

ANALYZING THE EVOLUTION OF MILITARY PROFESSIONALISM AND ITS IMPACT ON ANGLO-KENYAN DIPLOMACY SINCE 1963

¹Alice Wanjiku Mwangi and Josephat Nyang'au Ondari²

¹Department of Peace and Conflict Studies, Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, Kenya

²Department of Social Sciences, Kisii University, Kenya

Abstract The evolution of militaries worldwide, marked by advancements in size, strength, equipment, weapons systems, and infrastructure, is driven by the ever-changing demands and challenges their nations face. In addition to their core roles, military forces are increasingly required to adapt and undertake innovative tasks in alignment with national objectives. Consequently, modern training approaches have been implemented to ensure the professional competence of military personnel. In this dynamic military landscape, characterized by the deployment of sophisticated weaponry, the demand for highly educated and well-trained officers and soldiers is paramount. As Baratz-Snowden (2009) emphasizes, the right personnel are not just those who can perform their duties but also those who are motivated to do so. Moreover, the right position entails a role that an individual is capable of fulfilling, and achieving the right performance hinges on placing individuals in suitable positions and providing them with the opportunity to excel in their assigned tasks.

With the rapid development of technology and the diversification of responsibilities, military training institutions face the imperative to update the competencies of their instructors. This adaptation is essential to equip instructors with the knowledge and skills necessary to effectively impart evolving information relevant to the military environment. Consequently, instructors' performance is a key concern for armed forces, as the quality of training largely depends on their knowledge and teaching abilities. Bramley (1991) provides a comprehensive definition of training as the "systematic development of the attitude, knowledge, skill, and behavior pattern required by an individual to perform adequately a given task or job." This definition underscores the importance of both systematic planning and control in the training process and the development of individuals within group and team dynamics.

Keywords: Military Evolution, Training Approaches, Instructor Competencies, Armed Forces, Professional Development

Introduction

Militaries across the globe evolved rapidly over the years in terms of size, strength, equipment, weapons systems, infrastructure and others due to current demands and challenges that their nations have to face. Besides their specific roles and tasks, the militaries also are 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 (Baratz-Snowden, 2009). 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, military 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.

Extensive studies have been carried out on 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) on academic development. 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 academic development can be categorised as: the internal factors, the external factors and the environmental factors. Mohd and Mohd (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. Academic development in the militaries especially between Kenya and England has not been even, In Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) academic development was not the main focus until the early 2000s, with military officers who are not well educated (not having first degree). This study sought to investigate whether this was a challenge or an opportunity for Anglo-Kenyan militaries personnel.

The objective was to:

Investigate academic challenges and opportunities influencing Anglo-Kenyan diplomatic relations.

Research Question

The objective was supplemented by the following corresponding research question: To what extent do academic challenges and opportunities influence Anglo-Kenyan diplomatic relations?

Conceptual Framework

The purpose of theory is practice. We do not need to interpret and understand reality for its own sake, but to act upon (practice) and affect it. Our presence and actions always affect reality positively or negatively. Theory is not permanent or fixed, it is constant dynamic and constantly being constructed, as we keep trying (but never fully succeeding) to catch up in our understanding of reality. Reality is constantly changing and so are our understandings of it. All our theory is constantly tested, verified (or not), and rectified according to newer and deeper understandings of what exists. In this research, two theories informed the study, namely, Adult learning theory and Realist theory.

Adult Learning Theory

Adult learning theory is an andragogical (adult learning) model of education, originating from comparisons with the more traditional pedagogical (child learning) model. The andragogical model looks at the core principles underlying why and how adults learn. The most well-known and referenced is by Knowles (2005), who presents six main assumptions or principles of adult learning: adults need to know why they need to learn something, before undertaking to learn it. They will invest energy into exploring the potential benefits of learning, and consequences of not learning. Anglo-Kenyan military have a self-concept of being responsible for their own decisions, for their own lives and that of their fellow soldiers. They like to direct their own learning (to different levels) and resent having the will of others imposed upon them. Adults come to an educational activity with a depth and variety of experiences, and it is important to acknowledge and build on these experiences. Adults become ready to learn those things they need to know to cope effectively with real life situations. This is important when considering such things as timing and promotion of learning opportunities. The most potent motivators for adults to learn are internal factors, rather than external.

The cycle then continues into a new and improved action or experience, based on the improved planning. This cycle is also briefly referred to in the psychological literature, for example assessing needs. A “need” refers to the gap between what is and what could or should be within a particular context, leading to strategies aimed at eliminating the gap between what is and should or could be and needs assessment is a systematic inquiry for the purposes of identifying priorities and making decisions, and allocating finite resources in a manner consistent with identified program goals and objectives. It includes: identifying and analyzing expressed and unexpressed needs. A plan to develop strategies that address such needs in the context of sequencing training design for greatest effectiveness. Personal experience, and evidence from trainee evaluations over many years, has convinced the researcher that incorporating adult learning principles and the learning cycle (with associated learning styles) into training design, results in training outcomes being achieved well hence making the theory important for the study.

Realist Theory

The study also borrowed from realist theory of international relations, to give an analysis of the military relations between the two nations. The leading scholar of the realist school of thought is Morgenthau (1985). He argues that power remains a key variable in the conduct of affairs in the international system. For him, the international system is anarchic since there is no morality in the conduct of affairs and there is no international government to oversee the conduct of affairs by the government. The central government is the main actor in the international system and it engages in internal and external efforts to increase effective strategies and also undertake external attempts to align or realign with other states in order to propagate and protect their own interest and maximize their power. This influences the pattern of interactions that will take place including the number of states to align with each other in opposing groupings as part of a balance of power. Morgenthau (1985) argues that since the international system is anarchic by virtue of its structure, there is need for member states and actors to rely on whatever means of arrangements they can generate to enhance their security and survival. He argues further that as structures change so does interaction and alliance patterns among its members as well as the outcome that such interactions can be expected to produce. Morgenthau (1985) views survival and stability as minimum goal of foreign policies that nations pursue. Thus, all nations are compelled to protect their physical, political, and territorial integrity against encroachments by other nations. According

to this theory, national interest is akin to national survival. As long as the world is divided into nations, the national interest is indeed the last word in world politics.

Nevertheless, Morgenthau (1985) argues that since the international system is based on balance of power, nations follow those policies designed to preserve the status quo, achieve imperialistic expansion, or to gain prestige. Anglo-Kenya military diplomatic relations guarantee Kenya support against foreign and domestic enemies as well as its internal security and stability. For example, Britain's global military posture and security have been enhanced beyond its territories, while Kenya has had its stability and security interests in the Greater Horn of Africa region enhanced as well. Kenya has had intermittent border tensions with Ethiopia and Somalia in the North since independence. Classical realism theory has been criticized for being state-centric; that it downplays the role other non-state actors play in the international system. Critics argue that the role of multinationals and other non-state actors like terrorist groups has been ignored (Dougherty, 1990).

