Greenberg & Busselle, 1996; heinztz-knowles,1996), while

an average of 20 instances per hour occurs in programmes most preferred by young people (Ward, 1995).

Most participants indicated that they enjoy watching soap opera and drama, which, according to earlier studies, tend to portray sexual scenes (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Calfin et al., 1993; Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999; Flowers-Coulson et al., 2000; Strong & DeVault, 1994). One of the participants stated the following during the FGDs: *‘There’s a lot of explicit sex on TV, which...Each and every day you watch TV, you watch soapies, and you watch dramas there is always a sex scene, where as a young person you kinda go like I wanna see what that feels like, you know! I wanna experience that for myself. If Sebastian on Catalina & Sebastian can do that so can I, because as a young person you look at Sebastian as an idol as a role model, you know. Everything about Sebastian, if he is your role model you see it as perfection, so now at the end of the day you wanna be like Sebastian. So I think that is the one thing that can actually lead you astray.’*

Another Participant stated: *‘‘I think I would say more because everyday when I watch television, there’s always, umh... you know...eeh.. there’s always intimacy between two certain people. Everyday when I watch television somebody has to kiss someone, somebody has to do something intimate with someone and I think...I think on everyday television, on a soapie, on a drama, or comedy, there has to be sexuality, you know contact between the two, you know...it’s something that happens everyday, I think on everyday television soapie or comedy.’’*

However, they also indicated that there are programmes that are positively presented, which teach them to make correct decisions and are interactive.

A participant stated: *‘‘I think some programmes are very educative. Like the one on Citizen TV whereby Kanze Dena, Lulu and an elderly woman ...ummm, I have forgotten her name, they advise the youth who are unmarried on qualities to look for in a partner*

and how to live well in a relationship. They also advise that sex should be enjoyed after marriage and not before. They insist on abstaining from sex until marriage. I am still a virgin...ehhh...I intend to remain a virgin until after marriage.’’

Thus, the participants seem to consider television as exercising both a negative and a positive influence in their lives. A participant stated: *‘‘Not all programmes are negative. Some are positive. They entertain you at the same time teach you important lessons in life. I have learnt a lot personally about relationships from watching TV.’’*

According to Brown et al. (2005), adolescents consistently refer to the mass media, including television as the most important source of sexual information. The sexual content in much of the television these adolescents attend to is frequent, glamorized, and consequence free (Greenberg & Busselle, 1996). Participant 1 said: *‘‘I think TV contributes a lot in terms of maybe they show a celebrity engaging in sex and you know that every day as young people we would like to look up to those people and do the things they do even if those things are wrong. I think TV plays a big role in a teenagers life because they like doing things that tend to be wrong you know, but just because it’s an ‘‘in thing’’, so we continue doing that.’’* Participant 2 said: *‘‘There’s a lot of depictions of sex, whether actual or implied. Sex noises, deep kissing, touches, sexual talks. These are common on TV programmes. Every time I watch music in KISS TV, I see a lot of partial nudity and a lot of sexual messages in the music expressing sexual feelings and so on. The way the musicians move their bodies seduces anyone who watches. Even the name of the TV channel is called KISS...hahaha! Insinuating lots of kisses in the programmes. Am serious...hahaha!’’*

Therefore, this study supports research by Jeffres (1997) which argued that adolescents pay special attention to such portrayals, because romantic and sexual relationships are both new and important in adolescents. This is also supported by the social learning theory when it contends that sexual modeling teaches affectionate techniques, reduces

sexual inhibition, alters sexual attitudes, and shapes sexual practices by conveying norms (Bandura, 1977, 1997).

This argument is further supported by Brown et al. (1993), when they describe adolescents as actively interpreting sexual media contents. Several authors (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999; Greenberg et al., 1996; Jeffres, 1997; Ward, 1995) have proposed that adolescents may have fewer options other than to search for televised examples, in order to shape their own conceptions regarding sex and intimacy. Regarding sexuality, television may possess a high 'functional value' (Greenberg et al., 1996), because direct observations of intimacy seldom occur, sexual relationships are not an easy subject to talk about, especially with parents (Gordon & Gilgun, 1987) and educational programmes tend to focus on biological features (Huston et al., 1998).

As noted, social learning theory emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behavior, attitudes and emotional reactions of others (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Furthermore, Greenberg et al. (1993) state that the most common examples of social learning situations are television commercials, movies and music videos. Sexual contents that are displayed in these programmes may suggest that certain kinds of sexual behavior render girls more attractive and admirable.

Thus, the participants commented that they look to the characters on television as their role models and it seems easier for them to emulate these characters because it seems acceptable and looks enjoyable. One of the Participant's views on Sebastian have already been reproduced. He added that: *''The problem is that we don't know... we don't really know the real Sebastian, the only Sebastian we see is on Catalina & Sebastian, so if ... if I like the way Sebastian dresses and if I like the way Sebastian does his things, actually I am gonna be like my role model Sebastian. And I will be like whatever so and so does, I will do too.''*

Television also influences emotional reactions, which could in turn influence how an individual reacts and behaves. When the participants were asked why they liked their favourite programmes, most of the participants said they would like to be the stars and celebrities they see in those TV. Especially they emphasized that they wanted to dress like them, and even talk like them. Other participants wanted to learn how to handle relationships. They wanted to know how to handle dating and sex issues. One of the key informants said that the music in the TV channels such as KISS TV that the young people love is filled with so much sexual lyrics and sexy body movements. There is also a lot of nudity shown, even kissing and so much intimate touching seen in these music TV channels. I think that is what mainly attracts the adolescents especially them being in that developmental stage of sexual maturation and exploration. The Key informants emphasized that most of the young people end up imitating these scenes. Some of the youth imitate these dance movements in real life when they go to clubs and even privately. They end up touching each other and hence find themselves initiating in sexual intercourse.

During the focus group discussions, some participants said that they got courage to start having sexual intercourse from observing implied sexual scenes in television programmes.

Participant 1: *I personally learnt how to have sex by observing the many late night movies in TV. I would anxiously wait to see the sex scenes involving kissing and intimate touching before the implied sexual acts. I kept promising myself that I would engage in sex soon.*

Participant 2: *I told myself if Alejandro is doing it why not me?*

Participant 3: *I kept thinking that this thing must be sweet. It must be enjoyable. I promised myself to try it with my girlfriend.*

4.5.3.2 How much Time the youth spend watching TV and how it influences their sexual initiation

From the focus group discussions, it was clear that all the youth had access to television. This therefore implied that they were familiar with what goes on in the television media and that they were able to give information. A participant in one of the FGDs stated: *“Everybody watches television, whether they have a TV set at home or not. TV is everywhere. There are many TV halls around Kibera where they either show movies or the popular TV programmes like soaps, soccer and weekend movies. The other day I saw a nice James Bond weekend movie on KBC.”*

During the FGDs, some of the participants said that they spend at least 3 to 4 hours daily watching TV. This is confirmed Daniel, et al.’s (2008) findings that the majority of the teenage population spent 20 hours a week viewing television programming. One of the key informants said that the youth spend so much time watching TV every day. Infact she added that the youth sleep very late watching late night movies or watching music television. The key informant emphasized that there are some programmes that are showing the favourite TV programmes that these young people like watching and they keep repeating them every day. She said that soap operas for instance are sometimes shown as early as 9 am in the mornings every day. Therefore this implies that most of the young people who love these soaps find themselves glued to the TV sets most of the time to watch their favourite programmes.

Furthermore, according to social learning theory (Bandura, 1997), observational learning is stronger when the behavioural model occurs frequently. Viewers who regularly observe similar examples of sexual request situations may begin to perceive the strategies used as the proper and normal approach. When television characters talk about sex, 59% to 74% of the conversations are about prospective appeal and attraction (Kunkel, Cope, & Colvin, 1996).

A Key informant, a principal in one of the public secondary schools added her voice to the debate by saying that heavy television viewing was related to negative attitudes about remaining a virgin. She emphasized that the more that either male or female adolescents were exposed to sexual content in the TV, the more likely they were to initiate sex. She even said that most of the young girls who were exposed to a very high level of sexual content in TV, that is watching so many soap operas and watching so much music in the TV especially in KISS TV were more likely to engage in sexual intercourse than those who exposed to low levels of sexual content.

A participant in one of the FGDs said that the youths who watch a lot of soap operas tend to believe that sex is the main activity in real life and in love relationships. Therefore, more frequent TV exposure was likely to be related to greater expectations of initiating sexual intercourse. Another participant said that TV created the impression that everyone was having sex. In the FGDs it was also clear that more frequent viewing in terms of the nature of the show (e.g., soap operas, comedies, and dramas) indicated more frequent viewing of sexual content. Paik (2001) states that television may create the illusion that sex is more central to daily life than it truly is and may promote sexual initiation as a result, a process known as media cultivation.

4.5.3.3 Participants views of Parental Co-viewing

Parental Co-viewing is all about parents watching TV with their children. One of the Key informants, a guidance and counseling teacher in one of the public secondary schools said: *“Television with sexual content can act as a catalyst for conversations about sex between parents and teen .Co-viewing alone could communicate that parents hold positive attitudes toward the sexual material, leading children to pay closer attention to and learn from programs that are co-viewed. Parents can be key agents in shaping adolescents’ sexual outcomes hence influencing their sexual initiation.”* The key informant further elaborated by saying that parents should not only co-view TV

programs with sexual content with their children but they should discuss the sexual topics and incidents in those programmes with them.

One of the participants during the FGDs said that the young people are oftenly dissatisfied with how parents communicate about sex when they watch TV programmes with sexual content together. He said that young people oftenly feel that their parents are controlling and that they use a lecturing style when discussing sex. Another participant said that she wished that their parents would listen more and talk with them on an adult level.

According to Wright et al. (1990), the strength of peer influence on sexuality is mediated by how parents and adolescents communicate. Even though adolescents rate friends, school, and books as more important than parents in terms of sources of information about sex, parents are rated as exercising greater influence on sexual behavior (Sanders & Mullis, 1988). Consequently, regarding the role of parents, one of the participants said: *“I think parents should be more open with their kids and talk about these things. And then also not be harsh when the kid wants to talk about this, not to push them away...tell them that this is what’s happening...and at the end of the day it’s all about you, you know. You’re the one to make all the choices. So if you wanna make a positive choice, this is the way to go. But then ...I think the parents still have a lot of roles to play in their children’s life because older people believe they ain’t gonna talk to kids about this thing, I mean sex. neehh!!They’ll learn these things at school if needs be...but then what if they don’t learn these things at school and they get exposed to things and they don’t know how to deal with situations. I think they should talk about these things at home. When they go to school, they should go knowing that this is how my mother and father said it is. And when things happen, you know this is how what it is and I’m not gonna be led astray because I know this is how it is.”*

Another Participant added: *“I think that..eehh.. parents nowadays are opening to us, because I can share anything with my mum. I think that parents are very open and we*

can tell them anything, so we cannot blame parents in this kinda situations or television.’’

In the focus group discussions and the key informant interviews that the researcher conducted with the participants, it was apparent that there are other aspects that influence the shaping of one’s sexual behavior. The participants strongly indicated that parents play an important role in shaping their sexual behavior. Miller and Fox (1987) stated that adolescent sexual behavior are also influenced by close relationships in family and peer groups: referring to people with whom an adolescent is near, close or intimate. Leigh, Morrison, Trocki, and Temple (1994) and Werner-Wilson (1998) further stated that family structure has become of particular interest to most researchers, as more adolescents are being exposed to family disruption and are moving away from traditional lifestyles. These changes influence adolescent sexual behavior and increase accepting attitudes toward sexual activities e.g sexual initiation (Haffner,1997; Werner-Wilson,1998). Furthermore, social learning theory (Bandura 1997; Bower & Hilgard,1981) states that people, with whom one regularly associates, either by preference or obligation, restrict the types of behavior that will be repeatedly observed and hence learned thoroughly.

According to Wright et al. (1990), the strength of peer influence on sexuality is mediated by parent-adolescent communication. Although adolescents rate friends, school, and books as more important than parents as sources of information about sex, parents are rated as having more influence on sexual attitudes (Sanders & Mullis, 1988). During the FGDs, a participant said that he doesn’t watch all TV programmes with his parents. *‘‘It’s strange, I’m telling you. Seeing everybody kissing, all the time, so many depictions of love making. I hate those tense moments. No no no! I rather sleep or watch TV alone or with my friend.’’* One of the key informants said that even if parents watch TV with their children they don’t discuss anything. It’s difficult. However, he added that TV programmes that are watched together mostly include soccer matches, news, maybe

wrestling or religious programmes. One of the Key Informants, a Biology Teacher, said, *“Some of these students do not watch TV with their parents at all because they have their own TV sets in their bedrooms. Therefore they can watch TV alone without interference from their parents.”* These findings concur with findings in the focus group discussions whereby one participant stated that she is not allowed to watch the late night movies because her parents believe they have so much sexual content. However, another participant in the FGDs said that she has her own TV set in her bedroom hence she can watch any TV program she wants. These findings concur with findings during an interview with a key informant. He said: *“There are some homes whereby the parents are highly religious and they just don’t allow their children to watch anything. Some would strictly allow only Family TV to be aired. These parents are very careful on what television programmes their children watch.”* However, during the FGDs a participant said that she can watch anything she likes. She stressed that she can go to her boyfriend’s house who works anytime she wanted to watch TV.

