

Community-Engaged Scholarship in African Higher Education: Exploring Faculty
Motivations and Barriers to Community-Engaged Scholarship in Malawi

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Abstract

This research study examines the factors influencing the motivations of faculty at three Malawian public universities across six campuses in conducting community-engaged scholarship. The study employed a mixed-methods approach in which data were collected using a survey of community-engaged scholarship and in-depth interviews with a total of 110 faculty members who conduct community-engaged scholarship. Analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data reveal the influence of personal, institutional and external community incentives, including but not limited to the desire to teach well, personal commitments to specific issues and people, a perceived fit between community engagement and disciplinary goals, and availability of internationally funds by donors. This mixed-methods study found that faculty in Malawi, like elsewhere in African and the United States, have a rich reservoir of motivations that are rooted in personal goals, cultural background, and institutional norms of practice. Findings suggest that motivation for community-engaged scholarship likely varies by type of engagement and the overall proportion of time faculty members consider to spend on community-engaged scholarship. The study also finds that the increasing marketization of community-engaged scholarship and higher education in general has a paradoxical influence on what faculty report as motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship in the Malawian context. While community engagement has forced faculty to plod the new territory that views scholarship as entrepreneurship, it has also cast faculty as “intersectors” bridging various stakeholder interests and needs to solve scholarship and societal problems. As main actors positioned at a significant scholarship position, the

study reveals how faculty aspirations intersect at the need to improve their personal knowledge, students' capacity to learn, transform society and contribute to their disciplines. However, these faculty motivations and aspirations are contradicted and limited by incomprehensive institutional and government support and the overreliance on external community supports which are competitive, tied to donor goals and very time specific.

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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Introduction

During the last couple of decades, universities and faculty members' community engagement to promote community development and national economic growth has emerged as an important priority among many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and elsewhere (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2006; Hall, 2010). Much of the published educational research on community engagement, however, has been produced through the lens of U.S. universities or through collaborations between U.S. researchers and researchers from SSA. The understanding, control and support of the research design and knowledge production on community engagement has therefore been heavily maintained and influenced by organizations emanating from the context other than the African continent (Maclure, 2006). While this situation may have led to a skewed construction and understanding of community engagement in particular, and education and development in SSA in general, it has shaped and created foundational knowledge of how universities interact with communities to deal with societal problems through community engagement.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching defines community engagement as the collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities (local, regional/state, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity (Carnegie, 2006).

The Carnegie Foundation uses this definition to designate and classify U.S. colleges and universities as community-engaged institutions.

As the Carnegie definition suggests, community engagement in the U.S context differs from traditional conceptualizations of public service and outreach in important ways. This distinction came about because of the longstanding historical tradition in U.S higher education –in which universities had been a driving force of change in societies through advancement in industries, health and other social processes albeit in a unidirectional way (Boyer, 1996; American Association of State Universities, 2002; Association of Commonwealth Universities, 2001; Finkelstein, 2001; Holland, 2001). Specifically, universities’ service and outreach are typically conceived as one-way approaches to delivering knowledge and service to the public. The more contemporary understanding of community engagement, as purported by the Carnegie Foundation, emphasizes a two-way, mutually beneficial approach in which higher education institutions partner and collaborate with communities to develop and apply knowledge to address societal needs such as dealing with health, educational, political, environmental and economic problems (Boyer, 1996; Kellogg Commission, 1999; Boyte, 2004; Ehrlich, 2000; Kezar, Chambers, and Burkhardt, 2005). This approach values the expertise and experience that lie outside of the academy, and the importance of this external knowledge to advancing the work of higher education.

In the SSA context, the significance of universities’ community engagement in dealing with societal needs over the past four decades has been influenced by the unprecedented growth in higher education and the growing view of higher education as a

panacea to the regional socioeconomic, political and developmental problem (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2006). This shift in the local and international policy and community's attitude toward higher education has placed great value in universities and faculty involvement in community development particularly as a way of alleviating poverty. In recent years, key organizations such as the World Bank and major donor governments have not only begun to appreciate but also promote the importance of higher education for economic development. Donors who mostly facilitate funding of SSA higher education have come to accept that in a comprehensive development strategy, all levels of education are important as opposed to exclusively focusing and supporting basic education. For quite a long time, basic education was considered to have higher rates of return on investment in promoting poverty alleviation and community development (Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2004).

In 1999, the World Bank published *Knowledge for Development*, a report that looked at how developing countries could use knowledge to narrow the income gap with rich world economies¹. The report showed a correlation between education in mathematics, science, and engineering and improved economic performance. It also showed that the private rate of return to tertiary education, at 20 percent, was similar to that for secondary schooling (World Bank, 1999). Among many recommendations, the report emphasized that universities in developing countries needed to expand access to higher education and develop links with communities in dealing with various societal problems and needs. Faculty members who are at the center of higher education were

¹ For details on the report see: World Bank (1999): World Development Report: Knowledge for Development. World Bank, Washington, DC.

charged with the responsibility of preparing students to serve and create solution for dealing with pressing needs of communities such as elimination of hunger and diseases. Faculty members were also expected to provide the research and outreach that would drive the present and future aspects of life with benefits and services for communities (World Bank, 1999).

The World Bank, Asian Development Bank and the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and some national governments have for this reason referred to higher education in SSA as ticket out of poverty and the engine of social economic growth (Bloom, Canning, & Chan, 2006; Clark, 2008). This dissertation examines these issues and the ways in which institutions of higher learning and individual faculty members in SSA are motivated to locally and globally involve in the process of conducting community engagement through their involvement in community-engaged scholarship to contribute to the sociopolitical and economic development of their communities.

Research Problem

Despite this recent push and appreciation of higher education as a strategy for reducing the gap between rich and poor countries and promoting community development, a longstanding historical dilemma with university and community interaction in SSA is that when faculty have been involved in communities and attempted to deal with socioeconomic problems, government leaders have criticized their community-engaged scholarship as being irrelevant to the challenges facing communities. Worse still, nationalist government pre- and post-independence in SSA

have harbored a strong mistrust of universities, especially those focused on the social sciences, to an extent that some of the faculty members' community-engaged scholarship has been considered as politically motivated to express opposition to ruling governments (Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2004). The contention is that through community-engaged scholarship faculty members ought to perform more valuable projects that enhance the common good.

In the same vein, increasing numbers of academics have labeled so much of the broader scope of academic research and scholarship, which specifically might include community-engaged scholarship as highly abstract jargon that fulfills little practical use. Sokal and Bricmont's (1998) just as Argyris's (1980) work is highly critical of obtuse, useless academic scholarship². While they supports academic freedom so that faculty members should be able to conduct research on whatever they want, they maintains that there should be rewards for those who make the most valuable contributions to the common good. However, like Boyer, he acknowledges that such contributions to the common good are difficult to assess (Argyris, 1980; Boyer, 1996). In African

² An important component of the criticism comes from popular media. In the most recent debate, Kristof (2014) points out that professor have alienated themselves from important public discussion to a point where their opinions don't really matter much on significant issues affecting society. He argues that professor use technical jargons in their research and spend less time interacting with issues affecting society. In her response, Stemwedel (2014) posits that Kristof is right that the public could benefit from engagement with professors. However, she states that proclaiming that professors ought to engage more with the public while ignoring the conditions that discourage such engagement and ignoring the work of the many academics who are engaging the public is not particularly helpful. Furthermore, she posits that public engagement is a two-way process that requires participation from academia and the public. She also highlighted the pressures within academia such as strict demand to meet performance standards that hamper faculty members from more meaningful public engagement. For more on the debate see: Kristof, N. (FEB. 15, 2014). *Professors, We Need You!* http://www.nytimes.com/2014/02/16/opinion/sunday/kristof-professors-we-need-you.html?_r=0 Stemwedel, J.D.(February 16, 2014). *Professors, we need you to do more!* <http://blogs.scientificamerican.com/doing-good-science/2014/02/16/professors-we-need-you-to-do-more/>

universities, financial constraints have limited the capacity to record and conduct adequate assessment of the impact of faculty members' community-engaged scholarship activities.

It is important to distinguish community-engaged scholarship from scholarship that falls in the public interest or scholarship that has a community focus. For example, a scientist who works in developing a vaccine or a communication machine can be considered to be practicing scholarship that falls within the public interest. Yet a different scholar, who works on the teaching and research of the spread of HIV/AIDs in a community, may be considered to have community-focused scholarship. All these can be considered as scholarship for the common good. However, a scientist who conducts community-engaged scholarship moves their scholarship beyond the level of mere public interest and community focus to a community-based/participatory and action oriented scholarship aimed at solving immediate social problems. Such scholars for instance, would utilize the process of developing a vaccine as a platform for participatory community-based and led learning/research and service to deal with disease prevention and control in communities (Carnegie, 2006).

Nevertheless, the strongest criticism to date about community-engaged scholarship in literature comes from academics themselves who believe that community-engaged work is not scholarly or academic enough. This has meant that this kind of scholarship is not considered or utilized as an incentive for promotion and recognition in academia (Colbeck, 1998; Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007; O'Meara, 2008). In response to these criticisms, Doberneck, Glass, Pynnonen, & Schweitzer (2010) state that it is

important to understand faculty members' integration of their publicly engaged scholarship with their other institutional responsibilities because it enriches and strengthens faculty members' work, including research, teaching, and service. Most importantly, they argue that it helps to mark a shift from service-outreach-engagement (less rigorous/just volunteering) to an elevated community-engaged scholarship.

Serious efforts are made to practice community-focused and scholarship in the public interest. In SSA, perhaps due to the existing financial constraints, faculty members have received a substantial part of the blame due to their constrained ability to conduct scholarship for the common good and community-engaged scholarship because of the region's persistent, deplorable socioeconomic situation facing communities. Both the general public and academic scholars themselves have accused faculty members for being unwilling or unable to deal adequately with community problems³. The literature, however, reveals a gap in understanding as too few studies have documented clearly the conditions of faculty members' work life and whether faculty members' scholarship (community-engaged or otherwise) has been able to effectively address community problems. Considering the political pressure faculty members in SSA are subjected to, and the often unfavorable and sometimes deplorable working conditions they must endure, it is not clear if faculty members have the support, incentives and rewards they need to be motivated to conduct community-engaged scholarship, or if they truly are to blame for their lack of community engagement at their institutions.

³For example, Grove (2014) indicates that universities in developing countries are ignoring potential areas of strength because they are too focused on imitating successful Anglo or American institutions. There is long time debate in Africa about whether there are any African universities dealing with African issues or just universities located in Africa.

What is apparent, however, are the challenges that faculty members face within the broader economic and sociopolitical environment in SSA. In Malawi for instance, the cultural challenge of connecting faculty scholarship with societal issues was recently seen in the pandemonium that resulted over the work of a community-engaged scholar. The mayhem caused strikes and the closure of the country's major public university. In his article Fulatira (2011) explains that the origins of the crisis dated to February 12, 2011, when a political science lecturer, to illustrate a point during class, drew parallels between causes of protests in the Arab world and Malawi's economic problems. A student in the class, who was considered to be a government spy, reported the matter to the Inspector General of Police, who in turn, summoned the lecturer for interrogation. Faculty members at the university issued a statement to the Inspector General, asking for an apology and an assurance of academic freedom to engage in issues affecting society. The university's then chancellor, Dr. Bingu wa Mutharika, stepped in and declared that the Inspector General would not apologize. Faculty members then decided to boycott classes, citing fear of spies, a vestige from Malawi's longstanding dictatorial government (Fulatira, 2011). This action gravitated into an entire academic year closure of the four main campuses of the major university, and the ultimate failed attempt to eliminate the four lecturers from their positions.

Apart from these tense and highly charged government and universities relations noted above, there are several other reasons that have fostered critical views of faculty members' community-engaged scholarship in public universities. For one, higher education across the globe has been witnessing shrinking public spending on social

programs combined with increasing costs (Holland, 2010). Scholars have argued that the growing push by the donor institutions and governments on universities to partner with communities is a neoliberal way of extracting scarce financial, human and knowledge resources from communities (Samoff and Carrol, 2004). They argue that it is a way of deflecting responsibilities and costs on to the community. As some have suggested, university-community engagement is rhetoric to mask the same old paternalistic and patronizing university relations (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008). In other words, like other issues in higher education, community engagement is an international donor and university-driven agenda being imposed on the local communities. Still other scholars argue that the marketization of community participation in universities is evident, signifying the entrenchment of entrepreneurship and individual responsibility for meeting social needs especially on the part of African faculty members (Rose, 2003; Stanley, 2000; Olukoshi and Zeleza, 2004).

As this background suggests, Africa's development process in general and faculty members' community-engaged scholarship are complicated and influenced by many regional and global forces including poverty, inequality, corruption, colonial relations, international and local government pressures, aid and tribalism among others (Stromquist, 2007; Arnove and Torres, 2007; Bray, Adamson and Mason, 2007; Vavrus & Bartlett, 2009; Baker and LeTendere, 2005; Heyneman, 2003). Corruption, for instance, is one factor where all these issues intersect. Heyneman (2003) illuminates that in the absence of regulations and frameworks, corruption tends to take precedence and threaten attainment of meaningful goals that advance the greater society. This results in

misappropriation of the limited resources for personal gains principally by institutional and government leaders. Corruption and personal aggrandizement on the part of faculty members may directly affect the quality and level of involvement with communities.

Conditions that promote the growth of corruption include unethical individual behavior, structural and administrative deficiencies in the management of public affairs, chronic shortages, high inflation and low salaries in the public services, lack of supervision, uncontrolled and unaccountable centers of power, long and cumbersome procedures, insecurity of tenure of office, and meager pensions (Hussen, 2005). All these factors are prevalent in one form or another in SSA more generally, and in Malawian higher education system more specifically. They have historically impacted faculty members' community engagement in multiple ways (Kerr & Mapanje, 2002; Lwanda 2005; Thomas & Hall, 2005). Evidence shows corruption in Malawi is rampant among professionals as is evidenced by the Corruption Perceptions Index for 2011. Malawi's corruption index has moved downward from 3.4 in 2010 to 3.0 in 2011. Overall the country is now ranked the 100th least corrupt country (Transparency International, 2011). While these trends may appear to be positive, there is still a long ways to go in eradicating this malpractice. Corruption is rampant in the education sector because professionals such faculty members' attempt to gain a share of limited resources since the process of distributing resources is usually not transparent and bureaucratic (Chapman, 2005). University community engagement as a social process involves competing for access to such limited resources. It is also a process that itself runs based on power differences and availability of financial resources. In such situations faculty members

may be implicated in this competitive process as they struggle to accumulate their personal as well as institutional resources.

To date research has not investigated how factors such as corruption, institutional norms and cultures, faculty members' personal characteristics and external institutions specifically drive and impact faculty community engagement, or how and whether faculty members community-engaged scholarship is complicit in corruption due to the need to secure limited financial resources for community development purposes. Additionally, the problem with the aforementioned denunciation of faculty members' community-engaged scholarship is that much of the current literature on which the criticisms are based is conceptual than empirical and analytical. Herein lies an important gap in this field. More studies are needed to empirically investigate factors that motivate faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship to determine if stakeholders really believe that universities' community engagement practices are paternalistic and oppressive and most significantly to understand what drives faculty members in conducting community-engaged scholarship in SSA. This is in light of seeking out theoretical and practical constructs that can aid effective practice and policy formulations in university community engagement and make faculty members' work relevant to community needs. Before more details and background of the study are provided, the following section will define key concepts framing the study and how they were operationalized to provide a common understanding and conceptualization of the dissertation project.

Definitions of Key Concepts

Community: A community in the current study is defined to mean internal and external groups, within and outside the university system. It also refers to local and global groups that self-identify by geography, age, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, disability, illness health condition, technological connection or common interest or cause, a sense of identification or shared emotional connection, shared values or norms, mutual influence, or commitment to meeting a shared need.

Community engagement: Community engagement for the purpose of this study is defined as the process teaching, research and outreach take together through which universities and faculty members⁴ work collaboratively with a community to address issues affecting the wellbeing of the community.

Involvement: Involvement in this study refers to faculty members' participation in their discipline, department, college, university institution as well as all work related aspects.

Faculty Members' Community-engaged Scholarship (FCES): In this study, FCES is defined as all of types of work including but not limited to academic teaching, research, service and outreach that members of faculty perform in with the aim of advancing institutional mission, career goals and community needs.

⁴ The term faculty in Malawian higher education is used differently to how it is used in U.S. higher education. In Malawi, faculty mostly refers to the discipline or academic unit. There are for instance, faculty of Humanities, Law, Sciences, Social Science and Education. Nonetheless, this study used the term faculty or faculty members to refer to professors or personnel that hold academic positions in the university.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this research is to investigate the motivations that drive faculty members in Malawian public universities to conduct community-engaged scholarship and how it is practiced, institutionalized and rewarded. The central focus of the current study is to explore what motivations and incentives drive Malawian faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The opportunity to explore faculty perceptions has helped to reveal whether universities have been successful and effective in aligning and institutionalizing the goals of mutual partnerships with communities and the various challenges they faced in the process. This research helps to extend the understandings of universities community engagement through faculty members' community-engaged scholarship by examining how the ambiguities of community, including the politics associated with defining, representing and institutionalizing community engagement, complicates these initiatives and the incentives or disincentives behind them.

Conceptual framework

Faculty members' personal lives and the institutions where they work are complex phenomena that require comprehensive theoretical research lenses to understand them (Furco, 2010). Research over the last two decades has consistently shown that across varying work contexts, identities, and cultures, faculty members have differing preparation and socialization for the professoriate, career opportunities, and work experiences according to discipline, institutional type, individual demographics and identity, and appointment type (Aguirre 2000; Antonio et al. 2000; Becher 1989; Clark 1987; Schuster and Finkelstein 2006, O'Meara, 2008). Because faculty members'

community-engaged scholarship is not a simple process, we need research frameworks and methods that examine different actors and sectors of faculty work, and a diverse set of research questions. This study utilized a conceptual framework proposed by O'Meara (2008) on factors that drive faculty members' motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship

This framework guided the formulation of survey items, interview protocol and data analyses. O'Meara's conceptual framework is based on the motivational systems theory (Ford 1992). This framework has been applied to the study of faculty members' motivation for public scholarship by Colbeck and Michael (2006). O'Meara's (2008) framework assumes that motivation is the result of individual goals, beliefs about capabilities, and beliefs about the supportiveness of one's contexts. This conceptual framework reminds researchers to consider how faculty perceptions of their own goals and skills, environment, and related contexts might influence their behavior in conducting community-engaged scholarship.

O'Meara's (2008) conceptual framework also proposes that faculty members' motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship is shaped by not only their individual characteristics, but also by the characteristics of the institutions and departments in which they work. The framework assumes that some faculty members will become involved in issues of community-engaged scholarship, regardless of organizational barriers or incentives. O'Meara proposed exploring what may motivate faculty members and how individual and organizational characteristics might affect their motivation to weave together their perceptions of various incentives to conduct

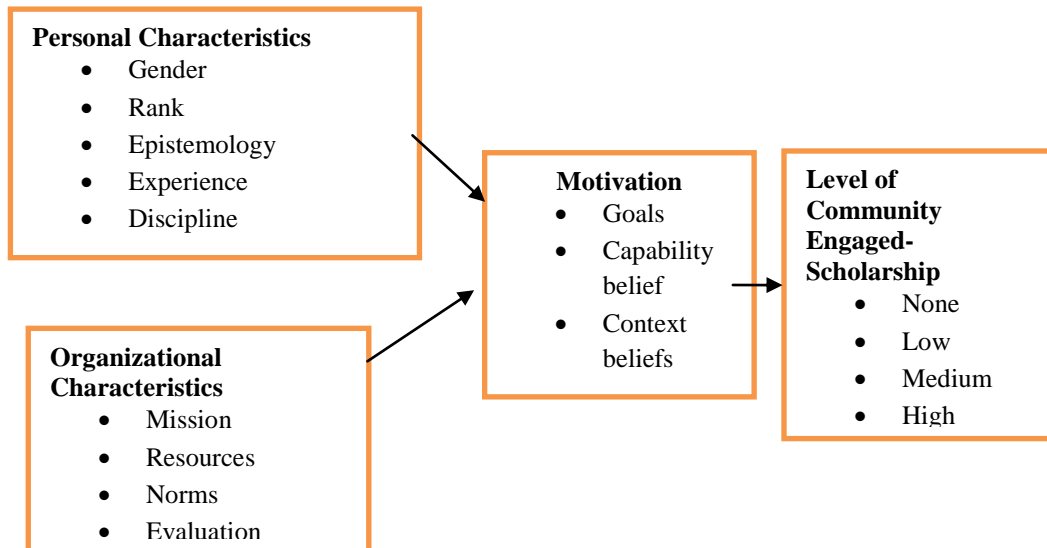
community-engaged scholarship. An individual characteristic especially likely to be associated with community-engaged scholarship involves, as she observed, faculty members' epistemologies—their ways of knowing. According to the framework, organizational characteristics, particularly evaluations and rewards of faculty members' work, are also likely to influence faculty community-engaged scholarship (O'Meara, 2008).

However, as the research and literature on global higher education and SSA in particular suggest, apart from the individual characteristics and institutional contexts, faculty motivations might be also greatly influenced by external community or broader contextual factors such as international aid, partnership and global politics (Schofer, & Meyer, 2005; Samoff & Carroll, 2004; Teferra & Altbach 2004; Holland, 2010). Faculty members in SSA and Malawi are impacted this way because of institutional processes involved in their work, which include for instance, the push for democratization and the expansion of human rights, the rise of development planning, and the structuration of the world polity (Schofer, & Meyer, 2005; Holland, 2010; Stromquist, 2007).

This understanding and conceptualization broadly helped to frame the research project and questions. Since the O'Meara (2008) conceptual frameworks is U.S context focused, this dissertation study in addition to the factors proposed by O'Meara hypothesized that external communities and external funders such as government and international organization would impact incentives and motivations of Malawian faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Schofer and Meyer (2005) have done interesting studies on the worldwide expansion of higher education in the twentieth

century and the various factors that influence these changes. Similarly, Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley (2009) have studied general trends in African higher education. Scholars like Zeleza and Olukoshi, (2004) history and the political economy of African higher education. The major limitation of these studies is that they do not examine unique country and central stakeholders of higher education such as faculty. The novel contribution, therefore, of the current study to the field of international development education is that it reveals what impacts and drives faculty in public higher education in a country like Malawi to perform their scholarship in the context of community engagement. The figure below illustrates this study’s conceptual framework.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework based on O’Meara’s Model



Drawn from the issues noted above, relevant literature, and the conceptual framework, the following served as the overarching question that guided the study: What factors motivate faculty members in Malawi universities, who are involved in community engagement at their institutions, to conduct community-engaged scholarship?

Research questions

1. What incentives motivate faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi higher education?
2. What conceptual frameworks do faculty members who conduct community-engaged scholarship use?
3. What is the relationship between personal characteristics such as age, gender, appointment, level of education, etc. and faculty members' motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi?
4. How does the institutional and community context influence faculty members who conduct community-engaged scholarship?

Since the literature on community engagement was crucial in understanding community engagement in its broad and general sense, these questions were best suited to test the applicability of the O'Meara conceptual framework as it relates to specifically faculty members' motivations and incentives for community-engaged scholarship in a different (African) context. This is because the framework was mostly informed by studies conducted in the U.S. higher education. It is therefore important to investigate specific issues around motivations and incentive for community-engaged scholarship in a

developing country. The following section provides a brief background of the Malawi higher education to contextualize the research study area.

Malawian Higher Education Context and Its Significance

Several factors make the Malawian higher education context a compelling and remarkable case study. The country's higher education history, current socioeconomic situation and the quality of its rapid growing higher education make it a very convenient and interesting case in which to examine faculty members' motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship. Malawi is a landlocked country in southeast Africa. It is one of the least developed countries in the world. The country is bordered by Zambia to the northwest, Tanzania to the northeast, and Mozambique on the east, south and west. This small country of 15 million people was a British protectorate from 1891 to 1964, when it became independent (National Statistics Office, 2010). There are three major historical periods that have shaped Malawian higher education through which university community engagement can be examined. These periods are: colonial era (1884-1964), the independence era (1965-1995) and the recent democratic era (1996-2014).

The first phase of formal development planning including higher education in Malawi dates back to the 1880s, when missionaries and British colonial government introduced churches, schools and hospitals. Higher education was important in this development project because it prepared a Malawian workforce in different fields although in limited levels and numbers (Lwanda, 2002). For instance, early colleges in Malawi only trained Malawians to a junior level and they mostly worked as support staff to their colonial counterparts. Most of the teachers in the colleges were Europeans and

they taught a predominantly European based curriculum which in the medical field and other sectors of knowledge production delayed a formal dialogue between modern and traditional ways of knowing in Malawi hence casting doubts on the relevance of the education to local needs (Lwanda, 2002).

These developments continued until 1965 soon after gaining independence. A national university was established to offer various levels higher education. During this second phase of higher education development, the university mission focused on teaching, research and service to the needs of Malawi. The founding president, Dr. H.K Banda, stated his vision of the university very clearly:

The university should be a part of the life of the people ... We have to teach [outside things to give students a world context and appreciate how others live] but we have to make the university meet the needs of this country after all this is Malawi, not Britain, not Germany, not France ... Our University has to be part and parcel of the people. (as cited in Lwanda, 2002. p.111)

From the outset, the university system was defined as the apex of knowledge generation and the dissemination center, in addition to the production of high-level human resources. This elite system at times, however, assumed a critical position in defense of justice, freedom, democracy and human development especially when the government became despotic. Faculty members were openly critical of autocratic government tendencies, which cost detention without trial and forced exile (Southern African Universities Association [SARUA], 2009). During this period higher education surprisingly enjoyed high financial support from the national government and international partnerships from the U.S and Britain. While the vision of higher education was seen to be closely linked to

the needs of the people, it mostly focused on a Western shaped curriculum and conceptualization of human development.

As it might have been expected, this vision of making higher education relevant to community needs by faculty members and their universities had been met with differing levels of success. Thus, despite the positive acclaim of the university from government, the relationship between the university, the nationalist politicians and the public had not always been a positive one. For one reason, from the onset, there was a tension between the autonomy which universities craved in performing their work and the tendencies of the government to control university' spaces as part of governments' nationalist projects that tended to be skeptical of the liberal, economic, cultural and political pluralism that faculty members tended to promote (Holland, 2010, Teferra & Altbach, 2003).

These issues have continued to date in university community engagement work as faculty members have had to learn to deal with the power of political influence and how to stay safe from initiating political controversy in the process of conducting community-engaged scholarship for purposes of community development. Faculty members and universities for the most part are considered as hotbeds of criticism, protests, political revolutions and trouble by governments. For another reason, tensions developed between those who saw the role of the university as a site for the production of human resources relevant to the needs of the economy and those who perceived faculty members role as being primarily to serve as curators and generators of basic knowledge (Lwanda, 2002; Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2004).

A decade of economic stagnation during the 1990s generated a sustained economic and political crisis and contentious relations between Malawi's public, government and the universities. This third phase of higher education started when Malawi opted for a multiparty democracy in 1994. In this period higher education was characterized by serious mistrust of faculty members, poor pay and deplorable working conditions that led many of the best faculty to abandon their university positions and often the country (Lwanda, 2002). Public institutions received very few funds for equipment, library acquisitions, professional development, research and outreach activities, or maintenance of buildings from the private sector and the government. Increasingly faculty members continually dealt with corruption, government interferences and regional, tribal and parochial divisions in their struggle for meager resources (Mapanje, 2002, Holland, 2010). In Malawi the problem of university community engagement was therefore not only about the quality of work and qualification of faculty members but also the dwindling numbers of faculty members.

The quality of work faculty members perform has high likelihood to propel communities and local organizations to partner with universities in various kinds of work. For instance, faculty members who demonstrate important and quality work in education are more often than not requested to serve as board members and leaders in numerous community based projects. Most significantly, with continued financial problems, training and professional development on how faculty could practice and institutionalize community engagement is virtually nonexistent in Malawi. Where elsewhere in places like North America, Europe, South America and Asia scholars and researchers are

examining best ways for practicing faculty community engagement, in Malawi and in most parts of Africa, many questions remain as to how faculty community engagement can be rewarded and institutionalized.

To show the level of qualifications and the number of faculty in Malawian higher education the table below (see Table 1) shows the total number of faculty in public and private universities in Malawi.

Table 1. Total number of faculty and rank in Malawi public universities

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Associate Professor</i>	<i>Senior Lecturer</i>	<i>Assistant Lecturer</i>	<i>Staff Lecturer</i>	<i>Associate Instructor</i>	<i>Total</i>		
	33	37	130	433	115	116	2	866

Data Source: (SARUA, 2012)

Despite being a small segment of the country’s human resources as the numbers in table 1 suggest, faculty members in Malawi have been cast into a battle to deal with the challenges facing the whole nation. However, dealing with a serious shortage of faculty, improving their qualifications and motivation to conduct community engagement is a challenging issue. Table 2 below shows total numbers and qualifications of faculty in public universities⁵.

⁵ As shown in table 2. Bunda is now an independent university called Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources (LUANR). The Chancellors College (CHANCO) is the biggest constituent college of the University of Malawi followed by the Polytechnic where engineering and technology programs are offered. Mzuzu University (MZUNI) is the third public university opened in 1998 and is located in the Northern city of Mzuzu. This data does not include the Kamuzu College of Nursing and College of Medicine which are the other two constituent colleges of the University of Malawi.

Table 2. Malawian Faculty levels of qualification in public universities

<i>Institution</i>	<i>PhD</i>	<i>MA</i>	<i>BA</i>	<i>Dip</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>%PhD</i>	<i>%MA</i>
Bunda	47	81	16		144	32.6	56.3
CHANCO	59	125	53	1	238	24.8	52.5
Polytechnic	12	101	89	14	216	5.6	46.8
MZUNI	15	69	45		129	11.6	53.5
Total	133	376	203	15	727	18.3	51.7

Source:(SARUA,
2012)

The majority of faculty members as the table shows only have first and second degrees. This raises questions on how the quality of education and capacity of faculty members can be increased in order to contribute to meaningful community engagement in the rapidly changing knowledge economy.

Since we entered the new millennium, the third phase of Malawi's higher education system has been experiencing exponential growth. From one public university in 2003, the country now has more than five private universities and four public universities. Despite this growth, in its Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)⁶, the Government of Malawi reports difficulties of inadequate infrastructure, weak links to industry that lead to high graduate unemployment, and inefficient use of resources in public universities. In order to deal with these challenges, in 2008 the government of Malawi created the National Education Sector Plan (NESP), which among other things emphasized the making of higher education relevant to the needs of communities. The government and the higher education sector are looking for ways to reimagine and rethink the higher education policy. Faculty members in Malawi have been presented with a challenge of contributing to building and expanding the economy, improving

⁶ Government of Malawi: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper: 49–50. The PRSP is a national planning document that drives national goals and development planning including education that was driven and supported by the World Bank in most Africa countries.

education, health care, environmental protection, combating corruption and becoming financially independent. One major policy recommendation from NESP has been to help universities improve their contribution to economic growth of the country by ensuring that teaching, research and community-engaged scholarship focuses on innovations in health, technology and innovative agricultural production. As this brief historical context shows, the Malawian higher education context is significant because it offers a chance to view how faculty members as main actors in higher education are putting these policies into action and what incentives drive them to do so. Considering that Malawi has experienced huge political changes, examining community engagement in this context helps to see whether governments and universities are maintaining or abandoning old tenuous historical relations. It also enables us to see what incentives drive as well as faculty members think is their role regarding community development in Malawi.

The irony with faculty community engagement, at least in Malawi, is that universities and faculty members are paradoxically perceived as part of the problem of national underdevelopment... and its solution. For instance, the government's higher education policy in Malawi portends that mutual private and public partnerships can assist in the revitalization process of faculty members' work and professionalism through private sector involvement (National Education Sector Plan [NESP], 2010). Malawi in this case provides a rich context in which to examine faculty members' community-engaged scholarship along certain familiar themes cutting across international higher education. Some specific examples of these themes include: the need to balance responsibilities and privileges between universities and governments, as well as

balancing autonomy from governments and donors. The overreliance on international aid for instance, has been noted to negatively affect relevance of higher education especially when donors cut funding or provide funding with specific conditions (Samoff & Carroll, 2004). In addition to these two themes, there are the dilemmas of managing higher education expansion and growth while maintaining, quality, sustainability, equity as well as making sure that higher education is relevant to the needs of communities being served, keeping in mind the stringent resources with which universities have to work. Ultimately, a strategy to practice, institutionalize and reward faculty members community-engaged scholarship ought to be shaped by the multiple perspectives of faculty members who are involved in community development through their community-engaged scholarship. Understanding the most effective university community engagement practices for community development has to begin with the understanding of what drives and motives faculty who are central actors in universities precisely because no institution of higher education can be successful without an effective highly motivated professoriate. This research has the potential to increase the visibility of faculty members' community engagement in an effort to move it forward and institutionalize the process by highlighting rewards and incentives that can motivate faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

Faculty members' experiences and higher education issues in Malawi are common to most developing countries in Africa. Malawi, like most African countries, both shapes and is shaped by the global higher education platform because of its position as an international higher education aid receipt through numerous cross-border

partnerships. For example, the Large Lakes Observatory (LLO) of the Duluth campus of the University of Minnesota is the only institute in the U.S. dedicated to the study of large lakes throughout the world. LLO's research ranges from lakes in the East African Rift Valley and Central Asia, to the Great Lakes of North America. Faculty at University of Minnesota have established close ties with institutes in Canada, Uganda, France, Norway, Kyrgyzstan, Kenya, Nicaragua, Malawi, and Tanzania. In Malawi partnerships have been established with the two public universities of Malawi and Mzuzu (University of Minnesota Duluth, 2010). The focus of this partnership is to investigate global environmental changes in the areas of aquatic chemistry, circulation dynamics, and geochemistry using remote sensing. Such international higher education connections and issues exert immense pressure on faculty members in Malawi to be involved with both local and international communities to address various societal problems (Holland, 2010). The developments in Malawi's university community engagement and faculty members' community-engaged scholarship therefore, cannot be understood as a unique case. Investigating factors that motivate faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi is significant because it helps understand how these partnerships happen at a national context level with influence from elsewhere.