The above theoretical context was utilized by the study to determine academic challenges faced by Anglo-Kenya military diplomatic relations. Adult Learning Theory adds information on training (which is the study dependent variable). Wagner and Gooding, (2007) noted that realistic training seems to improve trainee attitudes about the training, including motivation to learn. Second, they also noted that there are beneficial effects on transfer of knowledge from training to the job from briefing the managers of trainees about training their employees will be attending and on how to support the training process. Realist theory will inform the study in terms of foreign military relations. In 2003 Britain was unhappy when Kenya sought to purchase military hardware and vehicles from the Asian countries, i.e., Japan and China starting from the year 2003. The importance of the outlined literature above suggests that realism is a sufficiently thriving force in international relations practice for theorists.

Utility of Conceptual Framework to the Study

The utility of adult learning theory to the study was that the soldiers from KDF and BATUK are adults. The theory is rooted from a variety of goals; personal development, increased job knowledge, and community problem solving. Military professionalism has three characteristics: expertise, responsibility and corporateness hence the utility of this theory while realist theory was important to this study since two militaries, KDF and BATUK from Kenya and United Kingdom are involved. In realism the survival and independence of the state is the main goal, which is attested by how important the sovereignty and the territorial integrity.

1.1 Conceptual Model

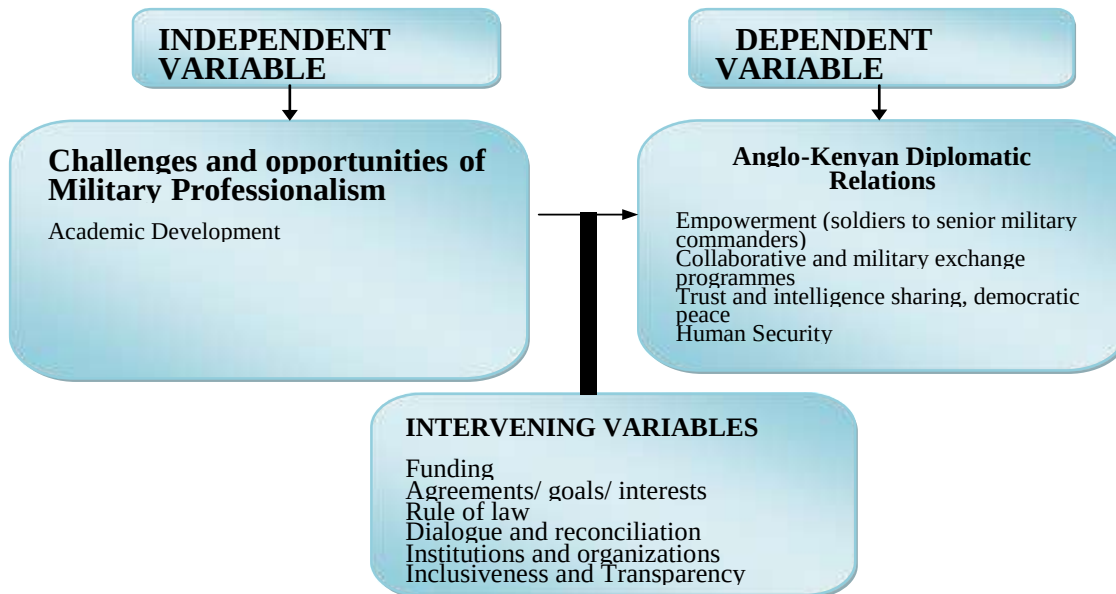


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Model showing interactions of variables

Source: Researcher (2016)

The independent variable in this study was academic challenges and opportunities of military professionalism influencing Anglo-Kenyan diplomatic relations of KDF and BATUK. The dependent variable was Anglo-Kenyan diplomatic relations. This relationship since 1963 has fluctuated depending on different circumstances caused by differing on agreements like status of forces agreement (SOFA), goals, interests, rule of law, which when agreed upon by Kenya and United Kingdom through dialogue and reconciliation, institutions and organizations, inclusiveness and transparency stabilized Kenya and United Kingdom and hence were intervening variables in this study.

Research Design

The study used Cross-cultural research design. Cross-cultural research is a scientific method of comparative research which focuses on systematic comparisons that compare culture to culture and explicitly aim to answer questions about the incidence, distributions, and causes of cultural variation and complex problems across a wide domain, usually worldwide (Ember, 1988). It sought to answer the following questions: what were the patterns of coherence and sources of coherence in the practices, beliefs, social roles, norms, expressions, and forms of organization and conflict in human communities? Other forms of groups? Other extracommunity trajectories? How much of that coherence was due to: Common history, language, identity? Common or recurrent modes of adaptation to recurrent human problems?

Current consistencies in language, discourse and expression, social and roles, norms and organizations constructed into shared cultures? What the patterns are of de-coherence and disjuncture, misunderstanding and conflict that arose given the: multiplicity and overlapping of cultures? Cleavages and disjuncture of cultures? Cross-cultural research strives to arrive at reliably supported explanations of why things are and the way they were (Ember, 1988).

Sampling Strategy

In determination of sample size, the researcher used the formula provided by Mugendas" (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). While in determination of sample size of sub-groups Borg and Gall formula was used (Gall et al., 1996). The formula is presented hereunder.

$N = Z^2 pq / d^2$ Where: N= desired minimum sample size

Z= the standard normal deviate at confidence interval of 99%

(1.96),

p= proportion in the target population estimated to have the characteristic of church leaders and congregation under Study (0.8)

q =1-p (0.2) and

d= level of statistical significance of estimates (0.05) for

desired precision thus derivation of multi-stage random sample size was

$N = 1.96^2 \times 0.8 \times 0.2 / (0.05)^2 = 384$

For Kenyan and British soldiers, the sampling as a process of obtaining a proportion of items from the selected people as representative of those people was used (Orodho, 2008). The selection of a representative sample was made with respect to the inferences the researcher intended to make (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

The sample size was determined by the following formula recommended by (Nassiuma, 2000)

$n = \frac{NC^2}{C^2 + (N-1)e^2}$ Where:

n the sample size was the population C was the

Coefficient of variation (0.5) e was the level of precision

(0.05)

Substituting this value for strata obtained: For British soldiers

$n = (0.5 \times 0.5) \times 5601 / 0.25 + (5601 - 1)(0.05 \times 0.05)$ n=98 British soldiers and for

the Kenyan soldiers obtained: $n = (0.5 \times 0.5) \times 4922 / (0.25 + (4922 -$

$1)(0.05 \times 0.05)$

n=98 Kenyan soldiers

Therefore, for (local) indigenous peoples residing next to the training camp were: Whole Sample size

$N = 1.96^2 \times 0.8 \times 0.2 / (0.05)^2 = 384$ minus For British soldiers $n = (0.5 \times 0.5) \times 5601 / 0.25 + (5601 - 1)(0.05 \times 0.05)$

n=98 British soldiers and for the Kenyan soldiers obtained:

$n = (0.5 \times 0.5) \times 4922 / (0.25 + (4922 - 1)(0.05 \times 0.05))$ n=98 Kenyan

soldiers

$384 - 196 = 188$

Indigenous people (opinion leaders) residing next to Archer"s Post training camp were allocated 188 informants. After the sample size was obtained, the researcher used simple random sampling method, lottery method .This was the most popular method and simplest method. In this method the researcher numbered all the items on separate sheet of paper of same size, shape and color. They were folded and mixed up in a box. A blindfold selection was made. This was done until the 98 British and 98 Kenyan soldiers were obtained which was the desired sample. After obtaining 196 soldiers from KDF and BATUK the researcher used purposive sampling to distribute them in Archer"s Post military training camp. Simple random sampling technique was an appropriate technique because it ensured that all commissioned officers, non-commissioned officers and the

local (indigenous) people of those sampled had an equal chance of being included in the samples that yielded the data that were generalized within margin of error that could be determined statistically (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003).

