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2
3 **Influence of Training and Individual Factors on Knowledge Retention among Community**
4 **Health Promoters: Baseline Evidence from Nyandarua County, Kenya.**
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6

7 **Abstract**

8 **Background:** Knowledge retention among Community Health Promoters(CHPs)is essential for
9 sustaining effective community health within primary healthcare and Universal Health Coverage.
10 However, post-training knowledge decay is persistent in low- and middle-income countries and
11 Kenya is no exceptional. This study examined the influence of training and individual factors on
12 knowledge retention among CHPs in Nyandarua County, Kenya based on their entry training
13 received in different years since Kenya's Community Health Strategy introduction in 2006.

14 **Methods:**A descriptive cross-sectional design was employed among 1,390 in-service CHPs. The
15 minimum sample size of 311 was determined using Yamane's (1967) formula at a 95% confidence
16 level and 5% margin of error. To enhance representativeness, statistical power and account for
17 potential non-response, this was increased to 482 through cluster sampling across 30 randomly
18 selected Community Health Units. Data were collected using a structured self-administered
19 questionnaire and a knowledge retention test. Analysis was conducted using SPSS using descriptive
20 statistics, bivariate linear regression and regression ANOVA. However, the cross-sectional design
21 limited causal and longitudinal inference and findings were restricted to in-service CHPs in
22 Nyandarua County, limiting generalizability.

23 **Results:**Training factors showed a weak but significant positive relationship with knowledge
24 retention ($R = 0.163$, $R^2 = 0.027$; 2.7% variation; $p = .003$), with regression confirming a positive
25 effect ($\beta = 5.590$, $p = .003$). Individual factors showed a very weak, non-significant relationship ($R =$
26 0.077 , $R^2 = 0.006$; 0.6% variation; $p = .168$), with regression indicating no significant effect ($\beta =$
27 0.071 , $p = .168$).

28 **Conclusion:** Training factors had a statistically significant but modest influence, whereas individual
29 factors had a minimal influence. These associations suggested that knowledge retention could also be
30 influenced by additional and complex factors beyond those examined. Strengthening training
31 designs, reinforcement mechanisms and broader contextual determinants was recommended to
32 heighten post-training knowledge retention among CHPs.
33

34 **Keywords:**Community Health Promoters; Knowledge Retention; Training Factors; Health
35 Workforce; Primary Healthcare; Nyandarua County.
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41 **1.0: Introduction**

42 The pursuit of Primary Healthcare (PHC), Community Health (CH) and Universal Health Coverage
43 (UHC) globally originates from the Alma-Ata Declaration of 1978, which established the foundation
44 for equitable and effective health systems. Frontline healthcare workers (HCWs) remain central to
45 achieving these goals, particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) where shortages of
46 trained personnel persist. Effective service delivery depends on HCWs having continuous access to
47 accurate and updated health information. However, ineffective knowledge management can create
48 information gaps that compromise healthcare quality and health outcomes (Rifkin, 2018).
49

50 A persistent challenge facing health systems worldwide is the rapid decline of knowledge and skills
51 following training. Conventional approaches such as condensed workshops and one-off training
52 sessions often produce high immediate competency gains but fail to sustain long-term knowledge
53 retention. This results in reduced service delivery proficiency, weakened decision-making
54 capabilities and inefficient utilization of scarce human resource for health (HRH) training
55 investments. The challenge is particularly evident in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), where frontline
56 HCWs are essential to maternal, neonatal and infectious disease programs despite substantial post-
57 training knowledge decay. Evidence shows that knowledge retention is shaped by a combination of
58 training and individual factors. In these, training quality and pedagogy plays a critical role in
59 promoting deeper learning, memory consolidation and sustained competency (Rogers et al., 2023;
60 Wanjohi et al., 2022; George et al., 2024; Carpenter et al., 2022).

61
62 Emerging evidence further indicates that training-related factors significantly but modestly influence
63 knowledge retention outcomes. These include training structure, instructional approaches, duration,
64 content organization, learning materials, language of instruction and opportunities for reinforcement.
65 Learner-centered and interactive training methods enhance engagement and understanding, while
66 poorly structured or lecture-based approaches are associated with faster knowledge decay. In
67 addition, reinforcement mechanisms such as refresher training, mentoring and continuous learning
68 opportunities are critical in sustaining competence and reducing the effects of the forgetting curve
69 (George et al., 2024; Sacks et al., 2020; Elias et al., 2024; Murre & Dros, 2025; Carpenter et al.,
70 2022).

