FACTORS INFLUENCING VIEWER PREFERENCE OF SPECIFIC LOCAL TELEVISION STATIONS OVER OTHERS

BY

LUBANG’A TANDLYNE MWANIGA

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY –AFRICA

SUMMER 2018
FACTORS INFLUENCING VIEWER PREFERENCE OF SPECIFIC LOCAL TELEVISION STATIONS OVER OTHERS

BY

LUBANG’A TANDLYNE MWANIGA

A Research Project Report Submitted to the Chandaria School of Business in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Master of Business Administration (MBA)

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY –AFRICA

SUMMER 2018
STUDENT’S DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other institution, or university other than the United States International University – Africa in Nairobi for academic credit.

Signed_________________________________ Date____________________

Tandlyne Lubang’a (ID 605063)

This research project has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed supervisor.

Signed_________________________________ Date____________________

Dr. Joseph Ngugi Kamau

Signed_________________________________ Date____________________

Dean, Chandaria School of Business
COPYRIGHT

All rights reserved. No part of this project report may be photocopied, recorded or otherwise reproduced, stored in retrieval system or transmitted in any electronic or mechanical means without prior permission of USIU-A or the author.

© Copyright Tandlyne Mwaniga Lubanga 2018
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine factors influencing viewer preference of specific local television stations over others. It explores consumer preference and what influences their choice to have a preferred channel that they are loyal to and watch frequently.

The study uses a Descriptive, cross sectional methodology to define the characteristics of the population and their behavior towards viewership. Primary data for the Study has been gathered from households in Nairobi. Sample was selected using the simple random sampling method and data was collected during the period from 9th and 23rd of July 2018. The sample comprises of 145 households. The target population of this study was 985,016 households in Nairobi. Information was collected from these household through a survey Cluster sampling technique was used to generate the sample size, Data collection was done by use of questionnaires. Ideology, credibility and packaging were the variables used to determine their influence on a viewer’s preference of a Television channel. The Data analysis technique used is a qualitative approach using SPSS tool.

The study reveals that the age of the respondents and other factors such as the respondent being a male, married and employed have a significant positive relationship with the demand for knowledge based programs. Age, marital status and employment status have reported a significant positive relationship with the choice of television station they watch. Out of the employed respondents, those who spend more than eight hours of their time engaged in work have a strong negative relationship with the number of hours spent watching television. Middle aged and elderly individuals are more interested in programs that contain news and politics while females are more interested in programs with soft content such as tele dramas and religious programs when compared with males.

Key finding from the strategic objective on Credibility show that accuracy of information was cited as the most important factor that highlight viewers’ perceptions to choose a particular program. Results of the analysis on Ideology show that TV station content was rated the most important factor in ideology. The third objective sought to determine how packaging influences viewer preference of a television station. Results were analyzed and results presented content aired is very important. Overall, it can be concluded that a stations organizational dynamics on credibility prove to be stronger and more consistent predictors of viewers’ preference regardless of programming. Different ideological preferences results in distinct audience profiles for each station and explains the role of
panellists and credible anchors. In the context of packaging and viewer preference, language and content plays a big role and also informs the consequences of the differences in TV viewer’s perceptions.

Given that there is an increase in the reliance of online viewing by the young population, it is recommended that media houses review their content development in programming so as to continuously have a loyal viewership. Reporters’ and anchors’ credibility should be streamlined and be measured by their expertise, intelligence, education, trustworthiness and authoritativeness. Ideology needs to be balanced in the media content to represent ideals of the viewers while avoiding bias. Packaging goes beyond program scheduling. Moving forward, TV stations should adopt a well-planned brand management and extension strategy. These need to be addressed by emphasizing to all concerned the importance of overall marketing, and not just selling. This in turn, would help to increase the value addition of the industry through well targeted and relevant programs and advertisements which are broadcasted at the most appropriate time. The next chapter provides the study’s findings, analysis and discussion based on the study objectives.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to the following people who were of great support to me during this study: My supervisor Dr. Ngugi Joseph, for his invaluable feedback and guidance that motivated me to stay on track and complete this research.

Special thanks to all the households TV owners and public, who passionately contributed in giving valuable information during data collection, my sincere thanks also go to my research assistants, Joan, Eunice, Collins and Sharon for the support to ensure data collection was done in good time.

I am also indebted to my beloved family for their innumerable encouragement and motivation.

I sincerely thank you all!
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

STUDENT'S DECLARATION ......................................................................................... iii
COPYRIGHT .............................................................................................................. iv
ABSTRACT ............................................................................................................... v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ....................................................................................... vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS ........................................................................................ viii
LIST OF TABLES ...................................................................................................... x
LIST OF FIGURES ................................................................................................... xi
ABBREVIATIONS ..................................................................................................... xii

CHAPTER ONE ........................................................................................................ 1
  1.0 INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................... 1
  1.1 Background of the Study ................................................................................. 1
  1.2 Statement of the Problem .............................................................................. 4
  1.3 General Objective of the Study ..................................................................... 6
  1.4 Specific Objectives ....................................................................................... 7
  1.5 Significance of the Study ............................................................................. 7
  1.6 Scope of the Study ....................................................................................... 7
  1.7 Definition of Terms ..................................................................................... 7
  1.8 Chapter Summary ....................................................................................... 8

CHAPTER TWO ......................................................................................................... 9
  2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW ................................................................................... 9
  2.1 Introduction .................................................................................................. 9
  2.2 The Influence of Credibility on Viewer Preference and Choice of TV Channel .... 9
  2.3 The Influence of Ideology on Viewer Preference and Choice of TV Channel .... 13
  2.4 The Influence of Packaging on Viewer Preference and Choice of TV Channel ... 17
  2.5 Chapter Summary ....................................................................................... 22

CHAPTER THREE .................................................................................................... 23
  3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY ..................................................................... 23
  3.1 Introduction ................................................................................................ 23
  3.2 Research Design ........................................................................................ 23
  3.3 Population and Sampling Design ................................................................ 23
  3.4 Data Collection Methods .......................................................................... 24
  3.5 Research Procedures ................................................................................. 25
  3.6 Data Analysis Methods ............................................................................. 27
3.7 Chapter Summary .................................................................................................................28

CHAPTER FOUR .........................................................................................................................29

4.0 RESULTS AND FINDINGS .................................................................................................29

4.1 Introduction .........................................................................................................................29

4.3 General Aspects on Viewership .........................................................................................32

4.4 Descriptive Information .....................................................................................................37

4.5 Inferential Analysis .............................................................................................................40

4.6 Structural Equation Model (SEM) .....................................................................................45

4.7 Regression Weights ...........................................................................................................46

4.8 Predictive Relevance of the Model ....................................................................................47

4.9 Chapter Summary ................................................................................................................47

CHAPTER FIVE ............................................................................................................................48

5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .........................................48

5.1 Introduction .........................................................................................................................48

5.3 Discussion of Results ..........................................................................................................50

5.4 Conclusions .........................................................................................................................56

5.5 Recommendations ..............................................................................................................57

REFERENCES ...............................................................................................................................60

APPENDICES ...............................................................................................................................72

Appendix 1: Cover Letter ..........................................................................................................72

Appendix 2: Questionnaire ........................................................................................................73
LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Sample Size Distribution .................................................. 23
Table 4.1: Respondents Age Bracket .................................................. 31
Table 4.2: Occupation ........................................................................ 31
Table 4.3: Online TV Viewership ......................................................... 35
Table 4.4: Motivating Factors To Watch TV ........................................ 36
Table 4.5: Credibility Aspects Influencing Viewer Preference Of TV Station ........................................................................ 37
Table 4.6: Ideology .............................................................................. 38
Table 4.7: Station Packaging And Viewer Preference ................................ 39
Table 4.8: Preference Of Television Station ........................................... 40
Table 4.9: KMO And Bartlett's Test ....................................................... 40
Table 4.10: Total Variance Explained ................................................... 41
Table 4.11: Communalities And Pattern Matrix a .................................. 42
Table 4.12: CFA Model Output ............................................................. 44
Table 4.13: Construct And Convergent Reliability .................................. 44
Table 4.14: Correlation Matrix ............................................................... 45
Table 4.15: Model Fits For Structural Equation Model ......................... 46
Table 4.16: Regression Weights ............................................................ 47
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1: Response Rate ........................................................................................................29
Figure 4.2: Gender ..................................................................................................................30
Figure 4.3: Monthly Income ..................................................................................................32
Figure 4.4: Frequency Of Watching TV ...............................................................................33
Figure 4.5: Preferred Time To Watch TV ............................................................................34
Figure 4.6: Main Reasons For Watching TV .......................................................................35
Figure 4.7: Type And Preferred Program Content ..............................................................36
Figure 4.8: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model For Study Variables .........................43
Figure 4.9: Structural Model For The Relationship Of The Study Variables ...............45
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BBC</td>
<td>British Broadcasting Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBBE</td>
<td>Consumer Based Brand Equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSTV</td>
<td>Digital Satellite Television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KBC</td>
<td>Kenya Broadcasting Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KTN</td>
<td>Kenya Television Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NTV</td>
<td>Nation Television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td>Television</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Television is one of the main recreational options enjoyed by people. However it appears that the market is lagging behind in value addition to the gross domestic product of the country due to failures in strategic management of television companies. Television companies are constantly monitoring their ratings against each other with an aim of getting as many viewers glued to their stations as possible. The purpose of this study is to explore the brand equity concept from a consumer viewpoint and discuss its different perspectives, reviews from existing literature of consumer based brand equity, break down the concept in relation to media houses. We also evaluate various Customer-based brand equity models to provide a collection from well-known databases for further research in this area.

Brand equity is the incremental value added to a product by its brand name (Farquhar, 1989; Srivastava, 2009). From a behavioral point of view, brand equity is critically important to make points of differentiation that lead to competitive advantages based on non-price competition (Aaker, 1991). The purpose of this study is to explore the brand equity concept and discuss its different perspectives, reviews from existing literature of brand equity break down the concept in relation to media houses. We also evaluate various Customer-based brand equity models to provide a collection from well-known databases for further research in this area. Brand management has become an important managerial task and researchers are challenged to uncover the implications of this for media firms, consumers, and society at large.

Research suggests that brand equity could be built by a series of long term marketing activities. People watch Television to stay up to date with the happenings taking place in their regions, countries and around the world, we also watch Television for entertainment and information. What is interesting though is that viewers tend to have a certain preference of the channel they watch depending on various factors that influence their choice which this study will seek to understand. However it appears that the market is lagging behind in value addition to the gross domestic product of the country due to failures in strategic management of television companies. This study seeks to identify determinants that affect people’s preference to watch television.
The current media environment is able to deliver specialized content to niche audiences in various formats through a large number of media channels (Oyedeji, 2007). Traditional media types such as radio, television, magazines, and newspapers aggressively compete for audiences and advertising revenues, alongside the new media vehicles such as blogs, satellite radio, podcasts, online video and news sources (Oyedeji, 2007). As a result, media organizations are now forced to adopt strategic management decisions and practices that had been once commonly used for the marketing of consumer products (Oyedeji, 2007).

In the UK, overall television news viewing has declined from 2011 onwards broadly at the same pace as total television viewing (Kleis & Richard, 2016). For young people in high-income countries, the media environment they are growing up in is overwhelmingly digital, also when it comes to news, as documented in the Reuters Institute Digital News Report 2015 (Newman et al., 2015). Even in countries like France and Germany, where television is the most important source of news for the population overall, online is far more important for younger people (Kleis & Richard, 2016). In the UK and the US, online is the most important source of news for every age group under 44 (Newman et al., 2015).

TV viewership in Kenya is high with 59% Kenyans being exposed to television viewership on a daily basis (Strategic Reasearch, 2010). Majority of the respondents interviewed mentioned that they have watched Citizen TV both in the past one week (74.1%) and in the past one month (30.9%). KBC had been watched by 37% of the respondents in the past week and 27.1% in the past one month. Similarly NTV had been watched by 34.5% and 18.9% of the respondents in the past one week and one month respectively. KTN was the fourth most watched channel in the last one week category (31.2%) while it was the third most watched TV channel in the past one month category (20.8%). Other notable stations watched were K24, Kiss TV, and SuperSport. Citizen TV was mentioned as the favorite TV channel by more than half of the respondents (58.8%). KBC Channel 1 was mentioned by 14.3% while NTV was mentioned by 8.3%. Likewise KTN was mentioned by 7.1% of the respondents as their favorite TV station. This trend was evident when the respondents were asked to mention their favorite programs. News (13%) came on top of the list as the favorite program (Strategic Reasearch, 2010).

