Professional Trainings Challenges Affecting Anglo-Kenyan Military Relations Since 1963 to 2014

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Abstract
This article is on the challenges faced by instructors in the military setting. Although teaching has always been challenging regardless of its setting, the Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) and the British Army Training Unit in Kenya (BATUK), has been undertaking training in Kenya for decades. BATUK has a strong partnership with the Kenyan Defence Forces and with the local communities around the areas that they use for training. This cooperation is set out in a joint Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with transparent processes for resolving any disagreements and has an extra positive factors to ease learning and discipline. With the ultimate aims of defending nation and its interests from external threats, conducting right training is vital. Standardised training programmes and techniques, fixed tactical solutions, and common doctrine have made it easy for instructors to teach through the modular instructors’ “book solution” and easy evaluation. However, these techniques are often ineffective in preparing soldiers to deal with evolutions, new missions, unique environmental conditions, and the uncertainties of combat. Therefore, this study using mixed methods approach is conducted to review factors that influenced the instructors’ performance. Findings indicate that knowledge and experience are the core determinants of competency besides commitment, policy, motivation, and working environment.

Key word: teaching challenges, instructors’ performance, military setting, training issues

Introduction
Armed forces across the globe evolved rapidly over the years in term of size, strength, equipment, weapons systems, infrastructure and others due to current demands and challenges that the their nations has to face. Besides their specific roles and tasks, the armed forces are also required to perform additional innovative tasks in support of national objectives. Thus, various new approaches in the training system are implemented to ensure that their professional credibility is maintained. In a dynamic military organisation that deploys sophisticated weapon technologies, highly educated and well trained officers and soldiers are required. The right person is not only the one who can do the job but also the one who wants to do the job; the right position is a job that he or she can do, and the right performance is a result of the person being in the right position given the opportunity to do the desired job. In line with the development in technology and diversification of responsibilities, armed forces training institutions are urged to update their instructors’ competencies to enable the instructors in delivering evolving knowledge suitable for military environment. Thus, it is very reasonable that instructors’ performance be among the main concerns in the armed forces. Quality of training often depends on the instructors’ knowledge and teaching skills. Bramley (1991) defines training as ‘the systematic development of the attitude, knowledge, skill and behaviour pattern required by an individual to perform adequately a given task or job’. The author outlined the key concepts of ‘systematic development’ that implies planning and control, and ‘individual’, which includes group and team development in this context (Bramley, 1991). Recently, the level of professionalism, credibility and competency of soldiers has been highly debated and warrant investigation to identify the root cause. Performance of instructors has been identified as having causal relationship with soldiers’ competency. Thus, investigation into factors influencing instructors’ performance at their job is important.

Research Methodology
This study adopted pragmatic paradigm with a mixed methodologies approach to achieve all of the research objectives. Pragmatic paradigm with multiple methods of data collection and analysis has been widely recognised as most suited in the social sciences setting (Creswell and Clark, 2007). This study was limited to only two armed forces’ training centre and contained within the analysis period of 2012 – 2013. The reason for limiting the study within this scope was to enable researcher in completing the research within time frame allotted. Thus, different training centres may yield variation from the result contained herewith. The population targeted for this study was instructors and students of the Kenya Military Academy (KMA) training centre and Archer’s Post where the British Army Training Unit in Kenya (BATUK), trains. Data collection was done via self- administrated questionnaires distributed by the researcher. Two different sets of questionnaires had been prepared for (i) instructors and (ii) students. A total of 72 instructors and 100 students responded to the questionnaire. Secondary data have been tabulated to reveal patterns and uncovering issues. Questionnaires’ distributed to students have been analyzed for frequencies supporting assessment by validation team. These two data sets inform researcher on the issues and supported in generating questionnaires for distribution to instructors. The responses obtained from instructors were analyzed using SPSS version 20 software. Hypotheses have been tested for relationship among variables via Pearson’s Correlation and Multiple Regression, besides the descriptive analysis to analyse the frequency of the respondents’ responses. Interviews with instructors were also conducted to confirm responses from questionnaires.
Theories

This research is informed by several theories. Even though most aspects of Kenya Defence Forces training are similar to those of civilian, there are some aspects that differ since they require specialized skills for example use of military hardware in combat. Most of military competencies are also applicable to civilian jobs for example management, engineering, leadership, etc. Theories of adult learning (e.g., Cross, Knowles, Rogers) that emphasize experiential learning, as well as theories of social learning (e.g., Bandura, Vygotsky), are critical and vital to military training because of the teamwork performance required (Modrick, 1986). Military training manuals and handbooks emphasize the importance of leadership skills at all levels of command (Collins, 1978).