71
72 Beyond the training design, individual factors also play a significant role in shaping knowledge
73 retention. These include age, educational attainment, prior training experience, motivation and
74 cognitive readiness, all of which influence how new information is processed and retained. Prior
75 exposure to relevant training and field experience may enhance learning capacity and improve long-
76 term competence. However, these individual capabilities often operate within constrained contexts
77 where HCWs face competing demands such as household economic pressures, caregiving
78 responsibilities, workload intensity and geographical barriers. These factors increase cognitive load,
79 reduce available time for learning and limit opportunities for knowledge reinforcement, thereby
80 contributing to variation in post-training performance among similarly trained individuals (Wanjohi
81 et al., 2022; Kavle et al., 2019; Tsofa et al., 2017; Sacks et al., 2020; Sweller et al., 2019).

82
83 In Kenya, Community Health Promoters (CHPs) constitute the frontline workforce responsible for
84 implementing the Community Health Strategy and extending PHC services to communities (Ministry
85 of Health [MoH], 2021). They are selected from the communities they serve and undergo
86 standardized training before deployment. However, their performance remains inconsistent due to
87 variations in training experiences, individual characteristics and other contextual factors. In
88 Nyandarua County, these variations are further shaped by unique agricultural, socioeconomic and
89 environmental conditions that influence both learning processes and service delivery realities
90 (Wanjohi et al., 2022).

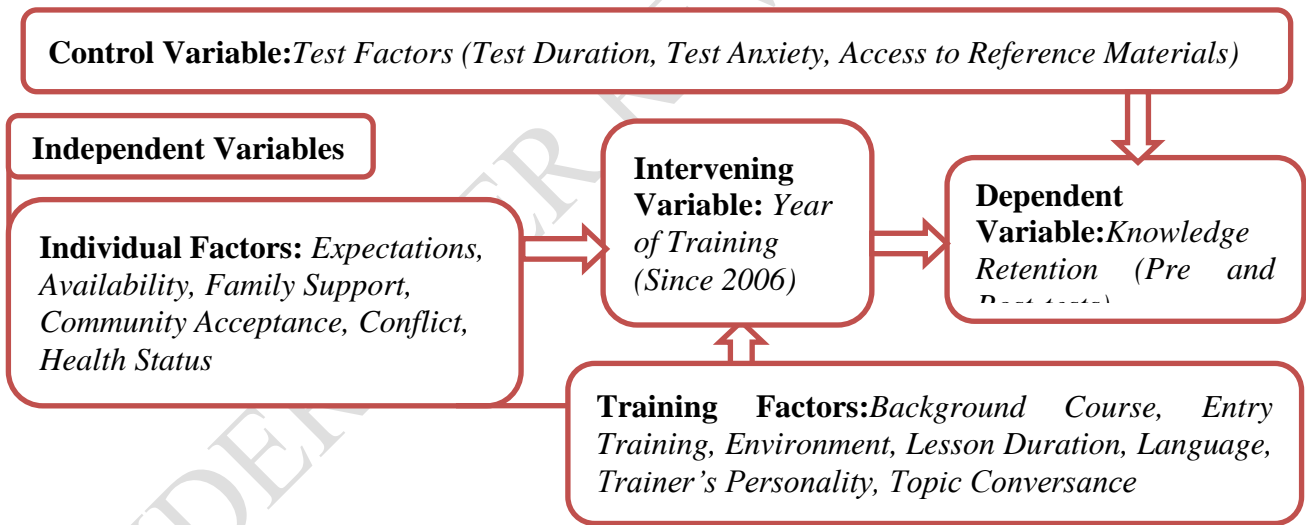
91
92 As the first point of contact for many healthcare services, CHPs play a critical role in advancing
93 community health services as a backbone for Universal Health Coverage (UHC), particularly in
94 resource-constrained settings. However, their effectiveness is constrained by weaknesses in training
95 systems and individual-level challenges that affect long-term knowledge retention and performance.
96 Evidence indicates that traditional one-time training approaches are insufficient for sustaining
97 competency, highlighting the need for continuous learning and reinforcement mechanisms to
98 maintain knowledge over time (World Health Organization, 2018; Elias et al., 2024; Rogers et al.,
99 2023).