Kenyans show a high liking for local TV productions, majority of those interviewed mentioned local programs as top on the list compared to foreign programs (Amadala,
The main strategies used by the TV producers and marketers to increase the market for their products are improving the quality in production, packaging, outsourcing production and distribution (Amadala, 2017). Strong brands are necessary in media because technology has increased the number of content providers and made it possible for many more competitors to seek the attention and loyalty of audiences and advertisers (Sutherland & McDowell, 2009). Having a distinct brand as a media house is crucial in separating media companies and their products from those of competitors, in creating continuity of quality and service across extended product lines, and in helping develop strong bonds with consumers (Jönköping International Business School, 2008).

Branding has a very important role to play not only in the marketing of products but also in the case of services (Cockburn, 2016). Most of the TV channels have now resulted into branding themselves so as to attract viewership. This branding is seen in the form of presenters, exclusive programs, Studio set up, Logos and Corporate color. This study will refer to the TV stations as brands because they too use different corporate colors, logos, programs to differentiate themselves from others in the same space. Nowadays, consumers demand much more than a basic product, and are willing to switch brands for better product features and improved services, from a viewership point of view the same concept applies where consumers switch between TV stations or have a channel preference based on the product offering of the TV station and what interests the viewer (Ailawadi, Lehmann, & Scott, 2003).

Identifying as to why people prefer to watch television could provide better insights for television companies and other stakeholders to improve their viewer base in the oligopolistic market. This in turn, would help to increase the value addition of the industry through well targeted and relevant programs and advertisements which are telecast at the most appropriate time (Ahluwalia & R.Singh, 2011). With the numerous TV stations available people have a wide variety of alternatives, demands and preferences on which station to watch and which programs. The customer’s choice of television stations is based on the viewer’s different needs. By measuring the factors that influence viewer’s preferences, television stations can develop marketing strategies that are responsive to customer’s needs and wants hence gain a competitive advantage over other channels. There are various reasons why a particular viewer would prefer a particular channel. Cohen (2002) in his study identified, happiness, presenter, timing, educational and spiritual, in order of importance as reason for channel preferences. There are various
internal and external factors which affect a viewer choice of channel. It has generally
been assumed that viewers' loyalty to a single channel decreases with the availability of
more channels and the availability of remote control devices (RCDs), which make
channel switching easier (Neuendorf, Jefferes, & Atkin, 1999). However, despite the
large number of channels, viewers tend to limit their choices to a rather small number of
channels (Neuendorf, Jefferes, & Atkin, 1999).

Identifying the characteristics of the viewers would be helpful in targeting different
segments of the viewers through suitable television programs and plan economically
effective advertising campaigns in the market. Identifying as to why people prefer to
watch television could provide better insights for television companies and other
stakeholders to improve their viewer base in the oligopolistic market and leverage on
their brand. This in turn, would help to increase the value addition of the industry through
well targeted and relevant programs and advertisements which are telecast at the most
appropriate time. Through the theory of consumer behavior this study looks at how
Credibility, Ideology and Packaging, influence viewer preference and choice of a
particular local television station over others.

When reading current business-related articles about media industries, we are likely to
find expressions like technological convergence and audience fragmentation. For media
house managers, these terms mean that competition across media sectors is intense and
audiences are adopting new paths of consumption because there are numerous channels to
choose from and access to media is easier (Taneja, Webster, Malthouse, & Ksiazek,
2012). When the environment is anything but stable, media firms cling on to their most
important assets their users. They want to build strong and long lasting bonds with their
audiences to connect to existing and potential viewers, listeners or readers in ways that
are relevant and unique, without being bound to specific channels or formats of delivery.
Brand management has emerged as a managerial tool which can assist in building and
exploiting these dimensions of uniqueness (Cockburn, 2016).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The change among younger people TV viewership is already evident. In many of the
most technologically advanced markets, traditional television viewing has begun to erode,
and online video consumption is increasing (Kleis & Richard, 2016). The rise of the
video-enabled internet puts television and digital media in much more direct competition.
In this report, we analyze what is happening to television news and viewership in general. The main focus is to establish how Credibility, ideology and packaging have an impact on viewer preference on the channel to watch. First, it maps recent changes in traditional television viewing. Second, it considers the rise of online video. Third, it examines examples of how different organizations are working with new forms of television-like news developed for a digital environment. We go into some detail in providing an overview of how these variables are changing television and online video growing because these trends are defining the

In Kenya TV is a favorite entertainment past-time, however what is picking up now is individuals are spending more hours surfing web and viewing streaming services hence a growing number of households is slowly moving away from watching TV altogether. In addition to cultivating popular program content, media houses know how important proper scheduling can be in attracting audiences. In broadcasting, TV programs get audience’s attention by chance as well as by choice. The implication is that in recognizing the powerful influence of lead-in programming has an impact on the performance ratings of television programs (Okulo, 2016).

Television networks are constantly seeking to differentiate their products on the basis of functional attributes such as content features and presentation. That is because to gain competitive advantages based on only product attributes such as news, entertainment and sports has become harder due to the increase in media outlets and fragmentation of audiences. Consequently, the television networks have to find ways of building distinctive and meaningful brand images in the minds of news audiences (Cha, Chan-Olmsted, & Jiyoung, 2008). This is evidently seen with the local channels like KBC, KTN, and CITIZEN who are offering differentiated products to entice its viewers.

Video-on-demand providers like Netflix and Amazon Prime and platforms like Facebook and YouTube, are currently leading the move towards a video-enabled internet. Television as a platform may well be about to face disruption on a scale comparable to what printed newspapers have experienced over the last decade. Television news providers face this transition with much strength, including well-known brands, creative talent, and deep archives of quality content, but they also risk being constrained by their legacy organization and culture (Mohamed, 2018).
Flamberg (2015) EVP, managing director, Digital Strategy and CRM at Kaplan Thaler says that in a world filled with endless consumer choices, too many marketers still push out one-size-fits-all messages. Competition in the television industry takes place on several levels: competition for audience, competition for programming including news and competition for advertisers (Aris & Cughin, 2005) broadcasting industry is continually faced with technological change and innovation, the possible rise in popularity of competing entertainment and communications media, and governmental restrictions have a material effect on their operations Stations compete for viewership generally against other leisure activities in which one could choose to engage rather than watch television (Cohen, 2002). Broadcast stations compete for audience share specifically on the basis of program popularity, which has a direct effect on advertising rates (Cohen, 2002).

The focus of marketing has therefore shifted from just selling a product to building a strong brand that enjoys customer loyalty. A brand is a name, term, sign, symbol, design, or the combination of things that identifies the maker or seller of the product or service and also differentiates it from those of the competitors (Aaker, 1995; Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). “The power of a brand lies in what resides in the minds of the customers” (Keller 2008). Brand equity, or the value of the brand, is what the brand means in terms of uniqueness, importance and preference of the customers (Keller, 2008). This meaning is built through consistent communication at the various contact points where the brand meets its audience (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998). Media brands offer value propositions about what their customers can expect in terms of type of content, engagement, and viewer experience.

There is therefore intense competition among TV channels to get as many viewers as possible. Factors such as content, program timing and presenters are variables that this study will look at to see their impact on customers or viewer’s preferred choice of TV News channel. This study therefore seeks to identify the factors that influence a viewer to prefer one TV channel over others.

1.3 General Objective

The objective of this study was to identify factors influencing viewer preference of specific local television stations
1.4 Specific Objectives

SO1: To determine the influence of credibility on viewer preference of a television station

SO2: To determine the influence of ideology on viewer preference of a television station

SO3: To determine the influence of packaging on viewer preference of a television station

1.5 Significance of the Study

1.5.1 Scholars

Scholars will benefit from this study because it adds to the numerous studies around consumer behavior. They will be able to distinguish the factors influencing consumer behavior in relations to media house preference, and consumer’s choice.

1.5.2 Practitioners

This study best suit marketing professionals who want to understand what marketing approach best suits media houses and viewer needs because media houses are packaging their programs based on their viewership preference.

The viewer decision making process is influenced by both internal and external factors that can be measured by the viewer’s choice of channels, programs and the number of repeat visits or the level of awareness. By determining the factors that influence viewer’s preferences, television stations can develop marketing strategies that are responsive to customer’s needs and wants thus gaining a competitive advantage.

1.5.3 Stakeholders

The management of Media houses will use the information gathered to structure their programs to attract higher viewership. The study presents the results of the consumer preference survey and discusses the implications of the consumer preference findings to managers to assist in developing effective marketing and positioning strategies.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1.6.1 Brand and Branding

A brand is a customer experience represented by a collection of images and ideas; often, it refers to a symbol such as a name, logo, slogan, and design scheme. A brand often includes color schemes, symbols, sound which may be developed to represent implicit values, ideas, and even personality (America Marketing Association, 2017).
1.6.2 Brand choice

The selection of one brand from a set of alternative brands (American Marketing Association, 2017)

1.6.3 Brand Equity

The value of a brand from a consumer perspective, brand equity is based on consumer attitudes about positive brand attributes and favorable consequences of brand use. (American Marketing Association, 2017)

1.6.4 Consumer Preference

Consumer preference is a marketing term meaning a consumer likes one thing over another. For instance, a trend may indicate consumers prefer using debit cards over credit cards to pay for goods (Cambridge, 2016).

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter looked at the evolution of Television industry and trends in Malaysia, Nigeria, America and Kenya. The statistics show different TV stations have different ratings, some being preferred over others. The objectives to be studied include factors that influence customer preference of one local TV channel over others which are content, program timing and presenters. The next chapter, chapter two is the literature review exploring what other scholars have studied in the area of consumer behavior that drives preference and choice. Chapter three describes the methodology used in the study, Chapter four results and findings and Chapter five discusses the findings, conclusion of the findings and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
The success of a TV channel depends largely on its capability to attract viewers towards its programs which are in this case brands. In particular, it is critical for the survival of a company to retain its current customers, and to make them loyal to the channel. Media houses with a high rate of loyal viewers have a competitive advantage over other Media houses. Brand loyalty also provides the firm with trade leverage and valuable time to respond to competitive moves (Aaker, 1991). In summary loyalty to the firm's brands represents a strategic asset which has been identified as a major source of the brands' equity.

2.2 The Influence of Credibility on Viewer Preference and Choice of TV Channel
This study explores the relation between two seemingly divergent concepts that took different routes into the mass communication field. Credibility studies have been a part of mass communication research since the inception of scientific inquiry into the communication process (Self, 1996), whereas branding and CBBE are relatively new concepts still struggling for universal acceptance from media scholars and professionals (Brinkley, 1997). Psychologist Carl Hovland and his colleagues at the Yale Program of Research on Communication and Attitude Change conducted the seminal empirical studies on credibility in the 1940s. They sought to develop a systematic theory of persuasion and explored several attributes of source credibility that could produce desired attitude change in an audience (Lowery & DeFleur, 1995).

The earliest credibility studies investigated the role of source credibility on attitude change and information learning and found that high credibility sources produced greater attitude changes than low credibility sources, but both high and low credibility sources were equally effective in information learning (Hovland, 1951; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Hovland & Weis, 1951). These studies provided the theoretical foundation for credibility research and defined the boundaries of the field. Subsequent studies have focused on the effects of source, medium, audience and message characteristics on credibility (Metzger et al., 2003).
Because of privacy issues, content accuracy, reliability, and other related concerns, some observers have predicted a troubled future for online news. Johnson and Kaye (1998) reminded us that one of the basic characteristics of the Internet, its potential free access to everybody to upload information without much scrutiny, might affect the credibility of the medium as a source of information. Flanagan and Metzger (2000) noted that while newspapers, books, and television undergo a process of information verification before they reach the public, Internet sites do not always use such measures. The lack of editorial and gate keeping rules similar to those in the traditional print and broadcast news media is central to the problem. This, of course, is likely to increase the importance of branded online news sites such as CNN.com and perhaps emphasize the value of the so-called “halo effect” of an existing print or television news organization to its online equivalent, such as Time magazine and its Web counterpart, Time Online.

Schweiger (1998) pointed out that credibility becomes an important heuristic for content selection at a time of information overload. Credibility may also influence the journalistic and commercial success of a medium (Schweiger, 2000). Online news industry observers and newspaper editors have expressed similar concerns over credibility, believability, ethical lapses, newsgathering techniques, and news presentation (Lasica, 2001; Arant & Anderson, 2000). These and numerous other professional issues are frequent topics of discussion and debate on the pages of the Online Journalism.