Because of different specialization required in the military, a variety of skill requirement is key to assigning military individual personnel jobs. Therefore, theories of intelligence such as Guilford, Gardner and Sternberg are therefore important in making such assignments. In addition, there is awareness of the significance of cognitive styles and learning strategies in the design or delivery of training programs (Half et al., 1986). Quick and wise decision-making and problem solving are two integral skills that are fundamental in military operations. Because most military tasks involve the operation of equipment, sensory-motor and troubleshooting skills are also important whilst tactical knowledge relies on facts and hence memory skills for example recall, recognition, retention are critical (Ellis, 1986).

Since military operations and tasks are in most cases well-defined, theories of instruction such as Gagne, Merrill or Reigeluth are relevant. The criterion-referenced approach of Mager which emphasizes mastery learning is especially salient to military training. So is the functional literacy approach of Sticht in the domain of basic skills. A core area in military training because of its affordability is the use of instructional technology. Simulators are commonly used for aviation, maintenance, and tactical training (Seidel & Weddle, 1987).

Factors Influencing the Instructor’s Performance

Many researchers have studied teacher job satisfaction, performance and motivation; none of them have specifically studied the factors that influence the performance of Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) and the British Army Training Unit in Kenya (BATUK) instructors. Studies conducted on the topic but in different setting can be adapted with minor modifications so that they may apply to a military environment. Factors influencing the performance of instructors can be categorised as three types, the internal factors, the external factors and the environmental factors. Mohd Said and Mohd Taha (2002) revealed that intrinsic factors related to ethics and personality of teachers significantly affect their teaching. The authors identified extrinsic factors such as rewards or incentives provided by the department teachers’ work with affect teachers teaching performance significantly. Environmental factors such as teaching facilities, locations and working environments also undoubtedly affect teachers’ performance. Meanwhile, Hong et al. (2004) indicated that there are nine key factors affecting teachers’ creative teaching behaviours. The factors are personal qualities, thinking style, family factors, education experience, teaching beliefs, personal effort, motivation, professional knowledge, and environmental factors.

Instructor’s Quality

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report (1994, pp.13-14) defines teachers’ quality in five broad dimensions of (i) knowledge of the curriculum areas and content; (ii) pedagogic skill; (iii) reflection and ability to be self critical; (iv) empathy and commitment to the acknowledgement of the dignity of other; and (v) managerial competence. Kounin’s (1970) described effective teachers as those who are able to anticipate change in mood in a classroom and to be flexible enough in order to maintain the pace of lesson by using strategies which able to maintain student’s interest. Kounin (1970) also wrote that pedagogical skill demands planning to meet the students’ needs, which include selection of various flexible teaching strategies in achieving desired outcomes. In term of knowledge of curriculum areas and content, he found that the curriculum that is focused towards students’ needs and presented in variety of techniques have motivating power on students which exhibited through their enthusiasm for the subject. Experience has also been recognized as important to teaching qualities where several studies reported positive relationship between teachers’ experience and performance (Rice, 2003; Provasnik and Young, 2003; Goldhaber et al., 1996; Greenwald et al., 1996). However, it is important to enhance an instructor’s creative personalities and capabilities in sharing their experience. What may also be equally important is to train them in specific creative teaching skills. This is why novice instructors entering the field of training institutions for the first time must be mentally prepared to take time to master the art and skill of teaching. At the same time, they are also required to undergo intensive training in order to develop their skills as an instructor.

Hardness as Existential Courage

Courage involves the ability of self evaluation, to objectively analyze new ideas and to voluntarily make the required change. Personal courage includes taking responsibility for your decisions and actions, it is not the absence of fear; it is taking positive action in spite of the fear. It takes two forms: physical and moral. Physical courage means overcoming fears of bodily harm and still being able to do your duty. It’s the bravery that allows a soldier to operate in combat in spite of the fear of wounds or death. It’s what allows an infantry soldier to assault a bunker to save prisoners of war or a medical doctor to treat the wounded while under fire. With physical courage, it is a matter of enduring physical duress and, at times, risking personal safety. Moral courage is the willingness to stand firm on your values, principles, and convictions, even when threatened. Moral courage is sometimes overlooked, both in discussions of personal courage and in routine, daily activities. Moral courage often expresses itself as candor. Candor means being frank, honest, and sincere with others while keeping your words free from bias, prejudice, or malice (Lifton et al., 2000).