100

101 Despite substantial public investment in CHP training, concerns remain regarding the sustainability
 102 of acquired knowledge and skills. Reliance on massed training approaches and limited post-training
 103 evaluation has contributed to uncertainty about the factors influencing long-term knowledge
 104 retention. Since the formalization of the Kenya Community Health Strategy in 2006, systematic
 105 assessment of CHP post-training knowledge retention has been limited, leaving policymakers and
 106 training planners with insufficient empirical evidence to guide effective interventions (George et al.,
 107 2024; Wanjohi et al., 2022). Consequently, training programs continue to be implemented without
 108 adequate understanding of how training and individual factors interact to influence sustained learning
 109 outcomes, potentially reducing the effectiveness of training investments (Carpenter et al., 2022;
 110 Rogers et al., 2023).

111
 112 This study is anchored on Baldwin and Ford's Transfer of Training Model, which posits that training
 113 outcomes are influenced by the interaction of training design, trainee characteristics and the work
 114 environment, although the latter was not examined in this study (Wanjohi et al., 2022; Rogers et al.,
 115 2023; Sweller et al., 2019). The model further emphasizes that knowledge acquisition and retention
 116 are shaped by both the quality of training and learner attributes, with reinforcement playing a critical
 117 role in preventing knowledge decay over time (Elias et al., 2024). Guided by this framework, the
 118 study examines the influence of training and individual factors as the independent variables and
 119 knowledge retention as the dependent variable among the CHPs in Nyandarua County. While test
 120 factors were a controlling variable, year of entry training was an intervening variable (Figure 1.1).
 121 This hoped to generate evidence for supporting targeted, adaptive and sustainable training
 122 interventions.

123
 124 **1.1: Conceptual Framework**



125 Source: Author, 2026

126 **Figure 1.1** above illustrates the relationship between independent, dependent, intervening and control
 127 variables in the study.

128
 129 **2.0 Materials and Methods**

130 **2.1: Study Design**

131 This study employed a descriptive cross-sectional design to assess retained knowledge from the entry
 132 training among the in-service CHPs recruited since the formalization of Kenya's Community Health
 133 Strategy in 2006. The design enabled the assessment of knowledge retention at a single point in time
 134 using quantitative methods.

135
 136 **2.2: Study Area and Population**

137 The study was conducted among the in-service CHPs in Nyandarua County, Kenya. The target
138 population comprised of all theretained (N = 1,390)CHPsofficially registered within the County
139 Department of Health Services. The retained CHPs were 36.8% of the original workforce, which
140 meant that 63.2% had already dropped out and were therefore inaccessible for interview.

141

142 **2.3: Sample Size Determination**

143 The sample size was determined using Yamane’s (1967) formula for finite populations, yielding a
144 minimum sample size of n = 311 at a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error:

$$145 \quad n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = 311$$

146
147 Where *n* was the desired sample size, *N*the target population (1,390), and *e* (0.05) the degree of
148 precision at a 95% confidence level (CI) and a 5% margin of error.This approach was appropriate for
149 finite populations because it provides relatively stable and precise estimates (Adam, 2020; Frost,
150 2024).

151

152 **2.4: Sampling Procedure**

153 A cluster sampling approach was applied across all 25 wards of Nyandarua County by selecting one
154 Community Health Unit (CHU) per ward. To enhance representativeness, statistical power and
155 compensate for potential non-responsiveness, an additional CHU per sub-county was randomly
156 selected. This resulted to a total of 30 CHUs and an expanded sample size of n = 482
157 respondents.Within each selected CHU, a census-by-cluster approach was used whereby all CHPs
158 attending mandatory monthly meetings during the data collection period were invited to participate.
159 Larger samples improve statistical precision, reduce sampling error, increase statistical power and
160 enhance reliability. However, standard formulas may not fully account for population heterogeneity
161 in complex field settings (Sathyanarayana et al., 2024).