During the 1950s, competition from television provoked the industry to look at the various news media credibility in the eyes of the public (Mehrabi, Hassan, & Ali, 2009). In today’s media environment, advent of the Internet as a new and widely used medium for the delivery of information raises the question of how to assess credibility of this medium (Wathen & Burkell, 2002). So, the focus of media credibility research is now more about medium effects such as differences between newspapers, television and online media (Newhagen & Nass, 1989). Media credibility, due to the deep penetration of the Internet, has received renewed attention in recent years (Wathen & Burkell, 2002).

However, interest in newspaper credibility may reached in the highest point in the late 1980s, but the media credibility issue has recently been revived with the involvement of traditional media (for example, television and newspapers) in the Internet (Garrison, 2003). In sum, recent studies mostly focus on examining the credibility of the Internet with traditional media counterparts. For example, the result
of a study on “Perceptions of Internet information credibility”, conducted by Flanagin and Metzger (2000), shows that the Internet information was as credible as television. Flanagin and Metzger (2000) also concluded that credibility among different types of information sought by audience members, such as news and entertainment, varied by media channels. What is important to explore people’s evaluation of media credibility are factors those affecting the perception of media. In particular, media use considered as a predictor for understanding perception of media credibility (Lu & Andrews, 2006).

However from several decades ago, some studies investigated the relationship between media use and media credibility (Bracken, 2006; Choi, Watt, & Lynch, 2006). But the findings of all previous studies about media use and credibility always are not fit together. However, several studies have shown positive correlation between media use and perceived media credibility (Kious, 2001). That is, those who use a particular media more often are those who perceive the credibility of these media positively than those who use this media less often (Rimmer & Weaver, 1987).

On the other hand, it doesn’t sound logical that a person spends time to seek information from a source he does not trust on. Generally, the findings of some studies are inconsistent with afore mentioned studies. Lu and Andrews (2006) also argue that media use was significantly related to credibility of newspaper, radio, magazine, and the Internet. But it was not consistent association between television viewing and its absolute credibility. However, the relationship between respondents’ television viewing and their perceived credibility almost reached a considerable level. In general, credibility of television may refer to this notion that “seeing is believing.” Although the television is most destructive medium of entertainment, but it is necessary to distinguish between different information displayed through this medium when we want to access the credibility of television (Meyer, 1988).

2.2.1 Media Credibility Measures

Researchers have utilized a variety of measurements and statistical procedures in their quest to understand media credibility. Bivariate and multivariate approaches have been used, including regression analysis (Mulder, 1980; Mulder, 1981) and factor analysis. While many have used traditional data-collection methods such as telephone surveys and laboratory and field experiments, new technologies such as online surveys and other
experiments are beginning to be used as well (Johnson & Kaye, 1998; Sundar, 1998). Online surveys using electronic mail and the Web, however, have unresolved methodological issues such as low response rates, self-selection bias, and access (Couper, Traugott & Lamias, 2001; Schaeffer & Dillman, 1998).

Infante (1980) used three dimensions to measure source credibility. These were trustworthiness, expertise, and dynamism. Trustworthiness was operationalized as honest-dishonest, trustworthy-untrustworthy, and sincere-insincere. For expertise, he used skilled-unskilled, qualified-unqualified, and informed-uninformed. For dynamism, he used bold-timid, active-passive, and aggressive-meek. Johnson and Kaye (1998, 2000) employed believability, fairness, accuracy, and depth of information in their study. Sensationalism was one of six dimensions used by Sundar (1996). He also used accuracy, believability, bias, fairness, and objectivity. Kiousis (1999) measured online news credibility by asking respondents to assess whether online news is factual, concerned with making profits, invades people’s privacy, is concerned about the community’s wellbeing, and cannot be trusted on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Numerous researchers have developed media credibility scales. Despite the diversity of scales, the various scale items are highly similar and measure the same underlying dimensions. Rather than searching for a single scale, researchers often create ad hoc scales to tap into hypothesized “dimensions” of credibility. Sundar (1999) developed a credibility scale applicable to both newspapers and online newspapers. He found “striking similarity between the factor structures underlying receivers’ perceptions of print and online news” (p. 382). He claimed this similarity made it possible to use the same scales for different media, which he described as a “boon” to researchers (p. 382).

Flanagin and Metzger (2000) used single-item measures in studying the credibility of Internet information. They operationalized credibility as a multidimensional concept built from five traditional components found in the literature: believability, accuracy, trustworthiness, bias, and completeness. Trustworthiness, fairness, bias, completeness, respect for privacy, representation of individual interests, accuracy, concern for community well-being, separation of fact and opinion, concern for public interest, factual foundations of information published, and qualifications of reporters were used among the credibility measures by Rimmer and Weaver (1987). The study’s second set of measures was derived from traditional Roper-style media use and preference questions.
Meyer’s (1988) index for newspaper believability was comprised of five dimensions. These included fairness, bias, completeness, accuracy, and trustworthiness. He also identified evidence that a newspaper’s credibility and “lovability” may be the same dimensions. Ognianova (1998) utilized nine semantic differential items to measure online news story credibility. They were factual/opinionated, unfair/fair, accurate/inaccurate, untrustworthy/trustworthy, balanced/unbalanced, biased/unbiased, reliable/unreliable, thorough/not thorough, and informative/not informative. Wanta and Hu (1994) used believability and affiliation indices to evaluate media credibility. The believability index was built around media manipulation of public opinion, getting facts straight, dealing fairly with all sides of an issue, and separation of fact from opinion. Affiliation was measured with concern for community well-being, watching out for reader interests, and concern for public welfare. (Abdulla R. A., Garrison, Salwen, Driscoll, & Casey, 2014).

2.3 The Influence of Ideology on Viewer Preference and Choice of TV Channel

Collins English Dictionary (2016) defines an ideology as a set of beliefs, especially the political beliefs on which people, parties, or countries base their action. From a viewership point of view, viewers are inclined to watch a TV station that tends to promote their ideals, what the viewer believes to be valuable information and what they believe in or stand for. Ideologies are patterned clusters of normatively imbued ideas and beliefs, including particular representations of power relations. Known as various ‘isms’, these ideological maps help people navigate the complexity of their political universe and carry exclusivist claims to social truth (James & Steger, 2014). An ideology is a world view, a system of values, attitudes and beliefs which an individual, group or society holds to be true or important; these are shared by a culture or society about how that society should function (Hutton, 2012). Ideologies that are told to us repeatedly by important social institutions such as the church, the law, education, government, and the media are called dominant ideologies. Dominant ideologies are ideologies or beliefs that we live by in our day-to-day lives and often do not question – they have become ‘natural, common sense’ things to do. This effectively dissuades people from rebelling against these beliefs, and keeps a sense of stability in society (Hutton, 2012). Dominant ideologies include beliefs about gender roles, about the economy, about social institutions.

Research shows that audiences’ ideological views affect their evaluation of media outlets and, consequently, their perception of media outlets’ credibility (Oyedeji, 2008; Lee, 2005; Gunther, 1992). This also means that the media channels were heavily involved in
the politics of the region and therefore it became important to explore whether political ideology influences brand equity of the media vehicle. Hinich & Munger (1994) and Gunther (1992) have extensively studied the role of audience’s world view in their perception of media messages. Oyedeji (2008) in his study established that if a consumer’s ideology is congruent with the media outlet then it influences his perception of its credibility and brand equity.

For the purpose of this study we follow previous research (Oyedeji, 2008) and adhere to the definition given by Lyons & Scheb (1992) that ideology is an abstract, integrated view of the political world giving rise to a logical structure of attitudes towards policy issues, political parties and candidates. In a Kenyan context, media has played a major role in giving ideological views leading viewers into one direction of beliefs. As one watches different station it is noticeably evident that there are significant divides on a number of ideological and political issues among the Kenyan news stations and these manifest themselves in differentiated news coverage and editorial attitudes (Okulo, 2016). Therefore the respondents in this study would be holding an ideological view and that would match with the view of the media they watch.

At the level of ideologies, contestation over meanings, understandings, and explanations takes this circulation and consolidation of meaning further into ‘political’ territory (Hinich & Munger, 1994). Fox News has achieved considerable financial and audience rating success by using ideology as its core branding strategy (Collins, 2004; Farhi, 2003, Hickey, 2003). This study, therefore, explores the effects of audience ideology on the customer-based brand equity (CBBE) of media outlets, using the three major news channels or TV station in the Kenya (KTN, NTV, and CITIZEN) as representative brands.

Some media analysts and researchers see a relationship between the ideological views of media owners and the editorial stance of their media outlets; those adhering to this school of thought argue that the media reflect the views of their owners and the dominant ideology of the society in which they function (Alterman, 2003; Altschull, 1995). This study evaluates the use of ideology as a branding strategy by investigating the effect of audiences’ ideological views on the CBBE of local Television Channels. Media critics and analysts credit CITIZEN TV with the highest brand equity of the three top networks in Kenya (Hussein, 2015); however this anecdotal claim hasn’t been verified empirically. The five constructs of CBBE can further be aggregated into two groups: Perception-
Based Constructs (Perceived Quality, Brand Image and Brand Loyalty). This measures consumers’ attitudes toward the brand, and (b) awareness-based constructs (brand awareness and brand association), which measure consumers’ knowledge structures about the brand. The literature doesn’t suggest a relationship between audiences’ ideological views and the awareness-based constructs. Researchers have used three distinct approaches to understand and measure citizens’ ideological views. The first, pioneered by (Campbell, Converse, Miller, & Stokes, 2014) uses qualitative coding of respondents’ answers to open-ended questions about policy issues, political candidates, and political parties to estimate their ideological views (Lane, 1999; Smith, 1980).

The second approach uses respondents’ self-reported levels of agreement to a series of statements about policy issues and political personalities to evaluate their placement on a liberal-conservative scale (Nie, Verba, & Petrocik, 1979) and the third approach uses respondents’ ideological self-identification (Holm & Robinson, 1978). The emergence of a media outlet that declares that other media outlets are biased in favor of liberal views/ideologies, and proceeds to pursue a conservative agenda simply reinforces audiences’ perceptions that the media are ideologically motivated and untrustworthy (Lyons & Scheb, 1992) (Pitta & Katsanis, 1995) describe the adoption of brand strategies as having two important motives. The first is a competitive motive in which a brand is used to enhance competitive advantage through emphasizing differentiation. A brand helps consumers understand and remember what distinguishes an offering from that of a competitor (Neal & Strauss, 2008). Secondly, a brand strategy could, and should, add value to the product or service offering. From this perspective customers see more than the functional use of a product, and brands signal benefits on a multitude of dimensions based on the meanings and uses that customers associate with the brand (Sutherland & McDowell, 2009). The role of audiences’ worldview in their perception of media messages and media outlets has been studied across mass communication, political science, and social psychology literatures (Gunther, 1992; Hastorf & Cantril, 1959; Lyons & Scheb, 1992; Hinich & Munger, 1994). However, there is little, if any, scholarly consensus about the operational and constitutive definitions of the concept (Lyons & Scheb, 1992; Hinich & Munger, 1994). Some scholars see ideology as a collection of ideas held by individuals and groups, which influence their behaviors and views about the way society should be organized (Lodge, 1976; North 1990); others see ideology as individuals’ conscious or subconscious
mental processes for simplifying, understanding, and participating in the political world (North, 1981; Enelow & Hinich, 1984); and still other scholars define the concept as dogmatic belief systems by which individuals analyze, justify, and rationalize their behavior and that of institutions (Kang, 2012).

For this study, however, ideology is conceptualized as “an abstract, integrated view of the political world giving rise to a logical structure of attitudes toward policy issues, political parties, and candidates” (Lyon & Scheb, 1992). This conceptualization links ideology to attitudes (Ajzen, 1988) and fulfills Hinich & Munger’s (1994) 3-way test for explicating ideology, which asserts that ideology, when properly explicated, must have implications for (a) what is ethically good or bad (values/policy issues), (b) how resources should be distributed in a society (policy issues), and (c) where power should reside (political parties and candidates).

2.3.1 Source Characteristics

Source credibility is the believability of a message because of the perceived expertise and trustworthiness of the individual, group, or organization associated with a message (Kiousis, 2001; Metzger et al., 2003). Source credibility studies seek to identify which information sources are believed and the characteristics of the sources that lead to greater believability (Addington, 1971; Markham, 1968; O’Keefe, 1990). Scholars have failed

Media channel credibility. Media channel credibility refers to the audiences’ perceptions of a specific news channel’s believability (Bucy, 2003). The media channels used for this study are the three major 24-hr cable news channels in the United States-CNN, Fox News Channel, and MSNBC). The three networks were selected because their brand associations are distinct in audiences’ minds (McDowell, 2004). CNN, which started in 1980, has the greatest global reach, the second highest rating and prime time audience, the largest annual revenue of the three networks, and is considered sympathetic to liberal views by some analysts (Farhi, 2003; Hickey, 2003; Myers, 2003; State of the News, 2004).