Apart from all the issues noted above, Malawi is an interesting and significant case to study issues of higher education and faculty because of my autobiographical connection with this country. I was born and raised in Malawi. I obtained my Bachelor's degree in Education. I taught at a community college and high schools for five years before enrolling in a Ph.D. program at the University of Minnesota. As such,

investigating issues of higher education in the country and the role of faculty in national development is a topic dear and close to my heart. This is because of my personal aspirations to work and contribute to the development of higher education system in this impoverished nation. Being my home country, Malawi offers a cultural, linguistic, historical familiarity and logistical convenience to researching a national higher education system.

This familiarity to the higher education system through studying and working in Malawi provides an excellent advantage to probe and investigate the nuances of faculty members' community-engaged scholarship than it may permit elsewhere. All these factors make Malawi a compelling and remarkable selection as a case and unit of analysis for the current study. Being a socioeconomically vulnerable SSA country with rapid growth of higher education, increasing international influence, Malawi makes a profound example in which to examine faculty members' motivation to conduct community engagement as higher education continues to grow in prominence as tool for community development.

Study Significance

In the current period of convoluted economic, technological and social processes of localization and globalization, the university is emerging as a space where all these forces happen. Higher education research shows that universities around the world are experiencing funding crises and new pressures to increase the capacity to be technologically and financially self-sufficient and simultaneously improve universities and faculty members' capacity to contribute to social, political and economic

development of their nations (Stromquist, 2007). Yet, the effects of these pressures to conduct community engagement appear to be much greater for faculty members working in most universities in SSA because of the strong realization of the power of higher education in driving the social, political and economic advancement of transitioning countries (Zezeza, 2002; Bloom & Canning, 2004).

Increasing numbers of scholars have shown how these local and international pressures are impacting the quality of work and the motivation for faculty as key actors to perform their scholarship in SSA universities. Without direct universities and faculty members involvement in solving the various, health, food, water, educational and development problems in SSA, it is practically impossible to reduce poverty and promote a people centered development agenda. In an attempt to formulate an educational development agenda post the 2015 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), organizations such as the World Bank and major donor governments have begun to reconsider their exclusive focus on basic education and are now drawing on higher education to promote growth through development assistance strategies. African higher education has been cast as showing a great promise in promoting community development (Zezeza, 2002, Stromquist, 2007; Bloom & Canning, 2006, Carol & Samoff, 2004). But this progress is limited in comparison with the progress of other regions. This may result from insufficient understanding of the positive effects that higher education can have on community development. Bloom and Canning's (2006) finding suggest that "more investment in higher education may be justified and more research into the role of higher education in development is certainly warranted" (p.iv).

This research contributes to this broader set of concerns and to this particular area of comparative higher education scholarship. Specifically, the study is likely to be significant by highlighting the experiences and factors that motivate African faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship as way of promoting community development as faculty members involved in community-engaged scholarship. It is also significant for scholars who seek to understand strategies and challenges that shape faculty contribution to national and community development. A related area of research to which this study contributes concerns the area on international aid and higher education collaboration as it examines and illuminates how local and external communities drive faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship in a national context such as Malawi. It also has significance for researchers of higher education who seek to gain understanding of factors that motivate faculty to adopt or engage in particular educational and scholarly practices.

The examination of the relationship between universities, faculty members and the community is not a new scholarly area especially in the U.S. (Boyer, 1996; Hale, 2008). However, exploring this relationship through the concept of community engagement in Africa higher education is a relatively new form of scholarship (Flavish, McMillan & Ngcelwane, 2010; Lazarus, Erasmus, Hendricks, Nduna, & Slamati, 2008; Bender, 2008; Hall, 2010). In South African higher education for instance, Lazarus et. al (2008) have shown that the concept of community engagement as way of improving community development only became widely used in the late 1990s in response to the call of the White Paper on the transformation of higher education in South African and

elsewhere. In SSA especially with South Africa as a leading example, an emerging body of research has been conducted albeit at national and institutional levels (Flavish, MacMillan & Ngcelwane, 2010).

This doctoral research adds to this emerging area of inquiry in general and specifically charts a new territory in Malawian higher education literature by investigating the factors that motivate Malawian faculty members in public universities to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

The study is significant because assessment of community engagement can assist universities and communities to draw from the past and current results to institute mechanisms for identifying lasting solutions to societal problems based on their respective technical capacity and local knowledge (McNail, Doberneck, & Egeren, 2010). Faculty members' community engagement ought to be a process of reciprocal partnerships and collaborations. Knowledge of effective practices for building sustained partnerships and collaborations between local and international stakeholders can also assist in improving how the framework of community engagement is utilized in community development by making sure that incentives that drive stakeholders, such as faculty members, are known, understood, critiqued and changed if necessary. Extended knowledge of universities and faculty members' community engagement and the factors that motivate faculty to conduct such work have additional, immediate practical application for governments and donors who support faculty community engagement. For example, a more comprehensive understanding of such work could provide strategies for

documenting faculty members' innovative work for external audiences and for professional development, promotion and tenure purposes.

Limitations

Despite these potential contributions, this study has several potential limitations. First, the nature and period of time that was spent in Malawi had the potential to affect the reactions and honesty of the study participants, in turn affecting the results of the findings and their implications. These issues were observed and noted during the pilot study in 2012. It was noted that these limitations would be present because the six months of the study time coincided with the Malawi general election campaign season. Although historically elections in Malawi have been peaceful, the campaign season always brings issues of mistrust and fear, especially in public universities where faculty members' relationships with the government and politicians are often contentious. This situation had the potential to limit the level of expression and trust on part of the participants as a way of avoiding controversy. This is because researchers are sometimes perceived as conducting studies as a way of political surveillance on faculty members. While the researcher made attempts to always explain that the study was for purposes of obtaining a Ph.D., faculty historically have often tried to distance themselves from controversial politics so this might have led them to avoid mentioning certain political motivations for their scholarship.

While conducting the study at a different time period would have been an interesting strategy to mitigate this limitation, it is generally hard to completely eliminate these messy circumstances in research apart from clearly stating the importance and purpose of the study (Rubinstein-Ávila, 2012).

Second, the researcher's positionality had the potential to be a limitation in the study. Being a young male Malawian scholar pursuing a doctoral degree in the U.S. gave the researcher a lot of privileges as well as the potential to bring challenges. Most of the study participants themselves pursued their graduate or doctoral degrees outside the country (mostly in the U.S.). A potential limitation here was that faculty members might have presented and framed their knowledge of community-engaged scholarship to merely fit the common interest of scholars who have studied abroad. Nonetheless, this usually enabled easy establishment of trust and creation of a level of openness and rapport to discuss issues of significance especially relating to higher education and faculty members work life. Since the researcher had familiarity with higher education history, major Malawian languages, and the fact that English was the primary language of communication enabled deeper and meaningful conversation with the study participants.

These conversations related often to the current study research design and explored why particular methods were chosen in relation to others. In the process, a dialogue was created where the study methodology was openly discussed. In addition, at times, participants provided advice on data analysis and report writing; most of these participants are active researchers themselves. However, while familiarity and ease of gaining trust was important, it may have led to complacency and taking for granted of what would be considered normal discussions with faculty members on their work life. This might perhaps have hindered a more critical examination of familiar issues, thereby missing potential insights that would have increased the potential for a more nuanced

understanding from the study. To maintain a strong and careful analysis, the researcher relied on active listening, critical presence, and journaling in this reflective process.

Third, and perhaps most important, is that the degree of generalizability and applicability of this study findings is limited. Although the perspectives and incentives that motivate and drive faculty members in Malawian public higher education are likely to be similar to those at other African universities with similar characteristics, their views are also shaped by specific cultural, historical, and political contexts of Malawi as a country and SSA as region. In addition, although the international pressures and global forces shaping higher education in Malawi apply to other college and university contexts, they are not identical to all other SSA institutions that are experiencing the same pressure to conduct community engagement and promote community development. Above all, the literature and conceptual framework and mixed-methods that guide this study have mostly been used in U.S. higher education. This does not in any way imply that the U.S. and Malawian university community engagement experiences are the same and equal, but rather the conceptual framework, research methods and the previous findings provide a foundation on which new understandings of how community engagement plays out in different contexts can be garnered and further investigated.

Conclusion

This chapter sought to provide an overview of the current study. It began with a description of the research problem and context, highlighting the recent movement calling for increased role of higher education in development in transitioning countries and the push on African faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship in SSA as way of promoting community development. The chapter then presented the research questions that guided this study and explored briefly how they directed the study in Malawi public universities. This chapter also introduced the conceptual frameworks that guide this study as well as their significance and limitations. The next chapter provides an overview of the relevant literature for this study, including the historical and geopolitical context of my research locale, the theoretical framework guiding this study, and recent research on community engagement in U.S. and SSA. This chapter is followed by Chapter 3, which describes the research methodology and attends to ethical concerns related to the data collection process. The presentation and analysis of the data begin in Chapter Four with a presentation of the quantitative data. This is followed by analysis and discussion of qualitative data organized according to the study's four research questions. Chapter Five attends to the findings and expounds on the themes presented in relation findings of similar studies conducted elsewhere. The chapter also summarizes the overall findings from the investigation and suggests that Malawian faculty members' community-engaged scholarship is influenced by their personal aspirations to co-create knowledge, help solve societal problems, and transform societies for common good. This motivation, however, is mediated by several factors. While the university context is

crucial in setting the mission for community engagement, it is the external community influence, such as international donors, who provide financial support that actually drive faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter grounds the study in primarily three main components of literature on faculty community engagement. The first section offers key issues in community engagement. It offers issues that drive community engagement such as the national agenda for community engagement, criticisms of higher education, community needs, and multiple views of scholarship. This section examines various factors that drive the practice and institutionalization of faculty members' community engagement. It also examines how criticisms of higher education, changing views of scholarship are influencing faculty members' involvement in community engagement. The second section looks at the important role of faculty members in community-engagement and the university mission.

The third section zeros in on studies of faculty members' motivation to conduct community engagement and how these issues might impact faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi. This section establishes critical issues in Malawi's higher education relating to faculty community engagement research. It illuminates how research in Malawi's higher education has dealt with the topic of faculty professional work life and how these affect faculty community engagement. It also contextualizes the significance of these key issues in Malawian higher education. The chapter helps to establish gaps in this literature in order to situate the current study.

Key issues driving community engagement in higher education

Linking universities with communities is a thread woven in the history of higher education systems. Certainly, the literature shows specific factors in the current landscape that have heightened community engagement in recent years. These among others include: national calls for reforms in higher education, internal criticisms of higher education, institutional mission that aims at transparency and accountability, contemporary views of scholarships, and growing community needs. Understanding some of these factors is important in identifying gaps in the literature and helps to signal the applicability of these issues to universities in SSA.

National and institutional mission of higher education

The continuing importance of higher education in the U.S context has meant that institutions of higher learning have been central to nations' development agenda. This is in relation to all areas of life, such as promoting national and regional health and wellness, economic growth, technological innovations, preservation of history and art, as well as protecting the environment and the democratic society (Glass & Fitzgerald, 2010; Boyte & Hollander, 1999). In essence, this has meant that higher education has never escaped national attention. Near the start of the new millennium, several U.S.-based national reports on university community engagement efforts were produced that shaped the national direction for higher education. Despite being situated in the U.S. context, they bring to the fore many issues that are relevant to other countries. The central theme of several of these national higher education reports was the declining or unmet role of inattentive universities in dealing with a milliard of problems crippling local and global

communities. For example, Boyte and Hollander's (1999) in the Wingspread declaration on renewing the civic mission of the American research university highlighted this problem facing national higher education as a result of universities' drifting focus from addressing community needs. Based on this report Checkoway (2001) emphasized similar sentiments:

... that many American research universities were established with a civic mission to prepare students for active participation in a diverse democracy and to develop knowledge for the improvement of communities... however, it is hard to find top administrators with consistent commitment to this mission, few faculty members consider it central to their role, and community groups that approach the university for assistance often find it difficult to get what they need (p.125).

With similar observations, Brukardt, Holland, Zimpher (2004) observed that the challenge of university community engagement needed to center on various key players especially faculty members since they were at the core of the university systems. Most recently another national report was produced by the National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement. This report called on the nation to reclaim higher education's civic mission. One of its central recommendations for universities to consider was stated as follows: "Develop transformative partnerships—domestic and international—with the institution's wider community. Such partnerships are critical to rallying diverse stakeholders around public problems, thus converting civic knowledge into civic action" (National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement 2012, p.2). Although, this call to renew and revitalize the civic mission of higher education has been widely promoted, stakeholders have also borne in mind the differentiation and diversification of institutions that drive higher education institutional

missions. However, much as scholars like Boyer (1996) acknowledged the importance of situating universities for specific functions such research or teaching, they criticized higher education institutions especially their faculty, for failing to integrate community engagement not only into their service, but also into their teaching and research. As the following sections outlines, this critique of higher education is another important factor driving the current debates on community engagement.

Criticism of higher education

The main driving force for faculty community engagement has been the criticism leveled against higher education in general. Studies have shown that the nature of relations in which university engagement with communities takes place primarily in the form of outreach and service, and at times is externally viewed as paternalistic, patronizing and extractive (Ajayi, 1996; Shivji, 1996; Stanley, 2000; Mazrui, 1992; Sokal & Bricmont, 1998; Argyris, 1980; Argyris, Robert, McLain, 1985). Critics of higher education have cited that research universities have for the most part devalued applied research and overemphasized basic and pure research as the gold standard for faculty promotion and reward (Stromquist, 2007). There also has been a realignment of priorities away from teaching and service towards research. This has been popularly referred to as “publish or perish” syndrome. Scholars like Boyer, (1996), Argyris (1980), Chambers and Burkhardt (2005), O’Meara (2008), and Furco (2010) have offered alternative visions for higher education that broaden the definition of community engagement in ways that integrate community-based efforts with teaching, research, and service. They encourage academically integrated university-community partnerships that

designed to resolve a wide range of mostly local societal problems. Faculty-community partnerships have become imperative because of the responsibility to the community and the need to make knowledge relevant to societal problems. Campus-community partnerships have also emerged as a platform to confront questions about the nature of expertise, disciplinary allegiances, reward systems, local and international commitments and the uneasy relationships that universities maintain with their communities.

Fitzgerald, Allen, and Roberts (2010) identified three important aspects of successful campus-community engagement: partnerships/networks; social capital; community ownership; and flexibility of systems. Community change as a collective endeavor, they point out, is possible when social networks are created between and among individuals and between communities and place. Strong networks enable leaders to develop interconnections for dealing with communal problems. Networking means sharing information, cooperation, coordination, coalition building, and collaboration. Networking also means building social capital — a system of dependable social relations between and among communities or groups (Putman, 1995). Effective networks are open systems that allow for multidirectional flow of information. They also allow ownership of inputs and outputs by various stakeholders of the networks. Ownership of this process is crucial because it empowers and motivates communities to take control of the change process. When systems and relationships flourish, networks can enhance individual self-sufficiency and community self-determination (Foster et al., 2006). Such valuable views of community and university relations have been particularly significant because of the universities and faculty members' attempts to deal with various community needs.

Community needs

A related issue to the criticism of higher education influencing community engagement has been the challenge facing communities in solving and dealing with various social, economic and political problems. There are both internal and external forces that have both faculty members and community members promoting community engagement. Frequently discussed motivations for why universities are pushing for more systematic assessment and measurement of faculty community engagement are the desire to gain institutional status and recognition, increase revenue, enable greater opportunity for innovation research, and advance the institution's global reach (Boyte & Hollander, 1999). Even though the measurement of such engagements is a challenge, universities are attuning to being able to determine whether community engagement is fulfilling their goal to serve the common good and how to represent their accomplishment because of public pressure that require universities to demonstrate their usefulness to the public (O'Meara, 2008; Hale 2008). A good example of such usefulness is promoting and creating a society that values a diverse democracy (National Task Force on Civic Learning and Democratic Engagement 2012). Lunsford, Bargerstock & Greasley (2010) state that the public is driving this force because it has for long time sought higher education institutions to justify their contributions to alleviating societal problems and contributing to social progress. Furthermore, because higher education institutions are competing for limited resources, they are being asked to provide evidence to legislatures and governments of the ways in which public investments in higher education produce positive results that benefit of the public. There is also general agreement that with the

era of accountability, external entities and organizations are requiring higher education institutions to document how their activities reach beyond the university to engage external individuals and groups for the benefit of society. Besides this, scholars tend to agree that documentation and measurement of engagement can also provide a forum for higher education to reflect on community engagement, including how they support and facilitate campus and community engagement. Additionally, institutional efforts can lead to the development of international, national rubrics for making comparisons among universities on the performance of their engagement efforts (Furco, 2010).

Efforts to promote and document community engagement can also influence the quality of the community engagement activities undertaken by faculty members. By researching community engagement, faculty can gain more insight about their work in ways that can enhance rather than undermine their work (Neumann & Terosky, 2007; Boyer, 1990, O' Meara & Rice, 2008; Lunsford, Bargerstock & Greasley, 2010). Faculty community engagement can help universities compete in the "race to be internationally present" (Amey, 2010: 23). Neave (1992) points out that partnership, a key aspect of faculty community engagement, gives universities the opportunity to be perceived as more competitive institutions because of their collaboration. Partnerships can build a base for future advantage through extended cooperation. By projecting an image of interconnection, institutions increase their visibility and competitiveness (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Cooper & Mitsunaga, 2010; Heffernan & Poole, 2005; Jie, 2010; Martin, 2007; OECD, 2004; Tubbeh & Williams, 2010). Although campus-community partnerships and community engagement take different forms, they are related because

both approaches endeavor to establish working links between universities and communities. Connolly et al. (2007) show how it is possible for stakeholders in partnership to gain legitimacy within their university and the wider community.

Economic advancement in the form of increased revenue has also been seen to drive institutionalization of other partnerships as well as community engagement (Chapman & Sakamoto, 2011; Jie, 2011; McMurtrie & Wheeler, 2008). Universities expect to increase their resources by leveraging partnership resources with existing ones (Altbach et al., 2009; Eddy, 2010). In Africa and Malawi in particular, funding from partnership offsets university expenses that are rising with growing student enrollments and deterioration of infrastructure (Hodson & Thomas, 2001; Holm & Malete, 2010; Labi, 2009; Schugurensky, 2003; Tubbeh & Williams, 2010).

Even though there is an increase in community engagement, there is limited insight about how faculty members relate community engagement to their scholarship, especially outside the U.S.. Gaps still remain in the literature on the institutionalization of community engagement in international higher education contexts. The few studies that have been conducted in the U.S. may not be generalizable to other parts of the world. Faculty and communities in Africa may operate under different motivations and mission when conducting work in communities. Understanding how faculty, community members, government officials conceptualize, practice and support these professional responsibilities — teaching, research, outreach — can yield greater benefits for stakeholders supporting higher education in developing countries. Increased information about effective practices and processes for institutionalization of community engagement

in the context of poor and developing nations like Malawi can be used by faculty members and governments to design interventions that are scholarship based. Data from studies of measuring community engagement can also influence how college and university leaders develop and implement policies to facilitate faculty members' involvement in dealing with social problems. Church, Zimmerman, Bargerstock, & Kenney (2002) emphasize the importance of diversifying policies for promotion and tenure to improve the reward faculty work. Just like Church et. al. (2002), Checkoway (2002) relates diversification of faculty members' rewards to reconceptualizing research, teaching, and service. Universities' pursuit to accommodate multiple views of scholarship is another important issues driving community engagement.

Multiple views of scholarships

A powerful force of faculty community engagement work centers on the concepts of scholarship. Traditional views suggest that knowledge is created by the objective, analytical and experimental work of a scientist, one who is working away from the real world, detached from application of the findings (Zlotkowski, 2002, Lincoln and Guba, 2004; Patton, 2003). This positivistic paradigm frames what is widely considered the gold standard for rigorous scholarship. This traditional view epistemologically believes that an objective reality exists independent of the observer, but it is "only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable" (Lincoln and Guba, 2000, 165). Thus, scholarship ought to see the social world as "objectively real," one that is observable through pure objective scientific technique (Crotty, 2001; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Furthermore, through this

lens, scholarship ought to assume that the study of the social world can be value-free, in that the investigator's values will not necessarily interfere with the disinterested search for social laws governing the behavior of social systems.

However, increasingly scholars have argued that rigor and relevance are quite compatible, and much knowledge is to be gained from what has been called scholarship of engagement (Schön, 1995; Argyris, 1985; Boyer, 1994). Community-engaged scholarship aims at transforming oppressive systems and broadening the ways knowledge is created and shared (Checkoway 2001). There is a strong emphasis on the field of practice where professionals do their work and put to test the applicability of knowledge generated. Community engagement creates and tests new knowledge in the process of applying existing knowledge to benefit society. But it can also use community engagement to drive the research by using community input to shape the research questions and or to ensure the validity of the measures. Also undergirding this view of scholarship is the assumption that academics are not the only sources of expertise and knowledge. Surowiecki (2004) talks about the wisdom that is found in groups of ordinary people, not just those that are deemed as specialists or experts. The growing acknowledgement of this multidimensionality of knowledge has helped drive the push for more faculty members to mutually engage with community members as equal partners in the knowledge creation and dissemination process. This lens also presents a view that the role of scientist and faculty member is to take up action to influence change based on their discovered knowledge (Hale, 2008). This is fundamentally to produce scholarship that has broader impact beyond benefitting the scholar and the discipline. What all these

issues point to is that universities continue to play and must play a central role in community development. Moreover, these issues help to signify the crucial role faculty members play in the process of knowledge generation, community development, and the dissemination and application of knowledge.

The important role of faculty members in community engagement scholarship as public intellectuals

Faculty members as main actors in higher education play several key roles in advancing university community engagement mainly because their work is centered on achieving the three basic areas of a university's mission, namely teaching, research and service. Individually and collectively, these three aspects of the mission can all relate to community engagement (Boyer 1996; Ward, 2003; Furco, 2010).

There is an extensive debate in several academic fields (e.g., sociology, philosophy, history, anthropology, linguistics, cultural studies, science and technology) about the role and work of faculty members as public intellectuals who promote social betterment (Gramsci, 1949; Foucault, 1970; Habermas, 1972; Hale, 2008; Nicholas, 2007; Boyer, 1996; Said, 1994; Chomsky, 2002; Harstock, 1998). The debates have focused on two important roles of the intellectual. These are distinctively different but related roles of expert and critic (Peters & Alter, 2010). Key arguments or themes to this debate have focused on how intellectuals, especially faculty members in powerful institutional of higher learning, have taken up or ignored these roles for good use or abuse.

First, scholars have explored how faculty members as public intellectuals have served the interest of dominant social classes, groups, or powers by reproducing and legitimizing an oppressive status quo in the economic and sociopolitical aspects of communities. Second, scholars have also examined how these intellectuals have served the interest of the marginalized and oppressed social classes and communities by resisting, subverting, exposing, delegitimizing, and/or dehumanizing social change and community development agendas. This is done by creating and promoting social movements, education, or economic activities that have social change and emancipatory programs. For example, in a paper based on activist scholarship aimed at understanding and advocating for women's rights to eliminate gender-based violence in the Dominican Republic, Martínez (2008) shows not only the challenges faced by faculty members in conducting community-engaged scholarship but also the possibility and rewards of this kinds of work. This is an excellent example of how faculty members use their role as public intellectuals to deal with various community problems.

In varying degrees within these two specific roles, faculty members generate knowledge, manage the syllabuses, and teach the courses that help prepare students for their own community engagement roles. These include conventional classroom courses and community service-learning in which students serve the community and learn from the experience; community-based learning in which community involvement is joined to course content and integrated into the classroom dialogue; individual courses that take students into the community and bring community partners into the classroom; field internships in which students work with practitioners in civic agencies; or workshops in

which student teams engage in community efforts to improve community members' conditions (Checkoway, 1996). Within the community engagement field, this has been referred to as problem-centered rather than discipline-based learning (Lagemann, 1997).

Faculty members also conduct research that involves and improves communities. When employing methodologies that treat communities as partners and participants rather than as human subjects and passive recipients of information, faculty members promote mutually beneficial community engagement (Hale, 2008; Martínez, 2008). This role applies to diverse disciplines and professional fields. All areas of academic fields have the potential to work with community-based organizations and civic agencies. Faculty members can involve their partners in the various stages of research from defining the problems to gathering the data to utilizing the results (Ansley & Gaventa, 1997; Park, Bryden-Miller, Hall, & Jackson, 1993; Schulz, Israel, Becker, & Hollis, 1998). A major role faculty have in this kind of work is to eliminate paternalistic forms of research and replace them with more collaborative approaches to research and community engagement. For example, Israel, Schultz, Parker, and Becker (1998) describe the key principles of community-based research, which recognizes community as a unit of identity and builds on strengths and resources within the community. It facilitates collaborative partnerships in all phases of research, integrates knowledge and action for the mutual benefit of all partners, and promotes co-learning and empowering processes that attends to social inequalities.

In addition, apart from providing consultation and technical assistance to organizations and communities as experts or critics, faculty members can also take up a

third role as mediators. While this third role has been given different names, Hale (2008) considers it as a form of activist community-engaged scholarship. This a role in which faculty act not as experts on particular issues or unique voices of reason, but rather as people with lived experiences and causes they consider worthy to be actively involved in and to advocate for. Consultation and technical assistance by faculty are common ways for faculty members to draw upon their expertise for the welfare of society, such as when they are asked to analyze some data, solve a problem, or evaluate a program. When a faculty member draws upon his or her expertise in this way, it is another form of knowledge development and an appropriate professional role that contributes both to the civic mission of the university and to improving the quality of life. Therefore, faculty members have key roles in the university, responsibility for fulfilling its core objectives, and relationships with those that influence implementation in the institution (Levine, 1999).

However, there are serious obstacles to involving faculty in community engagement. First, faculty members do not always perceive themselves or their professional roles in this way; indeed, they are conditioned to believe that students' involvement in the community and the problems of society are not central to their roles in the university. They view themselves as content specialists, teachers, and researchers with commitments to their academic disciplines or professional fields. This view does not necessarily include or extends to playing public roles in an engaged university or democratic society (Clark, 1999, Levine, 1999).

Second, faculty perceptions are shaped by an academic culture that often runs contrary to the idea of playing public roles. It is fair to say that most faculty members are not trained in graduate schools that require courses that include civic content or emphasize community engagement. Thus, many faculty members enter academic careers whose gatekeepers (e.g., promotion and tenure committees who uphold standards of traditional notion of scholarship) dissuade them from spending much time in the community. Beginning with their first days in graduate school and continuing into their academic careers, institutional structures shape their beliefs, norms of practice, and value systems they in ways that socialize them to act in ways are consistent with their conditioning (Kecskes, 2006; Nicotera, Cutforth, Fretz & Thompson, 2011; O'Meara, & Rice, 2005). Ultimately, these faculty perceive that public engagement is not central to their role, that there are few rewards for this work, and that it is not a legitimate scholarly practice within the academy.

The third obstacle is the reward structure of the university. The issues embedded within this obstacle include promotion and tenure, time to freely pursue one's own professional priorities, money through salary gains or faculty grants, and status and prestige. These issues are especially important in institutions where hierarchy is important, relationships are based upon rank, and the value of an academic unit is based upon its place in the national and/or international rankings. Like other professionals, faculty members should be rewarded for the work that they do. Work that draws upon one's academic discipline and professional expertise is a legitimate part of the work of the academy. When professors perform this work, they should be rewarded. However, the

present reward structure at many universities places emphasis on research for its own sake. The reward structure recognizes and rewards publication in scholarly journals as a primary way of knowing. It rewards the creation of new knowledge that is validated by academic peers.. The extent to which the knowledge is utilized or valued by external audiences is less important (Ellison, & Eatman, 2008; Hutchinson, 2011).

Community engagement is intended to have benefits for both the individual and the institution. It offers faculty members opportunities to explore new life experiences outside their professional circles in ways that can stimulate research and improve teaching (Ward, 2003; Hollander, 2011). It can provide opportunities for faculty to interact with people often very different from themselves and can provide them with new ideas and perspectives for research and teaching. There is evidence that faculty who consult in the community are more productive researchers and better teachers than those faculty who do not. Indeed, studies show that faculty members who engage in significant consultation also score higher in the number of funded research projects, in the number of professional peer-reviewed publications, and in student evaluations of their teaching, than those who do not, a finding that runs contrary to the dominant culture of the research university (Boyer, 1996; O'Meara, 2001; O'Meara, Sandmann, Saltmarsh, & Giles, 2011).

Calleson, Jordan, Seifer (2005) and Ellison & Eatman (2008) have similar conclusions on the role of faculty in community engagement. Just like Hutchinson (2011), their case studies of faculty in U.S. higher education suggest that assessing community engagement as scholarship can increase and improve institution's community

engagement mission. Similarly, faculty members' workload, and reward system, they suggest can expand faculty's views of scholarship; boost faculty satisfaction; and strengthen the quality of an institution's community engagement culture. Much as these apply to the American higher education context, it is not clear if these factors impact faculty members in SSA and Malawi in the same way.

Although it not exactly clear to what extent these issues would impact Malawian faculty members, evidence presented by Holland (2010) shows that institutional models do, as predicted by institutionalists, travel across national boundaries from core to periphery countries, promoting conformity with institutional forms found in rich and powerful nations (Meyer 1980; Meyer et al. 1997). Though in complicated and unclear ways, there is no doubt that faculty in SSA and Malawi, and the universities in this part of the world, could benefit from using community engagement as a new form of scholarship. Therefore, an examination of how Malawian faculty members' motivation intersects with their various roles in public universities might be a worthwhile endeavor to understand their complex roles.

How these issues impact faculty motivations for community engagement

In the review of the extant literature on faculty members' community engagement, four perspectives emerge. These perspectives are drawn from theories and concepts in psychology, sociology and anthropology. The investigations found in this literature focus mainly on issue of faculty motivation, career development, organizational behavior, and culture (O'Meara et al., 2008).

The literature on faculty motivations for participation in community engagement practices provides a strong understanding of how personal and professional goals as well as the institutional environment matter. The research on career and faculty professional development has helped to understand the changing nature of faculty needs over a career span. It also considers how institutions help meet the engaged faculty member's needs for professional growth. Studies focusing on the organizational behavior illuminate the ways that organizational priorities, norms, structures, politics, and leadership influence faculty engagement. The majority of studies uses the organizational cultural framework (scholars using this framework believe that organizations like people have their own distinct cultures) and reveals the values and beliefs of academic cultures that socialize and shape faculty teaching, scholarly agendas; the studies also reveal dominant academic norms that can support/thwart faculty community engagement (Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2009; Ellison & Eatman, (2008; Enos & Morton, 2003 ; O'Meara 2008; Saltmarsh, Hartley, Clayton, 2009 ; and Wade & Demb, 2009). Although the major limitation of these studies is their absolute focus on faculty perspectives as opposed to multiple stakeholder views (e.g., community members), these studies reveal that faculty engagement is contingent on the four key dimensions: faculty demographic characteristics, institutional context, disciplinary norms, and departmental contexts.

Research studies have attempted to understand what motivates faculty members to take up various roles and responsibilities in academia. While some scholars have blamed faculty members for the general lack of motivations towards the civic mission of higher education (Smith, 1990; Sykes, 1990), research on faculty work by Colbeck & Weaver

(2008) and Colbeck & Wharton-Michael (2006) has shown that faculty have historically integrated their work roles in communities. They warn that failure to acknowledge and account for the long history of community involvement and the extent to which faculty have jointly produced teaching, service, research with external entities may underestimate the high level of motivation faculty have for community-engaged scholarship and the substantial contributions of this scholarship to faculty productivity (Colbeck, 1998).