162

163 **2.5: Data Collection Instruments and Procedures**

164 Data were collected using a structured self-administered questionnaire and a knowledge retention
165 test. The questionnaire captured training and individual factors. The knowledge retention test
166 assessed knowledge retention levels among the respondents.

167

168 **2.6: Validity and Reliability**

169 Content validity was ensured through expert review using standardized checklists and alignment of
170 the instruments with the national Community Health Promoters (CHPs) training manual. The tools
171 were pretested in Community Health Units (CHUs) located at the periphery of the study area that
172 were not included in the final sample. Face and construct validity were strengthened through expert
173 evaluation and pretesting. Reliability of the questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach’s alpha
174 coefficient, yielding values of $\alpha = 0.78$ and $\alpha = 0.74$ for training and individual factors, respectively.
175 An alpha coefficient of 0.70 or higher is generally considered acceptable for internal consistency
176 (Frost, 2021).

177

178 To enhance reliability and minimize measurement bias during knowledge assessment, standardized
179 testing procedures were applied. All respondents completed the knowledge retention test within the
180 same duration (20 minutes) and during the same data collection period across the county.
181 Participants were informed that the assessment was solely for research purposes and would not result
182 in any follow-up actions or negative consequences, thereby reducing test anxiety. In addition, access
183 to learning reference materials, including books and mobile phones, was prohibited during test
184 administration to ensure uniform testing conditions.

185

186 **2.7: Quality Control and Bias Reduction**

187 Internal validity was strengthened through random selection of CHUs across all wards,
188 standardization of data collection procedures and uniform administration of assessments. Participant

189 blinding to test content prior to assessment and assurances of confidentiality were used to reduce
190 response and test anxiety bias.

191

192 **2.8: Data Management and Analysis**

193 Data were cleaned, coded and analyzed using SPSS version 25. A total of 320 questionnaires were
194 completed and analyzed, representing 102.9% of the minimum sample size (n=311) and 66.4% of the
195 expanded cluster sample (n=482). Descriptive statistics were used to summarize independent
196 variable characteristics. Bivariate linear regression was used to examine the relationship between
197 independent and the dependent variables, with β coefficients indicating the strength, direction and
198 significance of associations. Regression ANOVA (F-test) assessed overall model significance by
199 testing whether predictors jointly explained variation in knowledge retention relative to a null model.
200 Although useful, these methods may have increased the risk of overfitting, potentially reducing
201 generalizability and predictive validity (Frost, 2023).

202

203 **2.9: Variable Transformation**

204 Likert-scale responses for the independent and dependent variables were transformed into composite
205 indices by aggregating related items. This improved measurement reliability and enabled quantitative
206 analysis by approximating continuous variables suitable for regression techniques. However, this
207 approach may have reduced item-level detail, masked multidimensional constructs and assumed
208 equal weighting of items (Koo & Yang, 2025).

209

210 **2.10: Statistical Considerations**

211 Regression analysis was appropriate for this study as it allows identification of extreme observations
212 and assessment of their influence on model estimates while distinguishing errors from valid outliers.
213 However, it is limited by statistical assumptions, sensitivity to outliers, mostly focusing on
214 association rather than causation with the risk of overfitting (Varin & Panagiotakos, 2019).

215

216 **2.11: Methodological Triangulation**

217 Methodological triangulation was achieved through the combined use of regression analysis and
218 regression ANOVA. This strengthened robustness, credibility and inferential strength by integrating
219 association testing and model evaluation. However, this approach may have introduced analytical
220 complexity, differing statistical assumptions and potential Type I error inflation if not properly
221 controlled. Nevertheless, it enhances confidence in findings when rightly aligned with the study
222 objectives (Arias, 2022).

223

224 **2.12: Delimitations of the Study**

225 This study was deliberately confined to the CHPs operating within Nyandarua County, Kenya. As
226 such, the findings are context-specific and reflect the training environment, health system structure
227 and socioeconomic conditions unique to this county. While this enhances contextual depth and
228 internal validity, it limits generalizability to other counties or national-level CHP populations unless
229 where the contexts are similar.