These findings concur with findings in the focus group discussions: Question: Do you discuss sexual topics with your parents when you watch TV together? Participant 1: *“Hell no. Siwezi aki (I can’t). I feel uneasy watching guys kissing or even touching touching each other when with my parents. One day, I watched a love making scene with both my parents. My mum only clicked. I thought she was going to discuss that scene or sexual issues but instead she started discussing other family issues.”*

Participant 2: *“I discuss sexual topics sometimes with my mum. She has really helped me a lot. Thanks to that, I am still a virgin and am already 17 years. I intend to be a virgin till I get married to a God fearing man. I even don’t watch soaps anymore. She advised me not to behave like most of the characters in those soaps.”* Participant 3: *“There is a day I was watching wrestling with my dad. I asked him why women also wrestle and they are almost naked. He did not comment anything, so I changed the topic. I could tell he was very uncomfortable with my question.”*

4.5.3.4 Consequences of engaging in sexual activities as portrayed by television.

According to Prochaska & Norcross (2007), observational learning refers to all of the demonstrated consequences of exposure to modeling. Observational learning can take different forms and may be measured in different ways, depending upon the interests of a particular researcher or the nature of a particular issue. However, participants stated that most programmes on television did not display consequences when they showed sexual scenes. This was supported by studies that have been conducted in this field. One of the key informants said that entertainment shows that include portrayals of sexual risks and consequences can potentially have two beneficial effects on the young people sexual awareness: They can teach accurate messages about sexual risks, and they can stimulate a conversation with adults that can reinforce those messages.

According to previous studies, in 2002, most of the television shows watched frequently by adolescents included sexual content, but very few of those shows included any depiction of sexual risks and/or responsibilities (Aubrey et al., 2003; Brown et al., 2005; Ward, 2003). Research has also indicated that television viewing can cultivate a distorted world view and influence several behavioural domains, as has been amply demonstrated; therefore it is expected that it may affect sexual learning as well (Strouse, Buerkel-Rothfuss & Long, 1995; Brown et al., 2005; Ward, 2003; Aubrey et al., 2003). Strouse et al. (1995) discovered that out of 1500 adolescents who participated in their study, 1,043 considered television to be their greatest source of behavioural modeling as regards becoming sexually active. In this study, one of the participants stated the following:

Participant 1: *``The problem is... is...is the way they present them on TV. They present them in such a way that they don't have consequences, you know...They just do it, enjoy it and it's over and done with and there is nothing that comes back and bites you in the ass at the end of the day. So I think the way they present them is not really beneficial.''*

Participant 1 added: *“I’d say it’s ...it’s not that... That explicit but the message is interpreted wrongly by a lot of people. When you watch these soaps, they don’t necessarily show you the steps taken when whosoever and soever sleep together with whosoever, but then the stages... the afterwards...The fact that you go out and sleep with somebody...There are consequences, they don’t display the consequences. When these characters sleep around,...it’s painless, and it’s consequences less, and why don’t they show these stars dealing with the consequences of being pregnant, or maybe some day being diagnosed with an STD or being HIV positive. I mean if...if...my favourite character can’t get HIV positive, sure as hell I’m not gonna get AIDS, so why don’t I do it and do it and do everyone...eishh!”*

The participants indicated that they view television characters as their role models, thus being influenced by the latter and being susceptible to do what they are doing, especially if there seem to be no consequences (Bandura, 1997). Furthermore, Huit (2004) and Ward (2003) argue that if an individual has learned some new behavior, then they have the potential to produce it, if or when they find themselves in a situation in which such a performance appears to be desirable, useful, or likely to serve their own purpose. Social learning theory states that vicarious or explicit reward usually leads to imitation of the modeled behavior, whereas vicarious punishment leads to counter-imitation (Bandura, 1986; Liebert & Spiegler, 1990; Mischel, 1993).

The influence of vicarious outcomes on observers’ behavior is mediated by their cognition. Hence, the vicarious results they observe provide them with information which they interpret and use in the light of the total situation and their previous experience (Bandura, 2001). Therefore, even though adolescents may view these characters on television as their role models, learning from them does not necessarily mean that they would behave in that manner (Huit, 2004). According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1997; Mischel, 1993), an observer’s behavior can be affected by the

positive or negative consequences named vicarious reinforcement or vicarious punishment of a model's behavior.

According to Bandura (1977; 1997), sexual modeling teaches affectionate techniques, reduces sexual inhibition, alters sexual behavior and shapes sexual practices by conveying the norms: for instance, which behaviours are socially acceptable and which are not. Thus, sexual content may contribute to the re-shaping of sexual beliefs among adolescents as they watch programmes containing sexual messages on television. One of the participants further commented on this by saying: *''Yeah! I think they do, because as ...as a young person, you are brought up in a family, this is what goes with God, this is what goes with our family, our religion and stuff and stuff, and then when I see this sex acts on television, and see unmarried couple doing whatever, and you think, I mean if they can do it once and then there's no punishment for that, or..or.. and they don't get caught. I see a lot of unmarried people having sex in the soaps. And they don't get caught. I also think I won't get caught if I do exactly the same what they did. They clash with beliefs because we were taught sex before marriage is a sin.''*

4.6 Discussion of Results

The study aimed at answering four research questions: 1) What is the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and how is it associated with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? , 2) What is the association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? 3) What is the association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? , 4) What consequences are portrayed on television as resulting from sexuality and how are they related to sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?

4.6.1 The nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and its association with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

Sexual messages are common in television programming and have been for a long time (Farrar et al., 2003; Fisher et al., 2004; Franzblau, Sprafkin, & Rubinstein 1977; Kunkel et al., 2003).

This study found out that 25.9% of the respondents get information about sex when they need it from TV programs and majority of the respondents at 37.9% said that they first learnt about sex while watching TV. 62.9% of the respondents said sex was portrayed in TV as exciting, 20.6% said sex was portrayed as fun, and 12.9% said sex was portrayed as glamorous. Only 0.3% of the respondents said that sex was portrayed as bad and none of the respondents said that sex was portrayed as dangerous. These findings were corroborated by Brown et al. (2005) who observed that adolescents consistently refer to the mass media, including television as the most important source of sexual information. Greenberg & Busselle (1996) pointed out that the sexual content in much of the television these adolescents attend to is frequent, glamorized, and consequence free. Kunkel et al (1997) established that TV broadcast contains a high, growing and increasingly explicit dose of sexual messages which is directed towards youth (Kunkel et al., 1997).

An important finding shared by the key informants and participants in FGDs was that sexual content in TV programmes was pervasive. Many TV programmes showed a lot of depictions of sex, whether actual or implied, sex noises, deep kissing, intimate touches, sexual talks, partial nudity and sexual messages in TV music expressing sexual feelings. Findings of this study (Table 4.4) established that the respondents spend more than three hours weekly watching the following sexual content. Television music with sexual lyrics and feelings, scenes of intimate touching, implied sexual intercourse and actual sexual intercourse. This finding supported O'Toole (1997) observation that the television

media channels depict half-dressed women in sexually suggestive body movements and often play lyrics intended to inflame sexual feelings.

A finding of this study also by the key informants and participants in the FGDs was that the TV programmes that contained sexual content included soap operas such as the Bold and the Beautiful aired on KBC channel, music programmes such as the Beat aired on NTV and Big Brother Africa that used to be aired on KTN on weekends and also in DSTV channels. This finding is corroborated by Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1991) who pointed out that while television's sexual messages are not necessarily visually explicit, they often provide information adolescents may not find elsewhere. Through their dialogue, characterizations, storylines, and themes, television programmes present adolescents with numerous verbal and visual examples of how dating, intimacy, relationships, and sex are handled. On the other hand, concern is often expressed that the messages broadcast via TV about sexuality are limited, stereotypical, and potentially harmful (Comstock et al., 1978; Haferkamp, 1999).

Findings in this study showed that majority of the respondents at 70% said that they are extremely interested when they see TV programs about dating, sex and relationships. Only 4.1% said they were not at all interested. This finding is supported by Brown & Newcomer(1991); Calfin et al.(1993); Chunovic (2000); Donnerstein & Smith (2001); Durham (1999); Flowers-Coulson et al.(2000); Strong & DeVault (1994) who pointed out that most participants indicated that they enjoy watching soap opera and drama, which, according to earlier studies, tend to portray sexual scenes (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Calfin et al., 1993; Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999; Flowers-Coulson et al., 2000; Strong & DeVault, 1994).

In this study, Chi-square test results to determine the relationship between consequences portrayed on TV programmes resulting from sexual activities and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth were all significant at<0.05 significance level. The Chi-Square Test for Association to determine whether there is a significant association between

Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships and Sexual Initiation concluded that Since the P-value (0.011*) was less than the significance level (0.05), it meant there is a relationship between Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships and Sexual Initiation. This finding was corroborated by Greeson and Williams (1986) who observed that adolescents who are exposed to sexual contents from media (TV) are more likely to initiate sexual intercourse than those un-exposed. Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) also found out that television programmes that included sexual content were associated with stronger endorsement of recreational attitudes towards sex, higher expectations of the sexual activity of one's peers, and more extensive sexual experience.

One of the Key informants said that sexual messages especially about sex in TV programmes are presented in a way that its normal for youth to be involved. They hardly show the negative consequences. It becomes hard for virgins to wait. They start expecting to initiate sex anytime the opportunity arises. This finding was also shared during the FGDs where some participants said that they got courage to start having sexual intercourse from observing implied sexual scenes in TV programmes.

The above findings were supported during the focus group discussions. When asked about where young people do get their sexual information, participants said the following:

P1: I think TV contributes a lot in terms of maybe they show a celebrity engaging in sex and you know that every day as young people we would like to look up to those people and do the things they do even if those things are wrong. I think TV plays a big role in a teenagers life because they like doing things that tend to be wrong you know, but just because it's an 'in thing', so we continue doing that.

P2: There's a lot of depictions of sex, whether actual or implied. Sex noises, deep kissing, touches, sexual talks. These are common on TV programmes. Every time I watch

music in KISS TV, I see a lot of partial nudity and a lot of sexual messages in the music expressing sexual feelings and so on. The way the musicians move their bodies seduces anyone who watches. Even the name of the TV channel is called KISS...hahaha! Insinuating lots of kisses in the programmes. Am serious...hahaha!

Additionally, in this study the respondents were presented with randomly selected sexual contents that can possibly appear on TV programmes. (Table 4.3). Likert scale was used for the responses (1=1 hour exposure, 2=2 hours exposure, 3= 3 hours exposure, 4=More than 3 hours exposure).The responses were analysed through using the mean response to rank each attribute. As a result, it was established that sexual lyrics and feelings in TV music was the sexual content ranked 1 meaning it was the most viewed by respondents on TV. This was evidenced by the sexual content having a mean of 3.56 which implies to ‘more than 3 hours of TV viewing’ on the Likert scale.

Other sexual content which was viewed on TV for more than 3 hours per week included Sexual seductive dressing with a mean of 3.54, Intimate touching with a mean of 3.53 and Implied sexual intercourse with a mean of 3.51. Kissing with a mean of 2.46, Nudity with a mean of 2.19, Actual sexual intercourse with a mean of 2.09, and sexual talk and discussion with a mean of 1.91 are the sexual contents receiving a viewership of 2 hours per week. This was evidenced by their mean which implies to ‘2 hours of TV viewing’ on the Likert scale. Contraceptive issues and sex education had the mean of 1.32 and 1.22 respectively implying to ‘1 hour of TV viewing’ on the Likert scale. Exposure to more sexualized television content can also change teens’ perceptions of sex. They can start to view the sex they see on television, sexual content without repercussions or more experienced sexual partners, as reality (Jordan et al., 2009, p. 232). For example, if a teen closely relates to a television character, they may begin to view themselves as being sexually inadequate in their own experiences and this leads to early sexual initiation (Jordan et al., 2009, p. 233). Van Damme (2010) argues that there is more sexual talk

rather than action in teen shows, many highlight cliché sexual actions such as the boys acting like “real men” and trying to sleep with as many girls as possible (p. 82).

This finding about sexual content on TV was supported by Gakuha (2010) who said that Kenyan television music is laden with staggering sexual graphics and that most songs include innuendo, partial nudity and sexual feelings. O’Toole (1997) said that the television media channels depict half-dressed women in sexually suggestive body movements and often play lyrics intended to inflame sexual feelings. Music Television (MTV) has been found to be associated with premarital sexual permissiveness (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Strouse & BuerkelRothfuss, 1987).

When respondents were asked (Table 4.4) which TV channel contained most of the above sexual content in its programmes, 31.8% said KISS TV which is a dominantly music channel TV. It was followed closely by CITIZEN TV at 19.1%. During the focus group discussions a participant had said that the young people love watching the many mexican soap operas which are mainly aired in CITIZEN TV. Other participants in the FGDs had named soaps such as the Bold and the Beautiful aired on KBC, music programmes such as the Beat aired on NTV and Big Brother that used to be aired on KTN on weekends and also in DSTV channels among many other programmes that they were quite popular.. These findings concur with other findings from previous research which indicates that scenes with sexual content are prevalent in most television programs (Kunkel et al., 2003). A study of younger participants, seventh and ninth graders, found that those who were exposed to less than an hour of music television were more likely than unexposed adolescents to approve of premarital sex (Greeson & Williams, 1986).