Result and Discussions

This study investigated academic challenges and opportunities influencing Anglo-Kenyan military diplomatic relations. This objective was achieved by assessing; training approaches (Instructor's ability, Instructor's Commitment), learning materials and trainee ability, opportunities influencing Anglo-Kenyan diplomatic relations in a dynamic military organization that deploys sophisticated weaponry technologies. This calls for academic excellence.

Academic Challenges Influencing Anglo-Kenya Diplomatic Relations

Factors Influencing academic performance of KDF and BATUK military officers can be categorized as three types; the internal factors, the external factors and the environmental factors. Examples of environmental factors are: teaching facilities, locations and working environments. The respondents from both militaries confirmed that they faced academic challenges. The results were summarized and presented in figure 1.2.

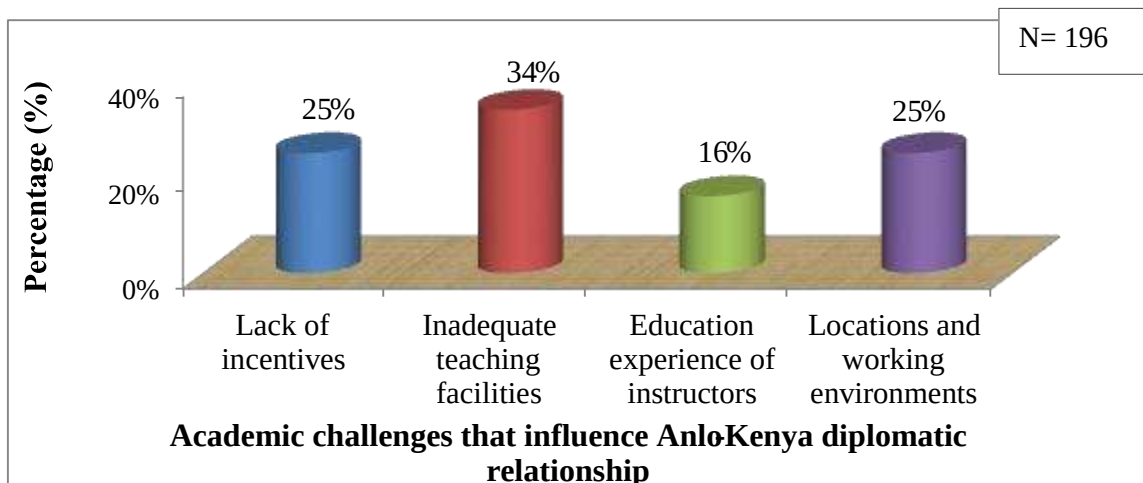


Figure 1. 2: Academic challenges that influencing Anglo-Kenyan diplomatic relationship in Kenya

Source: Field data, 2016

The results indicated that academic excellence of the KDF and BATUK was majorly challenged by lack of incentives to the instructors 25% (49), inadequate teaching facilities 34% (67), education inexperience of the instructors 16% (31) and poor locations and working environment 25% (49). Mohd and Mohd (2002) explained that intrinsic factors related to ethics and personality of military instructors significantly affect their teaching of military officers. The authors identified extrinsic factors such as rewards or incentives provided by either Kenya or British governments to the military instructors' work affected their performance significantly. This was supported by 25% (49) of respondents. Environmental factors such as teaching facilities, locations and working environments also undoubtedly affected military instructors' performance. Meanwhile, Hong et al (2004) indicated that there are nine key factors affecting military instructors' creative teaching behaviors. The factors are: personal qualities, thinking style, family factors, education experience, teaching beliefs, personal effort, motivation, professional knowledge and environmental factors.

Therefore, high-quality, well-trained, and motivated personnel in the necessary numbers and ranks are essential to combat readiness. In KDF and BATUK, the first task is to recruit sufficient numbers of citizens with the required motivation and physical and mental capabilities to perform complex tasks under austere and often dangerous conditions. Here, the services compete with other opportunities afforded by the civilian economy. As one KDF respondent said:

The challenge is to provide appropriate incentives to make military careers attractive. While patriotism should never be underestimated as a motive for service, the armed forces have found it necessary to provide salaries, educational opportunities, quality of life, retirement benefits, and health care to attract and retain the required numbers of quality recruits. The recent economic recession has reduced civilian opportunities, and the reductions in force size have reduced the number of recruits required to sustain personnel numbers and quality. However, if the economy recovers and generates more civilian opportunities, recruiting and retaining quality personnel may become increasingly more difficult (Interview with a KDF Officer, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

The response from this KDF respondent shows lack of motivation in the military, hence few are retained in the service as others look for other opportunities in the civil world. This is contradicted by Huntington (1957) who found out that entrance to the military is restricted to personnel with appropriate educational and health qualifications, career advancement hinges on acquiring established standards of knowledge, training, and experience, officers' conduct must conform to established norms and rules, deviations are punished and may even lead to discharge, and the highly valued attribute of honor, courage, and service to a country are rewarded through awards and recognition that usually do not carry a monetary value.

Instructors' Ability

Good military instructors should have knowledge of the content, self-critical, committed and effective. The military officers were asked to give account on their instructors, in determining the challenges faced in academic progresses which affect the Anglo-Kenya diplomatic relations. Their responses were analyzed and presented as shown in Figure 1.3.

Source: Field data, 2016

From the results, looking at education experience of the instructors; the military respondents indicated that 8% (16) were good, 5% (10) moderate and 15% (29) said that instructors had poor education experience. The instructors' personal efforts were rated by majority 14% (27) as poor, instructors also lack motivation 11% (22). The respondents also pointed out that there are poor environmental factors 8% (16) which challenged the academic excellence. The study found out that 15% (29) of respondents from KDF said that military instructors