2.3.2 Measures of Ideology

The most common measure of ideological identity is some form of self-placement along the liberal-conservative continuum (Lyon & Scheb, 1992; Holm & Robinson, 1978). While it can be argued that such continua are oversimplifications of the complexity of political ideology, they are nevertheless valid measures of ideology (van Dyke, 1995).
The terms "liberal" and "conservative" are viewed as abstract concepts that summarize a highly constrained set of attitudes (Lyon & Scheb, 1992). These attitudes color citizens’ interpretations of policy issues and provide justifications for their interpretations. Although citizens generally identify their worldview along the liberal-conservative continuum, research shows that they do not always understand the terms "liberal" and "conservative" as conceptualized by researchers (Conover and Feldman, 1981). However, their self-identification along the liberal-conservative continuum affects their political perceptions and behaviors (Levitin & Miller 1979, Holm & Robinson, 1978). The media is a successful carrier of ideology because it reaches such a huge audience. The study of the media allows us to consider and question dominant ideologies and look for the implications of different ideology and value systems (Altschull, 1995).

When studying a media text you may look for the dominant ideology present and question whose world view is represented and which group(s) and their associated world view(s) have not been represented (Croteau & Hoynes, 2014). Researchers who study the ideology of media are interested in the underlying stories about society that the media tell, the range of values that the media legitimize, and the kinds of behaviors that are deemed normal. Most popular media promote, often in subtle and even contradictory ways, perspectives that support our basic social arrangements and endorse the legitimacy of social institutions, marginalizing attitudes and behaviors that are considered to be out of the “mainstream” (Croteau & Hoynes, 2014)

2.4 The Influence of Packaging on Viewer Preference and Choice of TV Channel

On demand content across devices are reshaping the ways in which viewers access, consume and interact with audiovisual content (Wonneberger, Schoenbach, & Meurs, 2009). These multi-platform affordances and changing viewing behaviors impact on the ways that the TV networks produce, schedule, and deliver TV programs (Lotz, 2014) and associated content as has been analyzed by scholars both in an American and a British context. The uptake of internet enabled portable media platforms and devices iPhones/smartphones, laptops, PC and iPads/tablets both complicates and complements these developments Thussu (2008) conceptualizes the top-down movement of localization as the transfer of core western of commodities and technologies into a vernacular medium as a proliferation of entertainment both in television and newspaper. Packaging is intended to stimulate and arouse emotions and empathy (Uribe and Gunter, 2007). One such form of packaging is sensationalism. Grabe et al. (2001) contended that
sensationalism refers to those content features and formal features of messages that have the capability to provoke attention or arousal responses in viewers.

Live TV transmissions and the notion of liveness have always been central to the proposition and aesthetics of television (Auslander, 2008; Crisell, 2012; Levine, 2008; Caughie, 2000; Marriott, 2007). In the 1930s and 1940s, all television programs from news to drama were transmitted live (Auslander, 2008; Caughie, 2000). The introduction of recording equipment in the mid-1950s changed the technical capabilities and the aesthetics of television, as well as commissioners’ and schedulers’ ability to commission, plan, and schedule programs. With this followed a readjustment of the centrality and function of liveness and live TV.

Live transmissions remained important and relevant for certain genres, for example the immediacy and currency of news and sports mean that almost of this 97% and 92% respectively is watched live to this day (Ofcom, 2013). The value of live transmissions is also reflected in the rights of its sales value with live being 99% of linear rights (Boyle, 2015). The planning, development and resources involved in the production of other genres, such as entertainment, drama and documentary, meant that it became more efficient to prerecord (sometimes ‘as live’ and sometimes as a film) much of this material. With the development and adoption of new technology in the television production field, a new approach to packaging television news has evolved. Packaging style could therefore influence viewer evaluations of news; including how credible, objective or sensational it is perceived to be.

Postman (1985) had commented regarding the news industry that majority of the information becomes news because it is presented to the viewers in a mosaic of sound bites, clips and commentary from talking heads. It finds echo in several media studies about India such as Thussu (1998), who refers to the tabloidization of Indian news. Message variables were also found to influence credibility as it was found that aesthetic presentation or internal characteristics of messages can influence perceptions about source credibility. The television and broadcasting sector has been undergoing significant technological and structural changes, which have given consumers access to a great variety of programs and media services (Wonneberger, Schoenbach, & Meurs, 2009). This variety now dictates how viewers consume content, as it is available on new platforms and on various wireless portable devices. The success of entry into television broadcasting is moreover determined by the ability of new broadcasters to gain access to
the content that consumers demand, and to differentiate their offering from that of other broadcasters (Flanagin & Metzger, 2013). Whereas technological convergence and digitization in particular, have gradually resolved the problem of variety and channel scarcity, convergence has not, as a matter of fact, had any direct impact on the provision of content (Wonneberger, Schoenbach, & Meurs, 2009). Good captivating content is consequently become scarce, and has effectively become a new bottleneck in the broadcasting market.

In the earlier years TV had very limited content to offer to viewers. Marketers who worked in traditional mass media did not commit many resources to marketing programs. Instead, they used their own media platform to promote their products to the mass audience already watching (Farrell, 2000). Because that audience didn’t have a lot of entertainment choices, it was not unusual for a hit show to attract 30 or 40 percent of the available audience. And marketers were aggressive in pitching their audience to advertisers. When a program stopped attracting, producers or networks packaged the shows for syndication and sold them as packages for additional runs on independent local stations. After a few years, the programs became so well known that they stopped attracting an audience and were retired altogether (Farrell, 2000).

The technologies of television distribution make it cost-effective to send the same program at the same time to millions, even billions of people. Originally, cable networks were designed the same way; instead of transmitting from the local TV station, the local head end pushed programs to TV households (Aris & Cughin, 2005). Now, content lives forever, or for so long. Cheaper digital storage made it possible to store a vast array of content products, both by individual sites and collectively, the totality of Internet Web sites. Cheaper transport over the Internet made it possible to send that content on demand to any individual consumer, at a reasonable price (Aris & Cughin, 2005) and cheaper online on-demand payment processing reduced transaction costs to an acceptable level for both buyers and sellers. When consumers can choose from a more or less unlimited catalog, they choose carefully and precisely, buying exactly what they want, without compromise.

It’s true that a large proportion of sales accrue to its popular content that almost everyone sees. But, taken together, the total sales of properties extending out on the long tail will bring in as much or more revenue than the hits. Anderson (2006) argues that this trend will continue and that, over time, blockbusters will exercise a less powerful influence
over the content market. Real-time content is a special genre that must be considered in a different light from other content genres (Bonsignore, 2016). The category includes radio and television news shows, talk shows, sports, and live event coverage, traffic, weather, sports, and news and sports networks. Above all, one common characteristic of real-time content is that it must be timely to be successful (Cockburn, 2016).

Recent years have affected the markets for real-time content in very different ways. Some sectors are enjoying all-time high revenues; others are doing badly, facing severe budget and personnel cuts, and even bankruptcy (Cha, Chan-Olmsted, & Jiyoung, 2008). Generally, this content genre must be profitable in its first run because it does not sell as well along the long tail as other types of material. Real-time content may be entertainment, such as sports and talk shows, or information-based, including news, traffic, and weather (Ailawadi, Lehmann, & Scott, 2003). The entertainment formats are maintaining their profitability and popularity and even growing. Reality shows did well in 2008. And for sports, 2008 was an extraordinary year on television, radio, and online. There was a string of most-ever-watched sports events, including the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing with 4.7 billion viewers, the Super Bowl, cable broadcast, cable golf events, cable baseball games, NBA finals, NHL regular season games, and Wimbledon Finals (Farquhar, 1989).

Content companies launch brand extensions to use existing successful content to reach new audiences (Bonsignore, 2016). Extending the brand essentially means extending the market. Television news is still a widely used and important source of news, and will remain so for many older people for years to come, but if television news providers do not react to the decline in traditional television viewing and the rise of online video, in particular on-demand, distributed, and mobile viewing, they risk irrelevance (Cohen, 2002). The full implications of the changes we identify here will not be felt immediately, as current viewers will continue to watch for years to come. But the challenge needs to be recognized now and acted on if television news providers want to reinvent themselves and find an audience that increasingly prefers digital media to television, and increasingly embraces on-demand, distributed, and mobile video distributed online. The fact that no one has found the right recipe for doing online video news in this rapidly changing environment takes nothing away from the urgency of adapting to it (Croteau & Hoynes, 2014). Television as a platform may well be about to face disruption on a scale
comparable to what printed newspapers have experienced over the last decade. Television news providers face this transition with much strength, including well-known brands. Television news providers who wish to reach younger audiences, adapt to this changing environment, and remain relevant will therefore need to continue to invest in innovation and experimentation, and can learn much from established insights into organizational traits that enable innovation in digital news (Wirth, Hofer, & Schramm, 2012). Television entertainment has embraced the rise of digital media, and the best programming seems to thrive in a world where on-demand, socially distributed, and mobile video viewing is more and more important (Cushion & Sambrook, 2016). For younger people, beyond-the-box video accounts for half of all viewing in technologically advanced markets like the UK and the US (Meeker, 2011).

The most popular talent shows, reality programs, and major sports events continue to be must-see appointment viewing for millions of people of all ages, whether they watch on an old-fashioned television set or stream them via any number of connected devices, smart TVs, smart phones, tablets, personal computers, set-top boxes, gaming consoles, etc. (Lotz, 2014) Younger people especially seem increasingly indifferent to television news, although they embrace many forms of online video. In the United States, Twitch, the Amazon-owned website for watching online streams of video games, has a prime-time audience that rivals major cable news channels like MSNBC and CNN, and it attracts many younger viewers (Farrell, 2000). Television news, meanwhile, reaches a shrinking number of older viewers whose media habits are increasingly different from the population at large, and especially from the media habits of those who have grown up with digital Media.

Technological developments and audience preferences have driven a growth in viewing ‘beyond the box’ and a long-term decline in television news viewing (Nexstar Broadcasting Group, 2015). While major television channels are still pulling in large audiences, these audiences are eroding and ageing while a range of new entrants seek to pick up younger audiences who continue to turn away from traditional television news and embrace digital media (Wonneberger, Schoenbach, & Meurs, 2009). Traditional television viewing is still strong, but no longer as stable as it once was. This concerns television generally, but also television news specifically. As traditional television viewing overall erodes, television news will benefit less from lead-in programming and
will see its own audience shrink faster, and television news providers will have to develop new offers and new strategies (Taneja, Webster, Malthouse, & Ksiazek, 2012).

2.5 Chapter Summary

The literature reviewed in the chapter has provided an insightful understanding of consumer based brand equity. The impact of the factors ideology, credibility and ideology on consumer purchasing patterns has been authenticated with reference to past studies. Successful branding practices generate customer-based brand equity (CBBE). Consumers will react more favorably toward the well thought packaging, ideology and credibility of a TV station than they would toward a generic product in the same product category. The next chapter provides a detailed description of the methods and procedures that the study utilized to develop its research design, select a sample, collect and analyze data.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents the research methodology that was used in the study. It describes the research design, the population, sampling design and sample frame. It also presents the data collection methods and the data collection instrument.

3.2 Research Design

This study applies descriptive research design. Descriptive research design is a scientific method which involves observing and describing the behavior of a subject without influencing it in any way (Shuttleworth, 2008). This research design was suitable for the study because it sought to understand the behavior of viewers and why they prefer to watch a specific channel and the factors that influence their choice. It describes the current state of the sample population from a variety of households, their characteristics and behavior. Information was collected from these household through data collection conducted through a survey. It investigates the relationship between three variables that influence the consumers’ choice. The study looks at how ideology, credibility and packaging influence a viewer’s preference of a Television channel.

3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population

A population is the total collection of elements about which inferences are made and refers to all possible cases, which are of interest for a study (Sekaran, 2003). The target population of this study was from 985,016 households in Nairobi. Residents targeted were from households within residential areas who own televisions and watch television.

3.3.2 Sampling Design

3.3.2.1 Sampling Frame

The sampling frame comprised urban residents from households in Nairobi City County.