During the focus group discussions, in describing the kind of programmes that they liked to watch on television and the frequency there of, most of the participants indicated that they mainly enjoyed soap operas, movies and dramas. According to Kunkel et al. (2001),

it has been reported that nearly seven in 10 television programmes contain a sexual message.

Participant 1: *Ummh!..U know! Late night movies that appear on TV, I'm also referring to those other soapiers that are shown on television such as Mientras Haya Vida.*

Participant 2: *The Bold, Days of our lives, The Young and the Restless, and Generations.*

Participant 3: *I enjoy watching the Beat everyday..Monday to Friday at 5.00p.m on NTV, I also love this soapie called Catalina and Sebastian.*

Based on these responses, in the focus group discussions, it can be said that the participants are most likely to watch soap operas, dramas and movies, which, when one considers the frequency, occupy most of the time. However, while television's sexual messages are not necessarily visually explicit, they often provide information adolescents may not find elsewhere (Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1991). Through their dialogue, characterizations, storylines, and themes, television programmes present adolescents with numerous verbal and visual examples of how dating, intimacy, relationships, and sex are handled.

On the other hand, concern is often expressed that the messages broadcast via television about sexuality are limited, stereotypical, and potentially harmful (Comstock et al., 1978; Haferkamp, 1999). Furthermore, the social learning theory of Bandura (2001) states that depictions of adolescents in the media- their successes, failures, rewards, and punishments- provide models from which beliefs, behavior and attitudes are learned and actions are imitated. However, it is important to note that adolescents are aware of these sexual images, especially negative portrayals of women, such as prostitution and sexual promiscuity (Miller et al., 2001).

Regarding programmes that the youth watch, one of the Key informants said the following: programmes that have two sides, there are positive programmes that one can

enjoy and have something later as an influential aspect and there are negative ones that actually at the end of the day can destroy one's life. He further explored the difference between positive and negative programmes as such, describing the negative ones thus:

unmh! I'm referring to those, late night movies that appear on TV, for example the James Bond movies. These movies have a lot of implied sexual scenes. A lot of kissing and oftenly sexual talks. Bond is portrayed as a womanizer who can get any woman he wants. The positive broadcasts he discussed as follows: Positive ones, ummm! I refer to programmes like Tujuane...eeeh Discovery +254..and of course there are many other programmes that you can watch that you can become something in life.

The findings of this study showed that majority of the respondents at 70%, (Table 4.7) said that they were extremely interested when they saw TV programs about dating, sex and relationships. Only 4.1% said they were not interested. Most participants indicated that they enjoy watching soap opera and drama, which, according to earlier studies, tend to portray sexual scenes (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Calfin et al., 1993; Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999; Flowers-Coulson et al., 2000; Strong & DeVault, 1994). The social learning theory by Bandura (1986) upholds the notion that we learn behaviours by imitating the behavior, even if we have not performed the behavior. There is sound scientific premise to think that the TV may be a key contributor to early sexual initiation.

Couples kissing in preparation for sexual act are common among soap operas which therefore have negative impacts to youths who take the actors as their role models. . The findings of this research (Table 4.7) shows that majority of the respondents like to watch TV to become more like the celebrities and musicians they see in TV. This was evidenced by the statement having a mean of 4.76 and a standard deviation of 0.868 which implied to ` strongly agree on the Lickert scale. Other respondents also strongly agreed that they like to watch TV so that they could see what other people their age were doing. This statement was ranked 2 with a mean of 4.67 and a standard deviation of

0.979. A big number of respondents also said that “TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends.” This was ranked 3rd with a mean of 4.64 and a standard deviation of 1.054. Respondents also strongly agreed that they liked to watch TV so as to be more like the individuals they see in TV programmes. This statement was ranked 4th with a mean of 4.61 and a standard deviation of 1.054. One of the Key informants added her voice to the above debate: “*Watching characters engaging in promiscuous lifestyles where there are no consequences for actions is going to convey that this is an ideal way to behave to get what you want and to be popular.*” Bandura's social learning theory predicts that teenagers will imitate or model what they see on television when those television personalities are rewarded or are not punished for their behaviour, and are perceived as attractive, powerful, and similar (Bandura, 2001).

The above finding concurs with a similar finding by Berry et al. (2008) who stated that the notion that television may play the role of a “sexual super peer,” influencing the sexual decision-making of youths, was supported by a study that established a prospective link between exposure to television sexual content and earlier initiation of sex. (p. 1048). To explain this relationship, Jordan, Strausburger and Wilson (2009) state that sometimes teenagers attempt to mirror the actors and actresses they see on television as they seek to find their own sense of personality or individuality (p. 232).

Van Damme (2010) also indicates how female sexuality is stereotyped in teen shows as women being the object of sexual desire, while men are able to freely act on their desires without the negative reputational consequences (p. 82). Mirroring these stereotypes as role models can impact a teen's gender interaction as well as identity (Van Damme, 2010, p.82). With these examples, teenagers may begin to associate the peers they view on television as being social examples for their real lives.

According to this study (Figure 2) about 67.1% of the respondents watched TV in the evening (5pm-11pm), and 13% of the respondents watched TV during Late night (11p.m – 6am). Majority of the respondents, (Table 4.8) 80.3% of the respondents said they do

not always pay attention to the warning messages restricting viewing to a certain age group shown before the start of certain programs on TV. About 70.9% of the respondents said they thought the warning messages were not effective. One of the key informants supported these findings by saying that:

These young people watch TV anytime they are free... Mostly at night from 7pm to 11pm or Midnight. And majority of the programs they watch are Soap Operas. Talk of the Bold and the Beautiful, Catalina and Sebastian, and many other Mexican soaps with difficult names. These soaps are all over in all TV channels, KBC, KTN, CITIZEN, NTV, QTV, and in the DSTV channels and ZUKU TV channels as well. You know these soap operas are characterized by sexual language, kissing, intimate touching and implied sexual intercourse. Some of them are beginning to show actual sexual intercourse. Most of these soaps are aired at prime time (7pm-11pm). And I think this warning messages restricting viewing to a certain age group shown before the start of certain programs on TV like these soapies, ...I think they are not effective enough. Something more needs to be done.

Some of the respondents in this study (Table 4.6) said they like to watch TV so as to be educated on sexual matters. This finding was supported by Carpenter (1998) who stated that a key period of sexual exploration and development occurs during adolescence. During this time, individuals begin to consider which sexual behaviours are enjoyable, moral, and appropriate for their age group. According to Haffner (1997), many adolescents become sexually active during this period. This study concurs with those findings in that 53.5% of the respondents said they had ever had sex, (Table 4.12). When asked their age when they first had sex, 12.6% of the respondents said that they had had sex when they were below 13 years, 10.9% of the respondents said they were 16 years, 9.7% said they were 15 years, 5.8% said they were 13 years. 17 years were 5.3%, 18 years were 3.0% and only 1.5% had sex for the first time when they were 19 years old.

These results corroborate literature by scholars that the youth were engaged in premarital sex (Nzioka, 2004; Wodi, 2005; Kermyt & Bentel, 2007; NACC, 2010). Majority of youth in Kenya are sexually active (Kamaara, 2003; Adaji et al., 2010). According to data from the 2003 Kenya Demography and Health (DHS) survey, 50.7% adolescent girls aged 18-24 had had sexual intercourse before turning 18. Participants in the focus group discussions also responded to whether they or their colleagues in school had sexual partners. P1: *It's obvious; it would be a lie for anyone to tell you that they did not have a sexual partner.* P2: *We all engage in sexual relations, many times.* P3: *Everyone is doing it after all, why not us?* P4: *In fact, if I don't have sex with my girlfriend, someone else will do it.* P5: *We all have sex apart from maybe a few virgins who are afraid of starting.* These findings concerning sexual activity concurred with similar findings from key informants who informed the researcher that the youth were sexually active.

Therefore, this study supports research by Jeffres (1997) which argued that adolescents pay special attention to such portrayals, because romantic and sexual relationships are both new and important in adolescents. This is also supported by the social learning theory when it contends that sexual modeling teaches affectionate techniques, reduces sexual inhibition, alters sexual attitudes, and shapes sexual practices by conveying norms (Bandura, 1977, 1997).

This argument is further supported by Brown et al. (1993), when they describe adolescents as actively interpreting sexual media contents. Several authors (Connolly & Goldberg, 1999; Greenberg et al., 1996; Jeffres, 1997; Ward, 1995) have proposed that adolescents may have fewer options other than to search for televised examples, in order to shape their own conceptions regarding sex and intimacy. Regarding sexuality, television may possess a high 'functional value' (Greenberg et al., 1996), because direct observations of intimacy seldom occur, sexual relationships are not an easy subject to talk about, especially with parents (Gordon & Gilgun, 1987) and educational

programmes tend to focus on biological features (Huston et al., 1998). According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1997; Mischel, 1993), an observer's behavior can be affected by the positive or negative consequences named vicarious reinforcement or vicarious punishment of a model's behavior.

Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) also found out that television programmes that included sexual content were associated with stronger endorsement of recreational attitudes towards sex, higher expectations of the sexual activity of one's peers, and more extensive sexual experience. This finding concurs with the findings of this study. One of the Key informants said that sexual messages especially about sex in TV programmes are presented in a way that its normal for youth to be involved. They hardly show the negative consequences. It becomes hard for virgins to wait. They start expecting to initiate sex anytime the opportunity arises. This finding was also shared during the focus group discussions where some participants said that they got courage to start having sexual intercourse from observing implied sexual scenes in television programmes.

Participant 1: *I personally learnt how to have sex by observing the many late night movies in TV. I would anxiously wait to see the sex scenes involving kissing and intimate touching before the implied sexual acts. I kept promising myself that I would engage in sex soon.*

Participant 2: *I told myself if Alejandro is doing it why not me?*

Participant 3: *I kept thinking that this thing must be sweet. It must be enjoyable. I promised myself to try it with my girlfriend.*

4.6.2 The association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

In this study, when the respondents were asked whether they had a TV set at home 90% of the respondents said they had a TV set at home. Only 10% did not have. However

during the focus group discussions, it emerged that even the youth who do not have a TV set at home would still have access to TV by watching TV at a friends' house. This therefore implied that they were all familiar with what goes on in the TV and that they were able to give important information needed for the study. This finding is corroborated by Ward (2003) who observed that in a national study, high school students reported an average of 2.9 television sets, while 1.3 out of 10 (13%) American children reported living in homes with two or more televisions, 75% enjoyed access to television, and more than half had a television set in their own rooms. About 3.2 million homes in Kenya have TV sets (1.4 million in urban and 1.8 in rural areas). (Steadman Group Report, 2008; Quoted in Mbeke 2008:5)

These findings were further supported in the focus group discussions, it was clear that all the youth had access to television. One of the Key informants also said that all the youth watch TV every time they are free.

Participant 1: *Everybody watches television, whether they have a TV set at home or not. TV is everywhere. There are many TV halls around Kibera where they either show movies or the popular TV programmes like soaps, soccer and weekend movies. The other day I saw a nice James Bond weekend movie on KBC.*

The study further sought to find out the number of hours spent by the respondent in watching television per week. It was established that majority of the respondents (54.4%) spend more than seven hours per week watching TV (Table 4.3). 17.9% spend 7 hours per week in watching TV. Only 4.1% spend 1 hour per week watching TV. This finding is corroborated by Kubey and Csikszentmihalyi (1990, p.58) who found out that people of the world spend more than 3.5 billion hours watching television every day. During the focus group discussions, participants said that they spend at least 3 to 4 hours daily watching TV. One of the key informants said that the youth spend so much time watching TV every day. Infact she added that they sleep very late watching late night movies or watching music television. According to an article in *Science Daily* (Daniel,

Gauvin, Kestens, Lambert, & O'Loughlin, 2008), 60 percent of teenagers spend an average of 20 hours a week watching television. However, a smaller group of teens may spend up to 40 hours a week in front of the television and computer (Daniel et al., 2008). The research more specifically shows that male teens report higher weekly television levels than female teens (Daniel et al., 2008). Research has shown heavy television viewing is related to negative attitudes about remaining a virgin (Courtright & Baran, 1980).

Previous research has also suggested that it is not the content of the programs being watched, but the amount of television a person views that has a relationship with the viewers attitudes about sex (Pardun, L'Engle, & Brown, 2005). According to Brown et al. (1996), youths are heavy consumers of sexually oriented media sources including television. Johnson, Cohen, Smailes, Kasen and Brook (1999), inform that the average adolescent spends more time watching television than in the classroom. The American Academy of Paediatrics recommends that children and adolescents view television no more than 2 hours each day and that parents take an active role in guiding television use (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2001).