230

231 The study focused exclusively on CHPs who were actively registered and available during the data
232 collection period, excluding those who had exited the program. Consequently, the results may not
233 represent the experiences of CHP dropouts or absent CHPs who did not attend the mandatory monthly
234 meetings during data collection.

235

236 In addition, the study employed a quantitative design using structured questionnaires and a
237 knowledge retention test. Qualitative dimensions such as lived experiences, perceptions of training
238 effectiveness and contextual barriers to learning were not explored.

239

240 Finally, the analysis focused on training and individual factors as predictors of knowledge retention.
 241 Other potential determinants such as organizational support, supervision quality and health system
 242 infrastructure were not included in the analytical model. This scope restriction was necessary to
 243 maintain analytical clarity and statistical focus.

244
 245 **3.0: Results**

246 **3.1: Respondents' Perception on Training Factors**

247 Table 3.1 below presents respondents' perceptions of training factors among CHPs in Nyandarua
 248 County.

Item	SD (%)	D (%)	N (%)	A (%)	SA (%)	n	Mean	SD
Received CHP training before starting CHP work	0.9	5.7	1.3	42.3	49.8	320	4.34	0.84
Have another course apart from the CHP training	9.3	18.6	5.1	38.3	28.6	320	3.58	1.32
Always have ready internet for Learning	26.3	26.9	5.8	27.9	13.1	320	2.75	1.44
Get health learning materials	14.6	26.0	11.0	33.4	14.9	320	3.08	1.33
Often invited for health meetings to help you learn	5.0	13.6	6.9	54.6	19.9	320	3.71	1.09
CHP training venue was good for learning	0.9	9.1	11.4	47.6	30.9	320	3.98	0.94
Time lessons took for CHP training was enough	9.4	29.6	13.0	34.2	13.7	320	3.13	1.25
Training language was simply understandable	0.9	3.8	4.1	51.6	39.6	320	4.25	0.78
Liked appearance of CHPs trainers	1.6	1.9	2.5	48.7	45.3	320	4.34	0.76
Trainers understood topics well	1.6	2.6	6.1	47.9	41.9	320	4.26	0.81
Overall Average							3.75	0.54

249 *Note: SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, N = Neutral, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree, n = sample size; M =*
 250 *Mean; SD = Standard Deviation.*

251 Respondents strongly agreed (mean= 4.34) that they received CHP training before starting work and
 252 positively rated trainers' competence, appearance and communication, with high mean scores
 253 ($\approx 4.25-4.34$). They also agreed that the training venue and additional learning opportunities were
 254 supportive (means 3.71–3.98). They also agreed moderately (mean 3.58) that they had received other
 255 training beyond CHP entry training. Neutral responses (means 2.75–3.13) were recorded regarding
 256 adequacy of learning materials, training duration and internet access, indicating gaps in learning
 257 resources and digital access. Overall, training factors were positively rated (mean = 3.75).
 258

259 **3.2: Model Summary of Training Factors on Knowledge Retention**

260 **Table 3.1: Model Summary of Training Factors on Knowledge Retention**

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Change Statistics					
				Std. Error of Estimate	R ² Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change
1	.163 ^a	.027	.024	18.140	.027	8.693	1	317	.003

a. Predictors: (Constant), Training factors

261
 262 The findings indicated a weak positive relationship between training factors and knowledge retention
 263 among CHPs, with a correlation coefficient (R = 0.163). The coefficient of determination (R² =
 264 0.027) shows that training factors explain only 2.7% of the variation in knowledge retention, while

265 the adjusted R² (0.024) confirms that this explanatory power remains low after model adjustment.
 266 Overall, training factors contributed a weak but positive influence on knowledge retention.
 267

268 3.3: ANOVA Results of Training Factors on Knowledge Retention

269 **Table 3.3:** ANOVA Results of Training Factors on Knowledge Retention

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2860.625	1	2860.625	8.693	.003 ^b
	Residual	104312.372	317	329.061		
	Total	107172.997	318			

a. Dependent Variable: Score

b. Predictors: (Constant), Training factors

270
 271 The ANOVA results showed that the regression model was statistically but modestly significant, F
 272 (1, 317) = 8.693, p = .003, indicating that training factors significantly but weakly predicted
 273 knowledge retention among CHPs. Overall, training-related aspects such as training delivery,
 274 refresher meetings, training language, learning environment, trainers' competence and learning
 275 materials were significant contributors to knowledge retention among CHPs.
 276