Soldier courage will allow him/her to do the following:

a) Take responsibility for their actions, mistakes, and decisions
b) Control your fear in physical and moral contexts
c) Confront problems and do what you believe is right
d) Report successes and failures with equal candor

Therefore, when considering personal courage, physical or moral, there is one important point to be made. Nowhere does the value say that fear must disappear—that you should not feel fear. Nor does it imply that courage is only required in combat. Many soldiers who have never seen a battlefield have carried out acts of great courage. Demonstrate personal courage by daily standing up for and acting upon the things that you know are right. As scholars argue that the conceptual stance that led to hardiness research emphasized that stressful circumstances are an endemic part of living, and hence, that courage is needed if one is to grow and develop, rather than deny and avoid (Maddi, 2006). Hardiness was proposed as a set of attitudes and skills that constitute courage (Maddi, 2002).

Hardiness and Military Contexts

Hardiness emerges as especially relevant to military settings, due to their being inherently stressful and demanding on the personnel involved. Hardiness applications regarding both hardiness assessment and training appear important. As to assessment, relevant contexts include selection of recruits for Special Forces or for other particularly demanding jobs or leadership positions (Maddi et al., 2007). Currently, there is a disruptively high attrition rate in Special Forces, as a growing proportion of recruits do not make it through the training, and are unwilling or unable to accept the increasingly demanding work, which is fueled by such factors as a growing deployment rate, and greater “irregular warfare” challenges. Though less dramatic, continuation rates in other military contexts may also benefit from hardiness training, especially as demands increase. It would be useful, therefore, to assess hardiness levels in military personnel being considered for Special Forces or other special duty status, and include this information in decisions as to who should be accepted for training. In this fashion, attrition rates due to poor performance and inadequate motivation may well be diminished, because those selected will have the courage, motivation, and skills to turn stressful circumstances to advantage (Lifton et al., 2000).

Hardiness training may be useful as an addition to current training procedures for Special Forces and other demanding fields. Actually, this training will likely be helpful to everyone entering these, and perhaps other training programs, as the higher one’s hardiness level, the better one’s performance, leadership, conduct, and health under stressful circumstances. Specifically, military personnel undergoing Hard Training will increase in the courage and motivation to do the hard work of transformational coping, socially supportive interactions, and effective self-care, in order to turn stressful circumstances from potential disasters into constructive growth opportunities instead. Another important application of hardiness training is to help in rehabilitation, as a growing number of military personnel are experiencing and surviving catastrophic physical and mental injuries, in these days of war and terrorism. Hard Training will provide these burdened people with the courage, motivation, and skills to decrease the likelihood of posttraumatic stress and depression disorders, and to positively compensate for physical disabilities.

Policy

Lecturers/instructors key pillars in education because of their impact on student learning. The research indicates that upgrading Lecturers/instructors quality is perhaps the policy direction most likely to lead to substantial gains in school performance. However, there are some key aspects of Lecturers/instructors quality that are not captured by indicators such as qualifications, experience and tests of academic ability. The Lecturers/instructors characteristics that are harder to measure, but which can be vital to student learning need to be more prominent in Lecturers/instructors preparation and employment. Lecturers/instructors policy concerns have increased recently due to socio-economic and political changes and the imperatives for learning institutions to provide foundations for lifelong learning. The challenge is to understand the different factors: societal, school system level, and school level that are giving rise to teacher policy concerns. It is paramount to identify the ways that these factors interact, and those which are potentially open to policy influence. Understanding the operations of the teacher labour market is particularly important. Key aspects include the factors shaping teacher demand and supply, the responsiveness of teachers to incentives, the trade-offs governments face in defining the number of teachers needed, and the mechanisms that assign teachers to schools (Elizabeth, 2005). Policies are most likely to have a large impact on teacher quality. Therefore, policymakers should address these issues carefully through the evaluation and implementation of programs that can provide incentives for teachers to perform effectively. The quality of teaching is clearly critical in assuring the student achievements where her studies have shown that teaching quality is the most fundamental in school factor related to student academic achievement. Her finding has led to an intense policy focus on teaching quality. In her recommendation stated that, the policymakers should concerned on identifying teacher excellence, understanding the barriers to assuring excellent teachers in every classroom, and developing policies to cultivate and nurture excellence. The lack of investment in teacher standards and evaluation, and the stress placed on the school system will cause unmotivated teachers (Baratz, 2009).