In this study, (Table 4.3) showed that the respondents spend more than three hours weekly in watching TV sexual content. It was established that sexual lyrics and feelings in TV music was the sexual content ranked 1 meaning it was the most viewed by respondents on TV. This was evidenced by the sexual content having a mean of 3.56 which implies to 'more than 3 hours of TV viewing' on the Likert scale. Other sexual content which was viewed on TV for more than 3 hours per week included Sexual seductive dressing with a mean of 3.54, Intimate touching with a mean of 3.53 and Implied sexual intercourse with a mean of 3.51. Kissing with a mean of 2.46, Nudity with a mean of 2.19, Actual sexual intercourse with a mean of 2.09, and sexual talk and discussion with a mean of 1.91 are the sexual contents receiving a viewership of 2 hours per week. This was evidenced by their mean which implies to '2 hours of TV viewing'

on the Likert scale. Contraceptive issues and sex education had the mean of 1.32 and 1.22 respectively implying to '1 hour of TV viewing' on the Likert scale. This concurs with previous studies that television broadcast contains a high, growing and increasingly explicit dose of sexual messages which is directed towards youth (Kunkel et al., 1997). According to Brown et al. (1996), youths are heavy consumers of sexually oriented media sources including television.

Berry et al.'s (2008) study concluded that teens in the higher exposure rate of sexualized television content were, "...twice as likely to experience early sexual initiation and a pregnancy in the subsequent 3 years..." (p. 1047). Basically, by increasing the exposure to sexual content on television, the possibility of teen pregnancy increases. Therefore, it can be concluded that upping the overall television viewing hours also increases the possibility of exposure to sexual content.

One of the key informants added her voice to the debate: *Nowadays all what the young people look forward to are their favourite soap operas at night. There are many soaps nowadays in all TV channels with difficult names to pronounce. Most of them are Mexican soapies. These young people watch all these soaps everyday, especially the girls. I don't know where they get time to do their homework or attend to other important issues in life.*

This finding was corroborated by Strouse et al. (1995) who argued that both heavy regular consumption of and experimental exposure to sexually-oriented genres, such as soap operas and music videos, have been related to expressing more liberal sexual attitudes, to being more accepting of sexual improprieties, and to more increased negative attitudes toward remaining a virgin. Furthermore, an average of 10 references to sexual intercourse per hour occurs in soap operas (Greenberg & Busselle, 1996; heintz-knowles, 1996), while an average of 20 instances per hour occurs in programmes most preferred by young people (Ward, 1995).

The Chi-Square Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a significant association between the amount of time spent in TV viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation. The Chi-square test results indicated that there was a significant relationship and association between TV viewing of sexual content and all the sexual contents that had been randomly selected for the respondents. This implies that TV viewing of sexual content may either hasten or delay sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya. (i) Hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square (Chi-square statistic is 20.573* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (ii) Hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 20.302* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (iii) Hours of watching intimate touching on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 18.113* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (iv) Hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 26.788* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (v) Hours of watching sex education on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 28.263* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (vi) Hours of watching sexual talk and discussion on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 19.573* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (vii) Hours of watching contraceptive issues on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 20.890* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3.)

This finding was corroborated by previous studies by Burrkel-Rothfuss and Strouse (1993), Ward (2002) and Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) who tried to investigate the relationship between television exposure and expectations about the level of activity among peers. They established that heavy viewers of soap operas tend to overestimate the prevalence of sexual activity in real life and that more frequent TV exposure is related to greater expectations of peer sexual experiences.

In fact, according to Ward (2003, p. 238) TV appears to create the impression that “everyone is doing it”. On the other hand greater TV exposure and greater viewing involvement have been associated with stronger support for recreational attitudes (Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1999) and acceptance of stereotypes as “men are sex driven” and women are sexual objects” (Ward, 2002). In a study done by a pediatric group, a correlation between sexual exposure through media and teen pregnancies was revealed. This group of doctors found that young girls who were exposed to a high level of sexual content in media were about twice as likely to become pregnant in their teenage years than girls who were exposed to low levels of sexual content (Chandra, Martino, Collins, Elliott, Berry, Kanouse, & Miu, 2007, p. 1052). Girls considered to be under high exposure were in the 90th percentile or higher for sexual exposure, and girls considered to be under low exposure were in the 10th percentile or lower.

This correlation shows strong evidence that exposure to sexual content in media can influence the sexual initiation among the youth. This would suggest that not only is the sexual content in media encouraging young people to have sex, but it is encouraging unprotected sex. Other research has shown heavy television viewing is related to negative attitudes about remaining a virgin (Courtright & Baran, 1980). In a study done by Hawk, Vanwesenbeeck, de Graaf, and Bakker (2006), it was revealed that the more that either male or female adolescents were exposed to sexual media, the more likely they were to initiate sex.

The findings of this study also show that there is a relationship between the nature of TV sexual content and sexual initiation. (Table 4.3). The implication of this finding is that the more the youth have access to television the more they are likely to come across scenes with sexual content. Previous research concurs with this finding as they indicate that the media play a major role in the socialization of sexual knowledge, attitudes and behaviour (Roberts, 1982). The reasons why Roberts (1982) thinks that media have effects are “(1) the adult nature of most programming adolescents watch: (2) adolescents

limited access to or experience with countervailing information or ideas; (3) the “realism” with which roles, relationships and lifestyles are portrayed; and (4) the overwhelming consistency of the messages about sexuality that are communicated” (Roberts, 1982).

Researchers discovered the number of years a person had spent watching soap operas and the amount of television sitcoms he or she viewed were both related to the likelihood that he or she would not admit virginity. (Buerkel-Rothfuss & Strouse, 1993). Years of soap opera viewing and viewing of action adventure shows was found to be related to not being a virgin at time of marriage. Music Television (MTV) has been found to be associated with premarital sexual permissiveness (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Strouse & BuerkelRothfuss, 1987).

In a study of college students, Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) found that more frequent viewing in terms of the nature of the show (e.g., soap operas, comedies, and dramas) indicated more frequent viewing of sexual content. Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) also found out that television programmes that included sexual content were associated with stronger endorsement of recreational attitudes towards sex, higher expectations of the sexual activity of one’s peers, and more extensive sexual experience.

This study shows that majority of the respondents at 60%, (Table 4.3) watch TV everyday. 29.4% of the respondents watch TV only on weekends. 10.6% of the respondents watch TV 3-4 times a week. This finding is corroborated by Johnson, Cohen, Smailes, Kasen and Brook (1999) who inform that the average adolescent spends more time watching television than in the classroom. According to Courtright & Baran, (1980) heavy television viewing is related to negative attitudes about remaining a virgin. Escobar-Chaves et al. (2005) concur with the above findings. He also observed that the more often youth are exposed to TV viewing, the higher their chances of encountering sexual content on TV.

Two correlational studies have found relationships between the frequency of television viewing and initiation of intercourse in samples of high school students. However, because these were only cross-sectional analyses, it was not possible to say with certainty which came first, the TV viewing or the sexual behavior (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Peterson, Moore, & Furstenberg, 1991). It is possible that teens who were becoming interested in sex had turned to sexual content in the media because it was now salient in their lives. It also is possible that the teens saw the ubiquitous and typically risk-free sexual media content as encouragement for them to engage in sexual behavior sooner than they might have otherwise. It is most likely that both causal sequences are operating, but longitudinal studies of young adolescents are needed to conclude that with more certainty. Ward and Friedman (2006) further state that it is credible to conclude that adolescents who were having sexual intercourse were also those most interested in sexual content in the media, rather than that exposure to sexual media was accelerating the initiation of their sexual activity.

The traditional view of cultivation theory is that there will be significant differences in the views of high and low viewers of television no matter what content they are viewing (Gerbner, 1970). Previous research has also suggested that it is not the content of the programs being watched, but the amount of television a person views that has a relationship with the viewers attitudes about sex (Pardun, L'Engle, & Brown, 2005). The results of this study do support this idea;

4.6.3 The association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

According to Valkenburg, Krmar, Peeters, & Marseille (1999).Co-viewing refers to parents and children watching television together. This study found out that 43.3% of the respondents watch TV everyday with their parents or guardians.17.0% watch TV most days with their parents or guardians while 25.0% of the respondents watch TV with their parents or guardians less oftenly and 11.8% never watch TV with their parents or

guardian. This finding is corroborated by Roberts (2000) who said that several studies have observed that television viewing among the youth is pervasive and many of them view television alone with or without input from adults. During the focus group discussions, a participant said that he doesn't watch all TV programmes with his parents. This study also found out that 50% of the respondents do not discuss sexual topics on TV with their parents and the other 50% discusses sexual topics on TV with their parents. This finding concurs with Aratani (2005) who observed that parents are often hesitant to talk to their teens about sex, because they do not want to believe that their kids are having sex.

This study also showed that 26.8% of the respondents are in agreement that they are not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them. However 73.2% disagree. These findings concur with findings in the focus group discussions whereby a participant stated that she is not even allowed to watch the late night movies because her parents believe they have so much sexual content. This study also found out that 65.6% of the respondents said that they can watch anything they like on TV while 34.4% of the respondents disagreed. These findings concur with findings during an interview with a key informant. He said: There are some homes whereby the parents are highly religious and they just don't allow their children to watch anything.

In this study, Chi-square test results to determine the relationship between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth were all significant at <0.05 significance level. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 28.581 was 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there was a strong relationship between frequency of TV viewing with parents and sexual initiation. The interpretation of the Contingency table (Table 4.34) showed that 46.9% of those who watch TV everyday with their parents, compared to 53.4% of those who watch TV with their parents most days, compared to 20.0% of those who watch TV with their parents weekly compared to 51.8% of those who watch TV with their parents less often

compared to 90% of those who never watch TV with their parents, engaged in early sexual initiation. Hence it was clear that those who never watched TV with their parents were almost 100% most likely to engage in early sexual intercourse. However big percentages of respondents engaged in early sexual intercourse despite watching TV with their parents. According to Donnerstein and Smith (2001), research shows that parents who openly communicate and actively co-view television may protect adolescents from potentially detrimental effects of exposure.

Study findings also showed that the probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 31.971 was 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between discussing sexual topics on TV with parents and sexual initiation. The interpretation of the contingency Table (Table 4.38) showed that 38.2% of those who agreed to discussing sexual topics on TV with parents compared to 68.8% of those who disagreed, engaged in early sexual initiation. Those who disagreed to discussing sexual topics on TV with their parents were almost twice likely to engage in early sexual initiation than those who discussed sexual topics on TV with their parents. This finding concurs with similar findings from previous studies. Parental discussion is related to later onset of sex (Fisher, 1987; Pick & Palos, 1995), fewer sexual partners (Leland & Barth, 1993), more effective contraceptive use (Fisher, 1987; Miller, Levin, Whitaker, & Xu, 1998; Thompson & Spanier, 1978), and reduced incidence of pregnancy and AIDS (Jaccard & Dittus, 1993).

A study found that watching television with sexual content or sexual themes can open up lines of communication between parents and adolescents with regards to sexual issues (Collins et al., 2003). Parents can be key agents in shaping adolescents' sexual outcomes (Handelsman, Cabral, & Weisfeld, 1987; Holtzman & Robinson, 1995; Jaccard & Dittus, 1991; Karofsky, Zeng, & Kosorok, 2000; O'Sullivan, Jaramillo, Moreau, & Meyer-Bahlburg, 1999; Rodgers, 1999).

During the focus group discussions, a participant said that he doesn't watch all TV programmes with his parents. He said that he even doesn't watch movies or soap operas with them. *It's strange, I'm telling you. Seeing everybody kissing, all the time, so many depictions of love making. I hate those tense moments. no no no! I rather sleep or watch TV alone or with my friend.*

One of the key informants said that even if parents watch TV with their children they don't discuss anything. It's difficult. However, he added that TV programmes that are watched together include soccer matches, news, maybe wrestling or religious programmes. This finding concurs with Aratani (2005) who observed that parents are often hesitant to talk to their teens about sex, because they do not want to believe that their kids are having sex. Television with sexual content can act as a catalyst for conversations about sex between parents and teens (Teens, Sex and TV, 2002). Parental discussion is related to later onset of sex (Fisher, 1987; Pick & Palos, 1995).

This study also showed that (Table 4.9) 26.8% of the respondents are in agreement that they are not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them. However 73.2% are in disagreement. These findings concur with findings in the focus group discussions whereby a participant stated that she is not even allowed to watch the late night movies because her parents believe they have so much sexual content. She is even not allowed to watch soapies by her mum. So she normally goes to watch them at her girlfriends or boyfriends place. According to Nathanson (1999), the existence of viewing rules can decrease the importance of television for children (Nathanson, 1999). However, Nathanson (2002) found that adolescents were more likely to seek out restricted content elsewhere.

This study also showed that (Table 4.8) 65.6% of the respondents are in agreement that they can watch anything they like while 56.2% of the respondents are not in agreement with the statement. These findings concur with findings during an interview with a key informant. He said: There are some homes whereby the parents are highly religious and

they just don't allow their children to watch anything. Some would strictly allow only Family TV to be aired. These parents are very careful on what television programmes their children watch. A few studies of teenage television viewing have suggested parental restriction of TV is protective against early sex (Ashby, Arcari, & Edmonson, 2006; Bersamin et al., 2008; Fisher et al., 2009). The first RAND study, (Collins et al., 2004) found out that reducing teens' exposure to portrayals of sex on television poses challenges, however, having parents view programs with their children and discuss their own beliefs regarding the behavior depicted can reinforce the benefits of accurate risk information and positive messages and may help to limit the negative effects of sexual portrayals that do not contain risk information. However, one study of teenagers suggested parental restriction may also have unwanted consequences, encouraging less positive attitudes towards parents and more co-viewing with friends (Nathanson, 2002).