O'Meara's (2006) investigation of policy changes within higher education institutions is one noteworthy, widely cited study that has examined faculty members' motivation for community engagement. She examined whether making formal policy changes to encourage multiple forms of scholarship to include community engagement increased acceptance of such work by different campus constituents. This study provided her with the vehicle to do initial exploratory research and generalize to the larger population from a random sample of chief academic officers (CAOs) at four-year institutions. The survey questions explored U.S. CAOs' perceptions of how their academic cultures affected and were affected by formal policy changes that called for the broadening of the concept of faculty work to include community engagement. In the end, her study found that institutional type and culture had constraints on faculty work, which in turn were a strong predictor of the success of reforms that aimed at changing academic reward systems for faculty to include community engagement.

Personal Characteristics driving community engagement

Studies by Colbeck & Weaver (2008), Colbeck & Wharton-Michael (2006), Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer (2009), and Ellison & Eatman, (2008) support O'Meara's (2008) assertion that faculty are motivated by a wide range of factors when considering tying their work to community engagement. O'Meara's analysis of personal narrative essays revealed a great diversity in personal and professional motivations, including but not limited to the "desire to teach well, personal commitments to specific issues, neighborhoods, and people, a perceived fit between community engagement and disciplinary goals, and a desire for cultural understanding and meaningful collaboration" (2008, p. 8). Additionally, O'Meara found that faculty members are motivated internally by their personal goals and identity. Faculty members were also driven extrinsically by organizational cultures. O'Meara (2008) arrived at similar conclusions with Holland (1999) and concluded that faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship varies by type of engagement, depth of involvement over time, and faculty members' personal characteristics such as race and gender (O'Meara, 2008; Holland, 1999).

Understanding the effect of characteristics such as gender, race, rank, experience, and discipline is crucial for understanding the nature of faculty community engagement. Several studies of community engagement participation have shown that women are more likely than men to be involved in community service and to involve their students in service-learning (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002; Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Hammond, 1994). Studies have also shown that faculty of color are more likely than white faculty to engage in outreach, be involved with students performing service,

support goals of providing services for communities, and be committed to an ethic of service for students (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; O'Meara, 2002). Contingent faculty are more likely than their tenure-track colleagues to participate in community service and service-learning (Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000; Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002). One explanation for these differences in community engagement is that since teaching is the primary responsibility of most faculty members who are not eligible for tenure, they may have more time and interest to develop community-based projects for their students than tenure-track faculty whose jobs are increasingly focused on research and publication. This explanation, however, is problematic as it assumes that research is less compatible with community-engaged work than teaching is. This notion is inconsistent with the 21st Century paradigm of community engagement, which intentionally is integrated not only with service and teaching, but also research (Boyer, 1996, Checkoway, 2001; Furco, 2010). Although issues of race may not directly apply to Malawian faculty members, issues of tribalism, gender, parochialism and other forms of discrimination might actually influence faculty members' involvement in community engagement in Malawi.

As was mentioned previously, a major weakness and gap in the extant literature is that these studies were mostly conducted in advanced, modern universities of the North America. With an exception of study by Holland (2009), more studies are yet to show what motivates faculty members to perform community-engaged scholarship at universities in other parts of the world, such as SSA.

The study conducted by Holland (2009) drew evidence from 42 interviews conducted with academics and independent researchers in Malawi during 2003 and 2004.

The study also used historical documents to investigate two types of research production by Malawian faculty members. She investigated the practical role that research production promoted in aligning faculty members' career trajectories in relation to the personal characteristics and identities as they simultaneously conducted two different modes of research. In her findings, Holland (2009) showed that faculty members' production of Mode 1 (basic research historically introduced and conducted for its own sake) and Mode 2 (research that came later due to international market demands) were driven by different incentives. She discovered that while "Mode 1 in Malawi had historically promoted an ethos of service and duty to the nation, Mode 2 tended instead to demand a service-to-the-client orientation and to promote monetary incentives more so than intellectual or service-oriented ones." (p.596). Her study, however, was inconclusive in terms of how production of these modes of research shaped faculty members' careers and how their production of research was impacted by demographic characteristics. For example, she concluded that "it is not clear why senior economists appear to have had an advantage in comparison to their junior disciplinary colleagues and other social scientists in reconciling the professional identities and products of Mode 1 and 2 researches" (Holland, 2009: 596).

Addressing the question of what motivates faculty to conduct such research and community-engaged scholarship would have the added benefit of indicating the relative extent to which specific demographic factors and academic disciplines inform faculty members' definition of community engagement and the consequences of faculty members' motivations may have on their work. It is hard to conclude that same

motivations for conducting research that Holland (2009) discovered in her study could shape faculty members motivation for community engagement. As Holland showed, international and local research market pressures and monetary incentives may indeed be some of issues that might motivate faculty members in developing countries to conduct community engagement. The current study on faculty community engagement behavior in SSA more generally, and Malawi in particular, attempts to close this gap by examining faculty members' perspectives of incentives influencing their willingness to involve with communities.

Epistemology

In addition to personal characteristics outlined the previous section, studies have also shown that prior experiences outside and inside academe are likely to shape faculty members' beliefs about their capabilities to engage in community-engaged scholarship (Boyte, 2004; Donahue, 2000). Colbeck & Wharton-Michael's (2006) faculty motivation framework emphasizes another individual characteristic that may shape how faculty enact their roles and whether they integrate teaching, research, and public service in community engagement: epistemology. Epistemology shapes the way faculty understand the nature and development of knowledge, view problems of discovery and learning as well as the types of questions they ask to address those problems. Most importantly how they engage with communities (Colbeck and Michael 2006; McAfee 2000; Vogelgesang et al. 2010). Saltmarsh et al. (2009), however, observed that the dominant epistemology on scholarship of the academy runs counter to principles of faculty community engagement.

They point out that traditional teaching and research assume an expert model of knowledge production. In developing countries like Malawi faculty are in a dilemma in embracing indigenous epistemologies over western ones (Smith, 2002). This means that most likely faculty members in Malawi higher education involved in community engagement may often approach this work from a different epistemological stance than is held by some colleagues in the transnational scholarship context. This epistemological difference might influence how their work is regarded within the international, institutional and disciplinary reward systems. For instance, research in the social sciences and humanities was considered radical and dangerous research, and governments in Africa attempted on several occasions to eliminate such programs (Zezeza 2002).

In Malawi, the importance of epistemology and how various epistemological approaches can shape faculty members community-engaged scholarship can be well examined in formal medical education. The history of formal medical education has shown that early African medical workers were mostly restricted to manual roles and that training of medical personnel was designated according to race. This distinction was also seen in how African medical knowledge was downplayed by Western medical training in colleges and universities. This marginalization of Africans medical epistemology in higher education from Western medical culture and formal medical training delayed epistemological dialogue between traditional and Western medicine (Lwanda, 2002).

In order to deal with this epistemological gulf, Broadhead and Muula (2002) have shown that faculty members in medical education have taken up a ‘programmatic philosophy’ of a new medical education in Malawi which emphasizes community-

engaged health and practice. This new approach attempts to help faculty and students to link both Western and African medical knowledge. The irony however, according to Lwanda (2002) is that African traditional healers for example, do yet have formal ties to the medical education system in Malawi. Even though faculty members maintain that the medical education system in the country was founded on the principle of Community Health as the “cornerstone of its curriculum,” (Muula & Broadhead, 2001: 156), the epistemological and integrative debate between community medicine as perceived by the faculty members and the reality of community medicine in the rural areas has yet to begin in earnest. This is an area where faculty community-engaged scholarship holds a lot of potential. Accordingly, there is a need for more studies that explore how faculty members in developing countries draw on and/or resist various epistemologies as they practice community engagement work. The current study is designed to understand how faculty and other stakeholders’ perspectives on different epistemologies affect and influence what faculty members consider as community-engaged scholarship for common good.

Disciplinary and department contexts

Apart from epistemology, most issues relating to faculty productivity, satisfaction and motivation are embedded in experiences at the departmental level (Bland et al. 2006; Porter 2007). Findings from research studies indicate that faculty socialization into a discipline and belief that their discipline values this work influence faculty interest and involvement in community engagement (Abes et al. 2002; Vogelgesang et al. 2010).

There are certain disciplines and fields, such as education the health sciences, the social sciences, and agriculture, that have consistently reported higher interest and involvement in community engagement. Conversely, fields such as such as the humanities, math/statistics, and English have consistently reported lower interest and involvement (Antonio et al. 2000; Vogelgesang et al. 2010). Not surprisingly, studies have found that faculty with appointments in social and behavioral science, agriculture, business, and health are more likely than faculty in the physical sciences, humanities, arts, engineering, and math to be involved with service and committed to improving communities (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002; Antonio, Astin, & Cress, 2000). Indeed, research on civic and community engagement in all types of higher education institutions has consistently shown that disciplinary context matters (O’Meara 2005; Sandmann & Weerts 2008; Ward 2003).

In Africa and Malawi in particular, debates over the influence of epistemology, discipline, and departmental contexts have been shaped by a process called africanization or endogenization. According to Crossman (2008), africanization and endoginization denote a process of contextualization and adaptation of tertiary education to its African context, both in terms of structure and curricula. Within American higher education, the literature suggests that faculty community engagement was first encouraged at the national level with the launch of the land-grant university system in the late 1800s. And although the focus on community engagement waned over the decades, the recent re-focus on faculty community engagement in the U.S. has brought with it a new paradigm for community engagement, namely one that expands community engagement beyond

traditional outreach activities and one that expands the epistemological frames within which colleges and universities operate.

As debates and initiatives for faculty community engagement and endogenization of faculty are becoming prominent in other parts of the globe, it is imperative to have more research that investigates how faculty involvement in community engagement is aligning with the goals of contemporary African higher education. The current study seeks to explore how faculty, government officials and community members within an African context view faculty community engagement work relative to the values and norms of institutional missions, disciplinary values, or departmental practices.

According to O'Meara, Sandmann, Saltmarsh, and Giles (2010), research on faculty community engagement focuses on addressing the following questions:

- What is faculty community engagement work? (definitional);
- Why do faculty members do it? (motivational);
- How do faculty members do it? (operational);
- What are the barriers against it? (institutionalization);
- What are the driving and facilitating factors? (structural, human resource, political, organizational, and cultural); and
- What faculty behaviors enhance mutual community-led, participatory, or action research? (research outcome oriented)

What is lacking, however, from the literature is documentation of actual faculty engagement activities and assessing their impact on communities.

In Malawi, research has attempted to show how faculty and universities are initiating frameworks for community engagement. This has been in form of faculty creating links with communities and developing programs that promote these initiatives (Chiotha, 2010). Chiotha (2010) analyzed two case studies from Chancellor College (UNIMA) in Malawi to illustrate good faculty practice in mainstreaming faculty/community partnerships in environmental protection and sustainability. His paper examined the introduction of an Environmental Science Master's program at the college and noted how faculty engaged local and international communities to address environmental issues. While their work involved multiple stakeholders, they bridged the student demands for postgraduate studies and aligned this need to environmental problems, which communities and the government aimed to solve. The study, therefore, looked at the college's tree-planting program in terms of the training, research and outreach involved to bridge these various stakeholder needs. This study is only illustrative of Malawian faculty community engagement involving faculty from the natural resources and biological sciences. The study also illuminated the importance of faculty possessing various capacities ranging from resourcefulness and ability to link with local and international partners, in order to conduct high quality community-engaged work. Although Chiotha (2010) offers a window through which faculty members' community engagement can be analyzed, it does not fully explore the factors that influence faculty to involve themselves in this form of scholarship. The study mainly focuses on how faculty conducted a review of the curriculum and how the university planned to work with the community on environmental issues.

Institutional contexts

The literature indicates that institutional context affects what types of engagement faculty members choose, how they integrate community engagement into teaching and research roles, and how they are rewarded and encouraged (Bloomgarden and O'Meara, 2007; Driscoll and Lynton, 1999; Holland, 1999; O'Meara, 2002, 2004; Peters et al., 2005; Thornton and Jaeger, 2008; Ward, 2003). For example, Vogelgesang et al. (2010) analyzed the responses of faculty members who participated in the 2004–2005 Higher Education Research Institute faculty members' survey. These authors found that faculty from two-year colleges, public four-year colleges, and Catholic four-year colleges perceived institutional commitment to community engagement to be greater than that of faculty members from other institutional types. Alternatively, a lack of recognition in the institutional reward system often deterred faculty members' community engagement (Driscoll and Sandmann 2001; O'Meara 2002; O'Meara and Rice 2005; Sandmann 2006; Ward 2003). A recent issue central to the institutional type in Malawi and across Africa is the nature of the public-private interface of higher education. The rapid growth of higher education in SSA has mostly been in the private sector (World Bank, 2010). The phenomenon of private higher education in this part of the world is relatively new. But, this type of higher education institution could easily become the dominant component of system over the next decades (Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2008). The proliferation of private higher education in Africa has resulted in different perspectives and radical alterations of the role of faculty members. What does the role of faculty in private universities mean and how is this development impacting on existing faculty in

the public universities? Are faculty members in private universities taking up community engagement differently? What are the community and government perceptions and expectations of this new category of faculty? These and other unanswered questions have set into motion a call for more research and study of the influence of privatization on the culture of African higher education systems.

Holland's (2010) study of waves of institutional transfer however, reveals an even broader form of change in Malawian higher education, having to do with the international influence on faculty members' professional roles. Her study builds off of where Chiotha (2010) stopped as a way to extend the nature of how university culture in Malawi has developed over time. Her study is significant and foundational because it shows how faculty members and universities roles in communities in Malawi have been influenced by the local and global community. She points out that higher education in Malawi has changed in the form of waves of institutional transfer. By institutional transfer Holland (2010), refers to how various cultural and organizational scripts are copied and adapted to local contexts. For instance, she shows how changes have in higher education have happened from the colonial times to the current neo-liberal era of the World Bank structural adjustments and how these institutional transfers have affected the quality and level of education in Malawi. As Holland's (2010) study found, among the influences of these institutional transfers is the growing need to have a broader view of community engagement — one that moves beyond the immediate local community to more regional areas and international communities. In line with Holland's findings, Chiotha (2010) suggests that for faculty to do deal with the various challenges that come with conducting

community-engaged work (including finances, professional development, academic freedom and strategies for community engagement), there is a need to look beyond the institution and that faculty members should be willing to relate to and partner with various external stakeholders. This implies broadening the definition of community outreach and service beyond the confines of national boundaries. Although Holland (2010) points out that the wave of institutional transfer may continue to prevail in Malawi higher education, it not clear how for instance, how faculty members' community engagement is being institutionalized in Malawi higher education, either as a local initiative or as a global initiative that furthers internationalization of Malawi's higher education institutions.

The relevance of community engagement issues in Malawian higher education

African higher education in this millennium faces unprecedented challenges. Higher education is recognized as a key force for modernization and development (Teferra & Altbach, 2004). The Twenty-First Century is being recognized as a knowledge era, and higher education must play a central role moving the needs of community forward (Zezeza, 2004). With this view in mind, there are three major issues that make faculty members' community engagement issues relevant and significant in the Malawian higher education context.

First, just as is the case in the U.S. context, higher education plays a crucial role in community development and promoting democracy and social change. The need to achieve community participation, sustainability, and ownership of development projects has in recent years led national governments and international funders to solicit both

university faculty and community members involvement in development work (Cohen, 1998; Chambers, 2005; Giroux, 2003; Lynton, 1995; Thelin, 2004; Mansuri and Rao 2004). According to Chapman and Sakamoto (2011), governments are becoming more aware of the benefits of collaboration in promoting large agendas for national and economic development. Higher Education for Development (HED) reports claim that local and international university partnerships with communities provide numerous opportunities for positive public diplomacy (Higher Education for Development, 2009; Morfit, Gore, & Akridge, 2009). In their article on partnership in African higher education, Samoff and Carrol (2004) show how politicians have promoted partnerships to achieve national goals through various kinds of aid driven relationships. There are several reports of international community engagement created to synch with U.S. policies and programs in response to the pressures of internationalization and globalization (Frierson-Campbell, 2003; Chamberlin & Plucker, 2008; Altbach et al., 2009; Eddy, 2010). However, the universities and governments in recipient countries such as Malawi have not always demonstrated active support of this strategy. It is significant therefore, that Malawian faculty member' perspectives to these forms of community engagement are understood to ensure proper planning of community engagement.

Second, donors, including bilateral and multilateral organizations, foundations, and philanthropic organizations have different objectives for funding faculty community engagement partnerships. In the past, their motivations have ranged from philanthropy, reparations, and political diplomacy to poverty reduction. Agencies such as the World Bank value higher education as a means of increasing the ability of developing countries

to participate in the knowledge-based global economy (Collins, 2011). The United Nations has promoted higher education as a means for development and poverty reduction. Higher education is depicted as the “engine” that will promote development (Collins, 2011). The Asian Development Bank (2008) also supports expansion of higher education and links research centers for scientific and technological innovation with expected national economic growth. These understandings are directly linked to the push for faculty members’ community-engaged scholarship because the faculty members are at the helm of knowledge creation and dissemination. Working directly with communities through community engagement is believed to speed up discovery of new ways to alleviate poverty and related challenges facing communities (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, Zeleza, 2002; Samoff & Carrol, 2004; Holland, 2009).

In Malawi, the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) is a main policy output of the Ministry of Education Science and Technology. It was produced and prepared in collaboration with cooperating partners such as: The Department for International Development (DFID). This is a United Kingdom government department responsible for administering overseas aid. Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), United States Agency for International Development (USAID), World Food Program (WFP), The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), World Bank and others). The NESP supports the Government of Malawi’s commitment to the realization of the Malawi Growth Development Strategy (MGDS), and international protocols arising from Education For All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The NESP fits

within the overall national development strategy, namely MGDS. The strategy highlights an important aspect that directly relates to faculty community engagement. It focuses on relevance of Malawi's higher education to the broader society, and sets expectations for faculty members' contribution to community development (Government of Malawi, 2010). Similar to what colleges and universities in the U.S. and across the globe are now facing — namely, a push to promote further the civic mission of universities via community engagement, — the Malawian higher education system is experiencing pressure to demonstrate its social value and contribution to the common good. Given that a substantial amount of research has documented how U.S. faculty members have taken up this responsibility, it is also significant to gain an international perspective on community engagement from Malawian faculty members.

A third issue that makes community engagement relevant to Malawian higher education is the nature of the country's higher education system. Since its inception, higher education in Malawi has been driven to conduct meaningful research, teaching and service for the needs of the communities (Zezeza, 2002, Chimombo, 2003, Lwanda, 2002, Holland, 2009). However, Teferra & Altbach (2004) have observed that higher education in SSA is facing tough times. They write:

By all measures, research and publishing activities in Africa are in critical condition. The general state of research in Africa is extremely poor, and its research infrastructure is inadequate. Scarcity of laboratory equipment, chemicals, and other scientific paraphernalia; a small number of high-level experts; poor and dilapidated libraries; alarmingly low and declining salaries of academic and research staff; a massive brain drain out of the academic institutions; the “expansion” of undergraduate education; poor oversight of research applicability; and declining, nonexistent, and unreliable sources of

research funds all remain major hurdles to the development of research capacity across the continent. (p. 215)

Chimombo's (2003) commentary of the Malawian higher education has similar observations. It is remarkable that even though the state of research in universities remains precarious, academic promotion and rewards depends to a large extent on publishing as a universal tool of measuring productivity in Africa including Malawi (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, Zeleza, 2002; Samoff & Carrol, 2004; Holland, 2009).

Community engagement here would be a good strategy for promoting relevant higher education and faculty rewards. Yet this is still a challenge because many of the scholarly activities that are undertaken by university faculty members are largely funded – and to a certain extent, managed and directed by external agencies, such as bilateral and multilateral bodies, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), foundations, and others (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, Zeleza, 2002; Samoff & Carrol, 2004). The ramifications of this external funding, especially with regard to what is involved in community-engaged scholarship and what motivates faculty members to conduct such scholarship makes community engagement a relevant and important issue to be researched in Malawi.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed relevant literature to establish and ground this study in the field of higher education and community engagement. The first section described key issues that frame U.S higher education context pertaining to issues of community engagement. The second section provided a summary of the important role of faculty in community engagement. The third section explored literature on how various factors impact faculty motivation for conducting community engagement in the U.S. and in Malawi. The fourth and final section presented perspectives on how several key issues in U.S. higher education and community engagement are significant for Malawian community engagement. These studies demonstrate both the insufficiency of research related to community engagement in SSA as well as the need for further research that explores both the process of university community engagement for community development and the global discourse on the relevance of higher education. Furthermore, the literature highlights many of the constraints and challenges impacting faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship in SSA.

These issues are explored in greater detail in Chapter five, which compares current findings to previous studies to highlight various incentives and disincentives for conducting community-engaged scholarship in Malawi. While the central focus on the study is the findings, it is worthwhile to describe the research methodology that guided this investigation. The next chapter concomitantly contains a detailed description of the mixed-methods study design. It highlights the community-engaged scholarship faculty survey, and the in-depth interview protocol that were used to collect the study data.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This chapter presents the study design and its justification. It also outlines the research sample and participants. This is followed by a description of the study's instrumentation and data analysis procedures, and includes a note on the researcher's background and his overall motivations to conduct the study.

Mixed-methods research design

The study sought to address the following research questions;

1. What incentives motivate faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi higher education?

2. What conceptual frameworks do faculty members who conduct community-engaged scholarship use?

3. What is the relationship between personal characteristics such as age, gender, appointment, level of education, etc. and faculty members' motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi?

4. How does the institutional and community context influence faculty members who conduct community-engaged scholarship?

To address these research questions, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed in this study. The study was designed in two phases. The first phase applied quantitative methods that captured data through a *Faculty Community-Engaged Scholarship Survey* (FCESS). This survey, which is based on the O'Meara

(2008) conceptual model of faculty members' involvement in community-engaged scholarship, was distributed at three public universities across six campuses. Based on the participant selection plan, 141 faculty members were identified as potential participants of the study at three public universities across six campuses in Malawi.⁷ In the end 110 faculty members actually participated in the study. The second phase applied qualitative methods through in-depth, follow-up interviews with a 10 of the faculty members who completed the survey. A total of 5 faculty members only took part in the depth-interview. This last group of faculty members was also given opportunity to respond to both the survey and in-depth interviews but they decided to take part in interviews only.

Faculty members who took part in the in-depth interviews were selected based on how the administration leaders namely, the principal or registrar, dean of faculty, and heads of department assessed the individual faculty members as being actively involved in community-engaged scholarship. Involvement in community-engaged scholarship was identified through faculty members declared community-based teaching, research and service projects within the university and outside. These faculty members were selected because they had a proven track record of community-engaged scholarship through grants and records of work with the administration.

During the second phase of the study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with faculty members who practiced community-engaged scholarship. These faculty

⁷ O'Meara's (2008) model proposes that faculty drive to conduct community engagement at least in the higher U.S context is influenced by personal characteristics, institutional and departmental mission, faculty view of knowledge and their discipline. Studies by Holland, (2009), Holland (2010) however, show that Malawian faculty members are greatly influenced by international issues scripts in global higher education. As such a component of these international external community influences was added on survey and conceptual model that guide this research.

members were selected based on an extensive portfolio of community-engaged scholarship from the top leadership (Registrars, Deans, and Head of Departments) at the colleges. Research using quantitative and qualitative techniques assumes there are facts or issues of phenomena that can be reported numerically and in text form. Although generalizability was deemed important, this research prioritized contextual depth and cross-case comparisons in analysis in order to gain more detailed understanding of factors shaping a unique and specific context at a given period of time (Chilisa, 2012; Patton, 2002; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

The different data sets were examined in perspective with one type of data being embedded with the other kinds of data. Specifically, the qualitative data from interviews were triangulated with the quantitative data from the FCESS to provide additional insights regarding faculty responses to the survey. While the survey provided a general picture in terms of how faculty were driven by various factors, the qualitative interview data helped to solicit explanations and possible interpretations behind the survey data. For example, the 110 faculty members' response on the survey showed that on a scale of 1-10, with average of 7.63, they were mostly driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship to improve their personal knowledge. In-depth interviews therefore, helped to explain that this motivation to improve their personal knowledge was influenced by their discipline and faculty members' aspiration to improve their students' capacity to learn and deal with community problems such as poor health. With insight from Creswell & Plano Clark (2007) qualitative and quantitative data complemented and strengthened each other to present a more valid and worthwhile context of the objective under study. To

achieve complementarity, qualitative and quantitative methods are used to understand overlapping but distinct aspects of a phenomenon to gain a richer, more complete discovery of the subject matter under study (Tashakori & Teddie, 2003; Green, 2007; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Outliers or unique cases in each data set were compared and matched to bring their significance back to the broader study. Specific cases of outstanding examples of community-engaged scholarship were presented and discussed in details.

The FCESS survey and the interview protocol were based on self-reported data. Both instruments asked specific questions related to faculty incentives to conduct community-engaged scholarship; sought examples of engagement areas and the time allocated to those activities; and assessed faculty conceptual frameworks or epistemological approaches for interfacing with community in research, teaching, or public service. The FCESS also included questions related to personal, institutional, governmental and external community incentives as factors that motivate or deter faculty members from practicing community-engaged scholarship. While all the FCESS questions but one were closed items, questions on the interview protocol were more open ended in order to elicit deeper and broader faculty perspectives on incentives that drive them to participate in community-engaged scholarship.

Development of Faculty Community-Engaged Scholarship Survey

Instrument development began with item generation. A total of 44 items were included on the questionnaire. The generation of the items was based on the conceptual framework of O'Meara (2006). The conceptual framework proposes that faculty

motivation for community engagement is influenced by personal characteristics such as gender, experience, discipline, epistemology and rank. Additionally, it proposes that the institutional context such as mission, resources, norms and evaluation influence faculty motivation. The FCESS is composed of six sections, with questions framed from these factors based on the conceptual framework: demographics; personal incentives; institutional incentives; government incentives; and external community incentives. The survey items were formulated based on insight from the literature on community engagement. The history of Malawian higher education provided a context for operationizing the survey items. Most importantly, the O'Meara (2008) model of individual and institutional influences on faculty motivations for public-engaged scholarship was crucial in conceptualizing and formulating hypothesis of what factors might motivate faculty members to conduct community engaged scholarship. Findings from Furco's (2010) study on comprehensive community engagement were useful in understanding the concept of community engagement in higher education. The study provided insights on how research, teaching, outreach or service can together be assessed or conceptualized at a community-engaged campus. This was at higher level of conceptualization.

O'Meara's (2008) model was useful in specifically understanding and formulating survey items on the concept of faculty motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship. Apart from the O'Meara model, findings from a pilot study that was conducted in 2013 provided great insight in the survey item development. In addition to the first three sections, the following sections were included: government incentives and

external community incentives. These sections were composed of questions based on the pilot study (described later) and literature on African higher education in general. The first section had 12 questions that aimed to gather important demographic information on the factors postulated to influence faculty engagement participation. Questions included items related to gender, religion, age, country, where highest degree was obtained, and other demographic and background information.

The second section focused on the faculty members' level of involvement in community engaged-scholarship. In this section, a definition of community engaged-scholarship was provided. This was followed by questions on faculty members' level of comfort, length of time involved, and the percentage of time in the overall academic work involved in conducting community-engaged scholarship. The third section of the survey attempted to capture important information on conceptual frameworks that characterize the faculty members' personal interests or factors that motivate, incentivize, and influence their participation in community engagement. Items in this section included ones related to faculty personal values regarding community-engaged scholarship for social transformation, empowerment, justice, the co-creation of knowledge, and more.

In the fourth, fifth and sixth sections (institutional, governmental, and external community incentives), faculty were asked to express the extent to which they agreed with statements on professional and academic support for engagement, current department support for engagement, professional community support for engagement, current university and government support for engagement and environmental factors

hypothesized to influence faculty willingness to participate in community-engaged scholarship.

The survey items were presented on a ten point Likert-scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree with no neutral response option. One open-ended question was included at the end for faculty participants to provide additional comments. Faculty member participants answered and completed the survey on a printed paper questionnaire. To improve data management and entry from the paper version into excel, access and SPSS databases, the survey instrument was programmed into a Personal Data Assistant (PDA) device. This device enabled quick quantitative data entry from the paper-administered survey into an access database while maintaining safe data storage and a high level of accuracy from the PDA into a password-protected computer.

Participants and Sampling Strategy

The university or college offices, aided by specific deans of faculty and departmental heads, agreed to assist in the identification of participants for the study. The goals were to derive a sample that was:

1. Representative of all faculty members (within Malawi's three universities) who conduct community-engaged scholarship (community-engaged faculty members)⁸
2. Large enough to perform meaningful quantitative analyses like regression.
3. Small enough to keep data collection manageable and reasonable.

⁸ Community engaged faculty were defined as a faculty members who through their professional life and academic work integrate teaching, research, outreach and service with a central focus on societal problems affecting local and international community beyond the university campus. In the definition of community-engaged faculty members, there an expectation and assumption that the faculty members were actually working IN or WITH the community in some capacity.

4. Balanced enough to represent the overall percentage of male and female faculty in the colleges.

The first reason for focusing on only community-engaged faculty members was that these faculty members would find the survey and interviews questions (and the research study’s topic) not only relevant but also meaningful in comparison to faculty members who were not involved in this type of scholarship. Secondly, since the focus of the study was to assess faculty members’ motivation for community-engaged scholarship (CES), a sample comprised solely of faculty involved in CES was deemed appropriate.

Collecting a list of faculty members’ names and contacts who were involved in CES from the country’s three public universities across six college campuses across produced a robust pool of eligible participants to include in the study. Because the list of possible faculty participants were vetted with key administrators within each of the three participating universities who knew the faculty population well, this minimized the potential of missing eligible participants or including faculty members by mistake. Table 3.3 shows the college cluster breakdown of the final level of sampling.

Table 3. Sample size by institution

Institution	College	Identified	Contacted	Desired	Participated
University 1	College A	45	40	40	35
university 1	College B	40	31	31	30
University 1	College C	6	6	6	6
University 1	College D	5	5	5	4
University 2	Campus	25	24	24	22
University 3	Campus	25	20	20	17

In the end, the study’s sample was composed of a total of 110 respondents to the FCESS survey, plus 5 participants who only responded to in-depth interviews. For each

of the six college campuses, a high percentage of the faculty that were identified as community-engaged scholars participated in the study. In this regard, the sample was representative and illustrative of the overall CES faculty population.

Of these survey respondents, 78 (72.2%) are male and 30 (27.8%) were female. There were 2 participants who returned the survey without responses to all demographic items and most of the survey sections were uncompleted. These participants were entered and appeared in the database as missing cases. The distribution of male and female was a reasonable approximation of male/female faculty ratio in Malawian public universities, which is currently about at 3:1. In total 91 respondents (80.0%) reported they are married, and 102 respondents (94.4%) are Christian. Faculty members held different faculty ranks at the time of the study, with the majority being at a lecturer level 45 (41.7%). The sample included 28 (25.9%) Senior Lecturers, 12 (10.2%) percent Associate Professors and 12 (11.1%) Full Professors. Of these participants, 10 (9.1%) percent have bachelor's degrees, 45 (40.9%) have masters degrees and 52 (47.3%) percent have doctoral degrees. In the sample, 15 (13.6%) trained in North America, 46 (41.8%) trained in Africa, and 43 (39.1%) trained in Western Europe. Table 4 below compares demographics sample participants and national data of faculty in Malawi's public university system. The appendix provides details of the demographic characteristics of the entire sample and other questions.

Table 4. Demographics of respondents and public universities' faculty members

	Survey Respondents		Public University Population	
	N	%	N	%
Gender				
Female	30	27.8	185	26.5
Male	78	72.2	699	73.5
Qualification				
Diploma/Certificate	1	0.9	15	2
Bachelors	10	9.1	203	27.9
Masters	45	40.9	376	18.3
Professional	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Doctoral	52	47.3	133	51.7
Academic Rank				
Instructor	n/a	n/a	2	0.23
Staff Associate	4	3.7	116	13.39
Assistant lecturer	3	2.8	115	13.27
Lecturer	45	41.7	433	50.00
Associate lecturer	1	0.9	n/a	n/a
Senior lecturer	28	25.9	130	15.01
Assistant professor	2	1.9	n/a	n/a
Associate Professor	11	10.2	37	4.3
Professor	12	11.1	33	3.8

Overall, the study sample represents a 12.70 percent of the total numbers of faculty in Malawian public universities, according to data from SURUA 2012. This was therefore, deemed a representative sample that met the objectives of the sampling plan of the current study. And while the sample was purposively not randomly obtained, all participants were considered community-engaged scholars by peers and university personnel at their respective institution, according to the definition of CES that was given. However, as the results will show, when asked if they are community-engaged scholars, some faculty members responded that they were not.

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Minnesota and the Malawi National Council for Science and Technology (NCST) approved this study (UMN Study Number: 1307E38121 and NCST Ref. No. NCST/RTT/2/6). The appendix contains the letters of approval as well as the survey instrument and interview protocol that were administered. The survey and interviews were conducted in English, which is the language of instruction in Malawi educational institutions and one of the official languages of Malawi.