Commitment

Lecturers/instructors are key stake holders and play an important role in the education sector. Lecturers/instructors in Universities and middle level colleges play a crucial part in advancing sustainable economic and technological development as well as sustaining the well-being of the communities they serve. Consequently, the factors influencing the levels of commitment of the Lecturers/instructors in these institutions and in the wider education systems must necessarily be the focus of an important field of research leading to the introduction of reform and change within classrooms and lecture halls. It has been argued that creative teaching requires hard work and Lecturers/instructors must introduce new methods or approaches in their day-to-day teaching course. This requires sufficient time and effort in planning and preparation (Simplicio, 2000). It is further emphasized that a success in creativity is only possible after an extended preparation time (Petrowski, 2000). Scholars Feldman and Weisberg argues that it takes approximately ten years for an individual to master the knowledge of a particular domain to the extent that he or she experiences a creative breakthrough (Feldman, 1999; Weisberg, 1999).
Environment

Lecturers/instructors ought to establish learning environments wherein students feel physically, psychologically, socially, and culturally secure. Lecturers/instructors main duty is to ensure that all students in their class feel safe and cared for. Without having a safe and caring environment, learning would be impossible. They should spend sufficient time with students, to build a strong relationship. Lecturers/instructors work independently and cooperatively, to make their classrooms stimulating learning environments. They must maintain acceptable levels of student conduct, and use discipline strategies that result in a positive environment conducive to student learning. It is important to have a classroom that is mutually respectful. Students need to understand when they need to be quiet and when they need to collaborate with others. They need to know that some students have different learning styles and need to be respectful towards them. It is important to have an orderly classroom where learning can be maximized (Dart, 2006).

Learning environment can determine students performance, if the environment is conducive for learning then the outcome is easily achieved but the opposite is true if the environment is not friendly. This indicates that these two variables are able to influence student performance, which, in turn, can influence instructor performance in general. Therefore, lecturer/ instructor quality, school environment and time management are among the main factors which can influence the individual performance. These findings are relevant for this research, assuming that these variables will also have a positive relationship with lecturer/ instructor performance (Taufik, 2011).

Motivation

Inspiration is changing thinking; motivation is changing action. If the source of motivation is belief in inner values, it becomes long lasting. There is direct correlation between motivation and productivity. People who do just enough to get by so they don’t get fired will never be valuable to any organization. Motivation is something that encourages action or feeling. To motivate means to encourage and inspire. Motivation can also mean to turn on or ignite the feeling or action. Motivation is the driving force in our lives. The greatest enemy of motivation is complacency. Complacency leads to frustration, and when people are frustrated they give up because they cannot identify what is important. External motivation comes from outside, such as money, societal approval, fame or fear. Examples of external motivation are fear of getting spanked by parents and fear of getting fired at work. Internal Motivation is the inner gratification, not for success or winning, but for the fulfillment that comes from having done it. It is a feeling of accomplishment, rather than just achieving a goal. Reaching an unworthy goal does not give the gratifying feeling. Internal motivation is lasting, because it comes from within and translates into self-motivation (Weiss, 2002).

There are many historic and theoretical models of motivation that can be used to improve individual’s performance. However, incentives that reinforce behaviour are often used to facilitate individual or team motivation which, in turn, can produce good performance (Steers et al., 2004). Others scholars have shown that reward comes in many forms; one powerful form includes public or private recognition. The research indicates that, over the long-term, intrinsic motivation taps into deeper levels of energy and commitment than external sources of motivation. Hence, while external motivators are still effective and necessary to improve individual and team performance, finding ways to motivate team members intrinsically may have potentially greater positive results (Weiss, 2002).