3.3.2.2 Sampling Technique

Cluster sampling technique was used to generate the sample size. Cluster sampling (also known as one-stage cluster sampling) is a technique in which clusters of participants that represent the population are identified and included in the sample (Jackson, 2011).
Cluster sampling involves identification of cluster of participants representing the population and their inclusion in the sample group. The city was divided into five geographical zones and also based on the number of households in the peri-urban areas throughout the city. Within each sampled unit, the subjects was chosen by employing simple random sampling procedures whereby the study relied on computer program to randomly select individuals to participate in the study. Probability sampling was used to select randomly so that each element of the study population had equal chance of being sampled.

3.3.3 Sample Size

A sample is a small representation or a subset of the entire population (Welman, Kruger, Mitchell, & Huysamen, 2005). Researchers such as (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001) state that the sample size for descriptive studies should be between 10% - 20% of the population. The cross-sectional survey included 145 final responses which were used for analysis.

Table 3.1: Sample Size Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Population Strata</th>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Total Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Langata /Mombasa Road</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Westlands</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Eastlands</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Thika Road</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Central Business District-CBD</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>185</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Data Collection Methods

Cohen (2000) defines research instruments as tools by which research data is collected. Data collection was done by use of questionnaires.

3.4.1 Type of Data

The type of data collected is qualitative. Qualitative data describes qualities or characteristics. It is collected using questionnaires, interviews, or observation, and frequently appears in narrative form (Macalester, 2018). A standardized questionnaire was developed to collect data from the respondents about ideology, credibility, and packaging based on earlier studies Research Procedures. The questions were both Multichotomous and Dichotomous. A five-point Likert-scale questionnaire (strongly agree, agree, neutral Disagree, strongly disagree) was used. The questionnaire was
divided into five sections. Section one of the questionnaire covered general information from the households (gender, age bracket occupation and marital status). Section two assessed frequency of watching TV, the time and Motive of watching and Mode of watching TV. Section three sought to understand responses on the three variables; Credibility, Ideology and Packaging and their effect on viewer preference of the TV channel they watch.

Interviews were administered to a randomly selected public (TV viewers) within CBD. The interview had both structured questions and open-ended questions. Structured questions were used to get specific answers from respondents. Open-ended questions enabled the respondents to express their views on the topic of the study freely and openly. This session enabled the researcher to probe the respondents further to get an in-depth response and also clarify unclear items relating to the study objectives. This method was used because according to Owens (2005), face-to-face interview generally yield the highest cooperation and thus provided in-depth data which was not possible to get using questionnaires.

**3.5 Research Procedures**

In undertaking this research, the research process and design were also anchored on the theoretical underpinnings of the study aimed at gaining a holistic inquiry on the study. Descriptive research design was geared towards finding the extent to which the study variables on consumer based brand equity and factors influencing viewer preference of specific local television stations in Nairobi City. Descriptive research design was chosen because it was seen as an efficient method of determining the relationships between the study variables. Moreover, it allowed the use of mixed research methodology that combines elements of qualitative and quantitative methods.

The research approach that was followed for the purposes of this research was the inductive one. According to this approach, researchers begin with specific observation, which are used to produce generalized theories and conclusions drawn from the research. The reasons for occupying the inductive approach was that it takes into account the context where research effort is active, while it is also most appropriate for small samples that produce qualitative data. However, the main weakness of the inductive approach is that it produces generalized theories and conclusions based only on a small number of
observations, thereby the reliability of research results being under question (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

The researcher mapped out the five zones and held meetings with research assistants so as to gain understanding of the objectives of the study. The research assistants also participated in pilot study to get the feeling on the ground; after which the researcher reviewed the instruments to determine validity. During the actual study, the researcher and assistants came in touch with selected household participants and asked them to participate in the research after explaining the nature and the scope of the study.

3.5.1 Reliability of the Instruments

According to Saunders (2007), reliability refers to the consistency of measurement and is frequently assessed using the test-retest reliability method. Reliability is increased by including many similar items on a measure, by testing a diverse sample of individuals and by using uniform testing procedures. The researcher relied on a pilot study by randomly selecting a pilot group of 10 individuals to test the reliability of the research instruments. The pilot study was done to give the researcher the opportunity to test the reliability and sharpen the instruments in terms of content and wordings; review the format of the instruments and identify and correct ambiguity. The reliability of the instruments was determined through the calculation of a correlation coefficient between the first administration and the second (Douley, 2004).

3.5.2 Validity of the Instruments

Validity refers to the quality of a data-gathering instrument or the procedure that enables it to measure what it is supposed to measure (Best & Kahn, 2001). For the validity of this research instruments, the researcher used content validity by taking this research instrument to experts in the Chandaria School of Business department at United States International University. Their valuable comments, corrections, suggestions, assisted in the validation of the instruments.

3.5.3 Administration of the Instruments

Quantitative data was obtained from questionnaires which were self-administered whereby respondents were asked to answer the questions themselves. To facilitate the process, the researcher trained three research assistants who facilitated the data collection process. The questionnaires were hand-delivered. According to White (2000), questionnaires generate data in a very systematic fashion. Questionnaires were used in the study because they
produce quick results; they can be completed at the respondents’ convenience and also offer great assurance of anonymity among respondents. The face to face interviews were organized with respondents at a convenient time and place so as to accord both the respondents and the interviewer the opportunity to create rapport and facilitate the process of interviewing to be done in a conducive atmosphere.

3.5.4 Ethical Considerations

The current study was subject to certain ethical issues. To begin with, all participants reported their written acceptance regarding their participation in the research, through a signed Consent and Briefing Letter. At the same time, sample members were asked to sign a Debriefing and Withdrawal Letter. The aim of both letters was to reassure participants that their participation in the research is voluntary and that they were free to withdraw from it at any point and for any reason.

In addition, participants were fully informed regarding the objectives of the study, while they were reassured that their answers were treated as confidential and used only for academic purposes and only for the purposes of the particular research. Except from the above, participants were not harmed or abused, both physically and psychologically, during the conduction of the research. The researcher respected the individual participants’ freedom to decline participation or to withdraw from the research study at any time. Codes were used and no names of respondents included in the research instruments.

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

Data analysis was first undertaken by checking the gathered raw data for completeness, usefulness and accuracy. Qualitative and quantitative analysis was employed in the research. Analysis was based on descriptive and inferential statistics.

For quantitative analysis, the questionnaires were first cleaned, standardized and entered into SPSS for analysis. The package was used because it accommodates a large number of variables at the same time and reduces detailed laborious calculations by hand. Generalization was drawn in line with the research objectives. Under descriptive statistics, frequencies and percentages were used to describe the data sets and results were presented in tables and charts. Under the inferential statistics the researcher used correlation analysis and Chi Square.
Qualitative data from the interview schedules were examined so as to identify any errors and exclude or correct them so as to assure completeness and accuracy. This involved a critical assessment of each response and examining it using thematic interpretation of key themes; which were then presented in direct quotes within the project report. Content and thematic analysis of the information from interviews was undertaken to arrive at conclusions.

3.7 Chapter Summary

Descriptive research design was used in this study; the behavior of TV viewers from households is studied to understand why they prefer to watch a specific TV channel and the factors that influence their choice. It describes the current state of the sample population from a variety of households, their characteristics and behavior The target population of this study was 985,016 households in Nairobi out of which. Cluster sampling technique was used to generate the sample size, Data collection was done by use of questionnaires with a final sample size of 145 respondents.. Information was collected from these household through a survey. Ideology, credibility and packaging were the variables used to determine their influence on a viewer’s preference of a Television channel.the study has applied Data analysis technique used is a qualitative approach using SPSS tool. The next chapter provides the study’s findings, analysis and discussion based on the study objectives.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of results, discussion and interpretation of the findings of the study. This study derived data from two main sources, namely; primary and secondary data. The primary data comprised field research, using questionnaires.

The total number of targeted respondents was 145. In the field research, the questionnaires received 185 respondents. Out of this number, 120 responded. With respect to study, the response achieved was 82.8% of the target. Figure 4.1 shows the response rate for the research.

![Response Rate Chart]

Figure 4.1: Response Rate

4.2 General Information

The general information of interest in the study focused on; gender, age bracket, occupation, monthly income range and marital status. These factors are considered important as they were employed as moderators to the study's objective on factors influencing viewer preference of a TV Station over others. The findings are discussed in the sub-sections below:
4.2.1 Gender of Respondents

The study sought to establish the gender of respondents. Respondents were thus asked to indicate their gender. The results in Figure 4.2 indicate that 52% of respondents were male, while 48% were females. The gender aspect had a key implication on the study, given that mass media still perpetuates gender stereotypes. Moreover, due to its great influence on people’s attitudes, television can create a certain image of reality, which is consistent with the policy of the dominant group.

![Gender Distribution](image)

**Figure 4.2: Gender**

Information gathered from interviews conducted with household women suggests that the modest connection between female gender and other-centred viewing styles may also reflect the woman's family role. One female respondent noted that: “As the caretaker of the family, I watch TV more than my husband does; and this helps me as a woman and also as a mother to understand various issues from health to kitchen and family matters”. From the foregoing, it is clear that gender differences are indicators that could explain choice of TV programs.

4.2.2 Age Bracket

The study sought to find out the respondents’ age. Data on the same were collected, analyzed and the findings presented in Table 4.1. The results in indicate that majority (70%) were in the age bracket of 18-34, while 18% were aged between 35-44 years. Only 4% were aged above 55 with 8% aged between 45-54 years. The age distribution indicator highlights the essence of a generation gap between younger and older viewers.
In the modern world, television is considered to be a major source of entertainment and learning for many, especially the young. All television programs, especially news, documentaries and cartoon animations, affect people of all ages in different ways.

Table 4.1: Respondents Age Bracket

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age bracket</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-34</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above 55</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.3 Respondents’ Occupation

The study sought to establish the occupation of respondents. Data on this question were collected, analyzed. From Table 4.2, occupation of the respondents varied considerably. Majority (59.2%) were students, 24.2% were business people and self-employed while 13.3% were employed. Only 3.3% were retired. Majority of respondents were students (59.2%); and while 24.2% reported to be in business; occupation and age bracket appeared to also reflect the preference of TV and programs. Ideally, occupation would influence the time and type of programs; for home-makers and employed, occupation would also influence frequency of watching television.

Table 4.2: Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business/self employed</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>59.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.4 Monthly Income Range

The study sought to find out the respondents ‘monthly income range. Results are presented in Figure 4.3. Results shows majority (51.1%) had a monthly income below 15,000 Kenya shillings. This could be attributed to the fact that majority were students and had no income at all. The introduction of digital pay TV makes income a factor in the study. Studies have demonstrated lower-income families spend more time watching TV and using electronic devices than those in more affluent homes. Income is thus an
important determinant of well-being because it influences people's attitudes, experiences, and exposure to several other variables.

**Figure 4.3 Monthly Income**

**4.3 General Aspects on Viewership**

Several aspects on consumer based brand equity were assessed to explore factors influencing viewer preference of specific local television stations. The analysis and discussions are given in the sections below:

**4.3.1 Frequency of Watching TV**

The study sought to establish respondents’ frequency of watching TV. Results are presented in Figure 4.4. Results show 11.7% said always, 35.8% noted most often, 48.3% said sometimes while 4.2 noted never. Results show majority noted watching TV sometimes and most often; which could be attributed to advanced technology; mass media have penetrated almost every corner of the world.
The study further sought to establish preferred time of watching TV. Results of the analysis are reported in Figure 4.5. Results in Figure 4.5 shows 4.2% indicated mornings, 7.5% said mid-morning, 26.7% said afternoon, 35.8% noted they preferred watching TV in the evening while 25.8% noted late evening. The study shows majority of respondents watch TV in evening/late evening.

Although different groups have different favorites, results indicate majority watch TV in the evenings; which could be attributed to work schedules. After work and prime time news in the evening hours; the implication being that a lot of people are watching TV after work. Nevertheless, people are likely to watch TV at their places of work, in offices and businesses which may not vary much by the day. Given that the study was undertaken at a time when World Cup was in progress, the underlying assumption is that, majority were heavily engaged in television's sports fare.
The study sought to find out various aspects of TV viewership using internet technologies and how they influence viewer preference of a television station. From the findings, 36% noted always watching TV online, 28% said most often, 22% said sometimes while 14% said never. On whether respondents used internet to catch up on missed programs, 30% said always, 42% most often, 24% sometimes while 4% said never. In addition, 22% said they always download TV shows to watch, 38% said most often, 27.5% sad sometimes while 12.5% said never. Regarding watching TV on mobile phones, 18% said always, 34% most often, 26% sometimes while 22% said never. This realization also takes us to another noteworthy finding of this study, which is the difference of television and internet as news media. Nowadays people have the access to so many Medias and every media is covering international and national information differently. Through internet, the audience has the accessibility of Facebook, WhatsApp and YouTube which are covering important information as well as they have become a source of entertainment.
Table 4.3: Online TV Viewership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Most often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you watch TV online</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you use internet to catch up missed programs</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you download TV shows to watch</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you watch TV on your mobile</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.4 Main Reason for Watching TV

To establish the main reasons for watching TV, different aspect were assessed and analysis of the responses presented as shown in Figure 4.6. The result shows different reasons for watching TV. Entertainment (37.5%) and current affairs (36.7%) scored high. In addition, respondents cited aid in work (9.2%), relaxation (12.5%) and aid in academics/studies (2%). Majority of the people watch television for pleasure seeking. TV viewing helps the viewers to be acquainted with latest in various fields, be it sports, academics, politics etc. Knowledge about the rich heritage of various nations can be obtained from television viewership. Given the demographic data on age groups, the majority of youth population could explain why TV viewing was one of the most common leisure (entertainment) activities among the respondents.