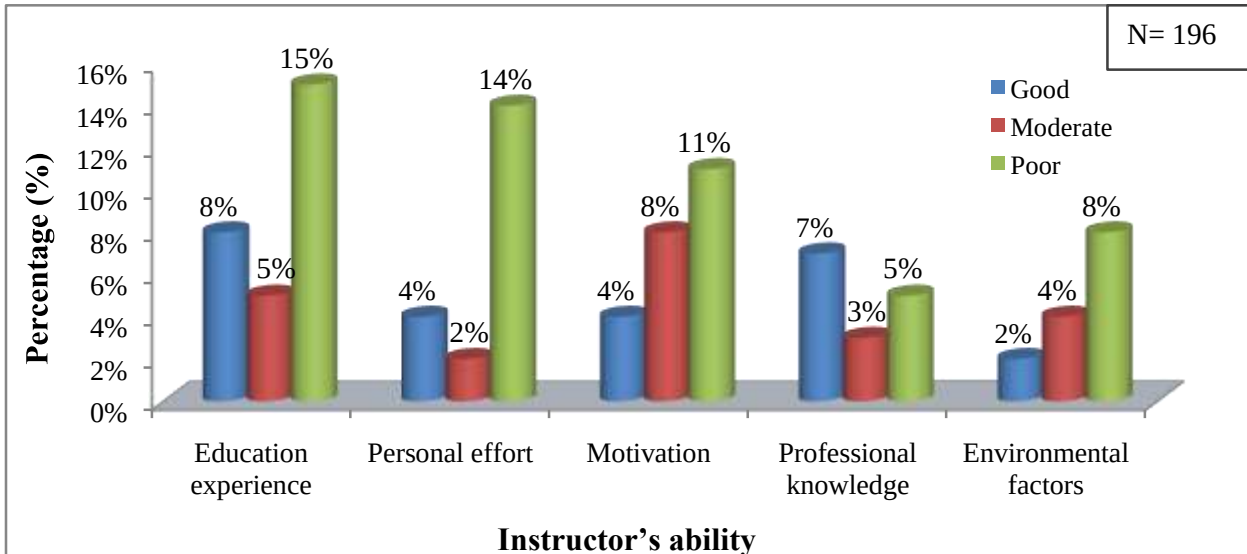


Figure 1.3: Instructors ability to train military personnel

had poor education experience which affected them negatively. 11% (22) of KDF respondents said that instructors also lack motivation.

As one KDF respondent said:

KDF military instructors“ are lowly motivated which contribute to a reduced focus on the teaching and learning process as evidenced by minimal time spent preparing lessons or supporting struggling learners. Moreover, teachers with low motivation may repeatedly arrive late. This has a negative impact on student learning (Interview with a KDF Officer, Archer’s Post, May18, 2016)

This is corroborates d by Mulkeen (2010) who found out in his research that “the consequence of low motivation is most severe in contexts where the living or teaching conditions are challenging. However, in some countries, teachers may have low motivation but remain in the profession due to a lack of other jobs. The salary for military instructors influences the overall prestige and attractiveness of the profession and instructors often say that increased pay would improve their morale. In addition, there are differences in salary between instructors of different ranks but performing the same job which can be a source of dissatisfaction, especially for the lowest rank who may feel inferior. In contrast 8% (16) of BATUK respondents said that instructors were good. The poor education experience as said by KDF respondents confirmed United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) findings that said “in many educations systems student learning suffers due to difficulties attracting high-quality teachers, limited motivation for teachers to perform their jobs well, and teacher attrition Though well intentioned, some educational policies and programmes actually undermine teacher motivation. Education planners should, therefore, carefully consider the impact of their decisions on teachers and their motivations to teach” (UNESCO, 2015).

A BATUK respondent said:BATUK military instructors are highly motivated to teach all of their students as well as possible. However, a variety of intrinsic factors such as loving the instructing process and extrinsic factors such as salary, influence BATUK military instructors motivation levels (Interview with a BATUK respondent, Archer’s Post, May 18, 2016)

From the BATUK respondent, their instructors are highly motivated by the extrinsic factors such as salary and opportunities to further their education. This is corroborated by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report (1994) quality in teaching 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 military instructors' 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. He 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). Kounin's (1970) and (Rice, 2003) on the importance of training and quality of instructors was corroborated by a BATUK officer who said: Peculiar skill of the military officer is "the direction, operation and control of a human organization whose primary function is the application of violence." This "extraordinarily complex intellectual skill" demands comprehensive and continuous research, education and training. To develop the high order of expertise required, military officers must devote their working life almost exclusively to this purpose (Interview with a BATUK respondent, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

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.

Instructor's Commitment

Since 1980s, teacher commitment has been a topic of interest in education discourses (Firestone and Pennell, 1993). However, the word commitment is a slippery term. The notion committed teachers, for example, has been used interchangeably with quality teachers, Abd Razak et al, (2010), or as a synonym of teachers with dedication (Frankenberg et al, 2010).

Some literature refers commitment to characteristics of being or behaving as a professional (Helsby et al, 1997). Although the meanings of commitment are hardly conclusive, it is generally regarded as a desirable attribute and a committed teacher is considered to be coupled with a sense of professionalism. Thus some teachers suffered from bad feelings when they perceived themselves to be less committed (Day et al, 2005; Easthope and Easthope, 2007).

A respondent from BATUK confirmed their instructor's commitment

Our committed instructor's commitment have a tendency to perform the roles effectively that their job requires and to establish a good teacher student relationship in accordance with the professional values. This approach facilitates student learning and development of terminal behaviors (Interview with a BATUK respondent,

Archer's Post, May 18, 2016) Analysis of BATUK Instructor's Commitment shows that a factor that contributes to BATUK instructors commitment and dedication was administrative implementation. Compatible administrative implementation strengthens instructors commitment. The desire of instructors spending more time with the soldiers, making more effort for military achievement, approving compatibility of administration are among contributing causes of commitment and dedication. Among the factors that decide teachers' commitment and dedication degree are: interaction between instructors, instructors-student relationship, the quality of the work instructors do at training area, the compatibility of military camp administration. Instructors who have commitment to military camp display such attitudes as: being proud of the military camp he/she works for, evoking a desire to work harder, being interested in the future of the military camp. This was corroborated by the following scholars: Firestone and Pennell (1993); Frankenberg et al (2010); Fresko (1997); Tsui and Cheng (1999); Leithwood et al, (1999); Rosenholtz (1989); Huberman (1993) and Henjum (1992).

Firestone and Pennell (1993) maintain that commitment "is a psychological bond or identification of an individual with an object that takes on a special meaning and importance". The psychological bond is considered to have effect on one's attitude and behaviour. Frankenberg et al (2010) suggests that a committed person complies with expectations voluntarily, exerts considerable efforts for the benefits of the commitment object which goes beyond calculative involvement. Therefore teacher commitment has been typically studied to anticipate teachers' attrition tendency, Fresko (1997) and attitudes towards classroom performance or educational quality (Tsui and Cheng, 1999). However, there are multiple objects of commitment for a teacher and teachers' commitment objects may also change across different life and career phases and in different contexts (Leithwood et al, 1999; Rosenholtz, 1989; Huberman, 1993). A teacher who is committed to students and makes efforts to create a supportive learning climate in the classroom, for example, may not have affective affiliation to the school organization due to the lack of identification with school goals (Choi and Tang, 2009). Thus a teacher highly dedicated to student affairs but resistant to school reforms may be regarded as committed when her/his attitude towards students is assessed. She/he may not be considered a committed teacher if the assessment is taken from the perspective of school organization. Thus the relationship between teacher commitment, teachers' psychological attachment and efforts is far from a simplistic equation.

When people engage in certain lines of activities, some of them enjoy successful commitment but others are confined in unsuccessful commitment (Henjum, 1992). People with successful commitment involve voluntarily in activities, which entails a purposeful direction they define. People engaged in unsuccessful commitment suffer from a feeling of being trapped and compelled by a line of activities which are not of their own free choice. Thus appraising whether teachers are committed or not by an overt observation of how much time teachers spend on certain activities or their retention rate in teaching without understanding their emotional experiences could be problematic. The role that military Instructors play cannot be overlooked, as they instill knowledge, skills and technology to their students. Their commitment to their job accounts for a successful economy. The military officers at the Archer's Post military training camp were asked to indicate the level of commitment of their instructors. The results were summarized and presented as shown in Figure 1.4.