Drivers for Change in Training System

Strategic Security Environment: The Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) and The British Army Training Unit in Kenya (BATUK) will have to be prepared for an enduring requirement for high intensity war fighting skills in order to deter and, if required, fight and win wars. This was underlined during the “Operation LindaNchi” campaign by the need to prepare for a possible limited conventional war. But they should also be ready for a wide spectrum of operations, including the growing requirement for counter insurgency/terrorist operations. However, given the constraints in terms of resources and time, they will need to carefully manage the balance between training for conventional war and other operations in the spectrum of conflict. Individual training must provide the basic skills that can support conventional war and high intensity operations, but needs to be supplemented to meet other scenarios (O’Hanlon, 2000). Skills for Joint Operations: Future operations will be increasingly joint and progressively integrated between space, air, maritime and ground elements. The “Operation LindaNchi” campaign also reinforced the need for a more integrated approach to war fighting between the Services. They will need to work with other civilian agencies whose contribution may be equally critical to strategic success. The human dimension of command will remain paramount (Alisha, 2009). Increased Responsibility of Junior Leaders and Individual Soldiers: Increased fluidity, intensity of swift engagements, sensor-to-shooter technologies, direct communication interface to lowest level commanders/individual soldiers and reduced time for decision making will place soldiers and commanders alike under increasing pressure. Junior commissioned officers and non-commissioned officers will have key roles to play, particularly in exercising leadership and management. Junior leaders hold the key to warfare in the 21st Century (Pillai, 2001). This will require training in leadership skills and education to develop the required mental agility. Technological Challenge: Future operational success will depend on the ability to exploit and integrate new digital systems. Studies into future military skill requirements consistently show a growing need for cognitive skills. Information and communications technology also offers exciting opportunities to improve training and is becoming a major learning medium. However, learning via such technology is a mainly individual activity which may impair some inter-personal skills. Many individuals, while confident about working in the Information Age, may be less physically fit and robust. This will need to be addressed appropriately (Kak, 2000). Changed Socio-Economic Values: Technology has not only affected the armed forces in the last two decades but the entire country as such and raised the living standards immensely. Some potential recruits may find Service life incompatible with their individual expectations, but others may be attracted by the Services’ different ethos and values. Training and education will continue to play a major role in helping to instil the core values that provide the moral framework for Service personnel to meet the physical and mental challenges of the future battle space (Mengxiong, 1998). Enhanced Importance of Specialisation and Continuity: As high end technology is inducted into the Services, need
for specialists in various fields, and the requirement to give them continuity in key positions, will increase. More graduates may join the Services as sailors, soldiers and airmen, especially in the technical specialisations. Imperatives of career progression, particularly for officers, are already putting increased pressure on both training and personnel management (Knox and Murray, 2001).

Changes in the Training System

Appraisal of the Present Training System and Policy Objectives: The operational success in “Operation LindaNchi” has shown that by and large the training standards are adequate. But to meet the challenges being thrown up by the emerging threats of increased terrorism, the armed forces need to modernise their training system. Education and individual training consume a significant proportion of the Defence Budget and therefore the armed forces should get the best value from the large amounts of money being spent on it. Training should also lead to innovation in doctrine, operational concepts and battle drills (Bonanno, 2004).

Despite the recent shift towards joint operations, individual training is still mostly conducted on single Service basis; while it is important to generate and maintain single Service identity, emphasis should gradually shift to joint and integrated training. Integrated training between the services will help to develop jointmanship and eliminate unnecessary duplication. Training should, where appropriate, be offered to industry and civil institutions, reflecting the joint approach (Krishna, 2001). Training needs to be better focussed to meet the operational needs. In some aspects we over-train to the detriment of others, resulting in imbalance between training and operational imperatives. Technical and weapon system/equipment-specific training for sailors, soldiers and airmen, who constitute a major portion of the armed forces, is generally of a high standard, but improvements are required to reflect the changed operational environment and the modus operandi of operating within it. The training of senior officers at operational and strategic levels needs greater emphasis (Kak, 2000).

The training also needs to be able to rapidly absorb lessons from operations and to respond to changes in educational priorities to meet the increasing complexity of operations. All personnel should have the necessary skills and confidence to exploit new information and communication technologies. There is also a requirement of a more comprehensive and consistent overall approach to education. To meet the challenge of technology it must be ensured that all personnel have the necessary skills. It could be partly achieved by developing e-learning to provide greater flexibility and shorten training time during courses. This should be balanced against the requirement of personnel deployed in field areas where such facilities may be non-existent (Mengxiong, 1998).