Findings of this study also showed that (Table 4.9) 50% of the respondents do not discuss sexual topics on TV with their parents. Only 50% discuss sexual topics on TV with their parents. These findings concur with findings in the focus group discussions:

Question: Do you discuss sexual topics with your parents when you watch TV together?

Participant 1: Hell no. Siwezi aki (I can't). I feel uneasy watching guys kissing or even touching touching each other when with my parents. One day, I watched a love making scene with both my parents. My mum only clicked. I thought she was going to discuss that scene or sexual issues but instead she started discussing other family issues.

Participant2: I discuss sexual topics sometimes with my mum. She has really helped me a lot. Thanks to that, I am still a virgin and am already 17 years. I intend to be a virgin till I get married to a God fearing man. I even don't watch soaps anymore. She advised me not to behave like most of the characters in those soaps.

Participant 3: *There is a day I was watching wrestling with my dad. I asked him why women also wrestle and they are almost naked. He did not comment anything .and I changed the topic. I could see he was very uncomfortable with my question.*

This finding corroborates an observation by Aratani (2005) that parents are often hesitant to talk to their teens about sex, because they do not want to believe that their kids are having sex (Aratani, 2005). Without overt expression of parental disapproval, co-viewing may signal parental endorsement of programmes that parents and children watch together (Nathanson, 2001b, 2002). However, parental TV co-viewing and restrictions on media use both decline through the teenage years (de Leeuw et al., 2011; Sang, Schmitz, & Tasche, 1992).

Strasburger (1993) observed that majority of the social scientists have observed that the reason why television is likely to have influence in the sexual initiation of the youth is because parents are known to provide very little information on sexuality while schools tends to focus their attention on the biological approach with little attention to romance and interpersonal relationships.

4.6.4 Sexual consequences portrayed on television and their relation with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

From this study, findings show that (Table 4.11) 62.9% of respondents think that sex is portrayed on TV as exciting, 20.6% think its portrayed as fun, 12.9% think its portrayed as glamorous and .32% think its portrayed as success. Only 0.3% of the respondents think it's portrayed as bad and none of the respondents think that sex is portrayed as dangerous. These findings are corroborated by Kunkel and colleagues (1999, 2001) in their assessment of the valence of consequences to sexual intercourse, they found that whereas consequences were positive in less than one fourth of the programs, the

majority showed either no consequences to sexual intercourse or consequences that were primarily negative. Similarly, Social learning theory predicts that teens who see characters having casual sex without experiencing negative consequences will be more likely to adopt the behaviours portrayed (Greenberg, Brown & Buerkel- Rothfuss, 1993). In a previous study, Baran (1976) surveyed undergraduate students about how they felt sex was portrayed on television and in film. This study found that students who viewed television and film portrayals of sexual intercourse as realistic were more likely to be dissatisfied with being virgins. Another study found that those who felt television portrayals were close to the real world expected sex sooner in a relationship and expected a greater variety of sexual acts (Aubrey et al., 2003). Another example provided by Jordan et al. (2009) is the sexual content displayed on soap operas. Many of the sexual encounters highlight the idea that “sex just happens” (Jordan, et al., 2009, p. 233). It emphasizes the lack of consequences that are associated with being caught up in a passionate moment, or a lack on contraception, or forethought.

Findings of this study (Table 4.10) have shown that only 41% of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret. On the other hand, only 20.9% of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others. Similarly, findings of this study show that 32.9% (Table 4.10) of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner. Other findings in this study show that that 29.4% (Table 4.10) of the respondents have seen TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity. On the other hand, (Table 4.10) only 21.5% of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS. More findings in this study show that 20.6% of the respondents (Table 4.10) have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy. However, Fisher et al.’s (2004) study found that only 5.2% of shows that contained sexual content also contained messages about sexual patience or precaution.

All these findings are corroborated by Aubrey (2004) who in a content analysis of prime-time programs that feature teens or young adults, found that only slightly more than one third of the scenes with sexual content made some mention of consequences to sexuality. Of these consequences, 88% were negative, with the vast majority being emotional and social (disappointment, feeling guilt or anxiety, humiliation, and rejection). Fewer than 1 in 5 references resulted in physical outcomes (unwanted pregnancy, contraction of an STD, and physical abuse by a sexual partner), and less than 1 in 10 were punitive (punishment by others for engaging in a sexual act).

In this study, when respondents were asked what they thought were the potential dangers associated with sexual activity in TV, (Table 4.10) Some of the respondents, only 4.8% thought that STD/STIs was the potential danger associated with sexual activity as seen on TV programmes. 8.3% of the respondents thought that unwanted pregnancy was the potential danger associated with sexual activity on TV programmes. 4.4% of them thought it was HIV/AIDS. 1.5% thought it was abortion, 0.9% thought it was death while 3.3% thought it was rejection. This finding was corroborated by Greenberg et al.(1993) and Ward (2003) who found out that although televised sexual portrayals can theoretically inhibit sexual activity when they include depictions of sexual risks (such as the possibility of contracting an STI or becoming pregnant), abstinence, or the need for sexual activity, this type of depiction occurs in only 15% of shows with sexual content. Additionally, another study found that only 2% of prime-time programs containing sexual content also contain sexually responsible program themes (Farrar et al., 2003). A study done by Nabi & Clark (2008) revealed that only 14% of programs with sexual content in 2005 mentioned unwanted consequences such as unplanned pregnancies or sexually transmitted diseases or showed “sexual responsibility” such as using some form of protection during sex..

One of the key informants, a Principal, in one of the public secondary schools in Lang’ata District added her voice: *Most programmes on television hardly display*

consequences when they show sexual scenes. Most of these television programmes watched frequently by adolescents include sexual content, but very few of these programmes show any depiction of sexual risks or responsibilities. Therefore most of these young people will want to imitate what they see. Those who are virgins somehow learn from all these believing that they are really missing a lot.

The findings further concur with previous research findings which indicate that the consequences of premarital sexual behaviour such as pregnancies are rarely portrayed on television. Kunkel et al. (2003) in a study conducted in the USA established that characters involved in television programmes hardly experience negative consequences. Similarly, a study by the Kaiser Family Foundation (2003) found out that only 3 out of the 200 programs depicting shows with sexual content placed emphasis on sexual risk or responsibility. The failure to show consequences of engaging in premarital sexual behaviour might contribute to influencing the sexual initiation of the youth.

Findings from the focus group discussions also supported the above findings. Participant 1: *The problem is... is...is the way they present them on TV. They present them in such a way that they don't have consequences, you know...They just do it, enjoy it and it's over and done with and there is nothing that comes back and bites you in the ass at the end of the day. So I think the way they present them is not really beneficial.*

Participant 1 added: *I'd say it's ...it's not that... That explicit but the message is interpreted wrongly by a lot of people. When you watch these soapies, they don't necessarily show you the steps taken when whosoever and soever sleep together with whosoever, but then the stages... the afterwards...The fact that you go out and sleep with somebody...There are consequences, they don't display the consequences. When these characters sleep around,...it's painless, and it's consequences less, and why don't they show these stars dealing with the consequences of being pregnant, or maybe someday being diagnosed with an STD or being HIV positive. I mean if...if...my favourite*

character can't get HIV positive, sure as hell I'm not gonna get AIDS, so why don't I do it and do it and do everyone...eishh!

This finding was supported by previous studies, that in 2002, most of the television shows watched frequently by adolescents included sexual content, but very few of those shows included any depiction of sexual risks and/or responsibilities (Aubrey et al., 2003; Brown et al., 2005; Ward, 2003). Strouse et al. (1995) discovered that out of 1500 adolescents who participated in their study, 1,043 considered television to be their greatest source of behavioural modeling as regards becoming sexually active.

Other findings in this study (Table 4.10) show that 39.4% of the respondents thought that love was a positive consequence associated with sexual activity seen on TV programmes. 42.6% thought it was happy couples, 10.9% thought it was happy family. 1.2% thought it was success while 5.9% thought sexual activity in TV was associated with good life. Findings from previous studies also do concur with these findings. Cope-Farrar & Kunkel (2002) pointed out that in the few instances when consequences arise from a sexual act they are often shown to be positive. Kunkel et al. (2003) and Lowery & Towles (1989) found out in a content analysis that a large proportion of the sex shown on television is shown in a carefree fun manner with little risk of negative consequences. Similarly, Anderson (2004) and Donnerstein & Smith (2001) in an analysis of media content also found out that sexual messages on television are almost universally presented in a positive light, with little discussion of potential risks of unprotected sexual intercourse and few portrayals of adverse consequences.

From this study (Table 4.7), cumulatively, majority of the respondents strongly agreed that they watched TV so that they can see what other people their age were doing. They also strongly agreed that they would like to be more like the individuals they see in TV programmes and movies. They also strongly agreed that they would like to be more like the celebrities or musicians they see on TV. Keren Eyal of the Interdisciplinary Center and Keli Finnerty of the Department of Communication (2009) believe that adolescents'

imitation of what they see, particularly in the media, is an example of Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (2009). Bandura's theory essentially says that there is an increase in the modeling of the behavior we see if there are positive results and an increase in modeling if there are no negative consequences to those who perform the behavior (2009). According to the Social Cognitive Theory, humans naturally mimic what they see unless there are undesirable consequences to the behavior. Teenagers seem to be especially driven by this pattern of behavior because they are at a critical point in the development of their identity, so they copy almost anything that seems to benefit the image of the people who do them.

(Truglio, 1992) has observed that adolescents who use television to learn about social relationships believe that TV portrayals are more realistic than do other adolescents. In cases where youth have little knowledge about sexuality, media may create expectations about sexuality (Baran, 1976b). Their questions may be answered by television programs that promote an environment that is sexually open and has few consequences. For example, in the hit show "Friends," all of the characters have had sex with at least one of the others, but no one contracted a sexually transmitted disease and only one ended up with an unwanted pregnancy (Stepp, 2003).

Another example is the HBO show "Sex in the City," which is about single women and their romantic encounters. All of the women on that show have engaged with sex with a large number of men. One character even calculates that she has had sex with forty-two men. Only one character, however, caught a sexually transmitted disease, and only one got pregnant (Chunovic, 2000). Even teens themselves cannot find many positive role models for sexual decision making on television (Teens, Sex and TV, 2002).

Despite the previously explained negative concepts teenagers may derive from sexual content on television, many educators are attempting to use portrayals of teen pregnancy as an education tool that may inhibit early sexual initiation and hence unwanted pregnancy. According to an article in the *New York Times*, many teachers are using

shows like *Teen Mom* and *16 and Pregnant* to teach teenagers about birth control and the consequences of being a teen parent (Hoffman, 2011). These shows have received criticism for glamorizing teen pregnancy and creating celebrities out of teen moms (Hoffman, 2011). Even the National Campaign to Prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy has distributed 3,000 DVDs (Hoffman, 2011). *MTV's 16 and Pregnant* has done an excellent job creating awareness of the many difficulties teen mothers and their families face. But at what point do we stop watching and start acting? The key to overcoming these obstacles is awareness and education. (Planned Parenthood, 2011)

Also, Planned Parenthood (2011), in this press release, responds to news that *16 and Pregnant* star Jordan Ward is pregnant with her second child at the age of 18 because she could not remember to take her birth control. Minnesota's Planned Parenthood responds with, Since Jordan Ward had a difficult time remembering to take her birth control pill, perhaps another form of birth control would have been better. Alternative choices like the Shot, Sponge, Patch, Diaphragm, IUD, Cervical Cap and countless others are available. Experts at Planned Parenthood's Health Centers are available to educate you on the pros and cons of each method. And many of these birth control forms are free or low-cost so you can choose which method is best for you. (Planned Parenthood, 2011). Creating awareness and education to alternative birth control methods is just one way that organizations are reaching out to today's teenagers. Overall, Hoffman (2011) represents how many educators are turning to prevalent media; *Teen Mom's* second season finale reached 4.7 million viewers, in order to spread a healthy message about sexual health.

A survey conducted by The National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy and Unplanned Pregnancy (2012) asked respondents to weigh in on whether shows like *Teen Mom* glamorized teen pregnancy. Eighty-two percent of respondents felt that *Teen Mom* helps teenagers to better understand the hardships of parenthood while 15 percent thought it glamorized teen pregnancy (The National Campaign, 2012). Does this

statistic reflect the possibility of educational value in modern television portrayals of teen pregnancy or is it a dramatic representation meant to shock the teenage population into safe sex? While this study does not aim to analyze the educational possibilities in shows like Teen Mom, it does attempt to gauge teen perceptions of such shows in relation to sexual health education outlets.