The initial plan for data collection was in two major phases. It was envisioned that at first, a survey would be delivered through campus mail to all faculty on the obtained list of names and contacts. Then upon completing the survey, the respondents would mail them back to the researcher. Following the collection of all surveys and data entry, a preliminary analysis would be conducted to inform the second (qualitative) phase, based on the specific outcomes of the preliminary quantitative data analysis. Of the total faculty who completed the survey, fifteen faculty members who scored on the two extremes (namely high and low on the level of engagement, based on the FCESS survey) would then be contacted for follow up in-depth interviews. These would be considered as unique cases because of their outlier positions. The interview qualitative stage was aimed at gaining an in-depth understanding of the conceptual frameworks faculty use and incentives that motivate them in conducting community-engaged scholarship (research questions 1 and 2). As much as this was desirable, it quickly became apparent, and thanks to advice by university administrators, that this made the study practically impossible to conduct because the campus mailing systems were not working well. Additionally,

faculty would also most likely ignore the survey as they are busy and at times not usually present on campus. This meant that a new plan had to be developed.

Having obtained a list of names with emails addresses, cell phone, office numbers, and the researcher, made appointments with each faculty member, asking them to be part of the study, complete the survey, and have a follow up interview in person. Phone and in-person communications about the study were explained and faculty members were informed that the information they shared would be confidential, voluntary and not linked to any government or local institution. Maintaining the privacy, confidentiality and independence of the study was important for two main reasons. First, it assured the protection of the participants from fear and concern of creating controversy especially on issues related to the government funding and policies, which were some of the issues raised in the study. This issue has particular sensitivity in Malawi where that nature of the government is not one that tolerates opposition or controversy. Secondly, a clarifying that the study was supported by the University of Minnesota Interdisciplinary Center for the Study of Global Change and not the Government of Malawi ensured trust and mutual agreement between the researcher and participant.

Participants were given the option to complete the survey in person or with either the researcher or research assistant. It was profound to see their ability to express their agency and shape the format of the study as the study progressed. Perhaps this should not have been unexpected, given that they themselves are all researchers and scholars. Apart from asking justification for using one research method over the other, some faculty members were clear in their preference to either just complete a survey as opposed to an

interview or vice versa. However, other faculty members were willing to complete the survey and the interview. The majority of faculty completed only the survey. Because of these complexities, the study evolved to a process where surveys and in-depth interviews were completed and collected during the actual meeting. Upon completing the survey, a faculty participant who demonstrated extensive (based on administration records) or limited community engagement was asked to have an in-depth follow-up interview.

The interviews questions were framed from the questionnaire items. However, the interview questions were meant to solicit a more in-depth understanding of the conceptualization of faculty members' motivation and the conceptual frameworks they drew from in their community-engaged scholarship. While 70 percent of the completed surveys were completed and collected on the spot, 30 percent were collected either on the second, third, or fourth visits with the participant. Interviews were recorded using a digital audio recorder. Faculty members were asked to decide if they wanted their interview recorded or not. All faculty members who agreed to be interviewed also agreed to have the interviews recorded. The audio files were then transferred into a password-protected computer. Express Scribe V.5.55 software was used to transcribe all interviews into text. Memos and field notes were entered into a field journal immediately after the interview, where possible, to record first impressions and emerging themes.

A grand total of 115 faculty members participated in the study. A sum of 110 completed only the survey and did not respond to the in-depth interview questions. Of the 110 total participants ten faculty members completed both the survey and the in-depth interviews. Five faculty members participated only in the interviews. This approach was

very systematic and justifiable because not only did it reduce the logistical problem of asking faculty members to commit to meeting the researcher twice, but it also improved the response rate on the surveys compared to when faculty were expected to respond and mail back the survey themselves. Additionally, meeting with the faculty in person provided a space for a dialogic exchange. Faculty asked questions to clarify some survey questions, which ensured that misinterpretations were minimized. Overall, this approach ended up being very important in securing the data that were necessary to answer the research questions.

Survey Data Analysis

The analysis of quantitative data was dependent on the response rates. Since a desired number of respondents was achieved, the researcher proceeded with the quantitative data analysis. Some descriptive, frequencies, ANOVA, multiple regression, and discriminant statistical data analysis were conducted using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). This approach made it possible to answer specific and precise questions of considerable complexity regarding factors affecting faculty motivations to conduct community-engaged scholarship in a developing country's higher education. The initial step was to conduct an analysis of descriptive statistics focusing on the response rate and demographics of the survey sample under study. Additionally correlational and regression analyses were performed to explore how variables on personal, institutional and external community incentives influenced faculty to perform community-engaged scholarship based on their demographic characteristics such as rank, age, gender, and time of involvement in community-engaged scholarship. Analysis of

variance to compare levels of faculty engagement depending on demographic variables and motivations for community engagement was also explored.

Analysis Procedure

The 44 items on the survey were organized into four independent variables: (a) personal incentives, (b) institutional incentives, (c) government incentives and (d) external community incentives. The dependent variables for analysis were *faculty involvement in community-engaged scholarship* (yes, no) and *percentage of overall work that is community-engaged scholarship*. In addition, a *community-engaged scholarship incentive* score was also computed as a dependent variable. This score was calculated by finding the overall sum score on all the four variables on incentives across the survey items. This was used as a dependent variable in regression analysis.

Before a specific analysis of answers to the research questions was done, a reliability test was performed on the internal consistency of the survey items to ensure that the set items and questions were measuring the same things and were internally consistent. More detailed information and results of these tests are presented in chapter four.

Research Question 1:

What incentives motivate engaged faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi higher education?

Analysis: To explore how participants' responses tended to cluster around certain points of agreement or disagreements to survey items, frequencies in form of percentages and descriptive statistics including means, medians and standard deviations of responses

to questions about participation in each engagement activity from the first section of the FCESS were tabulated. Percentages of faculty participating in each activity were derived. Descriptive statistics generated from these items provided information related to the average number of hours per week faculty participated in engagement activities, the prevalence of each engagement activity among the faculty members, and the measure of central tendencies among several factors that motivated their community-engaged scholarship.

Research Question 2:

What is the relationship between personal characteristics such as age, gender, appointment, level of education, etc. and engaged faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi? Are there patterns related to: gender, religion, faculty status/rank, and academic qualifications?

Analysis: Multiple regression technique was used to address this question. The selection of variables, or variable specification, was an important step in ensuring the objectives of the regression analysis. Overall mean score on all four main variables was computed to derive a dependent variable (community engagement incentive score). This score was then analyzed in relation to the demographic variables such as age, faculty rank, years involved in community-engaged scholarship, and the percentage of activities relating to community-engaged scholarship. To assess further for statistically significant differences between and among groups on various variables (e.g., academic rank, gender, and qualifications), the t-test and ANOVA were applied.

Research Question 3:

How does the institutional and community context influence engaged faculty who conduct community-engaged scholarship?

Analysis: Part of this question was answered through exploring discriminant regression analysis and descriptive statistics. The independent variable for the regression analysis was whether or not faculty conducted community-engaged scholarship. The items in each of the four sections of the survey were computed into an overall score for the particular sections to create four variables. The four exploratory variables were: personal incentives (14 items), institutional incentives (7 items), governmental incentives (7 items) and external community incentives (9 items).

Research Question 4:

Through what conceptual frameworks do engaged faculty members conduct their community-engaged scholarships?

Analysis: This question and part of research question 3 were answered through qualitative data, as is explained in the following sections below.

Table 5 below offers a summary of the analysis plan based on the four research questions. The table presents the analysis plan and its purpose.

Table 5. Data Analysis Plan

Research Question	Analysis strategy	Purpose
1. What incentives motivate engaged faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi higher education?	Descriptive statistics and frequencies	To categorize factors that mostly influence faculty members' drive for community engagement. To establish faculty's level of knowledge and comfort in the scholarship of engagement.
2. What is the relationship between personal characteristics such as age, gender, appointment, level of education, etc. and engaged faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi?	Multiple regression technique and one way ANOVA and t-test analysis	To explain plausible salient factors that influence faculty motivations for engaged scholarship and explore if there were statistically significant differences in motivation between groups e.g. gender, level of education etc.
3. How does the institutional and community context influence engaged faculty who conduct community-engaged scholarship?	Regression, discriminant analysis, frequencies and descriptive statistics	To predict and demonstrate what incentives would differentiate faculty members who reported that they had conducted community-engaged scholarship and those did not.
4. Through what conceptual frameworks do engaged faculty members conduct their community-engaged scholarships?	Frequencies and descriptive statistics. Qualitative analyses explore data for themes in line with the model by O'Meara (2008).	To explicate which frameworks were mostly used, how, why and the significance of the frameworks.

Qualitative Interview Data Analysis

Patton (2002) points out that there are several approaches in qualitative data analysis. The two most used examples are the deductive and inductive approaches. A deductive approach creates specific main variables and a statement of hypothesis in relation to the question under study. An inductive approach to data analysis starts with specific observations and builds toward general patterns to form dimensions or themes based on open-ended questions. Although they are different, in practice, both approaches

are often combined. The decision to follow one or both of these data analysis strategies in this study was influenced by and dependent on the nature of the questions being posed. The deductive approach was used because it enables to test an already hypothesized model on faculty motivations for community engagement.

A deductive approach was best suited for this study for two major reasons. First, the approach is significant in that it transforms general theories found in the literature for instance; American higher education models applied as universal principles in higher education planning and development elsewhere. The deductive approach gave room to take one of these conceptual models as a specific hypothesis suitable for testing. In this case it helped to see how factors shaping faculty motivation for community engagement in the U.S. would hold as a general higher education principle to a specific and unique case such as the Malawian higher education system. Second, the approach enables close examination of negative or unique cases. Since data are viewed in line with already predetermined variable, themes, and categories, the deductive approach helps focus on a few specific phenomena that do not fit within the set parameters. This was critical in identifying specific factors that shape faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship in a context like Malawian higher education as well as key challenges they face and conceptual frameworks they use.

Based on the literature on faculty community-engagement and factors that motivate faculty to perform community-engaged scholarship two major variables — individual characteristics and institutional characteristics — were considered important. These variables were drawn from the Individual and Organizational Influences on

Faculty Members' Motivation and Engagement in Public Scholarship model proposed by O'Meara (2008). It was hypothesized that Malawian faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship would be shaped by these two major variables. The hypothesis was that faculty personal characteristics such as age, gender, academic rank, experience, and epistemology, among others would influence the level of faculty motivations (none, low, medium and high) for participation in community-engaged scholarship.

Similarly, based on research findings from previous studies for example, Holland (2009; 2010) and Zeleza (2002), the nature of the institutional mission, departments, and availability of resources, institutional norms, and faculty evaluation for promotion were also conceptualized to influence the level of faculty members' motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The level of faculty motivation was assumed to be related to the percentage of time committed to community engagement work, the number of years a faculty member has been involved in community-engaged scholarship, and the level of comfort at conducting community-engaged scholarship. A total of 12 demographic questions asked about faculty background and level of involvement in community-engaged scholarship (see appendix for the entire survey instrument as well as the interview guide). Following exploratory statistical analysis of frequencies, descriptive statistics, and differences based on various demographic characteristics, regression and correlational analysis between the selected demographic variables and personal incentives, institutional incentives, and external community incentives variables

were analyzed to determine the relationship between variables proposed in the O'Meara (2008) model.

Following these quantitative data analyses, qualitative faculty interviews were analyzed. Faculty interviews were transcribed, and the qualitative data analysis Excel spreadsheet was used to organize the interview data according to themes. Color codes were used to distinguish themes in during review of transcripts. Themes or codes were developed and adopted from the ones listed on the model of individual and organizational influences on faculty members' motivation for community-engaged scholarship (O'Meara 2008). These themes were then modified for the study as presented in chapter one. Individual (personal) motivation, institutional (organizational) influences were two key categories of themes, based on the O'Meara (2008) model. However, in answering the first research question of what incentives motivate faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship, a third theme, external community influence, emerged.

Major themes were found within those initial groupings, and then secondary coding of the transcripts was done to identify and study several sub-themes. Having the results of the in-depth interviews and the quantitative survey on faculty perspectives on their motivations and incentives for community-engaged scholarship served as a form of data triangulation, a recommendation made by Lincoln and Guba (1985). In the analysis process, key quotes were chosen to represent of the interviewees' individual and collective voices and provide details or explanations of the quantitative data.

Attention was paid to discrepant evidence — outliers, unique cases, or negative comments about particular motivations and challenges faculty face in implementing and

conducting community-engaged scholarship. This evidence helped to draw a general picture of what influences faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Each of the major themes and concepts from the model derived from the interviews was linked to their quotes used until the final writing stage to ensure that the quotes did not come from only a few select of interviewees. The qualitative data were useful as additional evidence confirming or disconfirming insights that were imaging from the quantitative data. Interview data were significant in providing in-depth insights into the quantitative data in order to create more nuanced and provide alternative explanation for issues under examination.

Preliminary research and motivations for the current research project

It is important to point out that this research was driven by the researchers' personal struggles with access, quality, and management of higher education in Malawi. The researcher was strongly influenced by the aspirations to contribute to social change in the higher education sector. These goals and aspirations were expressed earlier expressed in personal essays when applying to the University of Minnesota's graduate school for masters and doctorate program. Among other things the personal statements reiterated the researcher's interest to teach, research, and engage with communities in developing higher education in Malawi.

Higher education in Malawi is still in its infancy compared to other countries in Africa. This fact drove the researcher to investigate what motivates Malawian faculty to engage with communities and understand the forms of engagement being practiced in order to see what might be helpful for a new scholar to contribute in the bigger picture of higher education development in Malawi.

Although this work had personal significance, it was the change taking place in international education development for e.g., international funding organizations like USAID, World Bank and their government partners engaging faculty in African institutions to work in community development projects that provided an added impetus and an academic rationale to carry out this research (World Bank, 2010).

With this background, in the summer of 2012, the researcher proposed, applied for and received funding from the University of Minnesota's Interdisciplinary Center for the Study of Global Change (ICGC) for pre-dissertation research. The research proposal

outlined the purpose of a qualitative phenomenological study to understand the nature of faculty members' community-engagement in Malawian higher education. The study investigated the following questions: What does community engagement mean for Malawian faculty? Why are faculty members involved in community engagement? How do faculty perform their community engagement work?

Pilot study activities. A convenience sampling strategy was used in conducting this study because this approach allowed for the collection of information-rich cases worthy of in-depth analysis (Green, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989). One public institution in the Northern part of Malawi was selected for the study. This was helpful in establishing relationships for the subsequent full dissertation research. One hour-long interviews were conducted with 15 university faculty members and staff working community engagement initiatives. Included in this sample were all six deans of the six faculties (schools), the university registrar and senior professors and junior faculty. Among several reasons, this institution was selected because of the importance of access and gaining initial trust of the people working at the institution (Denscombe, 1998). Prior to the study, the researcher had worked with several faculty members at the institution and it was deemed appropriate to conduct the pilot study at this particular university.

The pilot research was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Minnesota. The findings of this research were presented at the ICGC in October, 2012. The results suggested that faculty had a broad sense of the meaning of community engagement as creating relationships with local, regional, and global communities, and yet they portrayed varying motivations and reasons for engagement.

Key themes from faculty interviews included the fuzziness of institutional guidelines and the reward system for faculty-community engagement; challenges of funding and resources to carry out projects; and limitations of time due to the demands of teachings.

These issues warranted further examinations of the factors or incentives that shape motivation for community-engaged scholarship among Malawian faculty members. The feedback received from faculty and graduate students at the ICGC presentation contributed to the shape and approach of the current full dissertation study. For instance, in my initial analysis, data were interpreted with caution because during the time of data collection, the university's students, faculty and staff were on strikes demanding pay raises and the hiring of a new vice chancellor since the previous one had passed away. Instead of viewing the strikes and institutional tensions as limitations, the ICGC feedback suggested that in the subsequent research, more careful attention could be paid to such critical moments because they create a rich context for examining issues of importance such as motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship and how institutional and human behavior shape such processes. Rather than a limitation, crisis proffers a crucial lens for analyzing data and phenomena.⁹ This being the case the subsequent research project paid special attention to such events during data collection and analysis.

Arriving at this research agenda, and indeed, the articulations and conclusions of this research project, as is true of all research, were not easy. The researcher was subject to various potential shortfalls and biases. Being a Malawian and an upcoming scholar aspiring to hold a faculty position in Malawi higher education and engage with

⁹ Significant insight and feedback was provided by Dr. John Mowitt , Co-Director, ICGC, Professor, Cultural Studies and Comparative Literature University of Minnesota Twin-Cities Campus

communities myself, this study was designed with specific motivations. For one, the researcher hoped to politically bring to light some of the underlying positive and negative strides and developments faculty in Malawi have face over the years in their community-engaged scholarship. Also, having worked in Malawi and personally experienced the hardships and opportunities for development of higher education in the country, the researcher saw the importance of keeping focused on the realities of Malawian academia as an entry point for my return to Malawi and to contribute to its development.

With clear understanding of the possibilities of uncovering positive and negative faculty members' motivations for community engaged work, the researcher was therefore, reflective and attuned to the possibility of putting forth a truncated or distorted account of the object of the current research study. The researcher just as is true in all research studies was continuously aware of moral and ethical issue present in research. For example, the researcher grappled with the dilemma of overly criticizing the shortfalls of faculty motivations or to celebrate the fundamental goodness (honesty, decency, frugality) and highlight the plight of faculty conducting community-engaged scholarship in Malawi. While either of these epistemic stances may be more appealing or worthwhile depending on the targeted audience, moral munificence is not a guarantee for rigorous social analysis. The task of social science research, this project included, is not to exonerate the characteristics and approach of those considered dishonored social figures or to blindly rebuke those considered lofty, detached to the work and principles they swore to uphold. It is rather to dissect the social, historical and contemporary mechanisms and meanings that govern the practices, and ground the motivations as was

the quest for this project, and explain the strategies and the trajectories as one would take for any social category, high or low, highly educated or not, noble or ignoble.

Current Study Approach

Having established the background of the study through the pilot, the research project progressed to development of the survey and interview protocol. The research design started with a comprehensive review of literature followed by survey and interview protocol development. Because this was the first comprehensive approach to understanding factors that influence faculty members' motivations for community engagement in Malawi, a special survey, the Faculty Community-Engaged Scholarship Survey (FCESS), was designed to serve as the data collection tool. The questionnaire consists of items derived from the general faculty engagement literature and the conceptualized framework of factors impacting faculty motivation for engagement, based on the findings of the pilot study. Significantly, the conceptual framework, based on Colbeck and Wharton Michael's (2006) model of factors that influence faculty motivation for community-engaged scholarship, formed the basis of item generation for the survey and interview protocol.

Three additional points should be mentioned on the contents of the survey and the importance of the pilot study. The first one relates to inclusion of the two last two sections, namely the government incentives and external community incentives sections. The findings of the pilot study revealed that government of Malawi and international donors had a great control in determining policies and directions of all public universities. This is also clearly reflected in the Government of Malawi Higher Education Policies that

show the need to align university teaching, outreach, and research with the Malawi Growth Strategy — a policy document that governs the national development agenda. As such it was conceptualized that faculty motivations to conduct community-engaged scholarship would possibly be influenced by government initiatives and incentives. With this understanding, a section on government incentives was added on the survey protocol. This section had nine questions asking faculty to agree or disagree to what extent government incentives drove them to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Items included asked for issues such as whether faculty agreed that government policies required them to conduct engaged scholarship or if they were accountable to the government. Other items also required faculty to indicate to what extent they felt their scholarship was influenced by government providing them with funds, setting the agenda, and whether they felt compelled to conduct community-engaged scholarship because the government was autocratic or democratic and peaceful. The appendix provides all details of the items.

The second point to mention relates to the inclusion of the external community incentives sections. External community incentives for the purpose of this survey were conceptualized as communities beyond the university institution and the government. The external community here included the international community and well as local communities, which faculty also mentioned in the pilot study as being an important entity in the formulation and practice of engaged scholarship. For example, faculty members' perspectives in the pilot study and indeed literature on African higher education in general indicates that international communities such as Nongovernmental organizations,

research institutes and development organizations such as United Nation and World Bank have had significant influence on scholarship in Africa. This particular section, therefore, asked faculty to report to what extent the external community incentives drove their engaged scholarship. The items asked faculty to indicate whether they conducted community-engaged scholarship because they had received financial support from outside communities such as donors, and whether communities trusted them and had invited them to conduct scholarship that way. These items were significant in assessing what major factors motivated faculty scholarship.

The third and last point on survey instrument development concerns the changes that were made after testing (piloting) of survey at one public university before implementing it with the entire sample for the study. One important outcome of the survey pilot feedback was that participants did not suggest radical and significant changes to the instrument, with the exception of pointing out the need to clarify the definition of community engagement. Whereas the initial definition was offered more from a critical emancipatory paradigm, the definition changed in the main study to include one that did not refer to only one paradigmatic approach. This feedback is supported by perspectives from Lincoln and Guba (2000) in addition to MacNail, Doberneck, and Van Egeren, (2010), who show that with plateauing of the paradigm wars, researchers and participants, who often act as interpretive bricoleurs, cannot afford to be strangers to multiple paradigms and perspectives. Rather, they need to know these diverse philosophical principles and engage these multiple philosophical concepts in dialogue.

This involves pragmatic use of various knowledge as opposed to focusing on which forms or epistemology is good or bad.

The interview protocol was developed hand in hand with the survey. The interview protocol contained questions formulated from the literature review, pilot study findings, and the Colbeck and Wharton Michael's (2006) model. The interview protocol was designed to enlist a more general detailed response as opposed to specific responses that the survey offered. The protocol asked faculty to describe their motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship, what challenges they faced, and how they thought various demographic characteristics such as their age, academic rank, level of education and sex impacted the way they conducted community-engaged scholarship and how these drove or hindered their motivation their scholarship. While the protocol offered a structured format of questions to follow, adherence or diversion from the protocol depended on the issues raised by the participants as such no specific probing questions were included in the protocol and these emerged during the interview. This enabled a dialogic approach to the interview, which was helpful in creating rapport and soliciting interesting perspectives on faculty motivations for community-engaged scholarship.

Conclusion

The chapter presented the study's mixed-methods design and research approach. It described the data collection plan and how it was implemented. It also summarized the data analysis procedures that were employed. The following chapter presents the findings of the study. In the first section, the quantitative data analysis results are presented,

followed by a presentation of the findings from the qualitative data analysis. These are examined further to respond to the key purpose of the study, which was to explore what motivations that drive faculty in Malawian higher education to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Overview

This chapter presents a summary of the study's quantitative and qualitative results based on analyses of the survey data and in-depth interviews. These data sought to address the overarching question: What factors motivate engaged faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawian higher education? Specifically, the chapter presentation is organized to address each of the study's research questions:

- What incentives motivate engaged faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawi higher education?
- What is the relationship between personal characteristics such as age, gender, appointment, level of education and faculty members' motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship?
- How do personal, institutional and community contexts influence faculty members' who conduct community-engaged scholarship?
- Through what conceptual frameworks do faculty members conduct their community-engaged scholarship?

Reliability analysis

Internal reliability of the survey instruments was conducted to assess whether the items on the scale of the survey were asking about the same constructs related to community-engaged scholarship. Internal consistency reliability is a measure of reliability used to evaluate the degree to which different scale items that probe the same construct produce similar results (Bonett, 2003). The internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the scales is reported in table 6. The resulting alpha reliabilities range from .67 to .88, indicating that all scales are acceptable¹⁰.

Table 6. Reliability Statistics

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>
Personal Incentives	.88	14
Government Incentives	.84	9
External Community Incentives	.67	7
Institutional Incentives	.86	7

Research Question # 1: Conceptual frameworks For CES

Faculty conceptual frameworks examine issues that incentivize faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship. There were 14 items used to assess faculty conceptual frameworks and personal incentives (see Appendix A). Frequencies were obtained for the 14 items altogether using a ten-point Likert scale. The scale was set as 1-3= Strongly Disagree, 4-5=Disagree, 6-7=Agree, and 8-10=Strongly Agree. For other further

¹⁰This is supported by Nunally's (1978) paper, which recommends that a satisfactory level of reliability depends on how a measure is being used. In the early stages of research one saves time and energy by working with instruments that have only modest reliability, for which purpose reliabilities of .70 or higher will suffice

analyses, this scale was transformed and coded into the following four codes: 1-3 coded as 1=Strongly Disagree, 4-5 coded as 2=Disagree, 6-7 coded as 3=Agree, and 8-10 coded as 4=Strongly Agree. Table 7 shows means and standard deviations for each of the 14 individual items to illustrate the participants' level of agreement with the personal incentives driving their community-engaged scholarship.

Results show that the respondents agreed that they were incentivized as is demonstrated by the high means on ten of the conceptual frameworks or personal incentives items. The other four items yielded more negative results, indicating disagreement: 39.8 percent (n=43) of respondents strongly disagreed that they were driven by the need to perform charity work; 52.8 percent (n=57) disagreed that they were incentivized to earn extra money; 70.4 percent (n=76) strongly disagreed that they were driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship to raise their political concerns and 67.6 percent (n=73) strongly disagreed that they were driven to gain recognition and honor in the community when conducting community-engaged scholarship.

As the table illustrates, faculty members were, on average, strongly driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship due to the need to improve their personal knowledge; transforming society; use their personal skills to solve problems in society; co-creating knowledge with community partners and improving students' capacity to learn.

Table 7. Personal incentives (all items) N=108

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
I conduct CES to: improve personal knowledge.	1	10	7.63	2.628
I conduct CES to: transform society.	1	10	7.54	2.592
I conduct CES to: use my skills to solve problems in society.	1	10	7.45	2.62
I conduct CES to: co-create knowledge with community partners	1	10	7.3	2.648
I conduct CES to: improve my students' capacity to learn.	1	10	7.25	2.598
I conduct CES to: go above and beyond what is academically required.	1	10	6.77	2.857
I conduct CES to: "do good" in my community.	1	10	6.29	2.641
I conduct CES to: empower oppressed communities.	1	10	6.21	2.802
I conduct CES to: deal with social wrongs in society	1	10	5.83	3.074
I conduct CES to: gain professional/personal connections.	1	10	5.33	2.995
I conduct CES to: fulfil my commitments to charity.	1	10	4.7	3.049
I conduct CES to: earn extra money.	1	10	3.7	2.852
I conduct CES to: gain recognition and honor in the community.	1	10	2.67	2.23
I conduct CES to: raise my political concerns in the communities.	1	10	2.52	2.29

In the second section of the survey, faculty members were asked to reflect on institutional incentives that would drive their community-engaged work. Overall, faculty tended to agree less with various institutional incentives in relation to personal incentives driving their motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Whereas 65.7 percent (n=71) of respondents strongly agreed or agreed that they conducted community-engaged scholarship because it was a mission at their university, 66.7 percent (n=72) of the respondents strongly agreed or agreed that they conducted community-engaged scholarship because of professional and academic disciplinary requirements. Faculty

members overwhelmingly disagreed that they were driven by the need to achieve promotion and tenure and that they conducted community-engaged scholarship because of the financial support their university provides for such work. There was 39.8 percent (n=43) faculty members who strongly disagree that they were involved in community-engaged scholarship because of the possibility of getting promotion and tenure while 58.3 percent (n=63) strongly disagreed with conducting community-engaged scholarship because of university financial support. Table 8 below shows mean scores for all items. On average faculty tended to strongly agree (M=6.26, SD= 3.04) with the institutional mission as a major driving force for their community-engaged scholarship.

Table 8. Institutional Incentives All Items N= 108

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
e) I conduct CES because: my academic discipline/profession requires me to.	1	10	6.26	3.04
a) I conduct CES because: it's a mission at my university.	1	10	6.25	3.02
f) I conduct CES because: there is professional development for such.	1	10	5.59	2.96
g) I conduct CES because: it is a frame work for competitiveness of the university	1	10	5.38	2.93
d) I conduct CES because: I could/got promotion and tenure.	1	10	4.83	3.17
b) I conduct CES because: the university allocates time for it.	1	10	4.42	3.00
c) I conduct CES because: The university provides time financial support for such.	1	10	3.44	2.72

Faculty participants were also asked to respond to how state government incentives drove their motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship (see Table 9). The frequencies on each item demonstrated how faculty thought the government incentivized them to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Faculty members mostly

tended to strongly disagree that government incentivized them to conduct community-engaged scholarship. A total of 80.6 percent (n=87) of faculty members reported that they strongly disagree that they conducted community-engaged scholarship because the government provides them funds for such. In the same way 76.9 percent (n=83) strongly disagreed that they conduct engaged scholarship because they get or would get government public appointments. Although the mean scores on this section were very low compared to other items, they showed that faculty tended to somewhat agree that they conducted community-engaged scholarship because it was a government agenda and that government higher education policy required them to do so; $M=4.48$, $SD =3.06$ and 4.05 and $SD=2.83$ respectively (see Table 9 below).

Table 9. Government Incentives All Items N=108

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
h) I conduct CES because: It is government development agenda	1	10	4.48	3.06
a) I conduct CES because: government policy requires us to do so.	1	10	4.05	2.83
e) I conduct CES because: the government is democratic and peaceful.	1	10	3.88	2.74
f) I conduct CES because: there is accountability to the government	1	10	3.49	2.62
c) I conduct CES because: government officials support my engagement work.	1	10	3.16	2.68
g) I conduct CES because: there is need for transparency to the government.	1	10	3.00	2.19
d) I conduct CES because: I can will/got government public appointments	1	8	2.17	1.83
b) I conduct CES because: I receive government funds for engagement	1	9	2.08	1.75
i) I conduct CES because: the government is undemocratic and oppressive	1	7	1.80	1.45

Apart from the institutional and governmental incentives, faculty members were also asked whether external community incentives also drove their community-engaged scholarship. As the means in Table 10 below indicate, faculty members were more inclined to strongly disagree on a number of items related to external community as driving incentives for conducting their engagement. A total of 77.0 percent (n=78) of the respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed that they conducted community-engaged scholarship because they gained social and political support. Among these respondents 91.5 percent (n=101) tended to strongly disagree or disagree that they were driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship because the external local community provided them with financial support. On average, mean scores showed that faculty were drive by the trust community showed in them; and their belief that community were knowledgeable on their issues of concern (see Table 10 below).

Table 10. External community incentives all items (N= 108)

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
e) I conduct CES because: communities trust faculty like me in my work.	1	10	5.94	2.95
f) I conduct CES because: communities have the knowledge and expertise.	1	10	4.94	2.83
d) I conduct CES because: I receive/will receive international aid and grants.	1	10	3.95	2.93
c) I conduct CES because: the community invited me to serve them.	1	10	3.80	3.08
g) I conduct CES because: I can/have/will gain better jobs.	1	10	3.52	2.58
a) I conduct CES because: I gain social-political support from the community.	1	10	3.11	2.45
b) I conduct CES because: I receive financial support from the local community.	1	10	1.80	1.65

Research question # 2: Demographic Characteristics and CES

Appendix A and the annex show details of the demographics questions and the characteristics of the sample. In order to gain a nuanced picture of the relationship between these demographic characteristics and how they are related to faculty motivations to conduct community-engaged scholarship, a multiple regression analysis was used. The analysis helped to determine the extent to which these independent variables (demographic characteristics) were related to faculty reported drive to personal, institutional, governmental and external community incentives and their level of agreement or disagreement with the incentives for conducting community-engaged scholarship.

The dependent variable was computed as an overall Community-Engaged Scholarship Score (CESScore). This score was a summation of responses in all the items, in the four main sections of the survey. Results from the multiple regression analysis indicate that $R^2=.464$, which means that all the independent variables entered in the model together explain 46.4 percent of the variance, yielding an $F= 2.005$, $p>0.45$ (see table 11).

Table 11. Multiple Regression: Demographic Factors and Incentivize

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Regression	1837.736	10	183.774	2.005	.045* ^b
Residual	6689.836	73	91.642		
Total	8527.571	83			

a. Dependent Variable: CESScore

b. Predictors: (Constant), what portion of your overall scholarly work do you consider being community-engaged scholarship?, Religion, Sex, Highest Academic Degree Obtained, How comfortable are you conducting community-engaged scholarship?, Faculty Age on last birthday, Region of origin within Malawi, Current Academic Rank, Marital Status, How many years have you been involved in CES?

* Individual variables are significant predictors at the *P-value*=0.5 level.