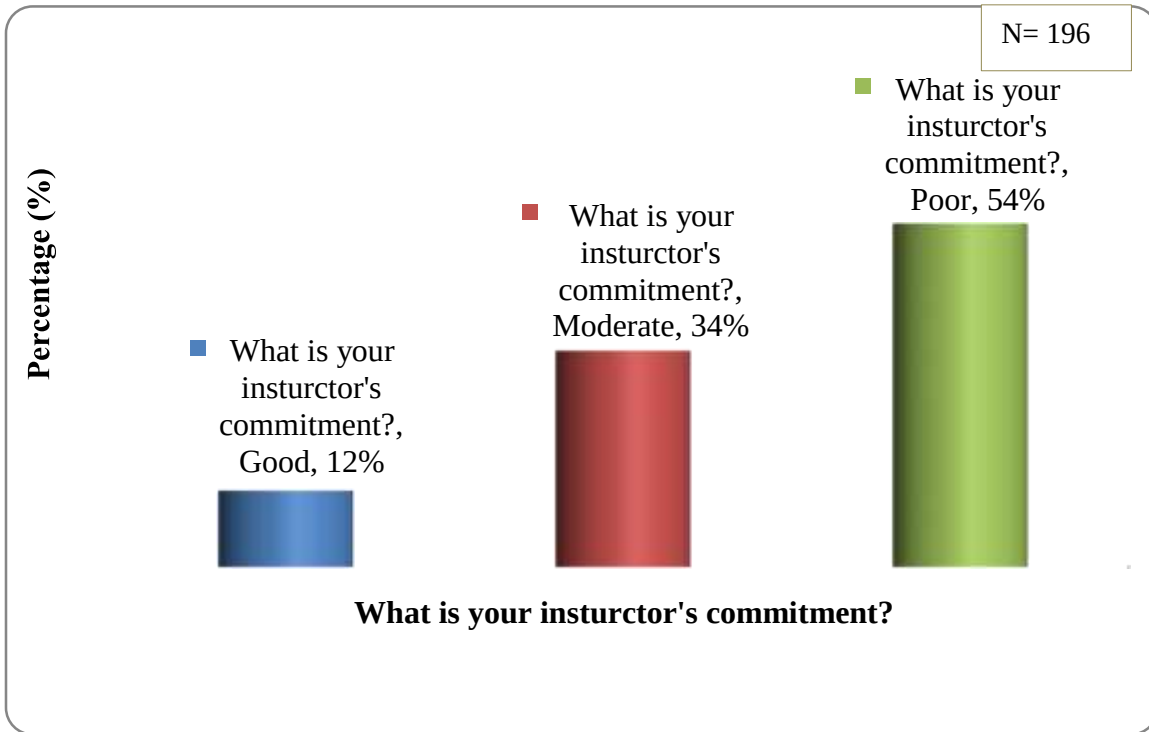


Figure 1.4: Instructors level of commitment to their job

Source: Field data, 2016

The results indicated that 12% (24) of the respondents said that their instructors' commitment was good, 34% (67) were moderately committed while 54% (106) indicated that their instructors were poorly committed to their job. This, therefore, gives an overall rate that their lecturers are poorly committed towards their job. The respondents from KDF, 54% (106) indicated that their instructors were poorly committed to their job. According to these respondents, foreign cooperation with BATUK does not always bring the anticipated effects.

One KDF trained instructor in Britain said that:

Once they are back in Kenya, officers who have trained abroad often suffer ostracization from officers that are jealous of not having had access to the privileges of foreign life, but also because their loyalty to the regime and to the hierarchy is put into question (Interview with a KDF Instructor trained in Britain, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

Lack of commitment can be as a result of lack of effective and competent trainers in the form of non-commissioned officers (NCO's) which causes the training conducted to lose its effectiveness. Exposure alone does not produce training. If rushed through the training simply to get it over and the soldiers feel that the instructors are not interested in their learning, an effective training atmosphere is not created. Most NCO's have not received the training that will make them effective trainers (Bradford et al, 1955). The unattractive financial and material conditions of work in the military administration have contributed to some of the best trained officers leaving for the private sector. This foreign cooperation thus has more long-term implications: it preserves the pertinence of the Kenya post-independent framework, since the military training continues to be dominated by the British and the colonial legacy, even if opening up to the United States of America and to a lesser extent to China, will probably have consequences in coming years insofar as the number of intellectual

traditions employed in understanding security are diversified. However, the potential impact of such foreign cooperation implies that the states emphasize the latter by shaping the careers of those who have benefitted from it, which is not currently the case. Some of the BATUK trainers that come to work in the framework of cooperation programs in Archer's Post attest to an analogous experience. A KDF respondent said:

Lack of soldiers commitment is the main threat for the survival of KDF as a loss of competent soldiers is a loss of competitive advantage for KDF. Soldiers who are committed and engaged in their work are vital for the KDF as they provide crucial competitive advantages which results in professionalism. Therefore, it is vital to understand the importance of building soldiers commitment and its impact on KDF performance. Further, the relationship between these concepts is worth examining as a means to provide casual effect or antecedents to behaviors which drive either positive or negative conditions in the workplace (Interview with a KDF Officer, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

Analysis from this respondent clearly shows that BATUK soldiers have affective commitment which means affection for their job occurred because they felt a strong emotional attachment to their military, and to the work that they did. They identified with the military's goals and values, and genuinely want to be there. The KDF counterparts had continuous and normative commitment. Continuous commitment occurs when you weigh up the pros and cons of leaving your organization. You feel you need to stay at your job, because the loss you would experience by leaving it is greater than the benefit you think you might gain in a new role while normative commitment occurs when you feel a sense of obligation to your organization, even if you are unhappy in your role, or even if you want to pursue better opportunities. You feel that you should stay with your organization, because it is the right thing to do. The ideal which is affective commitment in workplace is diagrammatically presented in figure 1.5.