The armed forces must ensure that the training system is cost-effective, while maintaining or enhancing operational capability. The intent should be to make more imaginative use of common training facilities in the armed forces and eliminate duplication by sharing common resources wherever possible. Commercial training arrangements for the delivery of training, where desirable, like in the field of IT, should be exploited.

Measures to Integrate Training in the Armed Forces Officers’ Training

Recognition of the importance of joint activity must first be introduced at the tactical level, within a predominantly single Service environment. Young officers need to be encouraged to adopt an open-minded approach towards their own and the other Services, and begin to appreciate the wider defence environment, including the increased joint focus. This then needs to be nurtured and progressed throughout an officer’s career. Short common modules on defence and joint awareness training should be introduced in the initial training commencing from cadets Officers’ Course. The main requirement for joint training for the officers is at the operational and strategic levels. There is generally little formal training for officers of the rank of Brigadier and above. To meet the training requirements for commanders of joint operations, a Joint Operations Wing should be established. It should be charged with the responsibility to train officers of the rank of Brigadier and above of all the three services through a mixture of very short modular courses with interactive war-gaming. Opportunities should also be provided to the senior bureaucrats posted in the Ministry of State for Defence (MoSD) to attend such courses (Maddi, 2002).

Enlargement of Scope of Joint Exercises and War-games: At present a truly joint exercise is rarely conducted. The scope and level of joint exercises should be enlarged and not restricted to “Operation LindaNchi”. Similarly, participation in the war games at formation level and above should include officers of all the Services. Joint Institutes for Common Training Aspects: It is essential to ensure that training and education is delivered as cost-effectively as possible (Michael and Lars, 2010). Otherwise it puts at risk the sustainability of the capabilities it supports. Each Service has a training base that is too large and unaffordable in the long term. Besides it does not support the concept of integration of the Services. A leaner training base will bring recurring savings in overall support costs, and release land for disposal, thereby making more capital available for modernisation. Areas of joint training could be those that support joint structures, where there is a commonalities between subjects and syllabus or the operational/training process is common or converging. This can be achieved by establishing Defence Training Institutes in the fields of communication and information systems, logistics, computer literacy, engineering, aeronautical and engineering (Mohd, 2011).

It has been experienced that because training and education is generally provided on a single Service basis, it lacks overall coherence and direction from the MoSD perspective. In particular, there is no central focus to provide an overall policy perspective and no overarching strategy to promote best practices. The existing training branch is not charged with this responsibility and does not issue any policy directives to the Services. To address these deficiencies, the training branch in the needs to be strengthened and given the mandate to coordinate these aspects. This will maximise the benefits of training rationalisation ensuring that there is no duplication (Knox and Murray, 2001).

Results and Discussion

Table 1 below presents a summary of descriptive analysis on factors identified as influencing instructors’ performance. All factors carrying means greater than 3.5 on a 5 point likert-scale represents agreement with the items, standard deviation of 1.1 and below indicate agreement with the means.
The results indicate that academic qualification, knowledge and commitment are among the main determinants of good teaching besides seniority, management support and motivation. While other factors of policy, career advancement opportunity and working environment fetched lower importance. Filipe (2009) in her comparative analysis of teacher competence and its effect on the student performance recommended that the government improve the professional qualifications of teachers, including subject knowledge. She also mentioned the necessity of increasing teachers’ level of academic qualification based on the level of their teaching. Therefore, academic qualification can enhance instructors’ teaching skill. Based on interview, some respondents suggest that knowledge and experiences comes handy when they want to provide examples when applying theories.

On work commitment, respondents commented that an additional duty normally reduces their commitment and focus towards teaching. Although some (43.1%) respondents suggested that instructor’s quality cannot be measured based on their seniority, they agree that being senior in the Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) and The British Army Training Unit in Kenya (BATUK) does help in better teaching because senior instructors would have greater confidence level which improve interaction with students. Respondents (37.5%– agree; 55.6% strongly agreed) also agree that management plays important role in influencing instructor performance. They (80.5%) also suggested that the management in the training centre places more emphasis on training, and 94.5% respondents responded that close relationship between management and instructors enhanced their performance. 73.6% of the respondents agree that management should allows instructors freedom in planning of the training programme to develop creativity. The results also indicate respondents disbeliefed in the current policies incentives towards instructor performance. However, majority (61.2%) respondents agree on the privileges provided for instructors’ career in the current policies.