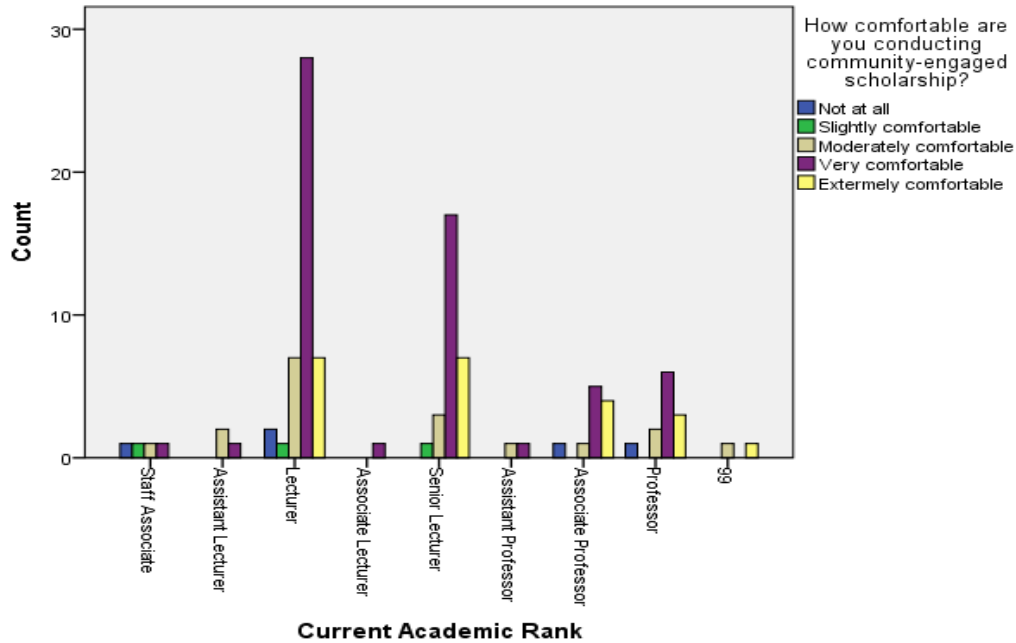
	<i>Unstandardized Coefficients</i>		<i>Standardized Coefficients</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
	<i>B</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>		
(Constant)	25.654	8.779		2.922	.005
Gender	-3.764	2.329	-.173	-1.616	.110
Marital Status	2.023	2.317	.106	.873	.385
Religion	.096	.078	.140	1.231	.222
Region of Origin within Malawi	-.803	1.287	-.069	-.624	.534
Faculty Age on Last Birthday	-1.556	1.171	-.159	-1.329	.188
Current Academic Rank	.037	.110	.039	.339	.735
Highest Academic Degree Obtained	-.144	.102	-.151	-1.411	.163
Comfortable Conducting CES	.489	1.768	.030	.277	.783
Years have You Involved in CES	.807	.830	.119	.973	.334
Portion of Your Overall CES	3.032	.998	.358	3.038	.003

The magnitudes of the standardized regression coefficients (beta coefficients) portray their relative importance in predicting the participants' level of drive or level of being incentivized to conduct community-engaged scholarship. From Table 11, the overall proportion that faculty considered community-engaged scholarship (factor 10) was the most significant factor in explaining faculty member participants' level of drive to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

Research Question # 3: Institutional and Community Influence on CES

A frequency test was used to study the patterns of faculty members' responses to the item that asked them about their personal comfort in conducting community-engaged scholarship. Seventy four percent of faculty members reported that they were comfortable conducting community-engaged scholarship. The data show that 54.5% (n=60) were "very comfortable", 20% (n=22) were "extremely comfortable", and 16.4% (n=18) were only "moderately comfortable." The level of comfort was assessed further through cross tabulation in terms of how this would differ for various academic ranks. As figure 2 below indicates there was a consistent level of comfort among faculty regardless of their academic rank.

Figure 2: Faculty Level of Comfort in Conducting CES by Academic Rank



Faculty members were also asked how knowledgeable they were about the concept of community-engaged scholarship. A frequency test was used to study the patterns of faculty members’ reported knowledge of the concept of community-engaged scholarship. The results showed that 44.5 percent (n=49) of faculty reported they understood the concept of CES “very well”, 31.8 percent (n=35) reported they understood the concept “moderately well” and only 6.4 percent (n=7) reported they understood the concept of CES “extremely well.”

Descriptive statistics in the form of measures of central tendency (means and standard deviations) were also obtained for the two items. The items used a five-point Likert scale with 1 being the minimum and 5 the maximum. Mean scores show that faculty members’ comfort and knowledge relating to conducting and knowing community-engaged scholarship were moderately high (see table 12 below).

Table 12. Comfort with and knowledge level of CES

	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
How comfortable are you conducting Community-Engaged Scholarship?	1	5	3.84	.939
How well do you understand Community-Engaged Scholarship	1	5	3.38	.934

In order to understand factors that distinguished faculty who reported they conducted community-engaged scholarship from those who did not, a discriminant analysis was performed. Before proceeding with a discriminant analysis, frequency tests were used to study the pattern of the participants' responses to the item that asked them whether they had conducted community-engaged scholarship or not. The question provided three responses: 0 = "No", 1 = "yes", and 88 = "don't know." These responses were recorded by combining those who reported "don't know" and "no" as having not participated in community-engaged scholarship. Table 13 below shows frequencies before recoding.

Table 13. Faculty members' response to having ever conducted CES

		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>
Valid	Yes	84	76.4	77.8
	Don't Know	17	15.5	15.7
	No	7	6.4	6.5
<i>Total</i>		<i>108</i>	<i>98.2</i>	<i>100.0</i>
Missing		2	1.8	
<i>Total</i>		<i>110</i>	<i>100.0</i>	

Combining the “don't know” and “no” responses, Table 14 shows the frequencies of faculty members who reported “yes” and “no” to having had conducted community-engaged scholarship after recording.

Table 14. Have You Conducted Community-Engaged Scholarship? Recoded

		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>
Valid	No	24	21.8	22.2
	Yes	84	76.4	77.8
	<i>Total</i>	<i>108</i>	<i>98.2</i>	<i>100.0</i>
Missing		2	1.8	
<i>Total</i>		<i>110</i>	<i>100.0</i>	

A discriminant function analysis was conducted to predict and demonstrate what incentives would discriminate faculty members who reported that they had conducted community-engaged scholarship from those who reported that they had not. Predictor variables were personal, institutional, governmental and external community incentives. Significant mean differences were observed at P -value =0.5 level for two of the predictors (personal incentives and external community incentives). The other two predictors (institutional incentives and governmental incentives) were not significant. While the log determinants were quite similar, Box's M indicated that the assumption of

equality of covariance matrices was violated and the rest of the interpretation proceeded with caution.

The discriminate function revealed a significant association between groups and all variables, accounting for 61.9 percent of between groups variability. However, closer analysis of the structure matrix revealed only two significant predictors, namely external community incentives (.833) and personal incentives (.741), strongly associated with faculty members' drive to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Institutional incentives and governmental incentives were found to be poor predictors of faculty members' drive to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The cross-validated classification showed that overall, 80.6 percent of responses analyzed were correctly classified. (See Table 15 for more detailed results).

Table 15. Discriminant Analysis: Incentives and Whether Faculty Conducted CES or Not

	<i>Wilks' Lambda</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Personal incentives.	.913	10.077	1	106	.002*
Institutional incentives.	.954	5.080	1	106	.026
Governmental incentives.	.985	1.659	1	106	.201
External community incentives.	.893	12.750	1	106	.001*

Eigenvalues

<i>Function</i>	<i>Eigenvalue</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Canonical Correlation</i>
1	.173 ^a	100.0	100.0	.384

a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Wilks' Lambda

<i>Test of Function(s)</i>	<i>Wilks' Lambda</i>	<i>Chi-square</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
1	.852	16.622	4	.002*

Structure Matrix

	<i>Function</i>
	1
External community incentives.	.833
Personal incentives	.741
Institutional incentives.	.526
Governmental incentives.	.300

*Significant at *P-value* =0.5 level

Pooled within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardized canonical discriminant functions.

Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

The institutional influence on faculty members' community-engaged scholarship was also analyzed in terms of how faculty/college or school or appointment differently

influenced faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of type of institutional and appointment type on levels of response to incentives to conduct community-engaged scholarship, as measured by the community engagement score (CESScore). Participants were categorically set up into ten groups according to their faculty, college or school of appointment (Humanities, Polytechnic, Law school, College of Medicine, College of Nursing, College of Agriculture, Social Science, College of Education, Faculty of Science and Other).

The homogeneity of variance option gives Levene's test for homogeneity of variances, which tests whether the variance in scores is the same for each of the groups. This test was violated at $P\text{-value} < 0.5$. Since homogeneity of variances assumption was violated, the Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welsh and Brown-Forsythe) were used instead to reassess the assumption. These tests showed that the homogeneity of variance was met with both tests' $P\text{-values} > 0.5$. There was no statistically significant difference at the $P\text{-value} < .05$ level in CESScores for the ten groups [$F(9, 97) = 1.6, P = .140$]. Figure 3 below shows the distribution of mean scores for all the groups.

Apart from the faculty or school of appointment, a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also performed between and within groups based on faculty members' academic appointment status and academic rank in relation to the CESScore. The groups for appointment status were: lecturer, senior lecturer and professor. The groups for appointment status were based on the following: tenured, probation, permanent and visiting/adjunct. While Levene's test for homogeneity of variances assumption for the

variables was met with P -values >0.5 , no statistically significant difference was observed for both variables P -values >0.5 . Table 16 shows detailed results of ANOVA tests for all the three variables.

Figure 3: Mean CESscore by Faculty of Appointment.

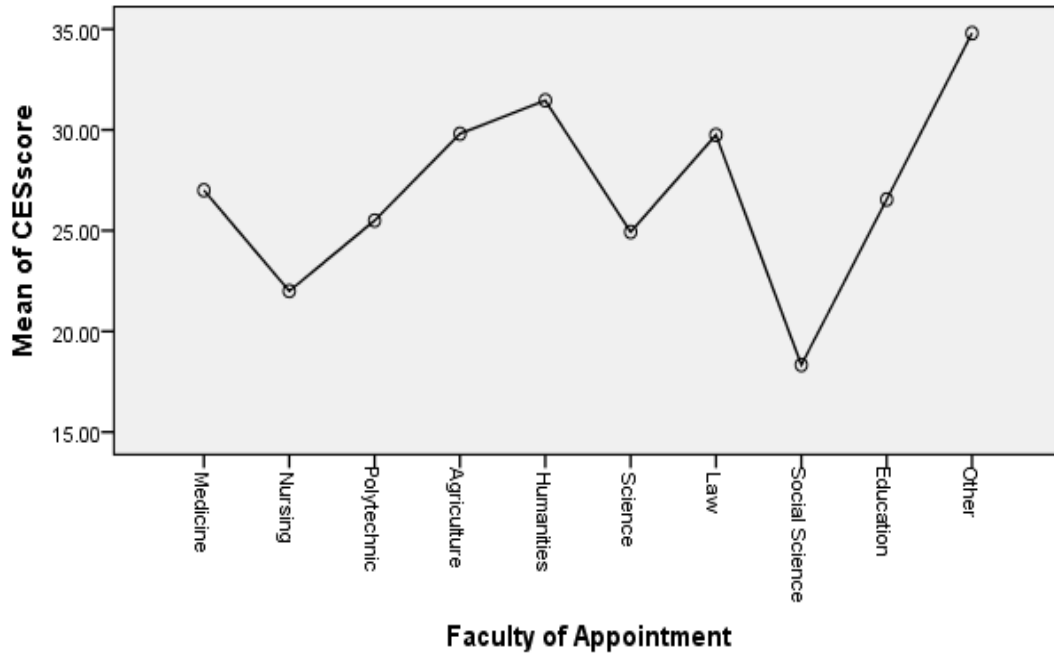


Table 16. ANOVA of CESSore by School/Faculty, Rank and Appointment

		<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
By faculty	Between Groups	1566.450	9	174.050	1.555	.140*
	Within Groups	10855.513	97	111.913		
	Total	12421.963	106			
By academic rank	Between Groups	80.993	2	40.496	.339	.714*
	Within Groups	12196.055	102	119.569		
	Total	12277.048	104			
By appointment	Between Groups	199.281	3	66.427	.560	.643*
	Within Groups	12222.682	103	118.667		
	Total	12421.963	106			

*Not significant at P-value>.05

Summary of the open-ended responses

To address research question number three, a content analysis was also conducted for the open-ended question on the survey. Inductive content analysis was done based on four predetermined themes: personal, institutional, government and external incentives, which were also the sections of the survey. These themes were derived from the conceptual framework presented in chapter one, especially the O'Meara, (2008) model of factors that motivate faculty members' to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The four themes were then categorized into incentives and incentives on faculty drive to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The two categories of incentives and disincentives came about as result of O'Meara (2008) who conceptualized that the four major incentives might also play out as barriers hence having a negative and positive

impact on motivation. With this insight, the inductive content analysis revealed that faculty members' comments on incentives were expressed in positive and negative. This, therefore, led to dividing the comments into incentives and disincentives.

Of the 110 faculty respondents, 50 provided comments. Three comments were very distinctive in that one participant indicated an appreciation of the study and its significance. A second participant expressed the need for a definition of community engagement, which of course, was provided on the survey. This comment highlighted the continued challenge with conceptual definitions and how people conceptualize things differently in studies. Nonetheless, because the researcher and research assistants were usually present during completion of the survey, as was indicated in the methods sections; this offered an opportunity for clarifications to be made during survey administration. A third participant's comment was related to the instrument; the respondent pointed out that the instrument was unique. These three comments were categorized as outliers and were not included in the final analysis because they did not address issues central to the research questions, and they were not aligned with the concerns expressed by the other 47 respondents. More specifically, they were unique in that they did not deal with specific incentives and disincentives of faculty members conducting community-engaged scholarship.

In general, respondents provided responses explaining the motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship and some of the barriers and challenges they face in the process of conducting their scholarship. (See table 17 below for summaries on the themes that emerged).

Table 17. Summary of Themes From the Open-Ended Question

	Incentives	Disincentives (Barriers)
Personal incentives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunity to solve real problems. • Empowering the community. • Preservation of culture and history. • Transform society. • Community trust. • Improving knowledge and teaching. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communities are not willing and forth coming to initiate programs.
Institutional Incentives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial support for scholarship. • Engagement is a mission. • Disciplines and departments have projects • Engagement is not driven by politics and business. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Lack of clear guidelines for engagement scholarship. • Competitive ways to access funds. •Demand driven informal procedures. • There is need of a clear definition of community engagement in Malawi. •Lack of rewards for engagement.
External community Incentives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most community-engaged scholarship is funded by international donors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Funding is very competitive. • Need to align subject choice with donors' desired goals.
Government Incentives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is limited financial support. • There is collaboration with ministries and departments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government does not directly emphasize engagement hence faculty don't do it.

Research question # 4: Motivations and Incentives for CES

This research question was designed to be answered with qualitative data from in-depth interviews with faculty members. This section focuses on the qualitative in-depth

interviews and presents key findings and themes that emerged from these data. Overall, the qualitative interviews confirm most of the general findings shown in the quantitative data. Malawian faculty members who participated in the current study indicated that incentives for public engagement fall under three broad categories: personal, institutional, and external community incentives. While faculty members acknowledge the importance of making the CES relevant to social, political and economic demands, they harbor nuanced aspirations for the impact of their work. This section is organized into three sections. The first section describes the personal incentives and personal aspirations that drove faculty to conduct CES. The majority of faculty indicated the need to help others and meet community needs as their driving force for engagement. The second section focuses on institutional incentives and evidence of the influence of institutional mission and discipline. The third section focuses on external community incentives. Because of limits of institutional incentives and support, faculty members had to negotiate and find alternative incentives like international donor funds to support their CES.

Personal incentives in community engaged scholarship

There were three major levels of incentives that drove faculty to conduct CES. Evidence showed that faculty members were motivated to engage with communities because of their personal characteristics. Faculty who are involved in CES reported that they were incentivized by their personal values. All 15 faculty members who were interviewed point to their social responsibility to deal with social, political and economic issues affecting their societies. They consider their mandate to be realizing African higher

education for local needs. They referenced their personal backgrounds, as one female faculty member pointed out, that:

when I see fellow women who can't even have time to feed their child... I interact with them and see their needs in finding best nutrition for babies. That motivates me personally. Even in my own village, I try to make a difference in someone's life.

Some faculty also drew from their religious beliefs as well as cultural values that motivated them to serve, help, and change their lives and those of others. One unique perspective came from a faculty member who specialized in aquaculture but had other special projects unrelated to his discipline. He insisted that “as an atheist what bothers me is the issue of religion and witchcraft law. Mostly our laws are not effective in protecting children and the elderly who are mostly accused of practicing witchcraft because they are defenseless.”

These faculty members engage in outreach, community-based instruction, community-based research and serve as leaders, economists, architects, engineers, planners, directors of NGOs, government bodies, political parties, churches and community-based organizations etc. As much as they acknowledge the need to earn extra money, finding and creating networks for jobs and obtain academic promotion, they are principally motivated to engage in CES because it is their personal mission and it is the right thing to do. Much as institutional mission and academic discipline mandated faculty members to conduct CES, their fundamental drive or incentive was fulfilling their personal aspirations to join the university profession in the first place. As one of the faculty member linked the use of funds and his vision of CES, “Money and material benefits are not an end in themselves; they are just a means for social and societal

transformation.”¹¹ Faculty pointed out that they needed financial support for transportation, communication and buying project materials to conducting various CES projects. Similarly, another professor said, “no one would be happy to be a full professor who has not touched the lives of people.”

This perspective of incentives as a means not an end in CES that faculty espoused was echoed by faculty regardless of their gender, academic status, age and academic discipline. For example, the faculty member who is quoted below joined the university due to a strong desire to reform Malawian society and fight for social justice. This was during the one-party system of government under which Malawians, especially those who were well educated faced serious human rights abuses such as property confiscation, demotions, detention without trial, murders and forced exiles. The system of government changed in 1993 to embrace a more democratic system of government.¹² It was this dark historical period that drove faculty to take up CES as an approach to bring change.

I am an advocate for democracy per se, I worked for the state Malawi Broadcasting Corporation during the one-party system of government and when we were changing to the multi-party democracy liberalized system, I thought things were going to change. I fell victim and was actually sacked and suspended from work for no apparent reason [only] because I come from the central region¹³... And so I took advantage of that and joined the university and I said to myself we need to fight for social justice.

¹¹ Money and material benefits in this essay are primarily considered as personal incentives, however, issues of money which are at the center of market-based approaches permeate all sections of the faculty's aspirations and institutional mandates.

¹² More information can be sourced in a report that was produced by Amnesty International, Carver, R. (1990). Where silence rules: the suppression of dissent in Malawi. Human Rights Watch.

¹³ During this time, Dr. H.K Banda from the Central region of Malawi was the president hence people from this region were considered his allies. When his successor, from the Southern Region, took office most people were fired from their positions and replaced by people from the new president's home region.

Faculty members' aspirations to achieve social justice and economically empower local communities were fundamental to their choice of the profession and the type of scholarship they practiced. These principles to a larger extent reflected the principle of 'Ubuntu' - "I am because we are"¹⁴ - which is a strong personal value among African communities, including universities. Among several things, looking after one another and helping each other at all times to attain justice is emblematic of what drives faculty to conduct CES.

In the same way, faculty members' personal philosophical beliefs about knowledge, their ontology and axiology also drove their incentives for conducting scholarship. Community-based research and action research, for example, shaped a major direction for CES. A total of 13 faculty mentioned that they were motivated by their belief that learning is a two-way process. There was an understanding that the "best teachers are also best learners." In addition to fighting for social justice, faculty members' conceptual frameworks and incentives driving their work tended to exhibit resistance to a unidirectional approach where university faculty were seen as experts. As one faculty member pointed out:

The community has a lot to be taught but also faculty members have a lot to learn from the community. As such community-engaged

¹⁴ There is a strong belief among Malawian faculty that, 'ubuntu' and principles of democratic good governance are compatible and complementary. See for example Tambulasi, R., & Kayuni, H. (2005). Can African Feet Divorce Western Shoes? *Nordic Journal of African Studies* 14(2): 147-161. This is not to preclude that the idea of Ubuntu and its various interpretations is inherently and purely African as knowledge and philosophies are hybrid and change over time as shown by Swanson, D. (2012). *Ubuntu, African epistemology and development: contributions, contradictions, tensions, and possibilities*. In Wright and Abdi, *The dialectics of African education and Western discourses* claims this interpretation of Ubuntu is 'western'.

scholarship hinges on the two way process of exchange of experiences and knowledge and perspectives.

Faculty showed that they believe that as much as universities are considered sources of knowledge, this knowledge does not come from the university alone. It comes from communities and it is the communities where knowledge is used to its full potential. Almost all interviewed faculty reported that they were driven to work with communities not only as a way of improving their students' knowledge but also personally improving their own ways of knowing. This was also a way of giving back to communities from where they draw their knowledge and practices. Faculty members bridged communities and universities as way of making higher education relevant the various community needs.

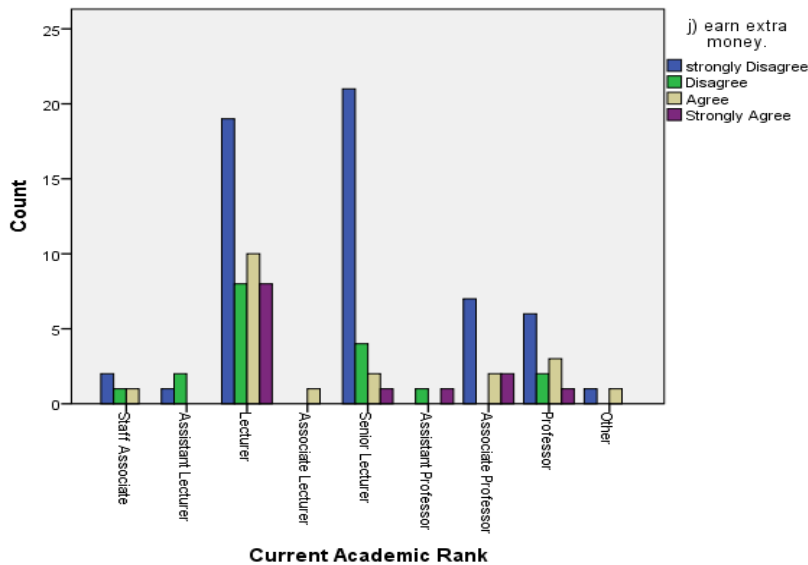
Furthermore, faculty members acknowledged the importance of the market in making their scholarship relevant and well-linked to the industries and the communities in general. However, what was profound in their statements was their emphasis on personally contributing to uplifting the lives of local communities and development as opposed to aiming at a prestigious, financially successful university or faculty position for themselves.

...We in Africa are interested in contributing to improved welfare at household level. Either nutrition, i.e. are the people getting better food products? Are these products safe? If these are good quality products can they be able to sell them in the market in order to get cash income on the market which can be plowed back into their households.

Community development, as the above quote exemplifies was a major incentive for faculty involvement in CES.

In summary, faculty tended to present antithetical evidence to numerous criticisms of CES as esoteric, abstract and mostly geared to faculty members personal self-interest, curiosities and need to meet personal financial gains due to limited salaries and benefits. These views are in line with responses faculty members provided on the survey. For example, the figure below shows response to the question that asked faculty if they conducted CES for primarily financial reasons. Across academic ranks faculty tended to strongly disagree with the fact that they were incentivized to conduct CES primarily for financial gains.

Figure 4. Motivation to Conduct CES to Earn Extra Money by Faculty Rank



As the bar chart illustrates, faculty regardless of their academic position, tended to disagree with engaging in CES for money. Interestingly, faculty tended to show that they

even used personal funds to conduct CES to fulfill community needs and alleviate various problems. Sustainable and impactful projects were the biggest incentive above everything else as one faculty member summarized so well:

I would say that the benefits you see in terms of changes in people's lives is priceless... when I go out there and see something that we introduced maybe ten years ago still going on it pays me more; more than say the kwacha or the dollar.

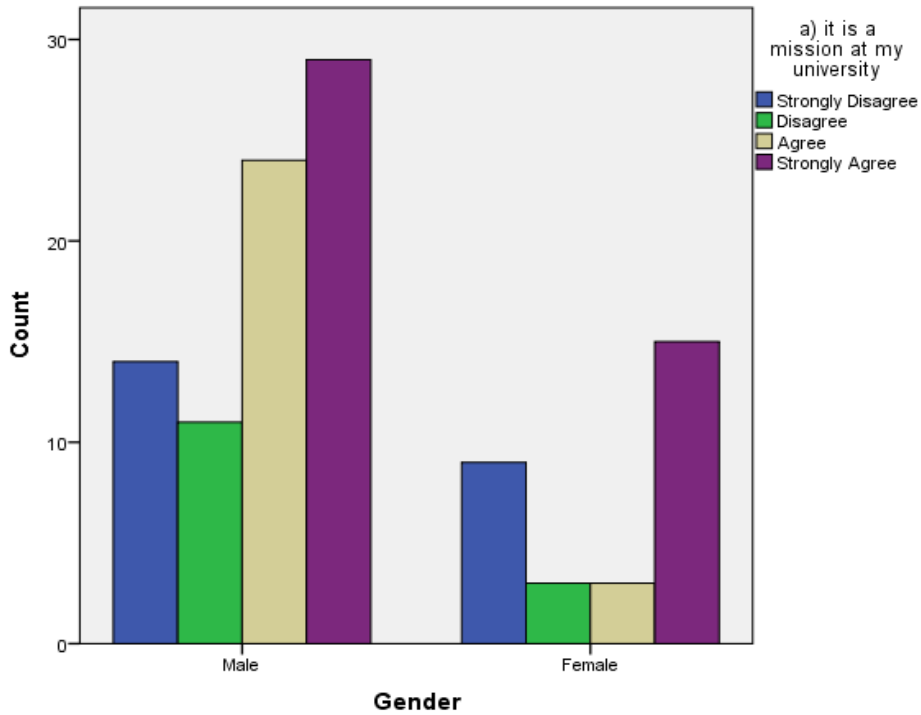
The pricelessness of CES due to its impact on communities as noted in the above quote was, however, affected by institutions and community contexts in which faculty conduct their work. Faculty aspirations for social transformation and meeting the needs of communities through their work was an illustration of their activeness and agency to deal with various barriers to their personal life as well as personally contributing to their institution, discipline and departments. However, faculty were quick to point out that there is a gap between the ideal and the practical, between the proclamation of the goodness of CES and the ability of faculty to achieve it. For example, although faculty members acknowledged the need to perform CES they also showed that there were limited institutional and external community incentives. What this meant, however, was that despite limited financial and material support, and at times lack of community interests in CES, they persisted by negotiating various funding mechanisms, approaches and projects. As the following sections show, faculty negotiated the institutional requirements, academic disciplines and career prospects, incentives and barriers as they conducted CES.

Institutional incentives for community-engaged scholarship

The primary goals for institutions of higher learning are threefold: teaching, research and outreach (Boyer, 1990). When faculty members join the university ranks, they agree to serve under these broad goals. In exploring what motivates faculty to conduct CES, faculty members showed that institutional requirements, disciplinary frameworks, and promotion in higher education were major incentives. This mainly reflected the mission statements of their institutions.¹⁵ Figures 5 and 6 below show faculty responses on the survey cross tabulated according to gender. Both male and female faculty members reported that they were motivated to conduct community-engaged scholarship because it was a mission at their university and that their discipline and profession required them to do so.

¹⁵ The main campus of the University of Malawi has the following as its mission statement: “To advance knowledge and to promote wisdom and understanding by engaging in teaching, research, consultancy, outreach and by making provision for the dissemination, promotion and preservation of learning responsive to the needs of Malawi and the world”: <http://www.chanco.unima.mw/administration/>

Figure 5: Motivation to Conduct CES Influence by University Mission

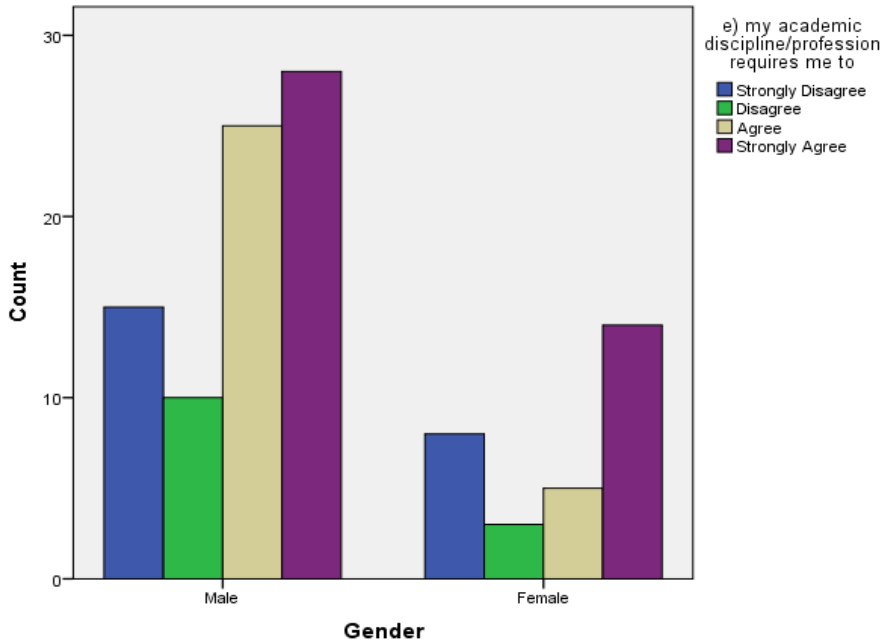


These results were confirmed in the interviews where for instance, one faculty member offered the following evidence and perspective.

...for us it is a career. One of my responsibilities and duties of my post for my appointment is that I should demonstrate community service through outreach... so we do it because it is part of our duty and it weighs heavily on promotion.

In addition to career incentives, faculty saw community engagement as an advancement of their disciplines and institutions in general as is seen in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Academic Discipline and Professional Influence to Conduct CES



Furthermore, faculty were clear and systematic in voicing that although money, promotion and gaining academic status were motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship, the main incentive was the impact their work had on communities:

Promotion and publications can be achieved even when faculty conduct lab based research. All they need to do is to carry out research and publish the results through journal papers and presentations at conferences. The financial reward you gain is very decimal. Of course we need money and cars and resources to do the work we do but the value of money does not match the nature of the outcomes of engaged-scholarship.

These thoughts were in line with what other faculty members thought about the role of institutional financial incentives in motivating faculty to conduct CES. Faculty overwhelmingly reported that money was not an end but just a means to conduct the

work they did and achieve social change and development. Most importantly their academic discipline mandated them to do so and this in itself was strong incentive for CES as was lucidly support by the follow words:

... The financial part is indeed one of the incentives that motivates faculty that we cannot deny. The other side of the pendulum there are scholars who believe that there is a problem here that needs to be engaged with, I will go out and deal with this problem. The question of funding comes second. For such category of scholars what motivates them is the disciplinary satisfaction. That is engaging with a problem in their discipline...

The influence of the academic discipline in motivating faculty to work on CES was also discovered to be driven by the understanding of deconstruction and post-structural thought of the idea of the university. Such conceptual frameworks were espoused in the following quote:

Derrida has a paper on the university which he calls: The principle of reason: The university in the eyes of its pupils... What he said here is very fascinating. He uses the idea of the pupils with a double meaning both as a learner and as well as the focus point of vision in the eye. So when he talks about the university in the eyes of its pupils he is trying to reverse the position of the university to not only be a teaching or a professing institution, but also one that can learn from its pupils that it teaches. One major point he is making is precisely that we are not always there to view, map out, observe,

others and construct knowledge systems about them, we must also create an atmosphere or position to be viewed by others at that point then we take a point of listening and learning from communities.

Such understanding, apart from reflecting the major conceptual framework driving faculty work, also exposes what motivates faculty to practice CES. Faculty members were motivated to reverse the contemporary as well as the historical socially unjust structure and mode of operation of the university. The essence here is not only to achieve relevance of the university to communities directly or make money, as the market-based approaches would expect but also to meet the philosophical belief of justice and the nature of the discipline under studies. For example, a faculty member in the humanities had the following to say:

The implicit mandate of the humanities is culture and community. As faculty of humanities there is obligation to deal with humanity and community. Issues of culture are at the center of the discipline. The discipline occurs to be culturally sensitive... We are post-colonial scholars, let's admit that. So there is the need to be sensitive and the realization that people are not blank slates. So a major motivation is the historical developments, the disciplinary avenue and the need for sensitivity to our culture and communities as driven by the need to avoid the colonial mistakes and experiences.

Even in pure or basic science and medicine some faculty reflected that they were incentivized by much nuanced issues that go beyond influences of the market in their

CES. They build on the indigenization of African higher education with the view of bridging local traditional knowledge and the modern scientific knowledge. This was seen for instance, in faculty members who helped improve food processing using local knowledge in the improvement of processing of cassava from local systems to scientifically laboratory tested procedures and creating cooking recipes to improve human nutrition. Other faculty members were involved in creating a hybrid or cross-cultural medicine marrying the local and modern.