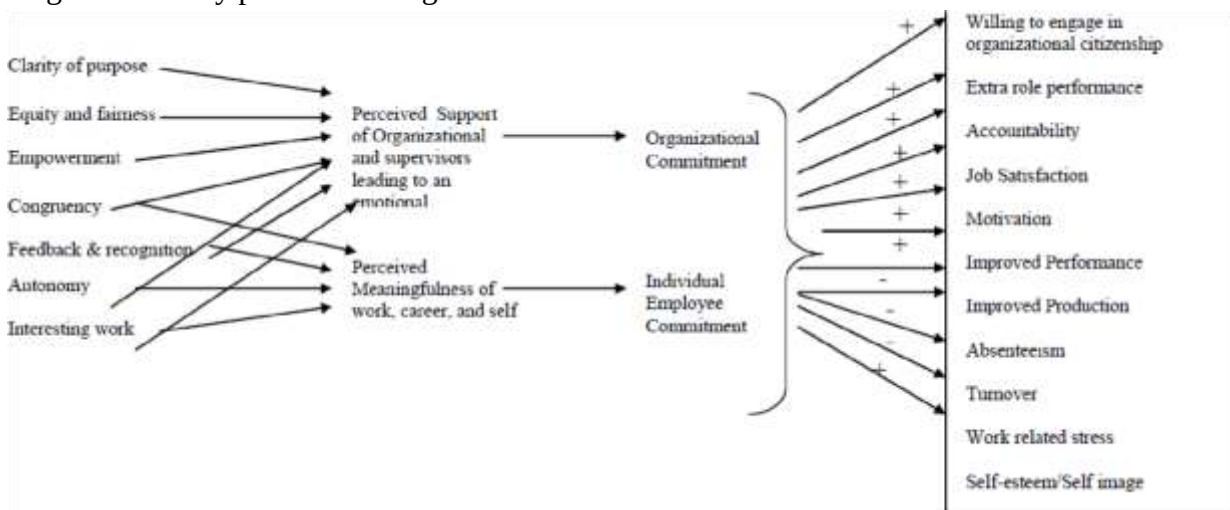


Figure 1.5: Workplace commitment

Source: Researcher, 2016

Individual training is that training that is conducted for the soldiers to give them the skills and knowledge their needs to do their specific job (Collins, 1984). Collective training is designed to prepare a group of individuals (sections, platoons, companies, battalion etc) for wartime roles (Collins, 1984). Unit training is classified as being mission oriented and all unit training is intended only to prepare a unit, as a unit, to perform those tasks

required for accomplishment of an assigned mission (Collins, 1984). A combination of all three types of training must be planned and accomplished by a battalion in order for it to be well trained. This training must be planned for all subunits within a battalion to include all aspects that relate to tasks required in the offense, defence, patrolling, and fire support to include mortars, artillery, naval gunfire and air. It is, therefore, prudent to say that Commitment of KDF instructors is low compared to BATUK instructors. The respondents from BATUK, 34% (67) said that their instructors were moderately committed to their work. A KDF officer corroborated the importance of commitment:

Commitment is a key component of military training at all formation; training must be conducted in order to accomplish any assigned combat mission. Effective training by military formation must be directly related to something that they will do in combat. There individual type of training that must be accomplished and addressed by a commander (Interview with a KDF Officer, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

This was further corroborated by Simplicio (2000), who pointed out that, 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. Petrowski (2000) 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. It is further emphasized that a success in creativity is only possible after an extended preparation time (Petrowski, 2000). Scholars Feldman and Weisberg argue 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). Plate 1.1 shows the researcher with KDF respondents in Archer's Post, where he wanted to find out the level of military instructors and students (soldiers) as affective, continuous or normative commitment in their training



Plate 1.1: Researcher and KDF in Archer's Post training area 2016

Source: Field Data, 2016

Learning Materials

In a learning environment, all facilities and materials needed should be put in place. This makes learning very effective and effortless. The respondents from the military camp at the Archer's Post were asked to indicate the adequacy of the learning materials. The results were summarized as shown in Figure 1.6.

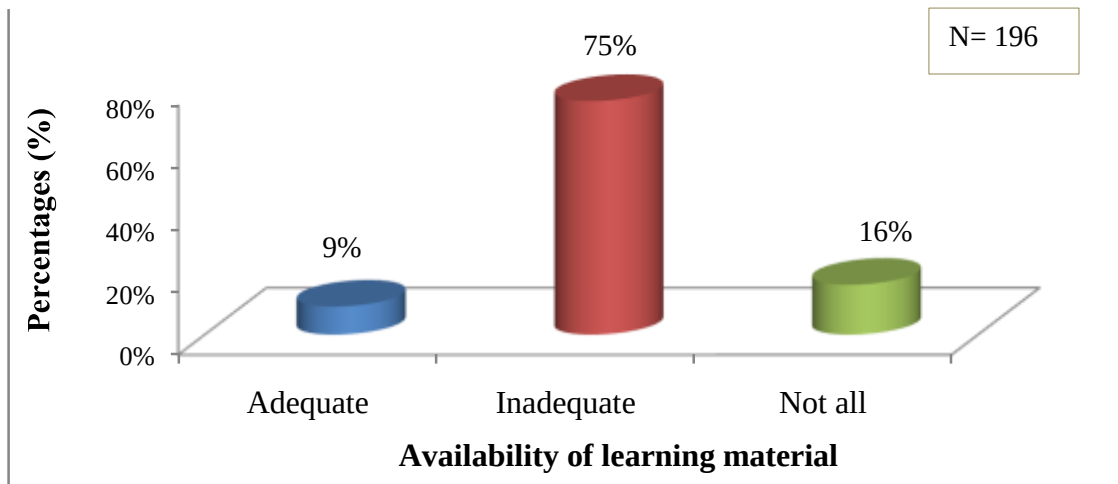


Figure 1.6: Availability of learning materials for facilitating training

Source: Field data, 2016

The respondents, 9% (18) indicated that learning materials were adequate, 75% (147) reported that the materials were inadequate while 16% (31) said that there were no learning materials at all. Learning materials and motivation to work go hand in hand. The result from figure 6.4 shows that 75% (147) from KDF respondents said that the materials were inadequate, due to insufficient learning materials in Archer's Post, KDF are not training to the standards necessary to win at the modern battlefield. This is due to officers and noncommissioned officers (NCO's) that cannot train or manage the required training due to insufficient learning materials (Collins, 1984). A KDF respondent said:

Another aspect negating training due to insufficient learning materials is that soldiers are trained to meet hourly requirements rather than to achieve objectives as set down either in occupational skill manuals. For example if training directives state that soldiers will conduct one third of their training at night this condition will be met, but proper objectives will not be set out prior to the conduct of the night training. This training time stands a fine opportunity of being wasted (Interview with a KDF respondent, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

As the A KDF respondent said: this impediment due to insufficient learning materials is lack of imagination during training that detracts from the overall success of training. The soldiers will repeatedly end up training over the same terrain with the same objectives, both on the ground and for the purpose of the training exercise. This lack of imagination dulls initiative and enthusiasm and ultimately limits the knowledge that will be retained as, after several hours of boring training, the learning curve takes a nose dive and the learning stops, although the training may continue. This is corroborated by Richardson and Watt (2010). Richardson and Watt (2010) noted that 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 students 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. According to 91% (178) of BATUK respondents, the learning environment, facilities and materials needed for training were adequate at Archer's Post military training area.

This is in contrast to 75% (147) to their Kenyan counterparts who said materials were inadequate, due to insufficient learning materials. United Kingdom has "a revolution in military affairs (RMA) which is a major change in the nature of their training of warfare brought about by the innovative application of new technologies which, combined with dramatic changes in the military doctrine and operational and organisational concepts, fundamentally alters the character and conduct of military operations." RMA has three main constituents, namely, doctrine, technology and tactics (O'Hanlon, 2000). The foremost global trend transforming the security framework is the dramatic growth in information technology (IT) and the RMA it has created (Kak, 2000). United Kingdom has been acknowledged as a major IT base in the world, with a large work force possessing the necessary skills. It also has reasonably well developed civil programmes in satellite, telecommunications, space and nuclear technology. Besides advanced indigenous technologies being available to the armed forces, This technology is not a limiting factor in the United Kingdom and their military but Kenya military depends on United Kingdom and other developed countries to import these technologies for military use. The other two components of RMA doctrine and tactics are within the capabilities of the armed forces for making significant changes as determined. For KDF to fully exploit the potential of new systems, operational concepts incorporating and integrating the new technologies must be developed into coherent doctrines. The armed forces should also train extensively to translate doctrine into a war winning capability as was revealed by a KDF respondent thus:

KDF has to adopt "a revolution" in military affairs (RMA) to bring about profound changes in the conduct of training and warfare. This will empower them to improve on the salient aspects such as; the means of observation and surveillance, time available for orientation, decision making and action will reduces (Interview with a KDF respondent, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

The use of new precision weapons and command and control systems has added a force multiplier effect, unknown earlier, to the combat potential. Individual combat platforms are being linked into a network and have been equipped with increasing amounts of electronic information equipment. The transportation and logistics systems have also been transformed to be more responsive to the sustainment needs of the forces due to better exploitation of the IT (Mengxiong, 1998). This is justifiable why 16% (31) of KDF respondents said that the materials were inadequate.