![Figure 4.6: Main Reasons for Watching TV](image-url)
4.3.5 Motivating Factors to Watch TV

When asked to state the motivating factors to watch TV, information on current affairs/new had the highest rating as very important at 35.6%. Relaxation/happiness/satisfaction had the highest level of rating as important at 43.6%. Education/inspire on creativity had similar rate of importance at 43.6%. Others were as indicated on Table 4.3.

Table 4.4: Motivating Factors to Watch TV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aid in studies/work</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information on current affairs/ News</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation/ Happiness/ Satisfaction</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/inspire creativity</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.6 Preferred TV Content

Further, the study sought respondents’ views on their preferred programs content. The results are given in Figure 4.7 below. From the results, majority (63%) cited international content as compared to local content (37%). The implications for this could be attributed to individual and structural factors of television viewing simultaneously.

![Figure 4.7: Type and Preferred Program Content](image-url)
4.4 Descriptive Information

4.4.1 Response on Credibility of Television Station

The first objective of the study sought to determine how credibility influences viewer preference of a television station. Results of the analysis are shown in Table 4.5. Accuracy of information (53.8%), fairness (42%), consistency (37%), and source of information (52.9%) were cited as very important factors that highlight viewers’ perceptions to choose a particular program.

Table 4.1: Credibility Aspects Influencing Viewer Preference of TV Station

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy information</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Bias/Fairness</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-presented/Expertise</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehensiveness (Adequate information)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source information</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Information gathered from the interviews conducted with some media personalities and viewers (public) suggest that the midst negative charges against TV stations like media bias, sensationalism of news and issues, wrong prioritization, and other criticisms, credibility emerged as the major issue that ought to be addressed in news operations. On the subject of biasness and accuracy, an interviewee suggested, broadly, that there is a recognized demand for trustworthiness one main dimension affecting source credibility. The perceived source credibility of a newscast’s on-air talent could persuade viewers to stay with a station or cause them to turn the channel. In addition, source credibility, since the underpinning notion of this theoretical perspective is that people are more likely to be persuaded to use or believe a message if the sender is perceived as credible. Looking specifically into the variables that affect source credibility on television, the study findings show trustworthiness and comprehensiveness were found to influence perceptions of credibility and consequently viewer preference of a television station.
4.4.2 Response on Ideology of Television Station

The second objective sought to determine how ideology influences viewer preference of a television station. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.6. From the results, TV station content (52.9%) was rated the most important factor in ideology. In addition, TV overall branding (40.2%), presenter's competence (41.2%), news content and coverage (47.1%) scored high as very important to viewers. Specifically, competence represents the perceived capability of news product creation (such as personality traits of intelligent, honest, reliable, traditional, analytical, and technical). The second personality dimension, timeliness in news content and coverage, depicts the up-to-date, contemporary, and experienced coverage.

Table 4.2: Ideology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TV overall branding (Values of the station)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV station overall content (Programs)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenters competence</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News content and coverage (Political vs Social)</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Program Schedule e.g. timing of the programs,</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>36.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of the programs, line up</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source information</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.3 Response on Packaging of Television Station

The third objective sought to determine how packaging influences viewer preference of a television station. Results were analyzed and results presented in Table 4.7. Regarding content aired, 40.3% said very important, 37% sated important while 5.9% said somewhat important. Language used was also cited as very important (46.2%), with 37.8% saying important, 11.8% neutral while 2.5% somewhat important. Regarding number of
commercial breaks in the programs, 28.6% said very important, 18.5% neutral while 19.3% said not important.

**Table 4.7 Station Packaging and Viewer Preference**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EX1 Language program of the</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX2 Interactivity with the station</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX3 Timing of the program</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX4 Number of commercial breaks in the programs</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX5 Presenters of the program</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX6 The guest/panel members of the</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX7 Preference of other students</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.4.4 Preference of Television Station

On the preference of the TV station, Current affairs were rated as very important at 42% similar to news coverage at 47.1%. Other items ranked highly as important were; Educational as important at 36.1%, Entertainment as important at 35.3%, sports as important at 25.2% and Spiritual as important at 32.8%. Daily series was rated highly as neutral at 34.5% similar to Reality shows as neutral at 26.9% movie as neutral at 25.2%, business at neutral at 26.4% and Music programs at 27.7%. Table 4.8 presents these findings.
Table 4.3: Preference of Television Station

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Not Important</th>
<th>Somewhat Important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Current affairs</td>
<td>4.0420</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>3.7647</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>3.7899</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>3.7143</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>31.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily series</td>
<td>3.2521</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reality shows</td>
<td>3.0084</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Music programs</td>
<td>3.2941</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News coverage</td>
<td>4.0756</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movies</td>
<td>3.3529</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports</td>
<td>3.0840</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>3.2393</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5. Inferential Analysis

Several tests were done to answer the research objectives. They were exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structure equation model (SEM). The results were as follow.

4.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

The first table on the EFA was the Kaiser Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) of Sampling Adequacy. KMO determined the sampling adequacy of the variable on the factors. The KMO value was .816 which depicted acceptable degree of sampling adequacy. The Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant (p<.005) with Chi-Square value of 823.789 as shown on Table 4.9.

Table 4.4: KMO and Bartlett's Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>.816</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>823.789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Df</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 4.5: Total Variance Explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Initial Eigen values</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings(^a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
<td>Total % of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.048</td>
<td>29.696</td>
<td>5.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.023</td>
<td>17.783</td>
<td>3.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.467</td>
<td>8.627</td>
<td>1.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.155</td>
<td>6.793</td>
<td>1.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td>5.016</td>
<td>67.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.790</td>
<td>4.650</td>
<td>72.566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>.720</td>
<td>4.232</td>
<td>76.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>.598</td>
<td>3.517</td>
<td>80.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>.588</td>
<td>3.459</td>
<td>83.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>.520</td>
<td>3.060</td>
<td>86.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>.467</td>
<td>2.746</td>
<td>89.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>.377</td>
<td>2.218</td>
<td>91.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>1.968</td>
<td>93.764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>.315</td>
<td>1.852</td>
<td>95.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>.297</td>
<td>1.747</td>
<td>97.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>.259</td>
<td>1.522</td>
<td>98.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>.189</td>
<td>1.114</td>
<td>100.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

\(a\). When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

#### 4.5.3 Pattern Matrix

The four component extracted were presented based on the each factor as presented on Table 4.11. Using the Principle component analysis (PCA), the communality measure for each of the variable and the factor loading was more than 0.5 showing a stronger loading and factorability of each factor. The factor loading were; credibility (CR), Ideology (PQ), packaging (EX) and preference (PR).
Table 4.6: Communalities and Pattern Matrix\textsuperscript{a}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>PR</th>
<th>PQ</th>
<th>EX</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CR4</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR2</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR1</td>
<td>.772</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR7</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR6</td>
<td>.719</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR3</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR9</td>
<td></td>
<td>.828</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR3</td>
<td></td>
<td>.786</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR5</td>
<td></td>
<td>.763</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR6</td>
<td></td>
<td>.737</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR7</td>
<td></td>
<td>.678</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQ5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQ6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.760</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQ1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.632</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.543</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
\textsuperscript{a} Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

\textbf{4.5.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.}

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run to test statistical assumption; factor loading, reliability, validity and correlation. IBM AMOS version 24 was used as shown on figure 4.8.
Figure 4.2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model for Study Variables
4.5.5 CFA Model Output

The model fit statistics for the CFA was tested. All the measurement passed the required threshold hence the CFA model fit the data adequately as presented on table 4.12.

Table 4.7: CFA Model Output

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>PCLOSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>120.509</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1.242</td>
<td>0.964</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Between 1 and 3</td>
<td>&gt;0.90</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.6 Construct and Convergent Reliability

As indicated on Table 4.13, construct reliability was tested using the composite and Cronbach’s alpha tests. The composite and Cronbach’s alpha were above .7 indicating that all the variables in the study attained construct reliability. The convergent reliability was tested using Average Variance Extracted (AVE); the AVE measurement was above .5 indicating the measurement scales revealed satisfactory measurement of convergent validity.

Table 4.13: Construct and Convergent Reliability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Composite reliability</th>
<th>Cronbach's alpha</th>
<th>Average Extracted (AVE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>0.884</td>
<td>0.870</td>
<td>0.516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>0.578</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQ</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX</td>
<td>0.766</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.7 Correlation Coefficient

From the path analysis output, the correlation matrix shows CR was not correlated with PR. All remaining independent variables were correlated to each other and also to the dependent variable as indicated on Table 4.14.
Table 4.14: Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>PR</td>
<td>.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>PQ</td>
<td>.328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>PQ</td>
<td>.514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQ</td>
<td>EX</td>
<td>.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e10</td>
<td>e11</td>
<td>.340</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6 Structural Equation Model (SEM)

The SEM output that fits the model was presented on figure 4.9

Figure 4.3: Structural Model for the Relationship of the Study Variables
### 4.6.1 Model Fits for Structural Equation Model

The model fit measure was taken as presented on Table 4.15. All the measurement for the fitness passed the required threshold indicating the SEM values loaded excellently.

#### Table 4.15 Model Fits for Structural Equation Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>PCLOSE</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>165.295</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.653</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Between 1 and 3</td>
<td>&gt;0.90</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.7 Regression Weights

#### 4.7.1 The Influence of Credibility on Viewer Preference of a Television Station

The path coefficient for the relationship between CR and PR on the local television stations was negative and significant at the 0.05 level ($\beta$ = 0.335, T-value = 2.380, p<0.05) as indicated on Table 4.15 and figure 4.9. The negative relationship indicates that one unit increase in CR reduces PR by 0.335 on the local television stations.

#### 4.7.2 The Influence of Ideology on Viewer Preference of a Television Station

The path coefficient for the relationship between PE and PR on the local television stations was positive and significant at the 0.05 level ($\beta$ = 0.512, T-value = 3.211, p<0.05) as indicated on Table 4.15 and figure 4.9. The positive relationship indicates that one unit increase in PQ increases PR by 0.512 on the local television stations.

#### 4.7.3 The Influence of Packaging on Viewer Preference of a Television Station

The path coefficient for the relationship between EX and PR on the local television stations was positive and significant at the 0.05 level ($\beta$ = 0.805, T-value = 3.505, p<0.05) as indicated on Table 4.16 and figure 4.9. The positive relationship indicates that one unit increase in EX increases PR by 0.805 on the local television stations.
Table 4.16: Regression Weights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unstandardized Estimate</th>
<th>Standardized Estimates</th>
<th>S.Error.</th>
<th>T-value.</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PR &lt;- CR</td>
<td>-.335</td>
<td>-.221</td>
<td>.141</td>
<td>-2.380</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR &lt;- PQ</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>.372</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>3.211</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR &lt;- EX</td>
<td>.805</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.230</td>
<td>3.505</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8 Predictive Relevance of the Model

The quality of the structural model can be assessed by $R^2$ which shows the variance on the degree at which independent variables affect the dependent variable. Based on the results reported in figure 4.9, the $R^2$ was found to be 0.41 indicating that CR, PQ and EX can account for 41% of the variance in viewer preference of a television station.

4.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has explored the analysis of findings based on research objectives. The preferred time to watch TV was mostly evening; with main reasons for watching TV being entertainment, current affairs, relaxation. Education scored low. International content was preferred over local content, with a growing trend of internet usage in TV programs and mobile use in programs. In the context of consumer based brand equity, the results show consistency, accuracy and fairness are strong predictors of credibility. Perceived quality emanated from, clarity (reception of TV station signal); overall branding, presenters competence and news content and coverage. The way a news program is packaged and presented also offers grounds for personality development. From this perspective, it is noteworthy that many television station brands are associated with distinctive audience profiles. The next chapter provides a summary, discussion, conclusion and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary, discussion, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research based on the results of the study. The findings were thematically based on the objectives of the study.