In Africa and Malawi in particular, debates over the influence of epistemology, discipline and departmental contexts have been shaped by a process called Africanization or endogenization. Africanization, according to Adésinà (2005), denotes a process of contextualization and adaptation of tertiary education to its African context in terms of structure and curricula. Faculty community engagement among Malawian faculty had taken these initiatives seriously in a bid to bridge the old and new as the following vignette of a professor at a college of medicine demonstrates:

“I am a reproductive physiologist and my work is mostly focused on male infertility and recently my research has been trying to develop male contraception. I have worked in the past two year with traditional healers trying to find the medicines that are used as male contraception to find a scientific backing on those medicines. I also do research in male aphrodisiacs trying to see whether the claimed properties of these herbal aphrodisiacs really work or not. And recently we have embarked on a study to look at medicinal

plants that are used by pregnant women to induce labor. So that is also involving communities and talking to these birth attendees in the communities and finding out what medicine they use to induce labor and finding out if these medicines are contributing to maternal mortality or not and we also test them in the lab to see if they really have got some effects.

Bridging the new and the old, the local and the international, eclectic and constructivist framework for CES were major driving forces for faculty members community-engaged scholarship in terms of the research conducted but also in faculty quest to identify support material, human and financial for their CES. The need to link intergenerational knowledge or preservation of multiple forms of knowledge, old and new, is also embracing and reflective of how faculty CES is a messy and meandering process like a river. However, what is fascinating is that although faculty reference personal incentives and the need to help others, there was clear reluctance to express their approval or disavowal of the influence of the market in pressuring them to make their CES marketable and competitive in order to secure funds and support outside and within the institution. They hardly presented their colleges as factories or markets for knowledge production. However, where faculty faced limited incentives and support for CES within their institution, they looked outwards and elsewhere for resources and alternative incentives. The following sections illustrates that, much as the institutional incentives drove faculty to conduct CES, they acknowledge that where the institutions fall short of

support they were able to use their personal resources and those of external communities to leverage various kinds of support in order to make community engagement possible.

External incentives for community-engaged scholarship

As illuminated by Zeleza (2002) the institutional culture, politics and visions as well as financial challenges impact faculty CES. Although the university provided incentives for faculty to engage with communities, they were also a source of multiple disincentives that eventually forced faculty to seek and imagine alternative incentives for their work. Faculty overwhelmingly mentioned that their work was mostly funded through external agencies such as international organizations from Britain, Germany, Norway and the United States. As noted, these international research organizations drove faculty work in multiple ways. This process, described in the following quote, presented several challenges much as it was an advantage for faculty personally and the universities to access limited resources:

Mostly we are involved with communities through international and privately funded projects so sometimes the problem with these community projects is that you are employed by the university and you have a project which will give you the money and the university is giving you salary so it's like you have two masters. So the question becomes should we allow people to conduct projects and so the university will get nothing and so they say no. So what happens is that we want members of faculty to declare their projects and we urge

members of faculty to do projects and outreach activities through the college.

As the above quote suggests, faculty incentives for CES appear to have arisen from the direct reconceptualization of the concept of community and rewards from connections with industry and institutions. Where the initial understanding of community was work performed for/or with rural and poverty-stricken communities, there is a realization that community is broad and boundless.

There was a strong realization that individual faculty ought to engage with the entire public at large to contribute to technology transfer, human resource development, public health and many more. Faculty stated that they aligned their CES work in line with calls for proposals and research projects and consultancies from external funding agencies as a framework for improving student outcomes and leveraging public, private, and international donor funds. They also envisioned that their scholarship improved their teaching. As one faculty member in the School of Agriculture lucidly put it: “Community engagement also provides a platform to gain practical skills and knowledge relevant for teaching in the university. Without that experience, teaching becomes theoretical only.” Although, faculty explained that they were motivated by various external community factors, they also complicated the whole process by linking these motivations to other factors and showing how they all ended up towards achieving a relevant and quality higher education system. Faculty members consistently explained that their motivations for CES were messy and complicated processes.

For example, since donors and business entities have their own motivations for putting out calls for proposals and providing financial support for research and scholarship related to communities, this complicated the whole question of whose motivations drove faculty to conduct their scholarship and how they defined solutions for solving local problems. Most importantly, this brought up the question of who has the power to institute what is considered relevant higher education. For most faculties, however, this link to external community was not just an incentive for conducting CES and a platform where dominant colonial power structures were questioned just for the sake of change but a necessary change as was envisioned:

...researchers on communities, what they mostly think, is that the community is a small-scale farmer. This is where universities and tertiary education in Malawi has failed bitterly. Because with that colonialist 1964 orientation of agriculture and that 90% of the population being smallholder farmers, all our community engagement has been with the small scale local people ... That has meant that our graduates cannot work properly in industry; they perform miserably because they are not prepared to engage with the broader community and industry. Secondly, our innovation system has lapsed or lacked because we always have been made to deal with those small-scale enterprises. The way we want to do is that we don't want to necessarily move out of that but to have a framework that would allow innovation at a large scale.

Yet this quest among faculty members to connect with industries and external support has powerful consequences for higher education in Africa. As faculty members realign their efforts and work in aid-dependent, market-pressured settings they are encouraged to discard their earlier mentioned aspirations of higher education as the vehicle for national liberation, for reducing inequality, and for constructing a new society in favor of education as a way towards better industrial and global connections.

Drawbacks of commissioned CES are that engagement becomes part of either the local industry or the international research entrepreneurs and faculty members become the occasional and perhaps continuing employees of the external funding agencies. With low basic salaries, individual researchers are highly incentivized to become consultants to the external agencies. The fees for a few weeks of consulting may surpass several months' salary. Their commissioned research enables them to acquire computers, cars, and cellular telephones, to travel overseas and participate in international meetings, and to escape over-crowded classrooms and empty libraries. Unable to pay a living wage or to provide direct research funding, universities are inclined to tolerate, and often encourage, this outside employment. Obligated to justify their programs and allocations and chastised for relying so heavily on expatriate researchers, the funding and technical assistance agencies eagerly recruit local researchers. Thus, community engagement becomes individual consulting, and that is problematic for the researchers and for higher education in general (Samoff, & Carrol, 2004).

Nonetheless, faculty members' perspectives on these market-like influences, and external funding on their CES were not seen simply either good or bad. Faculty members

admitted that this was a complex process. As the following section highlights, they identified a number of barriers and how they struggled to rise above them.

Barriers to community-engaged scholarship

In exploring the question of how the institution and community contexts influence engaged faculty members who conduct CES, it was discovered that these two contexts were a motivating as well as demotivating factor. The institution tended to provide various incentives through promotion and other awards, though at a limited scale. At the same time, the institution tended to create hindrances and obstacles for CES because they could not provide sufficient funds and mentoring, especially for junior faculty. The majority of faculty cited obstacles of limited time due to overload in teaching, lack of institutional policy and procedures, absence of and limited funding streams from government and the university. Although some faculty realized that CES could be a source of income generation through consultancies for the university and college, they bemoaned the high rates they paid to the university on grants or funds they brought from external sources through projects. Above all, faculty members were disgruntled by the competitiveness of the process for bidding and writing proposals for project funding. As one professor put it, “one of the disincentives is that when you put up an application it does not guarantee that it is going to get funded.” Faculty members from the humanities also indicated that the major disincentive regarding competition was that external and internal funders favored basic sciences, health and social sciences. Faculty members also indicated that funding goals for development initiatives centered on perceived immediate problem-solving. The competitive process for funding was mostly considered to be the

same at the institutional level as well as those from external constituencies, like international donors and government agencies.

In addition to the competitiveness of securing internal and external funds through research and consultancies, faculty members pointed out that the institutional policy that required them to contribute funds they raised from consultancies to the universities and colleges was a big disincentive. This resulted in faculty choosing, in most cases, to operate their CES outside the confines the university time and resources. This was well represented by one professor who highlighted the university policy requiring faculty contribution:

...If you are going to conduct consultancies through the university, the university charges 10% through everything that you are going to collect and what you are going to be paid. And then, when it comes to the department, the department will again draw 10% from all the proceeds. Then there will be tax [by] the Malawi Revenue Authority [who] will come and get some deductions and at the end of the day you find that almost 60% of the money you made and are supposed to be paid is going away and so what you will find is that the majority of faculty ran away and conduct research and consultancies on their own outside the institutions.

There is an alternative explanation to faculty members' disillusionment with this money contribution. It suffices to say that faculty financial contribution from grants is an expected way of putting some funds back into the university for CES, especially CES on

topics that are not popular with external donors but which are important to local communities. Perhaps some of the cageyness regarding the faculty contribution has to do with lack of transparency and not seeing that the money is directly going to fund other CES projects, but rather is swallowed up by the university bureaucracy.

The politics of institutional control, where faculty are expected to contribute money from grants or consultancies, was therefore paradoxically a disincentive as well as an incentive. Faculty resistance to these institutional requirements led them to practice a form of concealed CES. As much as faculty acknowledge that institutional frameworks, university missions, disciplinary, and departmental requirements motivated them to practice CES, faculty resistance to the same happened to be a latent function that drove them to conduct CES. In fact several deans of faculties reported it was challenging to know which faculty members were conducting CES by doing consultancies because “faculty members do not want to reveal their projects to the university.” The opportunity to operate in secrecy, with no institutional supervision and control, as faculty members pointed out “excited them to indulge in more politically challenging, interesting and better rewarding scholarship.”

Moreover, it was apparent in faculty interviews that they clearly understood various incentives and disincentives as well as the forceful influences of market-oriented funding mechanisms. Faculty members acknowledged that this process was complex and a daunting circumstance having to negotiate various barriers to perform CES. Faculty members, therefore, were not merely passive victims or agents of these market influences and personal, institutional and external community incentives. One faculty member’s

synopsis of the negotiating process to manage, personal incentives, institutional needs as well as donor needs was reflected using a model of intersecting circles:

Somewhere I presented this in three circles and these circles intersect and one circle is your research domain, another circle is the funders' domain, and another would be your institutional and community needs domain and what you always have to do is to strike the center where these interests converge.

Indeed, the best way to describe faculty incentives and the process for faculty conducting CES is a search for community-engaged scholarship that intersects with various stakeholders' needs, motivations and aspirations. Faculty in Malawi through their CES can be considered as “intersectorors”—bridging the needs of community and aligning them to their personal agendas, academic discipline and external funders' goals. How successful this drive to intersect and unite various interests in communities is beyond the scope of this essay.

However, what is clear is that Malawian faculty members knowingly or unknowingly have through their CES upheld or at times transgressed the founding cornerstones engrained in the statutes of the Malawi public higher education of loyalty, unity, obedience and discipline. Faculty were loyal to their personal aspirations to help and meet community needs, they had obedience or lack of it to institutional requirements; they pursued unity as they negotiated to find an intersection of various stakeholders and above all they exhorted strict discipline to their work and made CES and development of Malawian higher education what it is. Despite the disincentives, faculty resilience

beyond these challenges resulted in their adherence to the core values, in relation to the university mission state values they agreed to uphold in the first place.¹⁶

The central and interesting finding is that faculty motivation for community engagement scholarship is driven by personal incentives and community needs especially external financial support and partnerships. While most faculty members recognize that CES is an important institutional mission, they do not receive high levels of support or funding for CES from their institutions or national governments. Therefore, private sector and international aid funding can provide important opportunities for faculty to develop skills and capacity to address community needs. However, this also puts faculty in a situation where much of their efforts may be directed towards external funder goals rather than community needs. However, faculty members indicate numerous ways in which they navigate this reality and try to benefit the community through their participation in externally funded projects. External approaches provide opportunities; faculty work to ensure these benefits communities. The connection between external approaches and community needs is not always direct and it is often the faculty members who are tasked with holding this tension in balance.

Wa Thiong'o's (1994) insight rings true then as well as now: when humanity's very freedom and reason are at stake, markets, science, and technology, unrestrained by moral considerations, threaten those basic human values on which democracy and

¹⁶One of the studied university's core values is client responsiveness- which states that: "In today's fast-paced and ever-changing world of higher education [The University] must become a network that links students, faculty, business, industry, government and community. [The University] will think globally to shape actions, in order to better serve constituencies in its quest to realize the promises of a better world." Available at <http://www.chanco.unima.mw/administration/>

equitable development must be founded. The invisible hand of the market is never simply a neutral assemblage of products or knowledge for economic growth, somehow appearing in the national or international higher education markets. It is always part of a selective tradition, someone's selection, and some group's vision of legitimate knowledge products worth marketing. It is produced out of the historical, cultural, political, and economic conflict, tension, and compromises that organize and disorganize; benefitting and most of the times hurting people. This is in light of Gallie (1956), who points out that how we conceive of things like the market and higher education is important because our conceptions and ways of reasoning about them reflect and shape how we see, think about, study and act on practices made available to the public. Our conceptions of market-based education and ways of reasoning and practice, especially regarding CES, cannot be value free or neutral. They necessarily reflect our assumptions about the world, even if those assumptions remain implicit and unexamined.

In relation to faculty members community engaged scholarship, faculty members from different disciplines described several assumption and motivations for their community-engaged scholarship. Much as they indicated the barriers involved in doing this kind of scholarship, they shared unique experiences, motivations and examples of their projects. The following section brings to the fore three unique faculty member cases. It presents examples of faculty members' projects and factors that drove them to conduct their community-engaged scholarship.

Exemplars of faculty members' community-engaged scholarship

This section presents three unique exemplars of faculty members' community-engaged scholarship approaches. It presents three vignettes that describe the projects and what incentives drove faculty member to involve in the projects and conduct this form of community-engaged scholarship. Faculty members shared several examples of community-engaged scholarship. While all in-depth interviewed faculty members shared relevant and interesting strategies, motivations, incentives or barrier and examples of community-engaged scholarship projects, these three cases were selected based on the current study's conceptual framework. This was tied to faculty members' demonstration of low or high level of interest and commitment to involvement in community-engaged scholarship as demonstrated by the time spend on the project, evidence of scholarship activities and amount of resources they committed to the project. Special attention during data analysis was given to outlier or unique cases of faculty participants and the kinds of community-engaged scholarship. The O'Meara (2008) framework was useful here in understanding how faculty members were uniquely driven by personal, institutional, community incentives to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

While it was anticipated that some faculty members would demonstrated low interest levels in conducting community-engaged scholarship and be outliers in that sense, no cases met this condition to be included for this analysis. Additionally, although the quantitative results showed that there were no major differences in how faculty members were driven to conduct scholarship, these unique qualitative cases helped to dive deeper into faculty members community-engaged scholarship stories to see how faculty

members from various disciplines or schools were incentivized and conducted community-engaged scholarship differently.

In addition to the earlier mention criteria, the three cases were also unique because of their disciplinary focus. The exemplars are of three faculty members from three disciplines. These are: basic sciences, humanities and medicine. The first faculty members' case involved cassava plants and chemistry, the second utilizes theater as a tool for development and the third faculty member's example utilizes modern and traditional medicine to contribute to solving community problems through community-engaged scholarship in very special ways.

In the survey 95.4 percent of respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed that they were incentivized by government financial support. Similarly, 80.5 percent of participants strongly disagreed and disagreed that their university provide support for their community-engaged scholarship. These cases were also unique and outlier in the sense that the three faculty members' projects were made possible with financial support from both the internal university support and international foundations funding. This observation makes stronger the finding that in the absence of government financial support, limited institutional financial incentives, faculty members were driven and incentivized by their personal aspiration to help and solve community problems and the international grant money to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

Engaging communities through cassava

This example of a community-engaged scholarship project focuses on one faculty member's use of cassava plants as a means of promoting student learning and community development. The faculty member demonstrated that his personal and disciplinary background motivated him to conduct community-engaged scholarship with communities. As the following vignette will demonstrate, this particular faculty member linked his personal and disciplinary aspirations to the university mission to conduct community-engaged scholarship. His work enabled him to partner with local and international communities, university professors in African universities and European university institutions. The faculty member expressed his motivation to conduct cassava based community-engaged scholarship in the following way:

There are a number of factors which motivated my working with communities. First of all, for me growing up in a community where cassava is a staple food we ate, I used to see my mothers, sisters and daughters participating in the processing and preparing different products out of it. Now as a chemist, I became very interested because cassava can be classified into two groups: bitter and sweet varieties. It is interesting that the bitter varieties need to be adequately processed for consumption. The question is why the local communities or households process it much more adequately than the sweet ones which are eaten straight away as a snack. Therefore, you need to understand the reasons for using and promoting bitter varieties. That becomes a scientific matter but also a social aspect of the science of the cassava plants.

So over the years we have had to go and work with communities to understand why they use bitter cassava. The communities give us various reasons. For example, the bitter varieties ensure food security and every household particularly mothers are interested in the security of

the household or the members of the family. Then the question is how people maintain food security with the bitter varieties. Our work with communities has shown that thieves or wild animals are prevented from harvesting bitter varieties and therefore the food is available.

But now it is also interesting that these bitter varieties tend to be high yielding. And for me as a chemist I was interested to find out the chemical components in bitter cassava. We know it is cyanogenic glycosides but the interesting thing then is how for example, does climate also affect the relative accumulation of these bitter characteristics in the bitter cassava varieties. Additionally, I was interested in exploring how this affect the different types of processing methods used across the communities in Malawi. In some communities they soak and submerge the tubers under water. In other areas like in the southern part of Malawi they use direct sun drying. Of course they largely use sun-drying for the sweet variety although the bitter one may also be processed that way but they have to be sufficiently sun-dried in order to make the products safe.

So you find that this new knowledge has application to the government, NGOs and communities. Industries can now make improvements in either their program or products and revise their process and therefore, the university and faculty members have a specific responsibility to generate evidence which should inform policy and practice that is relevant in our society.

As the vignette suggest the faculty member then linked his personal background growing around cassava and his disciplinary and institutional requirement to conduct relevant scholarship with solving the community problem around food. This community-engaged scholarship resulted in project called Cassava: adding Value for Africa (C:AVA).

C:AVA is project funded by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, implemented by United Kingdom based Natural Resources Institute together with partners in five countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, namely: Nigeria, Ghana, Tanzania, Uganda and Malawi. In Malawi, the project is implemented by Natural Resources Institute and the Department of Chemistry in the Faculty of Science at one of the public universities. The project's purpose is to support sustainable and equitable high quality cassava flour (HQCF) value chains and thereby improve the livelihoods and incomes of smallholder households and stakeholders in micro, small and medium scale enterprises. The project is committed to mainstreaming gender issues and social inclusion throughout its activities, emphasizing the equitable distribution of benefits and the empowerment of women and disadvantaged groups.

The value chain: There are three components of the value chain: (1) *Farmer/Farmer*. Activities at the farmer/farmer processor level deal with the production and primary processing of cassava. Exact activities and the support that they require vary by country and by location within country. The project ensures a competitively priced supply of fresh cassava, supporting, where appropriate, farmer/processor group formation and the production of a semi-processed product. In some locations this semi-processed product could be dried cassava grits prepared from dried, grated cassava. Elsewhere, it involves the processing of grated, pressed fresh cassava that is supplied to larger scale drying operations. (2) *Intermediary Processors and Bulking Agents*. The project is specifically works with and supports intermediary processors and bulking agents that play an important role in linking small-scale processors with end-use industries. These

intermediary processors may be involved in drying, milling and packaging of HQCF. (3). *End-use Industries.* There are many potential end-use industries whose confidence in using high-quality cassava flour is being built through the implementation of this project. These end users include milling industries incorporating HQCF in wheat flour, food processing operations making composite flours, and the plywood and paperboard industries.

The role of the university faculty members: Although assessing the long-term or immediate impact of the project was beyond the scope of this dissertation research, the faculty member involved in the project demonstrated the impact of the project on the local community members, the university and his personal career through his role in the project. The Faculty members were involved in the project as links bridging various partners of the project. The university faculty members were collaborating with other institutions from the UK and African countries. Their main role was to provide expertise for conducting research and monitoring of the project implementation. The particular faculty member linked to this project involved his students in field and laboratory research to test for chemical contents and processing procedures for cassava in order to identify optimum conditions and strategies for producing HQCF.

The research component of the project involved learning from communities that depend on cassava as their staple product how they process, market and store the produce. The project primary targets are communities who depend on cassava for their livelihood. The faculty member leading this project however, has drawn from the project as way of advancing his scholarly career and meeting the academic needs of his students

and personally contributing to the social transformation of his communities as was show
in the following words:

Those of us who are in sciences generate knowledge ... that has
application to the society in terms of improving better industrial process
for example, production of products which are to be used by the society
and people and that through that application it also uplifts the livelihoods
of the communities.

This case therefore uniquely demonstrates how faculty members see the role
of the university in community development and knowledge production and how
faculty members were incentivized to conduct community-engaged scholarship for
community development.

Theater for development

The second vignette is an example of a faculty members' approach to community-engaged scholarship in the humanities. The faculty member drew from theater as a mechanism to integrate his teaching, research and service to solve community problems. The faculty member expressed his motivation to involve in communities in the following way:

I come from a premise that a proper scholar in the humanities is someone that cannot escape the engagement with the communities because that is our laboratory. The humanities have to deal with people. The humanities deal with the human kind on the ground and therefore, when I am talking about scholarly satisfaction for me it means contribution to the communities that you are engaging with. All that is supposed to be intertwined. For example, my community-engaged scholarship is integrated with my creative writing projects.

I wanted to teach my students how to creatively tell stories but also realize that we are not the first story tellers. There beautiful stories tellers out there in the communities. So I take my class to the community to listen to the peoples narrations from which different issues come up. This is a two way process where you end up with a scenario that the communities have a story to tell, the students want to learn how the communities tell their stories and later help to share the stories with others. I assign my students to listen and collect the stories of the people and amplify them by telling the stories to the whole world. My scholarly stultification then results in that I have made that community tell their story to the world as much as I have also allowed my students to learn from the

people. So that is one thing that I have personally done and has driven my community engaged scholarship.

A major component of this approach as a community-engaged scholarship strategy called is as mentioned, Theater for Development. This approach is unique because it links various partners and involves faculty members, students and communities to deal with real problems and find solution to those problems via theater and performance as a medium.

The approach: Theater for development started in the faculty of humanities at one of the main public university central campus. This approach of community-engaged scholarship integrates teaching, research and service to communities using theater or drama and oral performances. The approach has four interlinked stages. This approach was created by the principal of this public college. The particular faculty member admitted that he draws on approach the approach in his community-engaged scholarship. Below is the synopsis of the approach.

Stage 1: Entry into the community: A faculty member identifies a societal development problem. This problem may be reported by community members, students or faculty members may notice it themselves. Then the faculty members working with students goes into the community to learn about the problem. The faculty member and students submit themselves as learners. They live within the community and participate in all every day activities of the community. For example, we cut and carry sugar cane with the community, play games and take part in rituals and ceremonies. We merge and become part and parcel of the community. The aim is that the community begins to look

at you as one of their own and then they slowly begin to release information. At that moment you don't have a mouth, so you only listen. You see things- you observe. When you ask questions you are asking for clarification.

Stage 2: Once you have all that data, observations, you have asked questions to guide your thinking and so on with respect to a particular problem that has taken you to that particular community. Then you take the information to the drawing board, you analyze the data and information. You don't write with a pen while in the community because you just want to merge and be like them. Once you have returned then you go to the drawing board and you construct plays or episodes and some of the episodes directly draw on some of the things that have been happening in the community. So for example, you are researching on a problem on higher education and you go into a community and you observe this episode of how the community put money together to send this person to go to college to learn with the hope that when he comes back he/she is going to assist this community. But when he/she comes back becomes somebody who is just so proud and flays over the community members. Then the community might tell you this story as something that really happened and you observed it happening. When you are doing the play or constructing the episodes you judge what to cut or include to make sure that episode do not offend the community. You may modify the episodes add humor or other voices to it.

Stage 3: After that now you take that play back to the community. You gather the community members around a tree or the market place where they normally gather. You form a theater in the round amidst them. When you act the play based on the discovered

community themes, the community sees themselves in the play. They see this proud young man or woman of theirs being scoffed in the play and the community can join and say yes that one is proud! We paid schools fees for you and you should pay back our money. And so the actor on the stage stops being a mere actor and they see themselves as part of the play and close reflection of their life. As you do so you confirm certain findings and they even give you more information which you take up for further analysis. So this is one way of collecting information and validating it.

Stage 4: That is the third level, at the fourth level; theater becomes a way of mobilizing the community. Through the same play you may ask then what the problem is and find out what they suggest as a way or solutions for the problem. So you put that in the play and challenge the people and ask them questions and the people say what they need to do and by the end of that performance, the communities have done something. You don't tell them what to do, you just lead them. They put together solutions a course of action and sometimes the play can be halted and ask if the chief or community leader is around. As actors you engage the leader into the arena and request if they can respond to the problem. The community leader takes up his/her responsibility and at that moment you see that action has begun to take place in the community.

At this stage theater moves the public spectacle into a stage for community development. Simultaneously, the community has gain an opportunity to address its problems, the faculty member has enable his students to learn to research, create and perform theater and mostly importantly the university has executed its role in facilitating knowledge generation for community development.

Engaging communities through traditional and modern medicine

Community engagement has been significantly important in the field of health. There are several historical and contemporary issues that affect the delivery and provision of medical services and medical education in Malawi. One major historical reason was that early tertiary levels of training in modern medicine were limited. The few African medical workers who trained under missionaries within Malawi and abroad were marginalized to manual roles since service requirements were designated by race. Additionally, there was an impression that modern medical services were primarily for African elites and the Europeans. This led to marginalization of rural Africans from western medical culture. This situation also delayed epistemological dialogue between traditional and western medicine as modern and traditional medical practices were pitted against each other in a good and evil duality. Any possible epistemological dialogue between traditional medicine and western medicine was therefore thwarted by limited resources and economic considerations, religion, and class. This led to the failure of the authorities to create a formal link between traditional and modern medicine.

While there were several small medical colleges in Malawi, medical doctors were mostly trained outside the country. In 1992 the government of Malawi opened a comprehensive public medical college¹⁷. On its inception, the medical school put community health as the “cornerstone of its curriculum” (Muula & Broadhead, 2001: 156). However the traditional healers in Malawi still had no formal ties to the government health system. This situation has meant that the epistemological and

¹⁷ The college offers medical training up to doctoral level.

integrative debate between community medicine as perceived by the college and the reality in the community medicine is yet to begin in earnest.

What is fascinating is that faculty members in the medical college are drawing on the concept of community-engaged scholarship. Particularly, there are faculty members at the institution just as other public universities in Malawi who are bridging and linking various medical epistemologies to enhance the teaching, research as well as the provision of medical education and health services to communities.

According to the medical college 2011-2012 prospectus, one of the pillars of the college is community-engaged medical scholarship. “Not simply through service delivery but through engaging and interacting with community on a variety of health themes. The college also has a “Learning by Living program which involves faculty members and students being placed in rural village environment, where through direct interaction with the community, they learn to appreciate the burden of disease.” Other community activities include students’ visits to donate items to orphanages and prisons and student prayer groups of various religious denominations that fellowship with communities. This approach ties very well to the concept of community-engaged scholarship. The concept of community engaged scholarship primarily refers to scholarship that aims at bridging the community needs and the university college, teaching, research and outreach in a mutually beneficial way for communities involved and the university colleges.

In the area of pedagogy for medical education, Kumwenda (2010) has observed that there are two major extremes: On the one hand are traditionalists who approach medical education from functional approach. He maintains that for the most part medical

education in Malawi has focused on this approach. On the other hand are those who approach medical education from a learner centered problem based perspective. Here he noted training is done by giving students chance to discover for themselves. Without disavowing either approach, he stressed that “medical education needs to take a middle line approach by integrating the best aspects of the traditional and modern approaches” (Kumwenda, 2010. p. 2).

Nonetheless, it is critical to mention that medical service provision as well as medical education history in Malawi has been dealt with several issues of power, injustice, inequality, repression and suffering (Lwanda 2002, Mkandawire, 1998). As such it is important to for faculty members and students as they utilized community-engaged scholarship to problematize these issues by paying attention to multiple perspectives and giving room to medical epistemologies that can be empowering to communities, students and faculty members themselves. This is as Muula (2010) suggested that medical education in Malawi was not aimed at creating an ivory tower.

There were five medical faculty member participants in the study. These participants shared their examples of community-engaged scholarship and what motivated them. In the broader analysis of faculty members’ projects and the specific analysis of these five participants, the approach taken by a professor in physiology met the criterion of comprehensive community-engaged scholarship and uniqueness in how it integrated teaching, research and service in working with the communities.

The faculty member expressed his motivations to practice community-engaged scholarship in the following way:

“I was motivated to take up community-engaged in medicine and physiology because no one in Malawi was working in this field so there was lack of personnel especially in issues around fertility. I as such I do both laboratory and community based research and teaching, because we have a research resource in the community as far as issues of fertility is concerned. These are things that people don't talk much about and so confining ourselves to the laboratory we would not unleash most of these taboos that people think they are. For instance, here in Malawi rarely will you find male patients coming out to be diagnosed and find out if they are fertile or not. So if you confine yourself to the laboratory men out there would not be helped in the communities. There are problems out there that can easily be treated but the problem is that people don't know who to approach them. People just know that I am not able to have a child and they just start taking medicinal plants without really knowing what the real problem is. So if we go to those people and have those people come to the laboratory and have a medical test we can be able to advise them on what other stages to take in order to help them.”

What was unique about the community-engaged scholarship as described by the faculty member was what entails regards teaching, researching and proving

service to communities around modern and traditional medicine. The approach takes primary three stages.

Stage 1: After identifying a community health problem, in this case fertility and maternal health, the faculty member partnered with other faculty members in preparing concept and project proposals to access funding. These partners and funders may be local or international. Once funding is accessed, the teaching and research involves identifying communities and locating traditional medical doctors and traditional birth attendants in the communities. This involves gaining trust among communities' members who can provide different herbal and medicinal plants and knowledge on how the medicine is used. Community members are also sensitized of various issues around fertility and other preventative modern medicine. Students are assisted to learn and interact with the communities in this way by providing information and services and research working hand in hand with the faculty members.

Stage 2: Participants and patients are taken as part of the laboratory testing. In the laboratory testing, participants are diagnosed of different fertility problems and are given help. At the laboratory level different medical plants used in birth control or male and female contraception are also tested for properties with the view of scientifically providing evidence that the various medical plants have. Where successful this leads to creation of contraceptives or medication for inducing child birth.

Stage 3: At this stage various findings are shared through teaching of students, scholarly papers in medical journals. These results are also shared with the community members. Funders of the projects are also provided with reports and information about the findings. The knowledge generated is used for treating issues of fertility and promoting maternal health.

Conclusion

The results of the data analysis showed that faculty in Malawian higher education are incentivized by various factors to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Results show that personal, institutional, and external community incentives drive faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The majority of faculty showed that they were driven by personal aspirations to do good. They draw on various conceptual frameworks to carry out the work they do such as societal transformation. Faculty regardless of their academic rank, gender, qualifications and age indicated that they are driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship because of their personal aspirations to solve societal problems and improve their teaching. They also indicated that institutional requirements such as the university mission. The profession and discipline were also important in influencing faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Also important was the finding that there was not statistically significant difference in faculty members' drive to conduct community-engaged scholarship based on their school or faculty of appointment, academic rank, and appointment status.

Demographic factors could not determine how much faculty members would be motivated to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Their overall reported percentage

of what they considered community-engagement scholarship, however, was able to explain the likelihood of a faculty member being incentivized to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The results also showed that the majority of respondents are quite knowledgeable about community-engaged scholarship and that they are very comfortable to conducting to community-engaged scholarship despite being faced with so many challenges. These findings are discussed further and in detail in chapter five.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Overview

This study used quantitative and qualitative data to answer the overarching question: What factors incentivize faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship in Malawian higher education? The following overarching findings have emerged:

1. the importance time in community-engaged scholarship,
2. the importance of personal and external incentives, and
3. the influence of external funding in faculty members' community-engaged scholarship.
4. the narrowing focus of community-engaged scholarship.

This chapter discusses these findings further and assesses implications of these findings for faculty members, Malawi government, and external supporters of higher education and African universities in general. Suggestions for present and future research will be discussed. The chapter ends with a comprehensive summary of the research project.

1. The importance of time in community-engaged scholarship

The pictures painted by most empirical as well as conceptual studies on SSA higher education have been mostly of despondency and disaster. They render the apocalypse that either just happened or is about to completely change the scholarship landscape in Africa. Although most studies in this context have not dealt extensively with the issue of faculty motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship, they reveal

the general atmosphere under which faculty perform their work. In their review of the challenges facing universities in Africa, Teferra and Altbach (2004) highlight many factors that constrain the ability of scholars on the continent to produce knowledge, or as is suggested in this study, to conduct community-engaged scholarship for community development. Their profile of challenges is quiet similar to what Olukoshi and Zeleza (2004) highlighted. They report that at all levels of assessment, scholarship activities in Africa are in a precarious situation and financed and conducted. The higher education infrastructure is inadequate. Outdated equipment, poor and dilapidated libraries, low salaries of academic and research staff and unreliable sources of local and international funds remain major barriers for faculty to practice extensive community-engaged scholarship in Africa (Teferra & Altbach, 2004, Olukoshi & Zeleza, 2004, Stroquist, 2007).