277 3.4: Regression Coefficients of Training Factors on Knowledge Retention

278 **Table 3.2:** Regression Coefficients of Training Factors on Knowledge Retention

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	7.496	7.179		1.044	.297
	Training factors	5.590	1.896	.163	2.948	.003

a. Dependent Variable: Score

279
 280 The regression results showed that training factors have a modestly significant positive effect on
 281 knowledge retention among CHPs. A unit increase in training factors led to a 5.590 unit increase in
 282 knowledge retention ($\beta = 5.590$, p = .003), indicating a direct but a modest statistically significant
 283 relationship. The constant value (7.496) suggests that baseline knowledge retention existed even
 284 without training factors, though at a lower level. Overall, improvements in training-related factors
 285 significantly but modestly would enhance knowledge retention among CHPs.
 286

287 3.5: Respondents' Perception on Individual Factors

288 Table 3.5 below presents respondents' perceptions of individual factors among CHPs in Nyandarua
 289 County.

Item	SD (%)	D (%)	N (%)	A (%)	SA (%)	n	M	SD
Expectations met	9.6	21.8	28.8	25.0	14.7	320	3.13	1.20
Always available	1.6	1.6	1.6	40.8	54.4	320	4.45	0.75
Family acceptance	2.6	4.5	4.5	47.6	40.8	320	4.20	0.91
Community acceptance	1.9	0.9	6.6	47.2	43.4	320	4.29	0.79
Feel good about work	1.3	0.6	1.6	44.0	52.5	320	4.46	0.69
Personal work not lowering CHP work	3.3	5.3	10.6	52.5	28.4	320	3.97	0.95
Personal health not lowering CHP work	8.3	8.0	8.6	40.1	35.0	320	3.86	1.22
Overall Average							4.06	0.53

290 Note: SD = Strongly Disagree, D = Disagree, N = Neutral, A = Agree, SA = Strongly Agree, n = sample size; M =
 291 Mean; SD = Standard Deviation.

292 Respondents were neutral regarding whether their expectations as CHPs had been met (mean = 3.13),
 293 indicating mixed perceptions. However, they generally agreed that family support, personal
 294 commitments and personal health did not hinder their CHP responsibilities. They also strongly
 295 agreed that the community was supportive (mean=4.29) and that CHPs felt positive(mean=4.46)
 296 about their CHP work. Overall, individual factors were positively rated (mean = 4.06 ± 0.53),
 297 suggesting that family support, positive attitudes, and community acceptance contributed favorably
 298 to CHP engagement.
 299

300 **3.6: Model Summary of the Effect of Individual Factors on Knowledge Retention**

301 **Table 3.6: Model Summary of the Effect of Individual Factors on Knowledge Retention^a**

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of Estimate	R ² Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.077 ^a	.006	.003	.491	.006	1.905	1	318	.168

302 *a. Predictors: (Constant), Individual factors*

303 *b. Dependent Variable: Score in the test*

304
 305 The findings indicated a very weak positive relationship between individual factors and knowledge
 306 retention among CHPs, with a correlation coefficient, R = 0.077. The coefficient of determination
 307 (R² = 0.006) showed that individual factors explained only 0.6% of the variation in knowledge
 308 retention, while the adjusted R² (0.003) confirms an even lower explanatory power after adjustment.
 309 Overall, individual factors contributed minimally to knowledge retention among CHPs.
 310

311 **3.7: ANOVA of the Effect of Individual Factors on Knowledge Retention**

312 **Table 3.7: ANOVA of the Effect of Individual Factors on Knowledge Retention^a**

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	.458	1	.458	1.905	.168 ^b
Residual	76.514	318	.241		
Total	76.972	319			

313 *a. Dependent Variable: Score in the test*

314 *b. Predictors: (Constant), Individual factors*

315
 316 The ANOVA results showed that the regression model was not statistically significant, F (1, 318) =
 317 1.905, p = .168 (> .05), indicating that individual factors did not significantly predict knowledge
 318 retention among CHPs. Overall, the model was not useful in explaining variations in knowledge
 319 retention among CHPs.
 320