As Berry, et al. (2008) would suggest, television media directly impacts teen perceptions. Whether this impact is positive or negative ultimately depends on the situation of the individual teenager and how they interpret the media messages they are receiving. Regardless of the level of sexual exposure, the mere fact that media have the ability to change teen self-image deserves some recognition by media regulation (Berry et al., 2008). Therefore, improving media literacy or creating discussion regarding the images of teen pregnancy portrayed on television is vital in understanding adolescent reproductive health and exploring its link to teen pregnancy rates.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations arrived at. The chapter also gives suggestions for further studies that could be carried out in future. The findings reported in chapter four are discussed in this chapter in relation to research questions earlier formulated and outlined. The relationship between findings of this research study and the literature review is also discussed. The chapter is divided into five sections: Introduction, summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations derived from the conclusion of the study. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further research

5.2 Summary of the Study

Youth in Kenya are increasingly accessing television which has become more saturated with sexual content and sexual initiation is an important social and health issue in Kenya. Young people in Kenya are engaging in sexual activity at early ages. The television content rarely includes messages on safe sex or consequences of engaging in early sexual initiation. This exposure may influence the behaviour and attitudes of the youth negatively leading to early onset of sexual initiation. Early sexual initiation is likely to involve sexual risk-taking and expose young people to unwanted sex and teenage pregnancy. Television may create the illusion that sex is more central to daily life than it truly is.

The research shows that teens receive valuable information on social cues, or normalized behavior, from media outlets like popular television shows. Its impact on societal concepts in teenagers can create different view points on what it means to not only engage in sexual behavior, but what sexual behavior is expected. With this ability to influence the way teenagers view certain behaviors, media generates another important

question: can this influence be both a positive one and a negative one? Given the mass media penetration, can examples of teen pregnancy in the media be used as a learning tool in media literacy in an effort to inhibit early sexual initiation?

This study sought to establish the relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya by addressing the following four fundamental concerns, 1) What is the nature of television sexual content the youth are exposed to and how is it associated with sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? 2) What is the association between the amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth, 3) What is the association between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth? 4) What consequences are portrayed on television as resulting from sexuality and how are they related to sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?

The study employed a mixed-methods research design which utilizes the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The target population of this study were both male and female students in public secondary schools in Lang'ata District, Nairobi County in Kenya. A sample size consisting of 325 respondents of 200 boys and 125 girls was determined. An additional 15 respondents were sampled in order to guard against drop out and attrition. Multi-stage sampling design was used to select the sample for the survey. The collection of data began in January, 2015 and concluded in March 2015. A self-administered questionnaire was used to obtain quantitative data from the respondents. Focus group discussions and key informant interviews were also conducted to collect the qualitative data. The study achieved 100% response rate since 340 out of the 340 questionnaires administered were filled and returned. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected concurrently and was triangulated to enhance the reliability and validity of the results. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to aid in the analysis of quantitative data. The themes in the qualitative data were interpreted using thematic analysis.

From the study findings, it was established that majority of the youth were sexually active and that there exists a relationship between television viewing and the sexual initiation of the youth. The conclusions drawn from this study were that Television viewing may either delay or hasten adolescent sexual initiation. Reducing the amount of sexual content in entertainment programmes, reducing the number of hours adolescents get exposed to this content, or increasing portrayals of possible negative consequences of sexual activity could delay the initiation of early sexual intercourse. The American Academy of Paediatrics also recommends that children and adolescents view television no more than 2 hours each day (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2001). There is therefore need to increase knowledge of sexual risks, the percentage of portrayals of sexual risk and safety relative to other sexual content on TV since this might inhibit early sexual initiation.

The study also recommends that media literacy as a skill needs to be improved to enable the youth to interpret media content correctly in order to avoid the possible effects that are sometimes not intended by the media practitioners. Alternatively parents could also reduce the effects of sexual content by watching TV with their teenage children and discussing their own beliefs about sex and the behaviours portrayed. It is also hoped that findings of this study will be used to design public policy and interventions designed to help youth. The information and findings attained in this study could also help in understanding sexual decisions that are made by youths and encourage parents to monitor the type of TV programmes their children are exposed to and advise them to adopt healthy life style.

5.2.1 The nature of television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

This study found out that 25.9% of the respondents get information about sex when they need it from TV programs and majority of the respondents at 37.9% said that they first learnt about sex while watching TV. 62.9% of the respondents said sex was portrayed in

TV as exciting, 20.6% said sex was portrayed as fun, and 12.9% said sex was portrayed as glamorous. Only 0.3% of the respondents said that sex was portrayed as bad and none of the respondents said that sex was portrayed as dangerous. These findings were corroborated by Brown et al. (2005) who observed that adolescents consistently refer to the mass media, including television as the most important source of sexual information. Greenberg & Busselle (1996) pointed out that the sexual content in much of the television these adolescents attend to is frequent, glamorized, and consequence free. Kunkel et al (1997) established that TV broadcast contains a high, growing and increasingly explicit dose of sexual messages which is directed towards youth (Kunkel et al., 1997).

An important finding shared by the key informants and participants in FGDs was that sexual content in TV programmes was pervasive. Many TV programmes showed a lot of depictions of sex, whether actual or implied, sex noises, deep kissing, intimate touches, sexual talks, partial nudity and sexual messages in TV music expressing sexual feelings. Findings of this study (Table 4.4) established that the respondents spend more than three hours weekly watching the following sexual content. Television music with sexual lyrics and feelings, scenes of intimate touching, implied sexual intercourse and actual sexual intercourse. This finding supported O'Toole (1997) observation that the television media channels depict half-dressed women in sexually suggestive body movements and often play lyrics intended to inflame sexual feelings.

A finding of this study also by the key informants and participants in the FGDs was that the TV programmes that contained sexual content included soap operas such as the Bold and the Beautiful aired on KBC channel, music programmes such as the Beat aired on NTV and Big Brother Africa that used to be aired on KTN on weekends and also in DSTV channels. This finding is corroborated by Ward & Rivadeneyra, 1991) who pointed out that while television's sexual messages are not necessarily visually explicit, they often provide information adolescents may not find elsewhere. Through their

dialogue, characterizations, storylines, and themes, television programmes present adolescents with numerous verbal and visual examples of how dating, intimacy, relationships, and sex are handled. On the other hand, concern is often expressed that the messages broadcast via TV about sexuality are limited, stereotypical, and potentially harmful (Comstock et al., 1978; Haferkamp, 1999).

Findings in this study showed that majority of the respondents at 70% said that they are extremely interested when they see TV programs about dating, sex and relationships. Only 4.1% said they were not at all interested. This finding is supported by Brown & Newcomer(1991); Calfin et al.(1993); Chunovic (2000); Donnerstein & Smith (2001); Durham (1999); Flowers-Coulson et al.(2000); Strong & DeVault (1994) who pointed out that most participants indicated that they enjoy watching soap opera and drama, which, according to earlier studies, tend to portray sexual scenes (Brown & Newcomer, 1991; Calfin et al., 1993; Chunovic, 2000; Donnerstein & Smith, 2001; Durham, 1999; Flowers-Coulson et al., 2000; Strong & DeVault, 1994).

In this study, Chi-square test results to determine the relationship between consequences portrayed on TV programmes resulting from sexual activities and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth were all significant at <0.05 significance level. The Chi-Square Test for Association to determine whether there is an association between Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships and Sexual Initiation concluded that Since the P-value (0.011*) was less than the significance level (0.05), it meant there is a relationship between Interest in TV programmes about dating, sex & relationships and Sexual Initiation. This finding was corroborated by Greeson and Williams (1986) who observed that adolescents who are exposed to sexual contents from media (TV) are more likely to initiate sexual intercourse than those un-exposed. Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) also found out that television programmes that included sexual content were associated with stronger endorsement of recreational attitudes towards sex, higher expectations of the sexual activity of one's peers, and more extensive sexual experience.

One of the Key informants said that sexual messages especially about sex in TV programmes are presented in a way that its normal for youth to be involved. They hardly show the negative consequences. It becomes hard for virgins to wait. They start expecting to initiate sex anytime the opportunity arises. This finding was also shared during the FGDs where some participants said that they got courage to start having sexual intercourse from observing implied sexual scenes in TV programmes.

5.2.3 The amount of time spent in viewing television sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

The study found out that 90% of the respondents had a TV set at home. During the FGDs, it emerged that even the youth who did not have a TV set at home would still have access to TV by watching TV at a friends' house. It was established that majority of the respondents at (54.4%) spend more than seven hours per week watching TV. This study also found out that majority of the respondents at 60.0 %, watch TV every day. 29.4% of the respondents watch TV only on weekends and only 10.6% of the respondents watch TV 3-4 times a week. Escobar-Chaves et al. (2005) concur with the above findings. He observed that the more often youth are exposed to TV viewing, the higher their chances of encountering sexual content on TV. These findings confirm Daniel, et al.'s (2008) findings that the majority of the teenage population spent 20 hours a week viewing television programming.

During the FGDs, participants said that they spend at least 3 to 4 hours daily watching TV. One of the key informants said that the youth spend so much time watching TV every day anytime they were free. Infact she added that they sleep very late watching late night movies, soaps or watching music television. The findings of this study also show that 67.1% of the respondents said they watched TV in the evening (5.00 p.m to 11.00 p.m) while 13% of the respondents said that they watched TV during late night (11.00 p.m to 6 a.m).10.9% of the respondents said they watched TV in the morning (6.00 am to 12.00 noon) while 9.1% of the respondents watched TV in the afternoon

(12.00 noon to 5.00 p.m). In a study of college students, Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) found that more frequent viewing in terms of the nature of the TV show (e.g., soap operas, comedies, and dramas) indicated more frequent viewing of sexual content. The American Academy of Paediatrics recommends that children and adolescents view television no more than 2 hours each day and that parents take an active role in guiding television use (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2001).

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there was an association between TV viewing and sexual initiation. The Chi-square test results indicated that there was a significant relationship and association between frequency of TV viewing and sexual initiation. (Chi-square statistic was 16.125* with a P-value of 0.0001*. The result was significant at <0.05 . d.f =2.) This implies that TV viewing of sexual content may either hasten or delay sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya. This finding was corroborated by Courtright & Baran (1980) who found out that heavy television viewing is related to negative attitudes about remaining a virgin.

In this study, Table 4.4 showed that respondents spend more than three hours weekly watching the following sexual content on TV; TV music (sexual lyrics & feelings) with a mean of 3.56, Sexual seductive dressing with a mean of 3.54, Intimate touching with a mean of 3.53 and Implied sexual intercourse with a mean of 3.51. A key informant supported the finding by saying that these young people spend many hours every day either watching soap operas or TV music in the local channels. This finding is corroborated by Strouse et al. (1995) who argued that both heavy regular consumption of sexually-oriented genres, such as soap operas and music videos, have been related to expressing more liberal sexual attitudes, to being more accepting of sexual improprieties, and to more increased negative attitudes toward remaining a virgin.

The Chi-Square Test for Association was used to determine whether there is an association between the amount of time spent in TV viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation. The Chi-square test results indicated that there was a significant relationship and association between TV viewing of sexual content and all the sexual contents that had been randomly selected for the respondents. This implies that TV viewing of sexual content may either hasten or delay sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya. (i) Hours of watching implied sexual intercourse content on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square (Chi-square statistic is 20.573* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (ii) Hours of watching TV music with sexual lyrics and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 20.302* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (iii) Hours of watching intimate touching on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 18.113* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (iv) Hours of watching sexual seductive dressing on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 26.788* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (v) Hours of watching sex education on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 28.263* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (vi) Hours of watching sexual talk and discussion on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 19.573* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3) (vii) Hours of watching contraceptive issues on TV and Sexual Initiation. (Chi-square statistic is 20.890* P value= 0.000* The result is significant at <0.05 d.f=3.)

This finding was corroborated by previous studies by Burrkel-Rothfuss and Strouse (1993), Ward (2002) and Ward and Rivadeneyra (1999) who tried to investigate the relationship between television exposure and expectations about the level of activity among peers. They established that heavy viewers of soap operas tend to overestimate the prevalence of sexual activity in real life and that more frequent TV exposure is related to greater expectations of peer sexual experiences and sexual initiation. According to Ward (2003, p. 238) TV appears to create the impression that “everyone is doing it. In a study done by Hawk, Vanwesenbeeck, de Graaf, and Bakker (2006), it was

revealed that the more that either male or female adolescents were exposed to sexual media, the more likely they were to initiate sex.

5.2.4 Parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

According to Valkenburg, Krcmar, Peeters, & Marseille (1999).Co-viewing refers to parents and children watching television together. This study found out that 43.3% of the respondents watch TV everyday with their parents or guardians.17.0% watch TV most days with their parents or guardians while 25.0% of the respondents watch TV with their parents or guardians less oftenly and 11.8% never watch TV with their parents or guardian. This finding is corroborated by Roberts (2000) who said that several studies have observed that television viewing among the youth is pervasive and many of them view television alone with or without input from adults.

During the focus group discussions, a participant said that he doesn't watch all TV programmes with his parents. This study also found out that 50% of the respondents do not discuss sexual topics on TV with their parents and the other 50% discusses sexual topics on TV with their parents. This finding concurs with Aratani (2005) who observed that parents are often hesitant to talk to their teens about sex, because they do not want to believe that their kids are having sex.

This study also showed that 26.8% of the respondents are in agreement that they are not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them. However 73.2% disagree. These findings concur with findings in the focus group discussions whereby a participant stated that she is not even allowed to watch the late night movies because her parents believe they have so much sexual content. This study also found out that 65.6% of the respondents said that they can watch anything they like on TV while 34.4% of the respondents disagreed. These findings concur with findings during an interview with a

key informant. He said: There are some homes whereby the parents are highly religious and they just don't allow their children to watch anything.