Such constraints, it is often noted, drastically limit the motivation and work life of faculty to contribute to relevant scholarship (Stromquist, 2007). The current study, to some extent, has discovered similar constraints on Malawian faculty. One prominent barrier that faculty in Malawi pointed out has been the lack of rewards for scholarship of engagement and the highly competitive, but at the same time, unreliable funding mechanism. While most of these indications have some depth of truth and correct assessments, they also do not show a comprehensive picture of scholarship in Africa, more especially faculty experiences in Malawi. Since challenges are inevitable and are part of every system, Malawian faculty members' community-engaged scholarship has not escaped this misfortune. However, most importantly, the study has found that faculty

motivation, despite various challenges, is complicated yet still alive and well. Faculty members' comfort to conduct CES was high as well as their level of knowledge about it. A majority 76.4 percent of the faculty in the study indicated that their scholarship includes CES, and 63.45% of the responses classified CES as occupying between 30% and 100% of their overall scholarship. Most respondents also believed they were very comfortable to extremely comfortable in conducting community-engaged scholarship (90.09%), and that they were moderately to extremely knowledgeable about issues of community-engaged scholarship (82.7%).

There is still a need to pay specific attention to how much time faculty spend on CES. As the study findings reveal, the overall time considered to be spend on CES work is related to level of motivation. This might suggest that the more time faculty put into community development-related activities, the more driven they may be to conduct community engaged scholarship.

In line with O'Meara's (2008) findings and conceptualization of faculty members' motivation for community-engaged scholarship in U.S. higher education, the current study has discovered that in Malawian public universities, in relation to other incentives, faculty members were highly motivated by personal incentives. This relates to individual goals according to (Colbeck & Michael 2006; Ford 1992), and intrinsic motivation as per (Austin & Gamson 1983).

Considering that promotion and recognition in Malawian universities heavily depends on publication and teaching (external incentives), this may mean that universities need to allocate more time for faculty members to focus on conducting community-

engaged scholarship and put in place systems to motivate faculty members with intrinsic incentives more than external incentives such as publication. Fundamentally, this represents a shift from university campus-based teaching and research to a more outward focus on community scholarship. This is a challenge that faculty and universities need to take up and figure out how to design programs with this approach in mind.

2. The central role of personal and external incentives

Among the four main factors (personal, institutional, government and external incentives) examined, “external community incentives” was the most important factor associated with respondents’ level of motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship, followed by “personal incentives.” External community incentives assessed the influence of the community, such as donors’ influence on faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship, while personal incentives assessed individual conceptual frameworks and drive to conduct engaged scholarship. These findings are in line with studies that show the importance of international donors’ influence as well as personal drive to perform scholarship. Additionally, studies have shown that public universities in Malawi in the recent past have gained some level of autonomy compared to the time when the university was new and under the one party doctoral system of government that exercised strict control on public education (Holland, 2010, Sankhulani, 2007).

Sankhulani’s (2007) study of institutional autonomy in the University of Malawi arrived at findings similar to those of Holland (2010). Both studies reveal that in Malawi, since the founding of the first public university in 1965, the Government took much

interest and intervened in the activities of the then only institution of higher learning in the country, imposing its control on the running of the institution. Since the emergence of multiparty politics in 1994 and the establishment of another public university in 1998, the role of government has been moving from state authority towards market control as a result of the liberalization of the education sector (Holland, 2010).

These studies show that level of autonomy public higher education had gained compared to the pre-1994 situation was notable and was increasing as government was progressively decentralizing decisions to universities. This loose grip on higher education, however, should not be interpreted as a *laissez-faire* approach on the part of government as it still yields a lot of control and direction of higher education. The news media in Malawi are full of stories of faculty calling for academic freedom because of government intrusion in higher education.

However, the liberalization of higher education has also brought limited government financial support to the universities; hence faculty members look elsewhere to obtain support. This perhaps explains why faculty indicated in the study that their community-engaged scholarship is mostly supported by external sources. Second, faculty members consider their community-engaged scholarship as autonomous to government and hence they report that it is mostly their personal aspirations for social betterment that drive their engaged scholarship. This was reflected in interview comments whereby faculty thought the government did not have a direct say on their scholarship of engagement, but rather that their work complemented that of the government and addressed gaps that government could not reach. An interesting observation is that while

there are a few select faculty members who openly criticize the government, the majority of faculty might consider an apolitical approach to engaged scholarship as a way of staying out of trouble. As it will be outlined in the following third major finding, the institution offered a paradoxical framework in motivating and demotivating faculty to perform community-engaged scholarship because of the policies and institutional cultures within the institution.

3. Faculty members in the market place: Community-engaged scholarship or consultancy?

Faculty members in Malawi position themselves as agents of social improvement through community-engaged scholarship. However, their role as community-engaged scholars revealed a number of contradictory and inconsistent ideas. Their major motivation was expressed as drive to solve community problems while making higher education relevant to the needs of students. Faculty members also responded that they were not motivated to conduct community-engaged scholarship for merely financial aims or raising political concerns. However, when faculty members were further asked about the influence of external agents such as international donors push for marketized approaches, faculty reported that most of their scholarship was driven by the financial support that donors provided since their institutions and local government were not providing enough support. Similarly, faculty pointed out that their work was mostly to close gaps in areas where government could not manage by linking their community-engaged scholarship to consultancy projects funded by external organizations. Faculty members also acknowledged that meagre resources that many scholars in African universities can access also limit their ability to dedicate time to significant and sustained

work on community-engagement projects hence they depended on external funding support.

Scholars like Zeleza, (2002), Samoff (2004) have shown that the overreliance on external funding support and muteness of faculty to tackle political issues is because of the global division of labor in knowledge production in which Africans are often confined to empirical work while the higher order work of theory building and meaning making are dominated by scholars from outside of the continent. Work by African scholars too often gets confined to empirical analysis or disciplined by borrowed theoretical frameworks from scholars from elsewhere with little effort to take steps to build innovative theoretical frameworks on the empirical work done. This has meant that Africans are making only limited contributions to global understandings of processes and structures on the continent by serving scholarship agendas formulated elsewhere¹⁸. This brings doubts about whether community engagement in African higher education is meaningful scholarship of engagement or mere consultancy driven by monetary gains.

The strong adherence to community-engaged scholarship driven by funds from external agencies and the limited contribution by African scholars to relevant theorization and knowledge production has to be understood as the result of the continent's political economic conjuncture (Mamdani, 2007). As faculty members in the study explained, there is no evidence of the lack of willingness and capacity on the part of faculty

¹⁸ The Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) was established in 1973 with the broad goal of promoting the work of African and Diaspora social scientists. A key goal of CODESRIA at its inception was to increase African contributions to social scientific work on the continent, in an era when scholars from outside of Africa dominated efforts at understanding the continent. CODESRIA makes mission is to eliminate this division of knowledge production by building capacity for African scholars.

members to indulge in more critical and knowledge building. Faculty members acknowledged the importance of market forces and the neo-liberal reforms and shifts in African higher education that positions them to solicit funds for their work and institutions by conducting consultancy projects. Indeed many scholars in the study question and problematize the immediate post-independence and recent neo-liberal influence of international bodies like the World Bank and organizations like the USAID, DFID and UNESCO in shaping the current state of African higher education. These faculty members have made significant contributions to global understandings of Africa's pre-colonial and colonial structures and processes as well as its nascent post-colonial realities. Faculty members in the study just like some African scholars still constitute leading voices in global debates on Africa and on the world. Faculty members were also keen to highlight the both the benefits and challenges that this dependency on external funding brings as was highlighted in the barriers to community-engaged scholarship.

Finding reliable sources of funding has been a perennial problem for African researchers. A long-term lack of interest in university research means that few countries have substantial national research grants open to scientists. In the absence of such grants, the majority of African science depends on international support from development agencies or international research funders. This dependence hampers African science, since these sources are neither dependable nor always tailored to suit local research priorities. It is important to notice that despite this understanding faculty members did not see themselves as passive victims of the historical and current political economic conjuncture of the culture of consultancy and external funding regimes. Faculty see

themselves as influential agents to these funding mechanisms in various ways as they fit their personal and institutional aims for community-engaged scholarship to align with the needs of the funders. Faculty also pointed out that they have enough tact to maneuver and sway the kinds of projects that get funded. Equally important as they pointed out was that faculty members themselves and the communities with which they partner usually have a final say in terms of how these funds are allocated and utilized on community development project they are used for.

The unfortunate circumstance is that this pervasive practice of community-engaged scholarship that mirrors consultancy work by African researchers might affect the quality and impact of scholarship. An example of the impact of such frequent production of community-engaged scholarship in form of consultancy is that it has often habituated a mode of scholarship that often does not surpass the empirical analysis of data, fashioning of policy recommendations, and focus on solving small short term problems as opposed to long term sustainable projects. The ‘vocalization’ of university training, as aptly put by (Mamdani; 2007) has contributed to watering down of community-engaged scholarship and loss of the critical skills of reflection and exposure to contemplative work that seeks to escape the purely practical community engagement. Faculty members however, did not see these market forces as the only problem in conducting their community engagement. Faculty exposed a wide range of issues that suggested that they acknowledge that motivations for community engagement and factors that influence their work were complex matters full of contradictions.

In his theoretical thoughts about contradictions, Wright (1984) argues that, contradictory and inconsistent ideas are complex and not easily understood. In this view, understanding and positioning of faculty motivations as unequivocally either dualistically successful or not, good or bad can be misleading. This was for example seen in how faculty did not just present market driven funding forces as just either good or bad. This understanding may account for the complex array of positions and explanations of faculty members' motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship. Ambiguity or contradictions suggest a lack of clarity or murkiness. Far from lacking coherence, the faculty members interviewed showed that they were keenly aware of current tensions and controversies with community-engaged scholarship funding mechanisms and how politically charged this might be. They developed well-reasoned assessments of the complex and rapidly changing scholarship environment and were positioning their motivations and rewards in ways that fit the changes. Without specifically saying that money was the main incentive for scholarship and social change, faculty expressed sophisticated drives for their work. For example, most faculty members indicated that money was just a means not an end in the process of engaged scholarship.

These contradictions could also assist in understanding why faculty members are seen as both a problem and solution in relation to community engagement. A significant group of faculty members in this current study reject and disagree with common conceptualization that their community engagement promotes the vocationalization of scholarship as (Mamdani, 2007) would argue. They position their work and scholarship as serving the needs of communities and helping to advance the government's

development agenda. They also insist that various funding mechanisms including those driven by governments and external donors have significant ideological agendas. However, faculty see themselves as custodians of the common good. They as such bring together funding from various sources to produce knowledge for the sociopolitical and economic development of the communities they serve. The risk here is that while faculty may often see themselves as bridges and “intersectors,” connecting various needs of people, they remain widely mistrusted by the public and more so by the government (Zezeza, 2002; Zezeza & Olukoshi, 2004). This may explain why faculty members did not overtly express that their motivation for conducting community-engaged scholarship was to oppose the government or raise political concerns. While this might be considered a safe approach, it begs the question of whether radical or activist scholarship of engagement has room in academia. This is a serious limitation on the conceptualization of faculty members’ motivations, considering that faculty will need to critically deal with the government in an open and transparent manner without fear or favor. This is true if faculty members want their scholarship to be a mechanism for transgressing and troubling some historical and political forces of oppression in communities and academia.

An additional quandary is that due to the limited financial support within the institution, faculty members are often required to serve two or more masters. When faculty compete and win contracts or grants and manage projects that come with these funds, they are expected to handle the management of specific funded projects while simultaneously meeting the demands and missions of the university as well as those of the funding organizations and the communities in which the projects are conducted.

These various stakeholders do not always have goals and values that align perfectly. Faculty find themselves within the tempestuous waters where they have to manage the political demands of projects and those of their institution's goals. Amidst these circumstances, faculty indicated that financial gains were not their fundamental aspiration and motivation to conduct community-engaged scholarship. While multiple aims and motivations for conducting community engagement are acknowledged, when rewards such as salaries for these kinds of work are expressed as not fundamentally important, this contradicts the importance of scholarship. Scholarship of engagement has to be rewarded and valued for what it is worth. This being the case, faculty members should not shy away from expressing the significance of financial rewards. The challenge of faculty members' failure to openly indicate how financial incentives drive their community-engaged scholarship might be that financial resource not be considered as an important factor in community-engaged scholarship which of course is not. Faculty themselves outlined how financial resources are needed for them to perform their community-engaged scholarship.

4. The narrowing foci of community-engaged scholarship

The missing link for political related community-engaged scholarship may be interpreted at two levels. Some observers have shown that universities are becoming a place for narrow epistemology (Lavine, 1999; Johnson 2006; Stromquist, 2007). Primarily because of externally funding community-engaged scholarship, universities are forced to center their scholarship and community related projects focused on science and technology. As it was demonstrated in the exemplars of community-engaged scholarship,

links with business and industry are not only favorable, but also unavoidable. It follows, therefore, that many forms of community-engaged scholarship that faculty are undertaking appear to be problem-solving oriented. The challenge is that such form of community-engaged scholarship does not necessarily address important problems, but rather those issues whose solutions either may generate a profit through the sale of a given product or can easily be measured and quantified for the sake of accountability. A good example is the cassava project highlighted in the faculty CES exemplars.

Examples of the narrowing of community-engaged scholarship have also been seen in South Africa. Johnson (2006) has shown that fields such as business, commerce, science engineering, and technology are increasingly getting funding and establish stronger links with industries and communities. Field in the arts and humanities are becoming marginalized and underfunded.

Considering that the humanities and social sciences, which are disciplines that ordinarily deal with issues of social critique have been locked in a series of battles with state government in Malawi and elsewhere, this may be a second plausible explanation for the narrow focus of community-engaged scholarship in Malawi public higher education. The danger is that when all attention is paid to practical problem-solving and products mainly produced for sale, this may undermine community-engaged scholarship for truth and social betterment for marginalized communities. As markets drive knowledge production and what is considered problem-solving, universities and faculty members lose autonomy to define what worthwhile and relevant community-engaged scholarship ought to be.

Comparison with studies in SSA- Malawi and South Africa

A comparative analysis of these research findings with previous studies is imperative to provide a social and historical context for the issues that were discovered. Although the literature search during the course of the study could not uncover specific studies conducted in Malawian higher education on faculty members' community-engaged scholarship, one study by Holland (2006) is salient. Holland's dissertation research focused on examining the institutionalization of the social sciences in the SSA country of Malawi. The study uncovered several issues that are conceptually interrelated to the current findings. Although social science is only one aspect of community-engaged scholarship, the institutionalization of this form of scholarship, according to Holland, explicates critical issues related to this current study of motivations for engaged scholarship in Malawi.

Like the present study, Holland (2006) found that to understand the sociology and social life of faculty and how they carry out their scholarship, there is a need to look at a bigger picture that includes not only the relationship between the authority in the university and the state but also, most importantly, the links and delinks with international agents, which play a crucial role in formulating and implementing policies surrounding community-engaged scholarship and, the financing and development of higher education. The current study just like Holland's discovered the significance of international agents in community-engaged scholarship and social science in particular in her case. This suggests a need for further examination of the intersection of local and

international influences on the community-engaged scholarship in the context of the changing configurations of authority in the globalized world.

According to Holland's study, professional life for the majority of faculty who are social scientists in Malawi involves navigation in a bifurcated field in which academic values circulate uneasily with entrepreneurial ones. Contrary to what Holland found that external agents' emphasis on local institution-building, current state neglect and a competitive funding mechanism are contributing to de-credentialing and de-institutionalization, the current study finds that even with these challenges, faculty members are still driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship. In contrast to the observation that suggest that emphasis on the application of research to development problems favors social science vis-à-vis natural science, findings here reveal that faculty members in Malawi regardless of their discipline, are motivated to conduct community-engaged scholarship for various personal, institutional and community related reasons.

In another paper on faculty work in Malawian higher education, Holland (2008) showed that faculty members' production of Mode 1 (basic research historically introduced and conducted for its own sake) and Mode 2 (research that came later due to international market demands) were driven by different incentives. She discovered that while "Mode 1 in Malawi had historically promoted an ethos of service and duty to the nation, Mode 2 tended instead to demand a service-to-the-client orientation and to promote monetary incentives more so than intellectual or service-oriented ones" (p.596). While this finding might hold some truth regarding to the context in which the research was conducted, it tends to differ with the current study findings. Faculty members openly

pointed out that in the absence of governmental and institutional support, they usually sought financial support from international entrepreneurial organization. Faculty members, however, pointed out that this was not for merely financial incentives, but rather it was a way to solve and deal with bigger problems facing the communities.

Comparison with South African Higher Education

Of the countries in southern Africa, South Africa has had one of the longest histories of modern higher education. Equally, it has had a leading role in the development and practice of community-engaged scholarship¹⁹. Faculty members in various institutions in South Africa have contributed to the debates through conferences and literature and research on the developments of community-engaged scholarship. As such, South African higher education is an excellent example to compare with the Malawian case. Most studies in South African higher education have focused on the challenges faculty members face in clarifying the concept, institutionalizing community engagement, and finding ways to clearly assess and evaluate community-engaged scholarship.

The current study has found that similar challenges are impacting and influencing faculty motivations in Malawi. For instance, Olowu (2012) argues that despite numerous attempts by scholars to clarify community engagement, it

¹⁹ University rankings need to be interpreted carefully because they use complex criteria. The Times Higher Education World University Rankings 2013-2014 list the best global universities and are the only international university performance tables to judge world class universities across all of their core missions - teaching, research, knowledge transfer and international outlook. The top three universities from Africa are from South Africa. See this link: <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/2013-14/world-ranking/region/africa>

remains a vague concept in South African higher education institutions.

Conceptual frameworks are sorely lacking and there are no universally accepted standards against which to measure the impact of community engagement. As such, while faculty may willingly take up community-engaged scholarship, they might never consider their work as such, and institutions may overlook their work. Most importantly, such work is not always acknowledged or rewarded for the impact it creates. These observations are supported by Favish, McMillan and Ngcelwane (2012), whose findings show that:

South African faculty members face serious challenges with community-engaged scholarship because it demands an overhaul of systems that are deeply entrenched in a university's culture.

Engagement challenges the recognition and reward system, and demands new ways of viewing scholarship in a culture that predominantly values publications in peer-reviewed journals (P.57).

Malawian faculty members acknowledge that institutional rewards and promotion are mainly based on publication in journals. This means that faculty members work in community-engaged scholarship is often not rewarded accordingly just for its own sake. Universities in Malawi and South Africa, and in other parts of the world, are struggling to adapt to a changing world which requires new knowledge systems and scholarship that promotes community development. There is a body of studies showing that in the same way that business firms maximize profits, universities maximize prestige (Melguizo & Strober, 2006). Faculty prestige in conducting community engagement might be one

approach to reward this work. In U.S. universities try to maximize prestige directly by highlighting the research and community-engaged scholarship faculty members conduct (Stromquist, 2007). In that line, the following section considers comparisons with research findings in U.S. institutions.

The O'Meara (2008) individual and organizational influences on faculty member's motivation model show the importance of the current study findings. Results of this research project fall in line with the applicability of the model on faculty motivations for community-engaged scholarship in Malawian public higher education. The model assumes that faculty motivations for CES are influenced by their individual personal characteristics, institutional context and external community. In this study, while personal and external community incentives were found to be important influences on faculty members' motivation for community-engaged scholarship, the third and fourth components to the model institutional and government incentives were discovered to be less important motivating factors. While it was hypothesized that government incentives would have a strong link to faculty motivation since public universities are under government control, the study failed to show this connection. Partly, it could be a lack of clear understanding of government policies on the part of university faculty and how such policies influence the nature of their work. Alternatively, it could be that faculty members are reluctant to talk about government influence on their work for fear of political repercussions e.g. losing their positions if they are discovered to hold negative perceptions of government higher education policies. While this was an interesting area

to explore, it was beyond the limits of the current study and may be worth exploring further in future studies (see “Directions for future research”).

The addition of a separate section in the survey on external community incentives, which the model otherwise did not include, was helpful to broaden the organizational context to institutions other than the university where faculty work. This broadening included local as well as international institutions, which for the most part are the source of capacity building and financial support for faculty in Malawian higher education to conducting CES.

In American higher education, and at the University of Minnesota in particular, community-engaged scholarship is defined as:

the partnership of university knowledge and resources with those of the public and private sectors to enrich scholarship, research, and creative activity; enhance curriculum, teaching and learning; prepare educated, engaged citizens; strengthen democratic values and civic responsibility; address critical societal issues; and contribute to the public good. (Council of Independent Colleges, 2005).

This definition is in line with the perceptions of Malawian faculty in terms of the nature of work they conduct. This is also seen in the mission and vision of the public universities in Malawi.

Consistency with studies in U.S. higher education institutions

Studies conducted in the U.S. show that faculty are motivated to conduct community-engaged scholarship for very similar reasons as faculty members in Malawi

other African countries. In their faculty engagement model, Wade and Demb (2009) proposed a systemic conceptualization of the factors that influence faculty involvement in community-engaged scholarship. They examined the personal, institutional, publicly engaged scholarship dimensions of faculty life. From the institutional perspective, scholars have studied institutional mission, leadership, policies, funding, engagement structures, and institutional culture.

The findings of the current study are in line with such findings and conceptualization. For instance, Colbeck and Wharton Michael (2006), have shown that organizational norms such as leadership styles and policies can act as either a motivating factor or a demotivating factor for faculty to conduct community engagement. The Malawi higher education case upholds these observations. In Malawi, the current study found that faculty members believe that a lack of comprehensive rewards and clear guidelines at their institutions means faculty members are less motivated to take up community-engaged scholarship. Some faculty reported that the presence of guidelines, such as the need to contribute financial returns through their engaged scholarship forced them to work outside institutional structures. This enabled them to conduct what was to them more interesting and rewarding scholarship.

From the personal perspective, research has focused on demographic and sociocultural influences on faculty involvement in community-engaged scholarship, including gender, race, ethnicity, age, values/beliefs, motivations, prior experience and epistemology (Colbeck and Weaver, 2008; Gonzalez & Pidilla, 2008; O'Meara, 2008). In the present study, epistemology and cultural background based on qualitative data

were also important factor that shaped faculty members' motivations to conduct community-engaged scholarship. The current study also discovered that different from the U.S., gender was not a salient factor in explaining faculty members' motivation for community-engaged scholarship as was reflected in the U.S. literature. While issues of race are more pronounced in the U.S. context, in Malawi the current study has revealed that religion (mostly Christianity) has a strong influence on faculty community-engaged scholarship. The majority of faculty who responded to the survey reported that they were Christians (90%). This may lead to speculation that Christianity strongly influences faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship. However, such interpretations need to be considered carefully. Historically, missionaries introduced formal education systems in Malawi. It might therefore not be surprising that predominantly those who had managed to go further with education and take up faculty positions at various universities in Malawi have a Christian background. Additionally, according to the recent population census in Malawi conducted in 2008, 83 percent were Christians, 13 percent were Muslim, and 4 percent were other or no religion (Central Intelligence Agency [CIA]: 2014).

O'Meara, Sandmann, Saltmarsh, and Giles (2011) approach the decision of faculty to pursue community-engagement scholarship strategies from an individual perspective. They examined the lives of faculty members who choose to pursue engagement scholarship opportunities. Their study showed that scholarship takes place within the context of many other life and career choices, and that the decision to participate in engaged scholarship impacts research agendas, scholarly approaches,

research product, teaching, and the achievement of personal goals (O’Meara et. al, 2011). While recognition of engagement-scholarship within the promotion and tenure process is critical, they highlighted the complexity involved in mapping careers in higher education. The current study, although in a different context, upholds these findings and shows that faculty in Malawian higher education see themselves as a bridge that endeavors to link and solve multiple problems affecting multiple stakeholders. Faculty members see their work as a mechanism to meet their personal interests as well as those of funders and community stakeholders.

Studies conducted in the U.S. have also shown that there are risks and challenges regarding the faculty promotion process and community-engaged scholarship (Calleson, Jordan, & Seifer, 2005; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Hutchinson, 2011). If faculty members are to pursue engagement scholarship opportunities, they must feel confident enough that this scholarship will be recognized as they advance within their institutions. Several authors have focused on the role engaged scholarship plays in the promotion and tenure process. Frank et al. (2010) surveyed administrators at five institutions and found that some administrators are “wary of [encouraging junior faculty to pursue service-learning opportunities] in light of the promotion and tenure policies to which they are bound” (p.27). Equally, Moore and Ward (2008) report that some faculty had trouble fitting their community-engaged work within the established bounds of teaching, service, and scholarship. Similarly, community-engaged scholarship presents a challenge in the Malawian case as faculty did not show specific ways their community-engaged

scholarship is rewarded from an institutional point of view while they show the work meeting their humanist aims and aspirations.

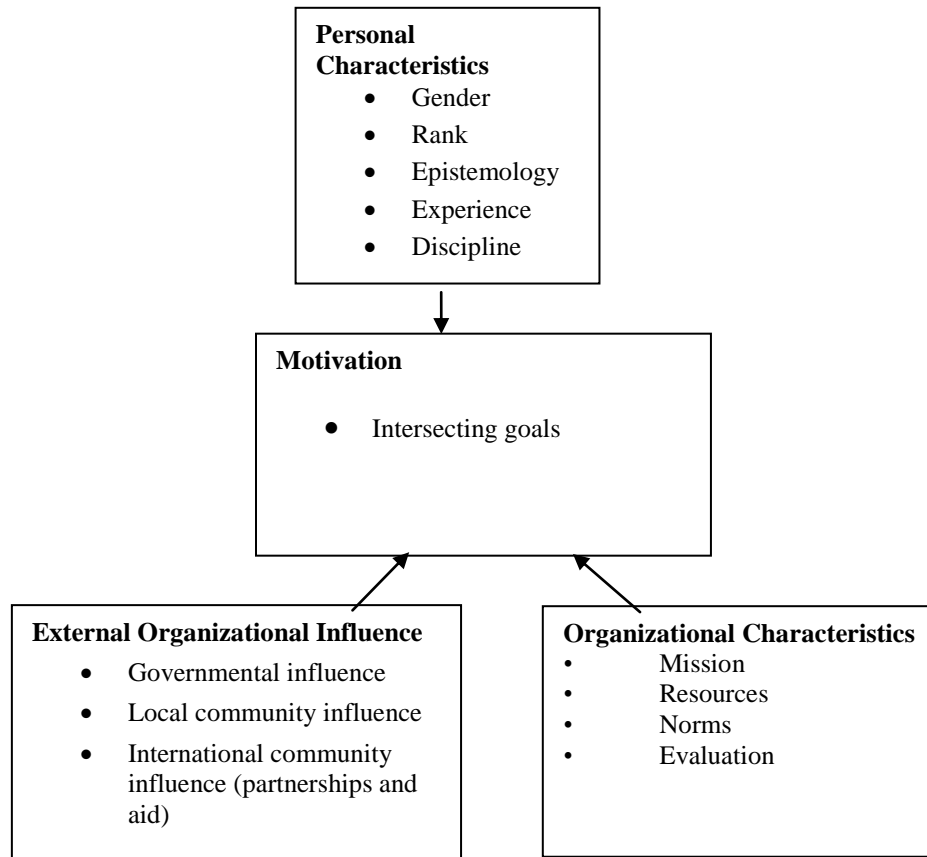
Revision of the model and survey instrument of factors influencing CES

At a general level, the conceptual framework in of factors driving community-engaged scholarship presented in chapter one (Figure 1) was helpful to contextualize and hypothesize factors that would be important in thinking about faculty motivations for conducting community engagement. The findings of the study support the initial hypotheses with minor revision to the model. The findings highlight important aspects of drives that influence faculty members in their community-engaged scholarship. However, from the faculty member perspective, some nuances were not captured. Figure 7 is a revision of the original conceptual framework to reflect nuances that were discovered by on the current study. While the initial model did not indicate the role of external influence such as government, international organization and communities, the revised models includes these component as it was hypothesized in the conceptual framework based on the literature.

In terms of the conceptual model and the survey and its potential for broader use, the results of this study indicate that several meaningful variables were identified in the survey instrument. While not all of the variables used proved to be significant in explaining faculty member's community-engaged scholarship motivation, it was a useful tool in exploring the factors hypothesized to explain influencing factors for involvement in community-engaged scholarship at least in the Malawi public higher education sector. The hypothesizing the role of external factors which O'Meara' (2008) model did not have

proved helpful in understanding the role of external funding donors on faculty community-engaged scholarship. In-depth interviews additionally helped to dig deeper and clarify the issues with external incentives. The instrument should be refined and used in both private and public higher education institutions study to better understand some of the unpredicted outcomes from the study and to allow for a broader contextualization of results. Revisions necessary for the survey include developing a stronger scale to represent the variables that represent government incentives, developing a new scale that focuses more directly on internal vs. external motivation. While some demographic variable might warrant removing for example region where participants obtained their qualifications, keeping them may be useful in a study that explores different types of institutions. Some variable that would warrant more exploration based on the findings were the role of religion and balancing (intersecting) various issues for example balancing teaching and research, goals of funders, institutions and community needs and many related issues. A future study at diverse institutions would also allow for new/more meaningful analyses by institution type, academic discipline and permit the inclusion of variables which were not fully utilized in the single-institution pilot study, such as community involvement and institutional prestige. The updated version of the community-engaged scholarship model should be used as the conceptual foundation for future engagement research for contexts like Malawi. Continued testing and revision of this model may eventually lead to a model that accurately predicts and explains faculty engagement motivation and participant.

Figure 7: Revised model of factors that influence CES



Implications of the study

The current study has implications for various stakeholders of higher education in Malawi, other African countries and beyond as well as those who provide support for and conduct community-engaged scholarship. The findings of the study offer analysis, and insights and perspectives that could provide alternative ways of examining the issues of engaged scholarship and how to practice or implement such work in academia. For faculty in particular, this study may suggest a way to broadly conceptualize motivations for conducting community-engaged scholarship. The study may also have implications

for institutions and other organizations that support and fund community engagement and provide a way of thinking for institutionalizing faculty-community engaged scholarship.

Implications for Malawian faculty and higher education

Although the majority of faculty participants reported that they conduct community-engaged scholarship and know a lot about it, some things need to be considered critically and improved. Evidence has shown that faculty members feel that their universities are not doing enough to motivate them to conduct community-engaged scholarship. For example, 58.3% of faculty reported that they strongly disagreed and 22.2% disagreed that they conduct community-engaged scholarship because the university provides financial support for engaged scholarship. Similarly 47.2 % strongly disagreed and 12.0% disagreed that they were driven to do engaged scholarship because the university allocated time for such work. This is an interesting and important finding considering that results additionally reveal that the overall time considered to be spent on engaged scholarship was a plausible factor that would predict faculty involvement in community-engaged scholarship. This finding may imply that there is a need for institutions to garner resources and put specific mechanisms in place that provide more time for faculty members to conduct community-engaged scholarship.

One challenge that surfaced from the in-depth interviews is that faculty members consider teaching, research and outreach as mutually exclusive aims and goals of their work. Additionally, university policies in Malawi currently put too much emphasis on teaching and research. This being the case, faculty members have limited time to conduct community-engaged scholarship in a holist manner. What this might suggest is a need to

re-conceptualize scholarship. There is a need to consider teaching, research, and outreach as one aspect namely engaged scholarship based on Boyer's (1996) call for expanded the understanding of scholarship to include application, discovery, teaching, and integration, broadly called scholarship of engagement (Austin & Beck, 2010). Since faculty members are critically important to the fulfilment of the missions of universities, efforts to strengthen the scholarship of engagement and outreach must be linked and given attention to how individual faculty members understand and carry out their work. This might be one of the reasons why the time faculty members spend on engaged scholarship is important.

The vast majority of faculty tended to think that government incentives did not move them much to conduct community-engaged scholarship. This evidence was seen in, for instance, where 66.7% of faculty tended to strongly disagree and disagree that they conducted community-engaged scholarship because government policy required them to. A total of 80.6% strongly disagree that they performed engaged scholarship because the government provided funds. Considering that the government policy direction in education, the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) provided directions for education across levels, this mismatch between faculty members reported perspectives and the actual statements in government policies might have serious implications for both higher education institutions and government.

Some of the stated rationales for the NESP are to consolidate education sector development strategies and their policies into one implementable output and a results-based framework with linkages to existing financing mechanisms. To that effect, the plan

also aims to provide a holistic coverage of dimensions and implementation of international covenants, agreements and protocols on education, to which the Republic of Malawi has adopted through ratification or by virtue of being part of the global economy and international sociopolitical landscape. Most critically, the framework was envisioned to ensure the necessary leadership and ownership of and by the Government of Malawi in developing the education sector.