321 **3.8: Coefficients of the Effect of Individual Factors on Knowledge Retention**

322 **Table 3.8: Coefficients of the Effect of Individual Factors on Knowledge Retention^a**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1 (Constant)	.921	.211		4.367	.000
Individual factors	.071	.051	.077	1.380	.168

323 *a. Dependent Variable: Score in the test*

324 The regression results indicated a positive but statistically non-significant relationship between
 325 individual factors and knowledge retention among CHPs ($\beta = 0.071$, p = .168). Although
 326 improvements in individual factors were associated with slight increases in knowledge retention, the
 327 effect was not statistically significant, suggesting that individual factors were not meaningful
 328 predictors of knowledge retention. This implies that other factors may have played a greater role in
 329 influencing knowledge retention among CHPs.
 330

331 **4.0: Discussion**

332 This study examined the influence of training and individual factors on knowledge retention among
333 CHPs in Nyandarua County, Kenya. The findings indicated that training factors were associated with
334 knowledge retention, whereas individual factors showed no significant influence. These results
335 suggest that the sustainability of learning among CHPs is shaped more by the quality of training than
336 by individual factors.

337
338 The significant influence of training factors highlights the importance of training design in
339 supporting long-term retention of knowledge among frontline health workers. Effective training
340 extends beyond initial knowledge acquisition and requires instructional approaches that facilitate
341 comprehension, memory consolidation and continued application of learning. These findings are
342 consistent with studies demonstrating that learner-centered pedagogies, structured content delivery
343 and opportunities for active engagement contribute to improved retention and performance among
344 healthcare workers (Rogers et al., 2023; Wanjohi et al., 2022). Similarly, George et al. (2024) and
345 Carpenter et al. (2022) emphasized that interactive learning approaches and reinforcement strategies
346 enhance long-term retention by promoting retrieval practice and reducing knowledge decay.

347
348 The descriptive findings provide further insight into the mechanisms through which training may
349 influence retention. Respondents generally reported positive perceptions of trainers' competence,
350 communication and the training environment, suggesting that instructional quality was a strength of
351 the CHP training program. However, relatively lower ratings for internet access, learning materials,
352 and adequacy of training duration point to potential weaknesses in learning reinforcement. Previous
353 research indicates that access to learning resources and continuous opportunities for practice are
354 essential for maintaining competencies after training (Elias et al., 2024; Sacks et al., 2020). Without
355 reinforcement, knowledge gained during initial training is likely to decline over time, consistent with
356 established evidence on the forgetting curve and memory decay (Murre&Dros, 2025).

357
358 Although training factors were significant predictors, their overall explanatory contribution was
359 relatively small. This suggests that knowledge retention is influenced by a broader set of
360 determinants beyond the training characteristics examined in this study. Community health workers
361 often operate within complex environments characterized by workload pressures, limited resources,
362 competing responsibilities and varying levels of supervision. Such contextual factors may affect
363 opportunities for knowledge application and reinforcement, thereby influencing retention outcomes
364 (Tsofa et al., 2017; Wanjohi et al., 2022). Consequently, improving training quality alone may not be
365 sufficient to optimize long-term competency unless accompanied by supportive organizational and
366 system-level interventions.

367
368 In contrast, individual factors did not demonstrate a significant influence on knowledge retention.
369 Although respondents generally reported positive attitudes toward their work, family support and
370 community acceptance, these attributes were not associated with measurable differences in retained
371 knowledge. This finding suggests that favorable personal and social circumstances may support
372 participation and engagement in community health activities but may not necessarily translate into
373 improved cognitive acquisition or retention of training content. Similar observations have been
374 reported in resource-constrained settings where structural and environmental conditions exert a
375 stronger influence on performance than individual characteristics (Kavle et al., 2019; Sacks et al.,
376 2020).