In terms of career advancement, the results revealed that most of the respondents (65.2%) believed that they had better opportunities compared with non-instructors. However, 65.5% of the respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that they were given priority to attend overseas courses. Meanwhile, only 65.3% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they received opportunities to enhance their teaching skill. Majority respondents believed that motivation increases their performance. Majority (65.2%) agree that the management of the training centre always motivate instructors and high majority (88.9%) responded that they performed better when the organisation expressed appreciation over their work and 91.6% expressed that they were more motivated when the management show commitment towards instructors.

Majority respondents satisfied with the working environment in the training centre, with only 37.5% of respondents expressed uncomfortable with the activities conducted in the training centre as well as its working culture. However, majority 70.8% think that management constantly taking charge of their welfare (interview would reveal whether this is perceived as good or bad by instructors) and small majority (56.7%) teaching facilities in the training centre were well-maintained by the management. Responses collected were also used to test hypotheses set in this study. Nine hypotheses involving the dependent variables identified in this study were tested and results are as follows. Table 2 shows the summary of results of hypotheses testing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Results</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between academic and experience and their performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between instructor’s knowledge and experience and their performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between instructor’s working commitment and their performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between instructor’s seniority and instructor’s performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between management’s role and instructor performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between organizational policies and instructor performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H7</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between motivational factors and instructor performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H8</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between career advancement opportunities and instructor performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9</td>
<td>There is a significant relationship between the working environment and instructor performance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression analysis shows that four variables were supported, which are, knowledge and experience, organizational

Table 1: Descriptive Results of Factors Influencing Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tr>
<td>Professional Qualification</td>
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<td>.50252</td>
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<td>Skills/Knowledge</td>
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<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.5778</td>
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<tr>
<td>Commitment</td>
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<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.5459</td>
<td>.56032</td>
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<td>Job group/Seniority</td>
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<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2431</td>
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<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.1806</td>
<td>.80852</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job Policy</td>
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<td>5.00</td>
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<td>Job Motivation</td>
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<td>5.00</td>
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<td>Career Progression</td>
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<td>Working Environment</td>
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polices, motivational factors significantly related to instructors’ performance. These results were expected especially for knowledge and experiences (H2), because it is the fundamental values for training institutions to determine their quality of teaching. This positive result is consistent with research conducted by Hong et al. (2004), and Simplicio (2000), who discovered that the knowledge and experience of the teachers, or instructors within the military context, can influence their performance. In addition to that, the instructors’ ability to transfer their knowledge and experiences has become fundamental in producing high quality army personnel. H6 is supported which implies that policies related to instructors influenced instructor performance, which is consistent with Mwita (2002), in which strong support at the policy level for the use of market-type managerial reforms influenced performance. This includes policies related to the selection process, instructors’ development, career advancement and recognition, which are all able to motivate them to improve their performance. 70.8% of respondents agreed that policies are able to influence their performance. Therefore, the policymakers should attempt to address these issues through the implementation of programs that provide incentives for teachers to improve (Elizabeth, 2005).

H7 is also supported which indicates that motivation is one of the influencing factors. The result of this study is consistent with that of other findings which found a positive relationship between motivation and performance. Literatures show that motivated employee will feel that their welfare and performance are appreciated. This may come in the form of monetary incentives or internal factors such as recognition and challenges at work (Mahmud and Idrish, 2011). It is extremely essential for the management to bolster motivation among instructors in order to ensure that they remain highly motivated. According to the survey results, most of the respondents (91.6%) agreed or strongly agreed that they would be more motivated if the management was highly committed. The research also revealed that the instructors’ working commitment as well as their additional duties can influence their performance. It is the fifth factor in this study that influences instructor performance. The results are consistent with findings of other researchers who conducted studies at civilian training institutions. It is highly essential that the management of the training centre ensures the workload of instructors should not become a burden for their instructors when performing their main duties. H9 is supported at the significance level of 0.043, which implies that relationship between working environment and instructor performance are significant. The results of this study is consistent with the results reported by Mohd Said and Mohd Taha (2002), and Hong et al. (2004), who found that there is a strong relationship between the working environment and teaching performance. This research also found that most of the respondents agreed that the training facilities can influence them to perform better. Other than teaching facilities, the working environment also refers to the relationship between and among the team and management, both of which can influence instructor performance.