Academic Opportunities Influencing Anglo-Kenyan Diplomatic Relations

Both KDF and BATUK put a premium on training, whether it is professional development courses that must be completed at each stage in one's career or technical proficiency programs required to ensure officers stay abreast of developments concerning, for example, equipment modifications. Both militaries have their own "basic" training regimens, which are followed by further specialized training. In both militaries there is requirement of completion of certain courses as a precondition for promotion, reassignment to a job with more responsibility, or even as a requirement for reenlistment or continuation of a career.

A BATUK respondent said:

As a captain I had to complete course work at the Squadron Officer School, either by attending a facility or via correspondence, if I ever expected to be promoted to the rank of major. And Air Force majors know that they have to attend the Air Command and Staff College if they expect to be promoted to lieutenant colonel or colonel, and one day be selected to attend a war college or other high-level institution (Interview with a BATUK Officer, Archer's Post, May 20, 2016)

These courses stress managerial skills along with leadership development, and also focus on how policy decisions are made at high levels of both governments (Kenya and United Kingdom). They offer a broader perspective on the military's national security role and train mid-level and senior officers for positions. Kenya military officers, who were enlisted before 2008, trained for 18 months and graduated with professional military training and a diploma in military science offered by Egerton University. Those officers enlisted from 2008 train for 3 years and graduate with professional military training in addition to bachelor's degree of Science in Military Studies offered at Kenya Military Academy (KMA) in collaboration with Kenyatta University. This shows academic opportunities for both militaries.

A KDF respondent said that:

As a junior military officer I had the privilege to begin my career in Britain where I was taken for exchange programme, I gained experience and valuable exposure to interagency decision-making. Working with personnel from different military services gave me important insights into how militaries and civil authority relate (Interview with a junior military officer, Archer's Post, May 18, 2016)

From this KDF junior military officer respondent, it can be deduced that becoming a KDF soldier has heaps of benefits. The most obvious being that you get to take part in loads of exciting and challenging activities such as field craft, adventurous training, first aid, sports and shooting. When you join as a soldier you will make lots of new friends and get the opportunity to train together locally in Kenya and at times in abroad. Learning new skills out of the academic box can be incredibly rewarding. You gain an insight into what motivates you and others, develop self-confidence, learn management and leadership techniques and have fun at the same time. It is also incredibly useful and satisfying to discover what you are capable of under different kinds of pressure. You will learn the value of discipline, teamwork, effective man-management and the application of limited resources. From time to time you will be required to complete tasks in extremes of climate, whilst at the end of your physical and mental strength. As well as achieving success in your academic studies you also begin your working life with a highly rated national leadership qualification. Successful completion of the military training proving that you have management potential as well as academic ability.

This was corroborated by Effendi (1995) who said professional training for military officers includes the acquisition of education skills for a wide range of non-combat missions and roles, social sciences are taught at military academics and training centers. Officers are also sent to civilian universities for postgraduate education in subjects such as political science, strategic studies, history and psychology. As a result, the number of postgraduates in the armed forces is growing. Higher education reinforces the military perception that the armed forces is growing. Higher education reinforces the military's perception that the armed forces are not only capable of defending the country against internal and external threats but can govern the state more effectively than a less educated, inexperienced and inept civilian leadership (Effendi, 1995).

Summary

Extrinsic factors such as rewards or incentives provided by either Kenya or British governments to the military instructors' work affected their performance significantly. This was supported by 25% (49) of respondents. Environmental factors such as teaching facilities, locations and working environments also undoubtedly affected military instructors' performance. The study found out that 15% (29) of respondents from KDF said that military instructors had poor education experience which affected them negatively. 11% (22) of KDF respondents said that instructors also lack motivation. In contrast 8% (16) of BATUK respondents said that instructors were good. The respondents from KDF, 54% (106) indicated that their instructors were poorly committed to their job. According to these respondents, foreign cooperation with BATUK does not always bring the anticipated effects. One KDF trained instructor in Britain said that: Once they are back in Kenya, officers who have trained abroad often suffer ostracization from officers that are jealous of not having had access to the privileges of foreign life, but also because their loyalty to the regime and to the hierarchy is put into question. 75% (147) from KDF respondents said that the materials were inadequate, due to insufficient learning materials in Archer's Post, KDF are not training to the standards necessary to win on the modern battlefield. This is due to officers and non-commissioned officers (NCO's) that cannot train or manage the required training due to insufficient learning materials (Collins, 1984). According to 91% (178) of BATUK respondents, the learning environment, facilities and materials needed for training were adequate at Archer's Post military training area. This is in contrast to 75% (147) to their Kenyan counterparts who said materials were inadequate, due to insufficient learning materials. In both militaries there is requirement of completion of certain courses as a precondition for promotion, reassignment to a job with more responsibility, or even as a requirement for re-enlistment or continuation of a career.

Therefore, lack of effective and competent KDF trainers in the form of non-commissioned officers causes the training conducted to lose its effectiveness. Exposure alone does not produce training. If rushed through the training simply to get it over and the soldiers felt that the instructors are not interested in their learning, an effective training atmosphere is not created. Most non-commissioned officers (NCO's) have not received the training that would make them effective trainers. The KDF and BATUK training in Archer's Post aims towards producing professional commissioned officers or non-commissioned officers (NCO's), who must learn early in their career not to think of training as the insatiable enemy that endlessly consumes their time. Academically and well trained soldiers afford a commander with the opportunity to explore the variety of problems and missions that will always confront him/her. When a commander of a military unit takes this attitude, most of his/her problems and those of his/her troops will be met and solved in the course of daily training, and thus, will cease to be problems. The same attitude will prevail again over new problems.

Summary of Finding

The finding indicated that new technology in the world of military hardware has brought about many sophisticated approaches to military. To catch up, the military officers must learn these new approaches through research. However, their instructors face various challenges as the findings indicate. The results indicate that extrinsic factors such as rewards or incentives provided by either Kenya or British governments to the military instructors' work affected their performance significantly. Environmental factors such as teaching facilities, locations and working environments also undoubtedly affected military instructors' performance. The study found out that in both militaries, there was requirement of completion of certain courses as a precondition for promotion, reassignment to a job with more responsibility, or even as a requirement for re-enlistment or

continuation of a career. The study also found out that KDF military instructors had poor education, lacked motivation and were poorly committed to their job which affected the students negatively. In contrast to the BATUK who said that their instructors were well educated with at least a first degree, were motivated and committed to their job. KDF respondents said that their training was sub-standard due to inadequate learning materials in Archer's Post while the BATUK respondents said the learning environment, facilities and materials needed for training were adequate. Well trained and academically sound soldiers, afford a commander the opportunity to explore the variety of problems and missions that will always confront him/her. When a commander of a military unit takes this attitude, most of his/her problems and those of his/her troops will be met and solved in the course of daily training, and thus, will cease to be problems. The same attitude will prevail again over new problems.