377
378 These findings are consistent with Baldwin and Ford's Transfer of Training Model, which
379 emphasizes that training outcomes depend on the interaction of training design, trainee
380 characteristics and environmental factors. The current study provides evidence that training design
381 appears to be more influential than trainee characteristics in determining retained knowledge among
382 CHPs. This supports the view that knowledge retention is not solely an individual cognitive process

383 but is strongly shaped by instructional quality and opportunities for post-training reinforcement
384 (Sweller et al., 2019; Rogers et al., 2023). Therefore, even highly motivated individuals may
385 experience knowledge decline when learning is not supported through refresher training, mentorship
386 and continuous professional development.

387
388 An additional consideration was the variation in the year of entry training among CHPs. Since
389 participants received their initial training at different periods following the introduction of Kenya's
390 Community Health Strategy in 2006, they may have been exposed to different curricula, instructional
391 methods and support systems. Changes in training content and implementation over time may have
392 contributed to variation in retention outcomes that was not fully captured in the present analysis.
393 Future studies should therefore examine cohort effects and the influence of training recency on
394 knowledge retention.

395
396 Several limitations should be considered when interpreting these findings. First, the cross-sectional
397 design limits the ability to establish causal relationships or directly assess changes in knowledge over
398 time. Second, the use of self-administered questionnaires may have introduced response bias, while
399 the knowledge assessment captured retention at a single point rather than longitudinally. Third, the
400 study was confined to in-service CHPs in Nyandarua County, limiting the generalizability of findings
401 to other settings which are not similar. Finally, the low explanatory power of the models suggests
402 that additional factors, which may include supervision quality, organizational support, workplace
403 learning opportunities and broader health system characteristics, may play a substantial role in
404 determining knowledge retention.

405
406 Despite these limitations, the study contributes important evidence on factors associated with
407 knowledge retention among Community Health Promoters in Kenya. The findings underscore the
408 importance of strengthening training quality through learner-centered approaches, adequate learning
409 resources, refresher training, mentorship and continuous professional development. Future research
410 should adopt longitudinal designs and incorporate organizational, contextual and cohort-related
411 variables to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the determinants of sustained learning
412 and knowledge retention among CHPs.

413 414 **5.0: Conclusion**

415 This study concluded that training factors play a statistically but modestly significant role in
416 determining knowledge retention among CHPs in Nyandarua County, while individual factors did
417 not significantly influence retention outcomes. Although training-related variables such as trainer
418 competence, training structure, learning environment and reinforcement mechanisms positively
419 influenced knowledge retention, their overall explanatory power remained low, indicating that
420 knowledge retention is likely shaped by broader contextual, organizational and system-level factors
421 beyond training alone.

422
423 In contrast, individual characteristics such as education level, motivation, and prior experience
424 showed no statistically significant effect on knowledge retention, suggesting that structural and
425 instructional conditions of training are more influential than personal attributes in determining
426 learning outcomes in this setting.

427
428 The relatively low explanatory power of the models may be attributed to the complexity of
429 knowledge retention as an outcome, which is influenced by multiple interacting factors beyond those
430 captured in the study, including workplace reinforcement, supervision quality and health system
431 support. Additionally, variation in the year of training may have introduced cohort effects, as CHPs
432 trained at different times were likely exposed to differing curricula, training methodologies and
433 health system priorities, which may have influenced retention levels.

434

435 From a policy perspective, the findings underscore the need to shift from isolated, one-off training
436 models toward structured continuous learning systems that incorporate refresher training,
437 mentorship, supportive supervision and strengthened learning resources. Training programs should
438 be redesigned to emphasize sustained competency development rather than short-term knowledge
439 acquisition.

440
441 Overall, the study highlights that improving knowledge retention among CHPs requires a system-
442 wide approach that integrates high-quality training design with continuous reinforcement
443 mechanisms and supportive health system structures. Strengthening these elements is essential for
444 ensuring sustained competency and improving the effectiveness of community health service
445 delivery in resource-constrained settings.

446 **Ethical Considerations**

447 The study complied with Kenyatta University postgraduate ethical guidelines and obtained approval
448 from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI/Ref. No,
449 728874). Additional permissions were obtained from the Nyandarua County Department of Health
450 Services, the County Commissioner’s Office and the County Director of Education. Participation
451 was voluntary, and informed consent was obtained from all respondents prior to data collection.
452

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457

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