5.2 Summary

The general purpose of this study was to investigate factors influencing viewer preference of specific local television stations. The specific objectives of the study were as follows: To determine how credibility influences viewer preference of a television station, to determine how ideology influences viewer preference of a television station and lastly to determine how packaging influences viewer preference of a television station.

The study was based on descriptive research design to explore the variables. This design provided an opportunity for the researcher to collect systematic in-depth information required, summarize, present and interpret the same for the purpose of clarification. The study was done in Nairobi County and utilized simple random sampling techniques. The study targeted all households in Nairobi who own televisions. A sample size of 145 was considered. The choice of the sample size determination is supported by determination of the sample size was done using a mathematical formula developed by Mora and Kloet (2010). A cross-sectional survey comprised 120 final responses that were used for analysis. Local station brands were chosen as media vehicles as the city has the highest viewership.

The study used qualitative data collection methods to collect data. Questionnaires were used to collect data. The questionnaire was administered to households groups. The study uses a Descriptive, cross sectional methodology to define the characteristics of the population and their behavior towards viewership. Primary data for the Study has been gathered from households in Nairobi. Sample was selected using the simple random sampling method and data was collected during the period from 9th and 23rd of July 2018. The target population of this study was 985,016 households in Nairobi. Information was collected from these household through a survey Cluster sampling technique was used to generate the sample size. Data collection was done by use of questionnaires.
Ideology, credibility and packaging were the variables used to determine their influence on a viewer’s preference of a Television channel. The Data analysis technique used is a qualitative approach using SPSS tool.

The preferred time to watch TV was mostly evening; with main reasons for watching TV being entertainment, current affairs, relaxation. Education score low. International content was preferred over local content, with a growing trend of internet usage in TV programs and mobile use in programs. In the context of consumer based brand equity, the results show consistency, accuracy and fairness are strong predictors of credibility. Perceived quality emanated from, clarity (reception of TV station signal); overall branding, presenters competence and news content and coverage. The way a news program is packaged and presented also offers grounds for personality development. From this perspective, it is noteworthy that many television news brands are associated with distinctive audience profiles.

On the credibility, the results of the analysis showed; Accuracy of information (53.8), fairness (42%), consistency (37%), and source of information (52.9%) were cited as very important factors that highlight viewers’ perceptions to choose a particular program. On the SEM output, the path coefficient for the relationship between CR and PR on the local television stations was negative and significant at the 0.05 level ($\beta$= -0.335, $T$-value =2.380, $p<0.05$) as indicated on Table 4.15 and figure 4.9. The negative relationship indicates that one unit increase in CR reduces PR by -0.335 on the local television stations.

On the ideology, the result showed clarity (reception of TV station signal) (52.9%) was rated the most important factor in ideology. In addition, TV overall branding (40.2%), presenter’s competence (41.2%), news content and coverage (47.1%) scored high as very important to viewers. The SEM output showed, the path coefficient for the relationship between PE and PR on the local television stations was positive and significant at the 0.05 level ($\beta$= 0.512, $T$-value =3.211, $p<0.05$) as indicated on Table 4.15 and figure 4.9. The positive relationship indicates that one unit increase in PQ increases PR by 0.512 on the local television stations.

On the packaging, the result was: content aired, 40.3% said very important, 37% said important while 5.9% said somewhat important. Language used was also cited as very important (46.2%), with 37.8% saying important, 11.8% neutral while 2.5% somewhat important. Regarding number of commercial breaks in the programs, 28.6% said very
important, 18.5% neutral while 19.3% said not important. The SEM output showed, the path coefficient for the relationship between EX and PR on the local television stations was positive and significant at the 0.05 level (βeta= 0.805, T-value =3.505, p<0.05) as indicated on Table 4.15 and figure 4.9. The positive relationship indicates that one unit increase in EX increases PR by 0.805 on the local television stations.

5.3 Discussion of Results

5.3.1 The Influence of Credibility on Viewer Preference of a Television Station

The first research objective determines how credibility influences viewer preference of a television station. Both the within and cross case analyses indicate that credibility of television stations greatly influence viewership; and consequently preference of television station. Specifically, respondents rated trustworthiness, accuracy of information, biasness and consistency as very important indicators. Hence, the level of preference increases with the emphasis given to processes and practices towards credibility of the local television stations.

Results of this study agree with recent analysis by Lee (2017) indicating that credibility and trust is examined through its relationship to station identity and audience construction. According to Lee, perceptions of anchor trustworthiness are the key to viewer loyalty decisions and station identity. Therefore, the results of this study this point to the key role of institutional needs for trust within the TV stations and the expressive standards which must be adhered to. While the anchors’ authentic expressions play an important role to the construction of trust and necessary reflections of both station and viewer uniqueness, the findings of this study demonstrate well-presented experts as anchors who cultivate professionalism add to the credibility component and thus are likely to win the hearts and influence viewer preference of a television station. Nevertheless, results from the interviews also highlighted key gaps: within the context of anchors switching from station to another station; that viewer loyalty patterns appear to undergo transformations, and such factors also play a role in changing expectations that are prompted by anchors that continually negotiate the trustworthiness of their image with the audience.

Homes are getting more and more equipped with different media appliances (Van Rompaey & Roe, 2004). However, despite media’s accessibility and utilization as sources of information, people do not scrupulously trust and believe everything they get from the
television. These increasingly sceptical views of the television information may be a reason for the varying responses on frequency of watching television. Ideally, credibility ratings are likely to influence viewership. On this, media scholars have long maintained that television viewing is a two-stage process in which audiences first decide to watch television and then choose what to watch (Webster et al., 2006). Generally, the decision to watch television is known to be influenced by structural factors, whereas the decision to choose what to watch is guided by a combination of individuals’ preferences, available content options, and program scheduling (Cooper & Tang, 2009).

Some recent studies on news report credibility and media credibility produced conflicting results. These conflicting findings were attributed to institutional interests, political and social agendas, and researchers’ use of an array of theoretical orientations (Pornpitakpan, 2009). The credibility of the news itself, its quality, how it is constructed and presented are major criteria mass media audiences consider in their evaluation of mediated news. Mass media audiences do not only focus on the image of the reporters/anchors presenting the news, or the media used, but are also particular about the packaging and elements of the news itself. This goes to show that mass media consumers are fastidious. In this regard, mass media practitioners should guard themselves. It should be noted that some respondents in this study were university students. Students are presumed to be more adaptable to the current trend, pop culture and to the “commodities” mass media offer than older generations. Students should not be underestimated in their ability to evaluate news and news media but considering their ages and assumed preferences, they are supposed to be more content of the media than other age groups.

While there is an alarming downfall of the credibility of mass media, the advent of new media may salvage the situation. One factor worthy to note, as indicated previously on internet usage in TV watching, is that internet’s enhanced capabilities in presenting the news, incorrect information as well as errors due to instantaneous postings have assaulted the credibility of online news. Flanagin and Metzger (2013) observed that much media credibility research has ignored online news and that the bulk of research was conducted prior to online news development. There are differences, these scholars have argued, between online news and other more-established news media such as television, radio, and newspapers. Studies consistently show that media use is the most consistent predictor of credibility.
Specifically, the more people use a source, the more credible they judge it to be. Moreover, the more satisfaction they gain from a source, the more they use it. Although the relationship between media use and credibility is reciprocal, the strongest support is for the influence of media use on credibility, because studies indicate that credibility is largely a function of users’ preference for and familiarity with a medium (Metzger et al., 2013). In the context of consumer based brand equity, the results show consistency, accuracy and fairness are strong predictors of credibility because the more experience users have with a medium, the stronger their ability to judge its credibility. Studies also indicate direct effects of credibility on public opinion, not moderated by information processing (Van Der Heide & Lim, 2015). Credibility’s direct effects on opinions may be greater than the effects of media use. Scholars have increasingly employed credibility as an independent variable predicting public opinion because credibility is a measure of information quality; credible information satisfies user’s needs and is considered more relevant in making decisions than non-credible information (Johnson & Kaye, 2014).

5.3.2 The Influence of Ideology on Viewer Preference of a Television Station

The second specific research objective was to examine the role of ideology in influencing viewer preference of a television station. The study findings concur with recent evidence from Mintz (2015) on the role of ideology in shaping varying audience profiles, especially for political news. From the results, news coverage and current affairs scored high as very important for TV viewers.

However, it was observed that the ideological stance of each TV station changed over time; with implications on viewer preferences. From the responses, it was established that viewers would tend to ignore TV stations that don’t set their ideology where it ought to be; hence minimizing their viewership. These findings are consistent with the results of previous empirical studies in USA that address viewer preferences to political slant in news reports by Gentzkow and Shapiro (2010). Moreover, findings agree with a study by Durante and Knight (2014) in Italy showing ideology shaped viewer preference and an influenced the number of rightist viewers of public TV channels increased and that the leftist viewers who originally watched public TV shifted to other TV channels that were more leftist.

When it comes to the viewing environments, if a viewer subscribes to cable or satellite television and has access to a multichannel viewing environment, he or she is more likely
to spend more time with television (Webster, Phalen, & Lichty, 2006). Previous research that emphasizes the role of structural factors has examined various contextual and programming-related factors that influence television viewing (Wonneberger, Schoenbach, & van Meurs, 2009). These factors include viewing environments (e.g., other media use), programming strategies (e.g., lead-in and lead-out), and viewer availability. On the contrary, we expect the opposite tendency will be observed regarding Internet use because television will compete with the Internet given the limited time available to viewers or functional overlaps between television and the Internet, because of the media substitution hypothesis (Lee & Leung, 2008).

Wonneberger et al., (2011) tested motivational and situational determinants of television news viewing. Although their findings are limited to news consumption, it suggests that viewing context such as social viewing or audience availability is more influential than viewing motivations, and individual factors such as viewers’ interest in news and politics have a moderating effect on the situational factors. In a recent study, Taneja and Viswanathan (2014) examined factors that influence exposure to different TV content genres in a multichannel environment. They found a moderating effect of situational factors such as viewer availability and group viewing on individual traits such as age, education, and motivations. They did not find a significant influence of Internet usage on TV viewing but did find a negative impact of time-shifted viewing.

However, it should be noted that there has been efforts and policy directives of airing local programs. The business of broadcasting is the selling of audiences to advertisers. In addition to cultivating popular program content, broadcasters know that proper scheduling can also be an important factor in attracting audiences. The implication is that programs acquire audiences by chance as well as by choice. Recognizing the influence of lead-in programming on the ratings performance of television programs, it could be that international programs adopt essential components of an established brand equity model as compared to local content.

The brand study actually confirms the suggestions of various scholars who identified the factors such as expertise (competence), currency (timeliness), and dynamism (dynamism) as sources to establishing news credibility (Abdulla, Garrison, Salwen, Driscoll, & Casey, 2015). This observation is consistent with the brand extension literature that points to the value of awareness creation and positive associations from a well-known parent brand to its extended brands. Regarding presenters competence, 41.2% said very important while
39.5% noted important. This means that personality traits are most directly associated with a brand through the transferring of the personalities of the people associated with the brand. In the context of consumer-based brand equity and viewer preference, television programs content is always delivered by anchors or reporters; there are ample opportunities for a television news outlet to cultivate brand personality.

The results point out clearly that the personality of a broadcast network news program is often synonymous with the personality of the hosts of the program. In Kenya, news anchors change stations and since personality traits are also indirectly developed through associations with product-related attributes; the way a news program is packaged and presented also offers grounds for personality development. From this perspective, it is noteworthy that many television news brands are associated with distinctive audience profiles.

However, results of this study disagree with Kornblut and Scales (2012) argument that most ideological analyses of mass media products focus on the content of the messages; the stories they tell about the past and the present; rather than the “effects” of such stories. In short, few critics are concerned about media texts that promote perspectives they support. Ideological analysis, then, often goes hand in hand with political advocacy, as critics use their detection of distorted messages to make their own ideological points. As a result, exploring the ideologies of mass media can be very tricky.

5.3.3 Effect of Packaging Influences Viewer Preference of a Television Station

The fourth specific research objective was aimed to scrutinize the extent to which packaging influences viewer preference of a television station. Results established that language used, content aired and viewers’ interactivity were strongly critical factors.

Guests of the program and panel members scored average, while the number of commercial breaks scored low. Hence, it can be understood from this transitively that there exists a positive link between packaging (content and programs aired) and viewer preference although it is mediated by clear reception of TV station signal, television stations overall image and language used.