In this study, Chi-square test results to determine the relationship between parental television co-viewing of sexual content and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth were all significant at <0.05 significance level. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 28.581 was 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there was a strong relationship between frequency of TV viewing with parents and sexual initiation. The interpretation of the Contingency table (Table 4.34) showed that 46.9% of those who watch TV everyday with their parents, compared to 53.4% of those who watch TV with their parents most days, compared to 20.0% of those who watch TV with their parents weekly compared to 51.8% of those who watch TV with their parents less often compared to 90% of those who never watch TV with their parents, engaged in early sexual initiation. Hence it was clear that those who never watched TV with their parents were almost 100% most likely to engage in early sexual intercourse. However big percentages of respondents engaged in early sexual intercourse despite watching TV with their parents. According to Donnerstein and Smith (2001), research shows that parents who openly communicate and actively co-view television may protect adolescents from potentially detrimental effects of exposure.

Study findings also showed that the probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 31.971 was 0.0001 which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between discussing sexual topics on TV with parents and sexual initiation. The interpretation of the contingency Table (Table 4.38) showed that 38.2% of those who agreed to discussing sexual topics on TV with parents compared to 68.8% of those who disagreed, engaged in early sexual initiation. Those who disagreed to discussing sexual topics on TV with their parents were almost twice likely to engage in early sexual initiation than those who discussed sexual topics on TV with their parents. This finding concurs with similar findings from previous studies. Parental discussion is related to

later onset of sex (Fisher, 1987; Pick & Palos, 1995), fewer sexual partners (Leland & Barth, 1993), more effective contraceptive use (Fisher, 1987; Miller, Levin, Whitaker, & Xu, 1998; Thompson & Spanier, 1978), and reduced incidence of pregnancy and AIDS (Jaccard & Dittus, 1993).

5.2.5 Portrayal of sexual consequences on television and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth

From this study, findings show that (Table 4.11) 62.9% of respondents think that sex is portrayed on TV as exciting. 20.6% think its portrayed as fun, 12.9% think its portrayed as glamorous and .32% think its portrayed as success. Only 0.3% of the respondents think it's portrayed as bad and none of the respondents think that sex is portrayed as dangerous. These findings are corroborated by Kunkel and colleagues (1999, 2001) in their assessment of the valence of consequences to sexual intercourse, they found that whereas consequences were positive in less than one fourth of the programs, the majority showed either no consequences to sexual intercourse or consequences that were primarily negative. Similarly, Social learning theory predicts that teens who see characters having casual sex without experiencing negative consequences will be more likely to adopt the behaviours portrayed (Greenberg, Brown & Buerkel- Rothfuss, 1993).

This study also found out that only 41.0 % of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret. On the other hand, only 20.9% of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others. Similarly, findings of this study have shown that 32.9% of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner and 29.4% of the respondents have seen TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity. On the other hand, only 21.5% of the respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS. Also findings in thi study show that only 20.6% of the

respondents have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy.

All these findings are corroborated by Aubrey (2004) who in a content analysis of prime-time programs that feature teens or young adults, found that only slightly more than one third of the scenes with sexual content made some mention of consequences to sexuality. Of these consequences, 88% were negative, with the vast majority being emotional and social (disappointment, feeling guilt or anxiety, humiliation, and rejection). Fewer than 1 in 5 references resulted in physical outcomes (unwanted pregnancy, contraction of an STD, and physical abuse by a sexual partner), and less than 1 in 10 were punitive (punishment by others for engaging in a sexual act). Fisher et al.'s (2004) study found that only 5.2% of shows that contained sexual content also contained messages about sexual patience or precaution.

This study also found out that respondents thought the potential dangers associated with sexual activity in TV, were as follows. 4.8% thought that STD/STIs was the potential danger associated with sexual activity as seen on TV programmes. 8.3% of the respondents thought that it was unwanted pregnancy, 4.4% of them thought it was HIV/AIDS. 1.5% thought it was abortion, 0.9% thought it was death while 3.3% thought it was rejection. This finding was corroborated by Greenberg et al. (1993) and Ward (2003) who found out that although televised sexual portrayals can theoretically inhibit sexual activity when they include depictions of sexual risks (such as the possibility of contracting an STI or becoming pregnant), abstinence, or the need for sexual activity, this type of depiction occurs in only 15% of shows with sexual content. Additionally, a study done by Nabi & Clark (2008) revealed that only 14% of programs with sexual content in 2005 mentioned unwanted consequences such as unplanned pregnancies or sexually transmitted diseases or showed "sexual responsibility" such as using some form of protection during sex..

One of the key informants, a Principal, in one of the public secondary schools in Lang'ata District added her voice by saying that most programmes on television hardly displayed consequences when they showed sexual scenes. Most of these television programmes watched frequently by adolescents included sexual content, but very few of these programmes showed any depiction of sexual risks or responsibilities. Therefore most of these young people would want to imitate what they see. Those who are virgins somehow learn from all these believing that they are really missing a lot.

In this study, Chi-square test results to determine the relationship between consequences portrayed on TV programmes resulting from sexual activities and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth gave different results. Some were not significant and some were significant at <0.05 significance level. The probability associated with the Chi-Square Statistic of 9.613 was 0.002* which is less than 0.05 indicating there is a strong relationship between having seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy and sexual initiation. Interpretation of the contingency Table (Table 4.3) showed that 70% of those who have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy compared to 68.8% of those who disagree to having seen such TV programmes, engaged in early sexual initiation. (Table 4.40) also showed that 58.8% of those who had seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner compared to 30.2% of those who disagree to having seen such programmes, engaged in early sexual initiation.

5.3 Conclusions

From the study findings, it is concluded that majority of the youth engage in premarital sex. The study established that the youth have access to television and that they spend many hours within the week watching television and that majority of the programmes they watch have sexual content. Varied consequences of such sexual content are shown, but they are often not negative. When included, the negative consequences receive little emphasis. Television viewing among the youth is pervasive and many of them view

television alone with or without input from adults. A big number never discuss sexual topics in the TV with their parents. The American Academy of Paediatrics recommends that children and adolescents view television no more than 2 hours each day and that parents take an active role in guiding television use (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2001).

Further the study established that the youth perceive that the programs they watch are likely to influence their sexual initiation. Through hypothesis testing the study established that there is a relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation. The implication of this finding is that the youth who view more television may be more likely to engage in sexual initiation. Kenya's television media gives a distorted outlook to sexual behaviour. The media makes sex appear better than it actually is. Furthermore, it does not provide adequate information on how sex can be dangerous or how to have a healthy sexual relationship. Songs in these media easily contribute to an overdrive in sexual passion among the youth. In essence, the intended message is completely diluted, and the youths are seemingly being encouraged to venture into casual sex.

The findings of the study concur with the observations of the theories which were used to inform the study. Social learning theory as a theoretical framework underlying this study provides solid theoretical reasons to consider that television can play an important role in influencing sexual initiation among the youth. Television portrayals surrounding the youth indicate that they are intensely interested in sexuality, romance and relationships. Social cognitive theorists demonstrated that imitation and identification are the products of two processes. The first is the observational learning where observers can acquire new behaviour simply by seeing those behaviours performed. The second is inhibitory effects where seeing a movie character for instance being punished for a behaviour reduces the likelihood that the behaviour will be performed by the observer. The third method is disinhibitory effects where seeing a model rewarded for prohibited

or threatening behaviour increases the likelihood in the observer that the behaviour will be performed.

The cultivation theory by Gerbner (1973), on the other hand, presupposes that those youth who are exposed to television seem to develop attitudes and behaviours that are similar to those of the characters on television. They say that this is possible through the process called mainstreaming of reality where individuals are moved towards sharing televised created understanding of how things are supposed to be done. Cultivation theory (Gerbner, 1973) says that television "cultivates " or constructs reality of the world that, although possibly inaccurate, becomes accepted simply because the embers of a culture believe it to be true.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

Based on the findings of this study, a number of recommendations can be made. First, there is need to properly educate the youth on the content they are viewing in TV, therefore media literacy is a necessary educational tool. Media literacy as a skill needs to be improved to enable the youth to interpret media content correctly in order to avoid the possible effects that are sometimes not intended by the media practitioners. The ease of accessibility created by the media era allows for constant contact with sexuality. Respondents and participants in this study have made it clear that there are those who may misinterpret messages in the TV as fact.

Baran (2004) observes that although many people are quick to condemn the media for the influence on sexual behaviour, they rarely question their own role in the mass communication process. He continues to observe that individuals always overlook their role because they participate in mass communication naturally without making any conscious effort and that they possess high level interpretive and comprehensive skills that make even the most sophisticated television show, movie or magazine story understandable and enjoyable.

The implication of this observation is that sometimes individual participation in the mass communication process through interpreting media content may lead to interpretation of a meaning that was not the intended purpose. Therefore media literacy should be introduced at an early age since the youth start consuming media content when they are still very young. The study recommends that for the youth in secondary schools, the principals and teachers can develop a curriculum to train the youth on media literacy skills. This will assist the youth to interpret the content from the media appropriately.

Second, Writers and directors in terms of TV programming should portray realistic highlights of both positive and negative effects of the TV programmes. There is need to increase knowledge of sexual risks, the percentage of portrayals of sexual risk and safety relative to other sexual content on TV since this might inhibit early sexual initiation. Researchers (Collins et al., 2004) concluded that entertainment shows that include portrayals of sexual risks and consequences can potentially have two beneficial effects on teen sexual awareness: They can teach accurate messages about sexual risks, and they can stimulate a conversation with adults that can reinforce those messages hence inhibiting sexual initiation. There is need to explore greater use of entertainment shows to inform teens about sexual risks and negative consequences of early sexual initiation by depicting sexual risk such as the possibility of contracting sexually transmitted diseases or becoming pregnant and regret following sexual intercourse as this may go a long way in inhibiting sexual initiation. The school guidance and counselling units should hold workshops and seminars for the adolescents explaining the pros and cons of certain behaviours they imitate from the TV programmes they view. Additionally, the Kenya Institute of Education should introduce books specifically written on Media Effects and the youth.

Third, there is a need to reduce the amount of time that adolescents are exposed to sexual content on TV since this could delay the onset of sexual activity. The America Academy of Paediatrics also recommends that children and adolescents view television

no more than 2 hours each day (American Academy of Paediatrics, 2001).The implementation of this guideline might form a basis for which TV viewing might be regulated.

Fourth, having parents coview TV programs with their children and discuss their own beliefs regarding the sexual content depicted can reinforce the benefits of accurate risk information and positive messages and may help to limit the negative effects of sexual portrayals that do not contain risk information or negative consequences. This may greatly inhibit sexual initiation. Therefore, parents should assist their children to become ‘media literate’ by discussing what is featured by the TV programmes so that they can differentiate reality and fiction. This will go a long way to prevent the youth from becoming passive victims of media content. Parents should also take an active role in guiding television use.

Fifth, a number of opportunities and strategies, including media literacy education for parents and youth, partnerships with youth-oriented media, and physician education and intervention, should be put in place to help reduce the negative effects of the media on youth and perhaps enhance the positive. The American Academy of Pediatrics and other medical organizations have already been powerful voices in the effort to improve media content and educate parents and physicians

5.5 Recommendations for further research

As indicated earlier, this research had a limited scope. There is a lot that needs to be done by way of research in order to settle some outstanding concerns or to shed light on emergent phenomenon. We conclude, therefore with a number of possibilities for future research as follows:

One of the biggest limitations of this study is that it is a survey and there is no way that causation can be found. Although several correlations between viewing TV sexual content and sexual initiation were found, it is not possible to say that the TV media are the cause of the sexual initiation. It may be that people with more sexual experience seek out media that reinforce their current beliefs. This does, however, show that the possibility of causation exists, and it is worth investing the time needed to create an experiment that could further the research.

Additionally, analysis of the data collected from students who reported never engaging in sexual intercourse, still shows a significant relationship between increasing amounts of exposure to TV sexual content and increasingly liberal sexual attitudes. It is only a preliminary analysis but suggests that the correlation between TV viewing and sexual initiation is not because of the viewer seeking out sexual TV content because they are sexually active. This finding could be furthered by an experiment that incorporates viewing of TV media containing sexual content and its effects on both virgins and non-virgins attitudes about sex.

Another area of research that may be explored developed out of the FGDs when one of the participants said that, “Honestly, I watch too much sexuality on the Internet and I also see saw much sex on social media for TV sexual content to affect me in any way!” Therefore, it is essential that research move from examining the relationship between television and its effect on sexual behaviours and sexual initiation to looking at the effects of other media on young adults. Findings in this study shows that relationships between media, other than television, that contain sexual content may have an even greater effect on sexual initiation than television exposure.

Research should be sure to include experiments. This is the only way that causation can be established. Experimental research would be especially good to use to further explore the effects of media other than television. It would allow researchers to both better quantify the amount of exposure a subject has, and enable them to work towards

establishing a better understanding of how the relationship between sexual initiation and media exposure works.

Young people in rural areas may have lower exposure to Western media and have stronger ties to their ethnic groups and, thus, be more likely to adhere to traditional sexual norms (Brockman, 1997). Thus, further studies should expand this research to include more rural schools and include samples of young people who are outside of the school system. Out-of-school adolescents, engage in higher rates of sexual activity (Babalola et al., 2005; Karim et al., 2003; Mathews et al., 2008; Pettifor et al., 2008). Therefore since this study was limited to public secondary schools in Nairobi, there is need for a comparative study to be conducted in schools in rural areas. Future studies could also be conducted in private secondary schools.