CONCLUSION

In the process of studies, the military has been influenced by various challenges and opportunities. Their instructors face various challenges; incentives to the instructors, inadequate teaching facilities, education inexperience of the instructors and poor locations and working environment.

RECOMMENDATION

Institutionalizing 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. In both militaries academics was important since there is requirement of completion of certain courses as a precondition for promotion, reassignment to a job with more responsibility, or even as a requirement for re-enlistment or continuation of a career. But in some instances, this was not followed where some without requisite courses got promoted while others with the required courses and eligible for promotion were bypassed which demoralized and which made their job output at minimal. Therefore, the same set up standard for promotion should be followed.

REFERENCES

- Abd Razak, N., Darmawan, I.G.N., & Keeves, J.P. (2010). "The influence of culture on teacher commitment", *Social Psychology of Education* 13, 185–205.
- Baratz-Snowden, J. (2009). Fixing tenure: A proposal for assuring teacher due. Center for-
American Progress.
- Bradford, R. G., Gorham, W.A., Havron, M. D & Nordlie, P. G., (1955) "Tactical Training of the Infantry Rifle Squad," Human Resources Research Office, George Washington University, p.41.
- Bramley, P. (1991). *Evaluating Training Effectiveness*, McGraw-Hill, New York and
Maidenhead.
- Choi, P.L., & Tang, S.Y.F. (2009). Teacher commitment trends: Cases of Hong Kong teachers from 1997 to 2007. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25 (5), 767-777.

- Collins, P. (1984) *Marine Corps Training...A Time for Change*, (Department of War Studies, King's College, London, U.K.), p.268.
- Day, C., Elliot, B., & Kington, A. (2005). Reform, standards and teacher identity: Challenges of sustaining commitment. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21, 563-577.
- Dougherty, J. (1990). *Contending Theories of International Relations: A Comprehensive Survey*, 3rd Edition, And New York: Harper and Row Publishers Ltd.
- Easthope, C., & Easthope, G. (2007). Teachers' stories of change: Stress, care and economic rationality. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 32 (1), 1-16.
- Effendi, M. Y. (1995). "The world of the secret services: Intelligence, Espionage, and special Operation," *Pakistan Defense Review* 7(I) Summer: pp.27-28.
- Ember, C. R. (1988). *Guide to Cross-cultural Research Using the HRAF*. New Haven: HRAF Press.
- Feldman, D.H. (1999). The Development of Creativity. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of creativity* (pp. 169-188). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Firestone, W. A., & Pennell, J. R. (1993). Teacher commitment, working conditions, and differential incentive policies. *Review of Educational Research*, 63 (4), 489-525.
- Frankenberg, E., Taylor, A., & Merseth, K. (2010). Walking the walk: Teacher candidates' professed commitment and their subsequent career decisions. *Urban Education*, 45 (3), 312-346.
- Fresko, B., Kfir, D., & Nasser, F. (1997). Predicting teacher commitment. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 13 (4), 429-438.
- Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction* (6th Ed.) White Plains, NY: Longman Publishers USA.
- Helsby, G., Knight, P., McCulloch, G., Saunders, & M., Warburton, T. (1997). Professionalism in crisis. A report to participants on the professional cultures of teacher's research project, Lancaster University, January 1997.
- Henjum, R. (1992). Basic Thoughts on commitment. *Guidance & Counseling*, 8 (2), 6-15.
- Hong, E., Roberta, M. M, & Lonnie, L. R. (2004). Homework Motivation and Preference: A learner-centered homework approach. *Theory into practice*, 43(3): 197-204.
- Huberman, M. (1993). *The lives of teachers*. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Huntington, S. P. (1957). *The soldier and the state: The Theory and politics of civil relations* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press).
- Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., & Steinbach, R. (1999). *Changing leadership for changing times*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Kak, K. (2000). "Revolution in Military Affairs-An Appraisal", *Strategic Analysis* – April 2000, IDSA India, p. 5.
- Knowles, M. (2005). *The adult learner; a neglected species* (4th edn). Gulf Publishing Company, Houston.
- Kounin, J. (1970). *Discipline amid Group Management in Classroom*, Rinehart and Winston, New York: Halt.
- Mengxiong, C. (1998). "Chinese Views of Future Warfare", New Delhi, Lancer Publishers, pp. 249-260, *Weapons of the 21st Century*.
- Mohd, S & Mohd, T. (2002). *Tinjauan Terhadap Faktor-Faktor Yang Memberi Motivasi Kepada Kreativiti Guru Dalam Pengajaran Mata Pelajaran Kemahiran Hidup Di Enam Buah Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan Daerah Johor Bahru*, Fakulti Pendidikan, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, eprints.utm.my.
- Morgenthau, H. (1985). *Politics among Nations: The struggle for power and peace*, New York: McGraw-Hill publishers.
- Mugenda, O. M & Mugenda, A. G. (2003). *Research methods. Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Nairobi. Acts Press.
- Mulkeen, A. (2010) *Teachers in Anglophone Africa: Issues in teacher supply, training, and management*. Washington: World Bank Publications.
- Nassiuma, D.K. (2000). *Survey sampling: Theory and methods*. Nairobi: University of Nairobi Press.
- O'Hanlon, M. (2000). "Technological Change and Future of Warfare", Washington DC, Brookings Institution Press, p. 24.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report (1994) *Quality in Teaching*. OECD, Paris, pp.13-14.
- Orodho, A. J. (2008). *Elements of education and social science research methods*. Nairobi: Kanezja.
- Petrowski, M.J. (2000). *Creativity research: implications for teaching, learning and thinking*, *Reference Services Review*, 28(4): 304-312.

- Rice, J.K. (2003). *Teacher Quality: Understanding the Effects of Teacher Attributes*. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute.
- Richardson, P. W & Watt, H. M. (2010) Current and future directions in teacher motivation research. *The decade ahead: Applications and contexts of motivation and achievement*, 16, 139-173.
- Rosenholtz, S. J. (1989). *Teachers' workplace: The social organization of school*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Simplicio, J.S.C. (2000). Teaching Classroom Educators How to Be More Effective and Creative Teachers, *Education*, 120(4): 675-680.
- Tsui, K.T. & Cheng, Y.C. (1999). School organizational health and teacher commitment: A contingency study with multi-level analysis. *Educational Research and Evaluation: An International Journal on Theory and Practice*, 5 (3), 249-268.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2015) *Rapport mondial de suivi sur l'EPT 2015: Achievements and challenges*. Paris: UNESCO. Wagner, J. & Gooding, R. (2007). Shared influence and organizational behaviour: a meta-analysis of situational variables expected to moderate participation-outcome relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30, 524-541.
- Weisberg, R.W. (1999). Creativity and knowledge: A challenge to theories. In R.J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of creativity* (pp.226-251). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.