Packaging represents the relationship between brands and consumers from the perspective of responsibility and obligation but also expands the meaning on viewer preference in line with this study. As such, consumer brand equity directly affects market behavior of
media consumers as high brand loyalty means that the same viewers or readers stay loyal and return to the same TV show.

Similar studies such as that of Ramana and Krishna (2014) shows that most of the people around 20-35 age group in India watch Television often at night and late night and watch TV for about 1-3 hours daily. With increase in age, there is a significant change in the pattern of television viewing. With increase in education qualification levels, there is no significant change in the pattern of television viewing. It is also found that people watch the television mainly for acquiring knowledge and learning, as a medium of relaxation and to pass the time. Males preferred to watch television shows, football, debates and discussions and movies because these programs enrich the knowledge and give pleasure. Females mostly prefer to watch soap operas, serials, television shows and movies because of fun, comedy, and sadness & tragedy in the programs.

As results indicate, packaging is an important component for TV stations. Each and every viewer is different, behaves differently, and having his own preferences, likes and dislikes. TV stations carry the responsibility to provide, clear, pure, updated, accurate, timely information to the viewers. Results show that the type of programs that a station airs highly influence the choice and preference of viewers; and program choice is related to content as opposed to programs scheduling. Brand equity in media appears to operate somewhat differently than it does in other categories, reflecting the changing relationships between mass, targeted and even personalized channels. As such, although results show entertainment and current affairs scored high, some of the highest equity media brands may have limited penetration among the media-consuming public, but those that consume them, love them. Notwithstanding the notion that a news organization has the social responsibility of informing its citizens, commercial suppliers of television news have to acquire enough resources to produce the content products and deliver a profit for their owners.

To do so in a market of abundant choices, the news suppliers must strategize and somehow differentiate their products logically through functional attributes such as content features and presentation. However, the proliferation of media outlets and fragmentation of audiences have made it more difficult to attract audiences solely on the basis of product attributes. In other words, the motivations or reason for watching TV are changing and hence TV stations have to contemplate ways of establishing distinctive ways of reaching the various age-groups.
The findings of this study concur with similar studied. For example, McDowell and Sutherland (2009) found that leisure/entertainment was a major factor in Australian television viewing. The findings also indicate that the viewing motivation of relaxation and fun are the ones that are related to competence, timeliness, or dynamism of news brands. It is interesting to note that the viewing motivation of informational learning (education, 2%) which underlines the logical value of news; and could be argued that it is possible that television news is no longer the leading source for informational learning. In fact, the utilities of today’s network news might very well rest in an audience’s desire for relaxation and affirmation of their political ideology, whereas a different news medium such as the Internet delivers the informational utility of news. The results have implications for program promotion strategies used by TV stations and networks to attract viewers to programs.

Overall, the result of the analysis show that among all three independent variables, credibility and packaging have the most influence on the viewer preference of a television station. The findings can form the basis for useful recommendations for policy makers in stressing the importance of credibility research in mass communication. It is clear that perceived reliability and credibility of media as sources of news and information is critical. Similar studies demonstrate that high credibility sources are perceived to be more effective than medium or low credibility sources (Pornpitakpan, 2004). Results also point towards programs aired and age; youth category 18-17 years were majority viewers who watched entertainment programs apart from current affairs/news. Overall, sports also scored high considering the World Cup season.

5.4 Conclusions

As for theoretical contribution, the study provides evidence on how credibility of TV stations, consumer political ideology influences preferences regarding TV programs in Kenya’s environment.

5.4.1 The Influence of Credibility on Viewer Preference of a Television Station

Overall, it can be concluded that a stations organizational dynamics factors on credibility prove to be stronger and more consistent predictors of viewers’ preference regardless of programming.
5.4.2 The Influence of Ideology on Viewer Preference of a Television Station?

Even though TV stations can be understood in ideological terms, ideology remains problematic. TV Viewers tend to watch news that resonate with a political ideology that is similar to their own; or their affiliations. Even where credibility is assured, results show a tendency for viewers to watch news that approximates self-beliefs which limits their sensitivity to accuracy in TV programs especially news. Hence, it can be concluded that different ideological preferences results in distinct audience profiles for each station; and explains the role of panellists and credible anchors.

5.4.3 The Influence of Packaging on Viewer Preference of a Television Station

Packaging in the context of branding for TV stations has a strong influence on viewer perception. The various reasons for watching television reflect the packaging best-fit slot used by TV stations in putting their advertisement in television. In the context of packaging and viewer preference, language and content plays a big role; and also informs the consequences of the differences in TV viewer’s perceptions.

5.5 Recommendations

5.5.1 Recommendations for improvement

5.5.1.1 Credibility and Viewer Preference

There is need for top leadership (the government/policy makers) to develop a positive work-climate that provides conditions under which TV stations remain credible in their operations. Given that the news channels such as the increasing reliance on online news by the young population; media houses should review their evaluation and monitoring processes of mediated news. More importantly, reporters’ and anchors’ credibility should be streamlined and be measured by their expertise, intelligence, education, trustworthiness and authoritativeness.

5.5.1.2 Ideology Influence and Viewer Preference

The government and Ministry of Information, Communication and Technology should enhance mechanisms that emphasize on objectivity especially on political issues. This approach should also be embedded in clearer lines of accountability and greater powers for media owners that ensure viewers are safeguarded. A more dynamic ways of engaging with public on rating TV content is needed.
5.5.1.3 Packaging and Viewer Preference

Moving forward, TV stations should adopt a well-planned brand management and extension strategy. These need to be addressed by emphasizing to all concerned the importance of overall marketing, and not just selling. Moreover, TV station marketing managers should consider adopting certain supportive marketing communication tools to facilitate and precipitate the building process of brand equity. These supportive tools include advertising, promotion, event marketing, sponsorship, public relations, and publicity. Based on the research results, it is recommended that local TV stations identify the value and the importance of utilizing the Internet for branding, as well as to utilize other supportive marketing communication tools. As people slowly move away from traditional way of watching the TV, the digital age has brought a major disruption in the media eco-system. New global brands are emerging; there are new platforms for distributing and monetising the news, new devices for accessing it, and new formats to tell stories.

All of this is part of fundamental shift away from the broadcast models of the past to ones where it is possible to deliver more relevant, more personal, more interactive news at any time and in any place.

5.5.2 Recommendations for Further Research

First as a future research direction, it will be logical and more important that future researchers replicate similar studies in different geographical contexts such as other Counties in Kenya in order to make the findings more inferable to the larger population. It can be more interesting and significant if the constructs concerned in this research are quantitatively tested. Such quantitative test of the research can enhance statistical generalization and hence the result will be more compelling.

Secondly, there is need for a continued examination of a multidimensional approach to measuring news consumers’ credibility and bias perceptions and the frequency of news consumption. Consequently, it may also be useful to analyse issues related to the television and viewer preference by including more variables into the conceptual framework such as culture and individual values.

Third, there is need for a study on TV viewership patterns among youngsters in Kenya. Such a comparative study across Counties could also explore credibility perceptions of television and online news given that the internet is now spreading to the rural areas. The
reality is that most people over 45 are using digital news as an additional choice and convenience without abandoning their core habits around television, radio, and print. Younger audiences of the digital age are showing very different behaviours and increasingly expect the news to come to them through online channels and in new formats.

The challenge for traditional media brands is how to manage this growing deviation in behaviour, along with the intense business pressures being thrown up by the second wave of disruption from mobile and social. Meanwhile Facebook and Google continue to build some of the world’s most profitable companies based on targeted advertising wrapped around relevant and interesting content.

Fourth, the final objective on packaging opens up a number of avenues for additional research. One approach to build on this would be to investigate how political changes alter the viewer preference cycles; the socio-economic implications and how organizational traits influence authority structures within TV stations.

Against this background, news companies face intense pressure and will have to be more creative with editorial and business strategies if they are to survive.
REFERENCES


69


APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Cover Letter

Dear Respondent,

Re: Research Questionnaire

Thank you taking time to fill in this questionnaire. This Research is for academic purposes for the fulfillment of my Master’s degree in Marketing at United states International University. Any information given shall be handled with utmost confidentiality.

The objective of the research is to determine the Factors influencing viewers preference of a specific TV station over other TV Stations. The questionnaire is divided into three sections. Section 1 covers general information about the respondent’s profile. Section 2 seeks to establish TV watching habits in terms of frequency of watching TV, Time of television viewing, and Motivation for watching TV and the mode used to watch TV. Section 3 assesses three variables; Credibility, Ideology and Packaging and seeks to establish how they influence a viewer’s TV Station Preference.

Thank you once again for making time for giving your feedback.

Yours faithfully,

Tandlyne Lubang’a
Appendix 2: Questionnaire

SECTION-1:

Please tick the option that you find most suitable:

1. Please indicate your gender.
   Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Which range includes your age?
   ☐ 18 – 34 ☐ 25 – 34 ☐ 35 – 44 ☐ 45 – 54 ☐ Above 55

3. Occupation?
   ☐ Business/Self-employed ☐ Student ☐ Employed

4. Monthly Income range (kHz) (Optional)
   ☐ Below 15,000 ☐ 15,000 – 65,000 ☐ 65,000 – 115,000
   ☐ 115,000 – 165,000 ☐ 165,000 – 215,000 ☐ Above 215,000

5. Marital Status:
   ☐ Single ☐ Married

SECTION-2: The following questions assess factors that are likely to influence your preferred CHOICE of TV station. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the factors.

Please tick one answer per question that is applicable to you in the boxes below:

SECTION 2a: FREQUENCY OF WATCHING TELEVISION

How often do you Watch TV? (Please tick One)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Most often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Very Rare</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION-2b: TIME OF TELEVISION VIEWING

What time do you prefer to watch TV? (Please tick One)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Early Morning</th>
<th>Mid-Morning</th>
<th>Afternoon</th>
<th>Evening</th>
<th>Late evening</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION-2c: MOTIVATION FOR WATCHING TV

I like watching TV for ;( Please tick One)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MO1</th>
<th>Entertainment</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MO2</td>
<td>To aid in work/studies</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO3</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO4</td>
<td>Relaxation</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO5</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section-2d: MODE OF WATCHING TV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Most Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you watch TV online</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you use internet to catch up missed programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you download TV shows to watch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you watch TV on your mobile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION-3: The Following Questions Assess the Influence of Credibility, Ideology and Packaging on Viewer Preference of the TV Station they Watch.

SECTION-3a: CREDIBILITY

Media channel credibility refers to audiences’ perceptions of a news channel's believability (Bucy, 2003)

The following are important in my choice of TV channel I watch. (Please tick One)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CR1</th>
<th>Accuracy of</th>
<th>Not</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CR2</td>
<td>No Bias/Fairness</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR3</td>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR4</td>
<td>Trustworthiness</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR5</td>
<td>Well-presented/Expert</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CR6</td>
<td>Comprehensiveness (Adequate information)</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECTION 3b: IDEOLOGY**

The following are important in my choice of TV Station I watch. (Please tick One)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IM1</th>
<th>TV overall branding (Values of the station)</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IM2</td>
<td>TV station overall content (Programs)</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM3</td>
<td>Presenters competence</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM4</td>
<td>News coverage and presentation (Political vs Social)</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM5</td>
<td>Variety of the programs, programs line up</td>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Very Important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM6</td>
<td>Source of information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECTION 3c: PACKAGING**
The following are important in enhancing my TV watching experience.

1=Strongly Disagree  2=Disagree  3=Neutral  4=Agree  5=Strongly Agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EX1</td>
<td>Language of the program</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX2</td>
<td>An engaging station / Viewers interactivity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX3</td>
<td>Content aired (Local/International)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX4</td>
<td>Number of commercial breaks in the programs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX5</td>
<td>Presenters of the program</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX6</td>
<td>The guest/panel members</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EX7</td>
<td>Variety of the programs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SECTION 3d: PACKAGING PREFERENCES FOR DIFFERENT CATEGORIES OF TV PROGRAMS**

The following Genres of Programs on Television interest me

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PA1</td>
<td>Current affairs</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA2</td>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA3</td>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA4</td>
<td>Spiritual</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA5</td>
<td>Health Care</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA6</td>
<td>Daily Series</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA7</td>
<td>Reality Shows</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA8</td>
<td>Music Programs</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA9</td>
<td>News Coverage</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA10</td>
<td>Movies</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA11</td>
<td>Knowledge Based Programs</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA12</td>
<td>Cartoon Shows</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA13</td>
<td>Animal/Adventure Shows</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for taking time to answer this questionnaire