In addition, this study relied on self reports rather than observing actual interactions between parents and adolescents. To really capture how parents communicate messages about sex on television, we should observe them while coviewing the content with their teenagers. Perhaps future work could build on this study to design research using other methodologies that may further illustrate how parents mediate sexual content and how adolescents respond.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Informed Consent Explanation And Consent Form A

Sammy Yaah Baya

P.O. Box 2274-00202(KNH)

Nairobi, Kenya

Re: Assent for participation in a research project

Title of the study: The Relationship between television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

You are invited to participate in a research study investigating The Relationship between Television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. The research will involve asking you questions focusing on television and its influence on sexual initiation, if there are any. An audio-tape may be used to record the interview if necessary. The interview or filling in of the questionnaire will take about 50 minutes to an hour.

Risks and discomforts:

There are no risks from participating in the study other than perhaps you may experience discomfort when talking about certain sexual aspects. If this happens, you may choose to stop the interview or participation in the focus group discussions or filling in the self administered questionnaire.

Benefits:

You may not get any benefits from participating in the study but the information you provide may help us understand how television sexual content influences youth sexual initiation.

Appendix II: Informed Consent Explanation And Consent FORM B

Sammy Yaah Baya

P.O. Box 2274-00202(KNH) Nairobi, Kenya

Contact Number: 0724 56 90 24

Re: Consent for legal guardian/Teachers

1.1 Title of the study: The Relationship between Television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth.

The participant is invited to participate in a research study investigating The Relationship between Television viewing and sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth. The research will involve asking you questions focusing on television and its influence on sexual initiation, if there are any. An audio-tape may be used to record the interview if necessary. The interview or filling in of the questionnaire will take about 50 minutes to an hour.

Risks and discomforts: There are no risks from participating in the study other than perhaps you may experience discomfort when talking about certain sexual aspects. If this happens, the participant may choose to stop the interview or participation in the focus group discussions or filling in the self administered questionnaire.

Benefits: The participant will not get any benefits from participating in the study but the information provided may help us understand how television sexual content influences youth sexual behaviours.

Participant's rights: The participant may withdraw and stop participating in the study at any time they wish. The participant will not be penalized in any way if they withdraw and stop participating in the study.

Appendix III: A: Self administered questionnaire:

STUDENTS TV VIEWING HABIT QUESTIONNAIRE (STVHQ)

SECTION A: STUDENT DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. **Signature**.....
2. **Age in Years**.....
3. **Gender:** 1. Male 2. Female.....
4. **Religion:** 1) Protestant..... 2) Catholic.... 3) Muslim.....
4) Other.....
5. **How oftenly do you go to church/Mosque? (Please tick)**
1) Daily...2) Weekly....3) Hardly....4) Never...5) Other.....
6. **Class:** Form.....School.....
7. **Who do you live with currently: (Please Tick where appropriate)** 1)With father and mother.....2) With father alone... 3) With mother alone...4) Other
8. **Who pays your school fees?: (Please Tick where appropriate)**
1) Mother..... 2)Father... 3)Both parents... 4) Relatives...5) Other
9. **What is your current marital status? (Please tick where appropriate)**
1) Married..... 2) Single-in a relationship..... 3) Single-not in a relationship.....
4) Cohabiting..... 5) Other

10. How many children do you have (Please tick where appropriate)

- 1) None.....2) One.....3) Two.....4) Other

SECTION B: NATURE OF TV SEXUAL CONTENT AND TIME SPENT IN TV VIEWING

1. Do you have a TV set at home? (Please tick one answer below)

Yes..... No.....

2. Approximately how many hours per week do you view sexual content in the television. (Please tick where applicable.)

No	Sexual Television Content	1 hour of exposure	2 hours of exposure	3 hours of exposure	More than 3 hours of exposure
1.	Sex education				
2.	Contraceptive issues (Condoms,pills)				
3.	Actual Sexual intercourse				
4.	Implied Sexual intercourse				
5.	Intimate touching				
6.	Sexual talk				

7.	Kissing				
8.	Sexual seductive dressing				
9.	Nudity				
10.	TV Music (sexual lyrics & feelings)				

3. In which TV station/channel have you watched MOST of the sexual content?(Tick one)

- 1) DSTV...2) Zuku TV...3) KTN....4) KBC....5) CITIZEN TV.....6) FAMILY TV.....
 7) NTV... 8) K24...9) KISS TV....10) Other

4. Approximately how many hours do you spend watching Television per week? (Tick appropriately)

- 1) 1hour...2) 2 hours...3)3hours...4)4hours....5)5 hours...6)6 hours....7) 7 hours....
 8) More than 7 hours.....

5. How frequently do you watch TV? (Tick appropriately)

- 1) Everyday.....2) Only on weekends.....3) 3-4 times a week.....4) Never..... 5) Other.....

6) What time do you usually watch TV?

1) Morning.....2) Afternoon3) Evening.....4) Late night.....

7) Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements

I like to watch TV....	Agree	Strongly Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1.As a hobby					
2.So as I can see what other people my age are doing					
3.TV show the real life and concerns of individuals like me and my friends					
4. I would like to be more like the individuals I see in TV programmes and movies					
5. I would like to be more like the celebrities /musicians I see on TV					
6.I look forward to watching new programs, movies or songs from music artists or groups on TV					

7. So as to be educated on sexual matters					
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8) When you see TV programs about dating, sex and relationships, how interested are you in watching it? (Tick 1 answer)

- 1) I'm not at all interested.....2) I'm a little bit interested.....
 3) I'm somewhat interested.....4) I'm quite interested.....5) I'm extremely interested.....

9) (a) Before the start of certain TV programs, warning messages are shown restricting viewing to a certain age group. Do you always pay attention to these messages?

Yes..... No.....

(b) Do you think these warning messages are effective?

Yes..... No.....

SECTION C: PARENTAL TV CO-VIEWING

1. (a) How often do you watch TV with your Mum, Dad or guardian? (tick one)

- (1) Every day... (2) Most days... (3) Weekly.... (4) Less often...
 (5) Never /Not applicable.....6) Other (Specify).....

(b) I am not allowed to watch TV with a lot of sexual activity in them. (tick one)

- (1) Agreement..... (2) No agreement.....

(c) I can watch anything I like (tick one)

(1) Agreement..... (2) No agreement.....

(d) I am only allowed to watch a certain amount of television (tick one)

(1) Agreement..... (2) No agreement.....

2. (a) Do you discuss sexual topics on television with your parents. (tick one)

(1) Yes..... (2) No

**SECTION D: CONSEQUENCES PORTRAYED ON TV PROGRAMMES
RESULTING FROM SEXUAL ACTIVITIES**

1.(a) I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in unwanted pregnancy. (tick one) (1) Agreement..... (2) No agreement.....

(b) I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in contraction of an STD/HIV/AIDS. (tick one) (1) Agreement.....(2) No agreement.....

(c) I have seen TV programmes where one is punished by others for engaging in sexual activity. (tick one) (1) Agreement..... (2) No agreement.....

(d) I have TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in physical abuse by a sexual partner. (tick one) (1) Agreement.....(2) No agreement.....

e) I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in feelings of guilt and regret. (tick one) (1) Agreement.....(2) No agreement.....

f) I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in rejection by others. (tick one) (1) Agreement.....(2) No agreement.....

g) I have seen TV programmes where sexual activity resulted in an improvement of a relationship with a sexual partner. (tick one)

(1) Agreement...(2) No agreement.....

2. What are the potential dangers associated with sexual activity seen on TV programmes? (Tick one or more where necessary)

(1) Unwanted Pregnancy.... (2) HIV/AIDS..... (3) Death..... (4) Abortion....

(5) STD/STIs....(6) Rejection....(5) Other (Specify).....

3. What are the positive consequences associated with sexual activity seen on TV programmes? (Tick one or more appropriately)

(1) Love....(2) Happy Couples.....(3) Happy family....(4) Success....(5) Good life....

(6) Other (Specify).....

4. In your opinion, how is sex portrayed in TV programmes?(tick appropriately)

1) Glamorous....2) Exciting....3)Fun...4)Success....5)Dangerous.....6)Bad....

6) Other (specify).....

SECTION E: SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR/SEXUAL INITIATION

1. (a) Have you ever had sexual intercourse? (Tick one)(When we say sexual intercourse, we mean when a male inserts his penis into a female's vagina.)

(1) Yes..... (2) No.....

(b) If no, what are your reasons for abstaining from sexual intercourse? (Tick where necessary) (1) Religious values..... (2) Fear of pregnancy..... (3) Wish to wait for marriage..... (4) Not emotionally ready..... (5) Fear of HIV/AIDS.....

(6) Fear of other sexually transmitted infections/ diseases (STIs/STDs).....

(7) Other

2. How old were you when you had sex for the first time? (Tick one)

(1) Below 13 yrs... (2) 13 yrs ... (3) 14yrs... (4)15 yrs... (5) 16yrs... (6) 17 yrs....

(7) 18 yrs ... (8) I have never had sex..... (9)Other (Specify).....

(d) Did you use contraceptives (condom, pills etc)? (Tick one)

(1)Yes..... (2) No.....

3. (a) Have you ever been pregnant? (For girls) (Tick one)

(1) Yes..... (2) No

b) Have you impregnated anyone before? (For boys) (Tick one)

(1)Yes..... (2) No.....

(c) If yes to either (a) and (b) above, what factors influenced this? (tick appropriately)

(1) Parents.... (2) Siblings.... (3) Books/magazines..... (4) TV programs.....

(5) Internet.... (6) Friends (7) Teachers (8) Church (specify).....

(9) Newspapers..... (9) Other (specify).....

4. (a) How likely is it that you will have sex before you do KCSE? (*Tick one*)

1) Not at all Likely ...2) Somewhat Likely... 3) Likely ...4)Extremely Likely...

5. I can say no to someone who is pressuring me to have sex. (*Tick one*)

1) Strongly disagree... 2) Disagree... 3) Agree... Strongly agree...

6. If you were to decide to have sexual intercourse, how likely would you be to use a condom? (*Tick one*)

Not at all Likely... 2) Somewhat Likely... 3) Likely... 4) Extremely Likely...

7. (a) In your own opinion, do you desire to delay your first sexual intercourse?

(Tick one) (1) Yes..... (2) No.....

(b) If you have ever had sexual intercourse, do you regret it?

8. (a)Having a girl/boyfriend means having (*Tick one*)

(1)A partner for sex.....(2) A caring and loving relationship with sex.....

(3) A caring and loving relationship not necessarily with sex....(4) I'm not sure.....

(b) Do you have a boyfriend/girl friend? (*Tick one*)

Yes..... No.....

9. Where did you first learn about sex? (Tick where appropriate)

(1) Parents... (2) Siblings...(3) Books/magazines.... (4)TV programs.....

(5) Internet...(6) Friends...(7) Teachers ...(8) Church (specify)..... (9) Newspapers...

(10) Others

10. It is okay for young people to have sex as long as: (Tick one)

(1)They love each other.....(2) They have safe sex....(3) They are married....

(4) They are above 18....(5) I'm not sure.....

11. a) Where do you get information about sex if you need it?

(1) Parents.... (2) Siblings....(3) Books/magazines.... (4) TV programs.....

(5) Internet..... (6) Friends (7) Teachers ... (8) Church.....

(9)Newspapers.....(10) Other

Thank You for filling in the Questionnaire.

Appendix IV: Possible interview questions for key informants.

1. What television sexual content do the youth pay attention to, and how do they interpret what they see and hear?
2. How are sexual messages presented in television programmes and what is the frequency of sexual dialogue and sexual content generally?
3. What kind of emphasis is placed on the possible risks or consequences of sex in the stories that deal with sexual topics?
4. How much time do the youth spend watching TV and how are they influenced by sexual content?
5. What are the reasons why young people either watch or not watch TV with their parents?
6. Can watching TV with parents help in delaying sexual initiation among the youth?
7. In your opinion what other factors influence sexual initiation among the youth?
8. What do you think can be recommended to delay sexual initiation among the youth in Kenya?
9. Are there depictions/portrayals of possible consequences of sexual activity on television? and how can you associate these depictions with sexual initiation.

Appendix V: Focus group discussion guide

POSSIBLE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONS.

NB: There will be an ice breaker and rapport will be created before the questions are delved into.

How do young people describe sexual initiation?

Do you or your colleagues in this school have sexual partners?

Do you know the consequences of early sexual intercourse?

Where do young people get sexual information?

How many hours approximately do you spend watching TV per day?

Which are your favourite TV programmes and why?

Does watching TV influence young people to have sexual intercourse?

Does watching TV influence young people to experience unwanted pregnancies?

Do you watch TV with your parents?

Do you discuss sexual topics with your parents when you watch TV together?

What other factors do you think influence young people to have sexual intercourse?

What do you think can be done to delay sexual initiation among the Kenyan youth?

How is sex portrayed on TV? Have you seen portrayals of consequences of sexual activity on TV

APPENDIX VI: NACOSTI Research Authorization