However, academic qualification (H1), working commitment (H3), seniority (H4), management’s role (H5) and career advancement opportunities (H8) were not significantly related to instructors’ performance. The results for H1 contradict the literature conducted by Filipe (2009), and Hong et al. (2004) who found that academic qualification is significantly related to instructor performance. The different results might be due to the type of profession and work culture. In this study, military knowledge may play a more important role in influencing instructor performance compared to academic qualification, which is required by civilian teachers. H3 is not supported indicates that the instructors’ commitment towards additional tasks or workload does not influence their performance in carrying out their main duties as an instructor which contradict with the results found by other researchers. The different results might be due to the nature of work among military personnel, who must always obey instruction and display loyalty towards the organisation. H4 is not supported which implies that that seniority of instructors does not have any influence on their performance. Even though military organisations are well-structured and have a hierarchy system, the survey results revealed that 80.6% respondents believe that their seniority and rank do not determine their quality as instructors in a military training institution. However, most of the respondents agreed that one’s seniority in service portrays one’s experiences.

H5 is also not supported implying that no influence of the management roles on instructor performance. The fact that these results differ from those conducted in civilian training sectors could be due to the more complex nature of work prevalent in a military organisation. Military personnel possess a sense of loyalty towards their organisation that drives them to prioritise their duties over their personal interests. However, the survey results’ frequency percentage also revealed that most of the respondents acknowledged the management could influence their performance in the long term, especially in terms of the privilege given to instructors. H8 is not supported in which instructors perceived that their performance is not influenced by career advancement opportunities. The reason these results are inconsistent with that of other research is due to the differences between a military training centre and civilian training centre in terms of its nature of work. Even though career advancement was one of the issues the instructors highlighted during the interview session, it does not influence instructor performance when they carry out their duties.

Conclusion

Outcomes of this study offer important insight into factors that can contribute to or influence instructor performance especially in military setting. Although findings of this study are consistent with findings from studies conducted in other civilian teaching fields, several differences were identified. Instructors seem to demand for more training and policies needed careful determination. Frequent rotations of instructors are not a good practice since teaching requires experience and skills. Concerted effort from various management levels to create and deliver sound policies is critical to assure high quality and motivated instructors are appointed to train soldiers. The goals and linkage to policies have to be well communicated across management levels so anyone in the authority would understand the importance of adhering to the policies and procedures.

Recommendation

A. New Methods of Training-Achieving information age skills will facilitate new methods of training, particularly e-learning. There should be a major shift towards e-learning to reap benefits by providing better support to deployed units, particularly in terms of refresher and more efficient training to enhance operational
effectiveness. The aim should be to exploit a combination of CD-ROM, Intranet and Internet delivery to exploit fully the particular advantages of each medium. But it must be recognised that e-learning is not a panacea. Much military training requires human interaction, particularly to develop such qualities as teamwork, leadership, ethos and courage.

B. The non-formal education system, like distant education based on electronic media, needs to develop faster to cope with the increasing demand for life-long learning in the armed forces to keep its cadres updated and well prepared.

C. Good progress has been made in simulation over recent years by developing large training systems, such as aircraft and ship simulators. With new technologies, improving computer skills and increasing access to new information and communication systems, it will be possible to exploit virtual training more fully at the individual level of training. This will be of particular benefit, given the ever-growing costs of training on real equipment and the need to avoid unnecessary risks and reduce environmental impact.

D. Institutionalising Experimentation and Innovation: New ideas in tactics and concepts can evolve only when the actual perception of the full combat elements in a unit/formation is experienced during training and experimentation. Opportunities of conducting large scale exercises on civil land are going to progressively decrease due to concerns over environmental degradation and damage to civil infrastructure. Consequently the training at unit and formation level will be hampered and restricted. There is thus an urgent need to create a modern facility where at least the ground and air components can train together. Such facilities could be created next to major field firing ranges for more realistic joint training.

E. Evolve a Long Term Digitisation Training Policy: The convergence of computing and digital telecommunication systems makes it possible to link together hitherto separate information or sub-systems into networks. This is the basis of all information and decision support systems that should be enhanced in the Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) and at the strategic level. There is a long learning curve for digitised equipment, and there is need, therefore, for training to acquire the skills to manage the infrastructure that ties together the battlefield functional areas making up the Command Information and Decision Support System.

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