It is ironic that faculty do not see any government influence on their engaged scholarship. The lack of government support might be understandable, since governments are continuously struggling for funding even in their own projects. But the failure of faculty to acknowledge the importance of government policies on their work may be an issue that needs serious examination if thinking deeply about the roles and responsibilities of universities in the broader society is to be meaningful.

The NESP identifies expanding access, improving quality and relevance, and enhancing management and governance of the system as index goals of the overall national education sector strategic plan. The proposed interventions with respect to higher education seek to address the identified challenges in the context of these goals. “The major identified challenges under higher education are mainly attributable to restrictive statutory prescriptions, the public policy vacuum and the opaque relationship with government” (Government of Malawi [NESP],2008: p. 25).

Considine (2005) illuminates three major kinds of policy strategies. These policy interventions are based on legal regulation, distribution of resources and those designed to achieve a normative change. These three levels of policy formulation are critical in the

case of faculty community-engaged scholarship in Malawi. There is a need to critically re-examine current legal frameworks that shape faculty work life, redistribute resources by considering increasing government support to higher education institutions and, most importantly, configuring ways to directly influence faculty motivations to emphasize community-engaged scholarship.

Implications for external communities and international aid donors

The current findings have clear implications for international development of higher education. First, a better understanding of critical factors influencing faculty motivation for engaged scholarship can enable anticipatory situational analyses, helping to proactively analyze the likelihood of sustainability of various funding support to faculty community-engaged scholarship. Additionally, a better understanding of the characteristics of and the drive towards engaged scholarship can help to proactively identify critical gaps to be addressed in funding design and resource allocations plans before funds are committed and spent on engaged scholarship projects. Moreover, elucidating vital components or conditions and challenges faculty face can assist to advocate for more critical decision-making among competing priorities for donors and practitioners alike, ensuring that scarce resources are more strategically channeled towards efforts likely to lead to sustainable and impactful scholarship. Elucidating the pathways to alternative incentives can enable opportunities for donors and communities to “deconstruct” the barriers and obstacles that may be preventing achieving desired goals and outcomes.

One important finding of the study is that faculty in Malawi overly rely on grants and external support for their engaged scholarship. This particular point must show the significance and importance of various funding support in promoting community-engaged scholarship, especially in countries where state support is limited. Yet faculty also equally bemoaned the highly competitive nature of these funding regimes. While faculty do not necessarily consider themselves as passive participants/agents of goals and desires of funding organization, because they choose which grants to apply for and how to align their interest with those of funders' needs, faculty considered themselves as serving two masters at the same time which impacts the way they conduct their engaged scholarship. This notion of double accountability, where faculty have to account for their work, time and resources to their institutions as well as external providers of incentives, may suggest a need to devise clear alignment between internal and external rewards to avoid and minimize faculty members' being accountable to different and confusing authorities. A good example is what faculty reported as being caught between their institutional and donors expectations. Strategies for carrying out such initiatives are beyond the scope of the current study. This however, might be an interesting area of further investigation.

Implications of faculty motivations for CES on harmonization of higher education

Motivations for faculty community-engaged scholarship in Malawi seem to have interesting implications for higher education reform and harmonization. Community-engaged scholarship demonstrates the importance of fostering relevant higher education to the context of African. In line with community engagement, harmonization broadly

understood, seeks to promote a unified approach to community engagement and higher education delivery and qualification. Community engagement encourages universities and faculty members to promote relationships and partnerships between university institutions, public and private industry and communities. Nonetheless, universities in Malawi like elsewhere in Africa express their mission as provision of relevant higher education to the national context and the region. Experiences and motivations of Malawi faculty with community engagement suggest a similar but slightly different approach to what harmonization frameworks seek to promote. Harmonization aims at creating regional and continental collaboration within institutions by encouraging universities to match systems of higher education provision and qualifications²⁰. Community engagement in that sense has implications for harmonization because both processes seek a similar goal of promoting relevant higher education in Africa. Findings in the current study demonstrate that faculty members in Malawi who took part in the current study tended to frame community engagement as a mechanism for dealing with locally situated development challenges for example food and health problems. While the aims of harmonization would be laudable in that it would assist Malawian faculty members and

²⁰ It is important to point out that community engagement for the purpose of this study was defined as the process of teaching, research and outreach taken together through which universities and faculty members work collaboratively with a community to address community development. The common thread in community engagement and harmonization of higher education is the central position of higher education in the socioeconomic development of African economies. Community-engaged scholarship encompasses teaching, research and outreach- three major pillars of higher education. Harmonization, therefore, is a process that seeks to unify community engagement across African higher education. However, the implication drawn from the current study on faculty community engagement is that harmonization strongly focuses on cross-broader exchange of qualifications and resources through a common market approach. Less emphasis is placed on how teaching, research and outreach can synergistically be enhanced as components of higher education. Faculty members in Malawi suggest that these three components of higher education are strongly connected and influence each other in terms of quality and relevant higher education. Relevant research is informed by teaching and service and vice versa. By merely focusing on qualifications and outcomes, harmonization fails to promote teaching, research and outreach processes that according to (Boyer 1996) are supposed to be interlinked in solve community development problems.

those in other national context to share resources, expertise and build capacity on a continental scale to deal with such problems, faculty experiences in Malawi suggest that promoting global framework like harmonization might be counterproductive to the very goal of instituting community engaged scholarship and relevant higher education.

In 2007 the African Union released a major report “Harmonization of Higher Education Programs in Africa: A Strategy for the African Union” which focused on building closer links among higher education institutions, networks, national systems, regional university associations and other key higher education actors²¹. An interesting feature of a pan- African higher education and research space is the emphasis on strengthening the capacity and role of regional university associations²². Examples of current African higher education regionalization initiatives include the African Quality Rating Mechanism, the Nyerere African Scholarship scheme, AfriQAN- network of quality assurance agencies, regional centers of excellence, updated Regional UNESCO Arusha Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications, a Pan-African University, and the new Open Education Africa project. Additionally, there are regional level initiatives to facilitate the establishment and alignment of quality assurance and accreditation systems, student mobility schemes, common degree levels, a research/ information communication and technology.

Similarly, in 2012 a Tuning Africa initiative was launched with the purpose of contributing to the realization of the *African Union Strategy for Harmonization of Higher Education Programs (AU-HEP)*. The AU-HEP aims to increase cooperation in

²¹ African Union (2014). Common African position on the post-2015. AU: Ethiopia.

²² Wachira Kigotho (20 March 2015). Harmonization of higher education speeds up. *University World News*. Available at: <http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20150319191947275>

information exchange, harmonization of procedures and policies, and attainment of comparability among qualifications to facilitate professional mobility for both employment and further study. The work of the African Tuning initiative is intended to contribute to the African Union Harmonization strategy and help to foster mobility of students in Africa through a qualifications recognition scheme and a regional academic credit system; enhance the quality of education and employability through a learning outcome based approach to curriculum development, and contribute to the harmonization of education structures and systems across the continent²³. These initiatives illustrate the intention and commitment of national and international higher education actors to establish stronger pan regional collaboration and harmonization of systems while still recognizing the importance of bilateral and multi-lateral internationalization efforts.

Faculty perspectives in Malawi on community engagement intensified contestation about the distinction and relevance of harmonized higher education across the continent. Scholar of higher education in African countries have shown that planning and managing a relevant higher education can be easier said than done (Gibbons, 1998; Mamdani, 2007; Matthews, 2010; Kamola, 2012; Nhamo, 2012; Muriisa, 2014; Berhanu, 2014). One aim of harmonization is mobility of students in Africa through a qualifications recognition scheme and a regional academic credit system. An implicit aim which is less discussed in relation to student mobility is the movement of faculty members (focus this study) who are at the center of higher education system through their

²³ AU (2014) Common African Position on the post 2015 development agenda. AU: Ethiopia East African Community (2009). Regional Report: Study on the harmonization of the East African Education Systems. Final report submitted by the Inter-University Council for East Africa to the East African Community. East African Community (n.d) Regional Report: Harmonization of the East African Education Systems & Training Curricula.

research, teaching, administration and service. Community engagement ought to facilitate social transformation and social responsiveness to enable relevant higher education sector. Community engagement in higher education has been viewed as a platform for interacting forms of knowledge with that of a society. In Malawi faculty pointed out that they conduct community-engaged scholarship because their universities are situated in particular context to deal with critical social issues that play out with the national context. While dealing with these issues they also prepare students to face the challenge of the communities where they come from and will eventually return.

Harmonization on the other hand might require faculty to abandon community engagement that helps students and their own scholarship to deal with relevant issues in the context where the universities are located to deal with larger continental issues that might not have direct relevance to the areas where the students and faculty position their community engagement project and scholarship. This in the long run may facilitate vocationalization of higher education that (Mamdani, 2007) warns against as faculty motivation would be directed towards the marketization of qualification and the curriculum to match various contexts. While faculty did not exhibit far-reaching denouncement of marketized approaches to higher education, they pointed out the challenges with building trust and relationships with communities where they conduct their project. These challenges might be multiplied in a harmonized higher education system where faculty would be required to be accountable to stakeholders beyond their national context. Faculty members for instance talked about international sources of funding and partnerships as often being unpredictable and unreliable.

A central tenant of the rationale for harmonization is globalization in education which has led to a marked increase in mobility of people, programs and institutions across national borders. Suffice to mention that these global trends are particularly local as they manifest in a given specific location of higher education system and given time. The globalized higher education system has warranted harmonization which tends to take a highly criticized market approach to facilitate partnerships for exchange of higher education resources. There is a link between the harmonization of higher education and community engagement as they are both seem to be driven by market forces. Faculty members' motivation for conducting community-engage scholarship tended to be critical of market driven community engagement which has implication for both harmonization and community engagement. Faculty members pointed out that their community engagement was not necessary driven for commercial purposes. Yet from the onset harmonization of higher education sought to clear the playing field for the marketization of higher education. The motivations for community engagement for Malawian faculty seem to suggest that harmonization might be ill positioned for promoting relevant higher education in Africa and therefore contradicts community-engaged scholarship.

Another major aim of harmonization is to enhance the quality of education and employability through a learning outcome based approach to curriculum development. Community engagement, however, aims at improving quality of higher education by enabling faculty to grapple with real issues impacting the social political and economic issues affecting the communities in which universities are located. Harmonization raises questions surrounding the role of national universities which were formulated with

special national development issues. Faculty in Malawi acknowledged that community engagement allows them to deal with national development agendas. While most challenges impacting African countries are similar, they may require different policy approaches and strategies. Higher education issues in Malawi that faculty aim to solve through community engagement might not necessarily be the same with issues happening across Africa. This means that issues of educational quality, employability and learning outcomes in these contexts might mean different things for different countries and institutions of higher learning. Community engagement enables dealing with diverse problems using diverse and unique solutions. Faculty members in Malawi also acknowledge that community engagement enables them to deal with unique and diverse problems that community that located within their universities. Faculty while realizing the importance the globalized nature of problems, they clearly did not express the need to handle these problems by creating higher education system that would use one community engagement approach across African.

Harmonization also seeks to link African higher education structures and systems across the continent²⁴. Faculty motivations for conducting community engagement in Malawi also exposed limitations and barriers from harmonization of education structure in African. Faculty in Malawi pointed out that institutions have limited funds to conduct community engagement to deal with challenges with their institutions contexts. Another implication community engagement on harmonization is that faculty members are burden by several ‘competing’ international agendas for development e.g. the EFA, ESD, MDGs

²⁴ Hoosen, S., Butcher, N., & Njenga, B. K. (2009). Harmonization of higher education programmes: A strategy for the African Union. *African Integration Review*, 3(1), 1-36.

(UNESCO, 2014) which despite their common aim of community development have dispersed energies and resources and at times diminished the attention from specific goals to high levels of abstraction that makes community-engaged scholarship complex²⁵. This would suggest that charging universities to deal with global or continental structures of higher education might be demanding too much of institutions that are already burned with issues of funding. Faculty also pointed out that the increasing numbers of students and high workloads in administering their institutions teaching, research and engagement burdens them to a point where it becomes a barrier to their work with communities. In this regard expecting faculty members to spend time in harmonizing structures and systems across the continent might take away from their limited time to work and deal with issues that are relevant to the areas where universities are located.

Harmonization aims at eliminating different systems of education based on different national, regional or colonial legacies across Africa. Findings from the current study suggest that community engagement links all aspects of higher education (teaching, research and outreach/service) which harmonization seeks to bridge for higher education institutions in Africa. Considering that faculty members' motivation for conducting community engagement usually revolves around personal aspirations, harmonization might have negative implications than it is envisioned. Additionally, faculty community engagement was also understood slightly different depending on the faculty members. This suggests that although community-engaged scholarship is a stated agenda or mission

²⁵ The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (2015), Harmonization of Higher Education in Africa or Why We Need to Hang in There Together... Policy Brief available at file:///C:/Users/Owner/Desktop/Map%20of%20Tanzania%20-%20Bing%20Images_files/policy_brief_harmonization_en.pdf

for universities, it means different things for different faculty members. Faculty members also take various approaches to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Developing one particular framework for harmonization of Higher Education Programs in Africa; might also suggest a complex challenge in relation to community engagement.

An equally important implication of faculty community-engaged scholarship on harmonization is the incentive that drive faculty to conduct community-engaged scholarship and the benefits and rewards that would perceive to get from harmonization. Faculty members were asked whether they agreed or disagreed that they conducted community engagement as a framework for competitiveness²⁶ at their institution. The results showed that there was an equal split between faculty who agree and those who disagreed that they conducted community-engaged scholarship as framework for competitiveness of the university. A critical part of the process of harmonization is to be able to compare the performance of universities against common, agreed criteria. It is believed that this would establish a deepening commitment to quality across higher education systems while providing benchmarks at a continental level so that universities are equipped to position themselves as equal players in global higher education. This would also achieve a goal of ensuring that Africa's processes of harmonization take cognizance of other harmonization processes, so that the status of programs on the continent is respected around the world, not just across Africa. These findings however suggest the situatedness of the work faculty members perform in Malawi does not position them towards international competitive approaches. Faculty might be motivated

²⁶ Competiveness can include: quality, prestige, marketability in comparison to other systems. According the African Union strategy for harmonization, one important issues of harmonization is to ensure that African higher education is comparatively competitive to higher education in the U.S and Europe.

to work in higher education for different goals, getting faculty to agree on one approach for higher education as seen from faculty participants in Malawi highlights the obstacles in promoting community-engagement within Malawi later on harmonization on a continental scale.

These implications cement conclusions of a recent study by Woldegiorgis, Jonck and Goujon (2015). Their paper looked at the policy documents of the African Union and European processes of harmonization to discover the commonalities and differences between the two processes. They conclude that although the two harmonization processes are different, they both have elements in terms of structures, actors, and organizations. Additionally, they point out that both policies are at different levels of implementation—the African Higher Education Harmonization Strategy is still in its infancy—the political, functional, and organizational processes are less coordinated in Africa than in Europe. Although their use of metaphors of childhood for African harmonization might suggest paternalistic notions often heard by Western scholars on Africa who often view Africa as always lagging behind, it is important to point out that challenges of coordination between institutions, governments and communities at large as faculty pointed in describing barriers to community-engaged scholarship might indeed equally raise negative implications of the harmonization in Malawi and beyond. In Africa, different implementation schemes are still ongoing to achieve the very objective of the strategy. Slow implementation in Africa is attributed to factors like poor top-down communication of the policy, excessive dependency on external funding, poor political commitment, fragmentation and duplication of processes, and the less participatory

nature of the policy in terms of bringing all stakeholders on board. By looking at both the European and African policies through a comparative lens, the paper goes beyond the academic perspective and opens a debate on the type of forces involved in globalization and higher education and also their complexities.²⁷

Considerations for promoting engaged scholarship

Several considerations have been developed from the basis of the findings. It is hoped that these considerations will broaden and move forward the debates around faculty incentives, motivations and the practice of community-engaged scholarship in a fast changing and globalizing world.

1. Develop, support, and implement strategic initiatives that raise the status and legitimacy of engaged scholarship in ways that advance faculty motivations for scholarship and social improvement in all public universities.

- Conceptualize teaching, research and outreach as synergistic elements of the scholarship of engagement and develop a strategic plan for infusing engaged teaching and the scholarship of engagement into the overall goals and practice of all disciplines. To the extent that the overall proportion of work that faculty considered community-engaged scholarship was likely the most important factor in explaining faculty drive to conduct community-engaged scholarship, universities should consider putting in place specific policies that offer more time and autonomy for faculty to conduct community engaged scholarship;

²⁷ For more on this topic see: Woldegiorgis, E. T., Jonck, P., & Goujon, A. (2015). Regional Higher Education Reform Initiatives in Africa: a comparative Analysis with Bologna Process. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 4(1), p 241.

- Establish university awards that honor outstanding engaged scholarship.
 - Develop a university policy and system for nominating faculty for internal and external community engagement awards and promotion based on their involvement and impact of their community-engaged scholarship.
2. Evaluate and measure successes and failures by establishing a set of systems for accounting and assessing the broad range of community engagement activities, programs, and initiatives across the public university system.
- Identify and review current approaches that units, departments, and programs are using to assess the scale and scope of their engagement initiatives.
 - Establish evaluation frameworks, for example, by adopting Ubuntu and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as conceptual frameworks and maintaining a data base for engaged scholarship profiles.²⁸
 - Develop a booklet that lists various disciplines' engaged scholarship criteria, paradigms, conceptual frameworks and expectations;
3. Secure mutually beneficial partnerships between the universities and business/industry, non-profits, educational institutions, and governmental agencies at the local, regional, national, and global levels.
- Strengthen the universities reputation as a visible, reliable, and present body in addressing the most pressing immediate and long-term public needs.

²⁸ One suggestion for dealing with lack of guidelines that faculty pointed out is adopting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as a criterion for assessing scholarship. By adopting MDGs as a framework for community engagement, it is proposed that higher education institutions would be able to position community engagement within the sustainable development discourse (Olowu, 2012). Equally important may be adoption of the Ubuntu philosophy that focuses on the well-being of humanity as the central conceptual framework to guide faculty community-engaged scholarship and its evaluation and assessment. The use of these concepts, it is believed can contribute to motivating and driving faculty because it is a localized concept and fundamentally shapes day-to-day life of faculty in Malawi and elsewhere.

- Continue dialogue and discussions with the community to assess needs and issues concerning the universities.
 - Involve community members in key decision-making boards and review committees pertaining to the establishment of engagement policies and programs.
4. Leverage external funds that further faculty initiatives in public universities.
- Seek out alternative foundation funding that strengthens the universities' engagement infrastructure for furthering the institutionalization of engagement into scholarly and academic work of universities;
 - Strengthen dissemination vehicles that alert university members and community partners to available funding opportunities for engagement work and initiatives.
 - Put in place a plan to build endowments for engagement, including endowments that support student scholarships, faculty chairs, and centers.
5. Develop a leadership and mentorship program in which experienced faculty and staff provide professional development to new and emerging engagement leaders at the university.
- Create mentorship programs that align engaged scholars with new faculty and graduate students
 - Engage leading scholars at public universities to establish a local Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement. This should be complemented by other non-academic platforms, such as magazines, blogs, newsletters, Twitter and Facebook pages to share information.

- Create faculty teams to work on compliance and alignment of scholarship of engagement with accreditation boards.

Directions for future research

While a general analysis of the conditions shaping the professoriate is more salient. Step-by-step and focused study at various levels is also helpful to unearth specific factors impacting faculty work life. As Stromquist (2007) has pointed out:

to write of the professoriate implies analysis at three levels: certainly the individual level, for it is here that the professors experience the opportunities and limitations of their work; the institutional level, for It is the organization that determines policies such as salaries, promotion, participation in governance, among others, which shape the professoriate; and, finally, the national level, as it is through public policy or its absence that higher education institutions develop norms and policies that affect both institutions and the individuals who work in them (p211).

This study attempted to link how these three levels impact faculty motivations to conduct community-engaged scholarship. While several issues have been discovered, several other themes and interesting directions will require continued attention for future contributions to the understating and development of higher education in this area. These are primarily at two levels and the following section outlines them in detail.

The first avenue of study relates to the private and public typologies of higher education institutions and faculty community engagement. Seven private universities have been established in Malawi within the past decade. Most of these institutions have

been established by Christian churches. Some of these institutions are for-profit universities with connections to main campuses in Europe, America or other African countries (World Bank, 2010). This has led to a new caliber of faculty.

The current study focused on faculty in public universities. However, considering the rapid growth of private universities and the number of faculty members teaching in these institutions, it would be informative to understand the motivations driving private institutions to conduct community-engaged scholarship or whether they conduct it at all. While for some time faculty in public universities would mostly teach in these new institutions as adjunct faculty, private universities have more recently managed to recruit their own permanent faculty and are in the process of creating a new line of scholarship and faculty work life. These developments have led the government to establish accreditation boards that examine and enforce the quality and relevance of all universities, public and private. An interesting area of inquiry will be to examine how these accreditation frameworks, or the absence thereof, is driving the form of community-engaged scholarship and how this impacts faculty motivation to work for social improvement.

The second direction of research in this area would be to focus on the national higher education development. Faculty personal aspirations and goals change over time; they are directly related to the times and historical and social underpinning of a particular era (Holland, 2010; Mapanje, 2002). This is similar to institutions, and national governments. Community-engaged scholarship, faculty and institutions alike are in a state of transition. An important approach, therefore, would be conducting a longitudinal

study to ascertain the variables that would have changed over a given period in influencing faculty community-engaged scholarship. Additionally, it would be worthwhile to examine and assess the impact of market forces and the university and industry links in Malawi, Tanzania and South Africa. This work can open up several interesting comparative analysis in community-engaged scholarship. Further studies, therefore, would also be in place to investigate the issue of community-engaged scholarship and how universities in these countries are embracing entrepreneurship and market oriented approaches to community-engaged scholarship. This is in view of the increasing marketization and internationalization of higher education in Africa.

Concluding remarks on incentives for community-engaged scholarship

In the U.S. higher education literature, which for the most part forms the background research studies informing the current project, there is ample evidence that shows the significance of rewards²⁹ and incentives on faculty members' behavior. Several analyses of faculty members' behavior have shown that faculty members respond to positive reinforcement such as awards, travel grants, travel funds, professional development monies, merit pay, tenure and, promotion (Austin & Gamson, 1983, O'Meara, 2010). These are mostly referred to as extrinsic sources of motivation (Ford, 1992). These factors have been found to influence faculty members work priorities, productivity, satisfaction and creativity (Deming, 2000, O'Meara, 2008). Additionally, research also shows that in academic environments, extrinsic motivations also come in

²⁹ Rewards here are considered as a system. Utilizing O'Meara, Terosky, & Neumann's, (2008) definition, rewards are "the many ways in which an institution regards faculty members including but not limited to how it recruits, sustains, assesses, and advances faculty members in their career.

form of intangible resources such as informal institutional norms and cultures, which are directly related to faculty members' socialization and preferences. The crucial point here, according to O'Meara (2010), is that reward systems should not be considered only in terms of formal and structural policies in place but also as a more complex set of interacting social, cultural, political and economic factors that encourage some behaviors over others.

The current study has found that in Malawi faculty members were to a limited extent motivated and driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship by the institutional, governmental and external community incentives such as promotion, recognition and money. To a greater extent faculty members were driven by their personal aspiration to contribute to making society better. This finding makes it necessary to make some concluding comments on incentives and rewards for conducting community-engaged scholarship and faculty members' work in general. Faculty members pointed out that much as the institutional and external community incentives and rewards were important; they were full of barriers such as competition and unfavorable policies. Auspiciously, the study discovered that faculty conducted community-engaged scholarship despite challenges they faced, such as institutional requirements of getting a certain percent of funds faculty members sourced from outside because they were driven by something bigger than the monetary incentives and institutional expectation.

While most studies acknowledge the importance of external or extrinsic rewards as a complex set of formal and informal structures at an institution, they usually ignore the important role of the intrinsic or internal drive in faculty work life. This observation is

supported by other studies on incentives and motivations conducted by scholars such as Karl Duncker (1926) and Sam Glucksberg (1962) and most recently Dan Pink (2006). Dan Pink (2006, 2010) in a TedTalk presentation as well as in his book “A whole new mind,” cites an experiment called the Candle Problem, which was conducted by psychologist Karl Duncker. This experiment was modified and also used by Sam Glucksberg. In the experiment, participants are asked to complete a task of attaching a candle to the wall to avoid the candle wax dripping on the table with specific set of tools. In Sam Glucksberg approach, participants are incentivized by a reward of money if they completed the task faster within a specific given time.

The results of these experiments are puzzling and more so insightful. Contrary to expectation, when participants were incentivized, results showed that they took longer to complete the given task than those who were not. This suggests that the rewards resulted in prevaricating creativity and the ability to solve the problem. Based on these results and insights, Pink (2010) states:

If you want people to perform better, you reward them, right? Bonuses, commissions, their own reality show. Incentivize them. ... But that's not happening here (meaning the in the experiment). You've got an incentive designed to sharpen thinking and accelerate creativity, and it does just the opposite. It dulls thinking and blocks creativity.

According to Pink (2009), the insight from these studies is that extrinsic rewards work such as money or formalized incentives usually do not work that well. The nature of tasks

and purpose at hand usually determines the importance and positive impact of these formal incentives.

Although these studies focus motivation and incentives in a different work context, they may explain why in the Malawian higher education context, where faculty members have limited support and rewards, or at times very competitive incentives (grants), faculty members are still driven to conduct community-engaged scholarship. Faculty themselves point out that they were driven to take up community-engaged scholarship by something bigger and more important. Faculty members revealed that their personal backgrounds, the need to improve students learning and aspiration to solve and contribute to something significant to society other than getting short-term rewards drove them to conduct community-engaged scholarship in the first place. Most importantly faculty pointed out that conducting community-engaged scholarship outside the confines of the formal structures, enabled them to gain some autonomy, take up more interesting, challenging and rewarding scholarship. This finding is supported by Pink's (2010) observation. He suggests that autonomy (the ability to self-direct and self-manage), mastery (the need to develop and become better), and purpose (the aspiration to do and contribute to a bigger cause) are the key, important building blocks to meaningful functioning and engagement.

In the final analysis, it might hold that providing various kinds of incentives for community-engaged scholarship is crucial, however, to enable faculty members to meaningfully contribute to solving bigger and more important problems may require more than money. This may call for providing institutional environments that promote

autonomy, opening up opportunity to work on complex problems and allowing faculty members to become better at mastering their work as they aim towards achieving meaningful goals. This is the major challenge for the modern African university as it grapples with promoting community-engaged scholarship.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Consent Letter and Survey Instrument

Survey of motivation for conducting community-engaged scholarship

Thank you for participating in the survey. This survey examines faculty views on conducting community-engaged scholarship. For the purposes of this study, engagement is defined as a commitment to mutual collaboration with external constituents to address issues and advance knowledge that contribute to the public good and social change. Community may be defined as local, regional, national or international depending on the work or expertise of individual faculty.

The purpose of the survey is to more fully understand what motivates faculty participation in community engagement-engaged scholarship. The survey consists of five areas: Depth and level of participation in community engagement; conceptual framework driving community-engaged scholarship; government support for community-engaged scholarship; external community support for community engaged scholarship and, faculty demographic and background questions. Your candid and honest response to each question or statement would be much appreciated. Participation is completely voluntary and responses will be kept confidential. Although you initially accepted to be part of the research study, recognize that you can decide to discontinue being part of the study at any point in time. All personal identifiers (names and such) will be stripped from the data. Further, information obtained from this survey will be analyzed and reported collectively.

Procedure: Please complete this survey questionnaire by answering all questions to the best of your ability. There are no wrong or right answers. Follow directions as provided on each question. Circle only one answer or indicate a number on a space provided. Complete questions that ask for written responses by writing clearly on the spaces provided. The survey will only take between 15-20 minutes to complete. *After completing the survey please send it to the University Registrar Office. Attention Mr. Nelson Masanche Nkhoma using local campus mail.*

Contacts and Questions: If you have any question please feel free to contact Nelson Masanche Nkhoma at +01 612-709-5025 or local phone number _____ or e-mail at nkhom002@umn.edu. Also if you want to talk to someone other than the researcher, please feel free to call David Chapman, Birkmaier Professor of Educational Leadership, 310K Wulling Hall 86 Pleasant St S E Minneapolis, MN 55455, Tel: 612-626-8728 Fax: 612-624-3377, Email: chapm026@umn.edu.

Statement of Consent: I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Appendix B: Questionnaire for Community-Engaged Scholarship

The purpose of this questionnaire is to assess the nature of faculty members' involvement in community-engaged scholarship. Please respond to each question as it pertains to you and your community-engaged scholarly work. Estimated completion time: **20 Minutes**

Definition of key concepts:

Motivation: Motivation is a psychological feature that arouses humans to act towards a desired goal and elicits, controls, and sustains certain goal directed behaviors. It can be considered a driving force; a psychological drive that compels or reinforces an action toward a desired goal. For example, faculty promotion is a motivation that elicits a desire to do research and publish results. Motivation may be rooted in a basic impulse to optimize personal well-being, minimize personal and societal problems and maximize pleasure. Both these inner and external conditions such as wishes, desires, goals, activate to move in a particular direction in behavior.

Engaged faculty: Engaged faculty are faculty who intentionally connect their scholarship to community issues through community-based research and/or teaching initiatives that are conducted for and/or in collaboration with individuals, groups, and organizations outside of academia.

Community/Public: are individuals, groups, or organizations outside of academia that have a connection to the societal issues that the faculty member's scholarship is addressing and who collaborate or partner with the faculty member to enhance the scholarship and its relevance to society. Community members might include organizations (e.g., businesses, governmental agencies, non-profit organizations, faith-based institutions), geographic localities (neighborhoods, cities, etc.), or groups (cultural groups, religious groups, etc.).

Community-engaged Scholarship: Community-engaged scholarship is scholarly work that is based in a community setting, is conducted for or in partnership with community members, advances knowledge in one or more academic disciplines, and focuses on addressing one or more issues that of societal relevance. Community-engaged scholarship refers to work that engages a faculty member's professional expertise to solve real-world problems in ways that fulfill institutional mission (Boyer 1990; Bloomfield 2006; Elman and Smock 1985; Lynton 1995; O'Meara, 2008). This work, like all scholarship, involves systematic inquiry, wherein the process and results are open to peer-critique and disseminated (Hutchings and Shulman, 1999 as cited in O'Meara, 2008).

SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHICS

Please respond to each of the questions below as they pertain to you.

1. Gender

- Male
 - Female
2. Marital Status
- Married
 - Single
 - Divorced
3. Religion
- Islam
 - African tradition
 - Christianity
 - Hinduism
 - Other (please specify) _____
4. Region of origin within Malawi
- Northern Region
 - Southern Region
 - Central Region
 - International
 - Other (Please specify) _____
5. What was your age on your last birthday?
- 39 or younger
 - 40-50
 - 51 and above
6. Number of years you have been conducting community-engaged scholarship at this institution. _____ years
7. Current Academic Rank (Select one).
- Staff Associate
 - Assistant lecturer
 - Lecturer
 - Associate lecturer
 - Senior lecturer
 - Associate professor
 - Professor
 - Professor emeritus
 - Other (Please specify) _____
8. Appointment Status (Select one)
- Tenured

- Permanent
- Probation
- Visiting/adjunct

9. Faculty/school/college of your primary academic appointment:

- College of Medicine
- College of Nursing
- Polytechnic
- College of Agriculture
- Faculty of Humanities
- Faculty of Science
- Faculty of Law
- Faculty of Social Science
- Faculty of Education
- Other (Please specify) _____

10. Highest academic degree (qualification) earned

- Certificate
- Bachelors
- Masters
- Professional
- Doctoral

11. Type of institution from which you earned your highest degree

- Public Doctoral Institution
- Private Doctoral Institution
- Comprehensive Post baccalaureate Institution
- Other (Please specify) _____

12. Location where you obtained your highest level of graduate training

- North America (America, Canada etc)
- East Europe (Russia, etc)
- Africa (South Africa, Malawi etc)
- Western Europe (UK, Germany, Holland etc)
- South America (Brazil, Argentina etc.)
- Asia (China, Japan, India etc)
- Oceania (Australia etc)
- Other (please specify) _____

LEVEL AND DEPTH OF PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY-ENGAGED SCHOLARSHIP

Community-engaged scholarship is scholarly work that is based in a community setting, is conducted for or in partnership with community members, advances knowledge in one

or more academic disciplines, and focuses on addressing one or more issues that of societal relevance. **(For example working with communities in ways that emphasize mutual partnerships to address community needs)**

- a) How well do you think you understand the concept of “community-engaged scholarship”?
- Not at all
 - Slightly well
 - Moderately well
 - Very well
 - Extremely well
- b) How comfortable are you conducting community-engaged scholarship?
- Not at all
 - Slightly comfortable
 - Moderately comfortable
 - Very comfortable
 - Extremely comfortable
- c) Have you conducted community-engaged scholarship?
- Don't know
 - No (go to question d)
 - Yes
 - c.1 If yes, for how many years have you been involved in community-engaged scholarship?
 - < 1 year
 - 1-5year
 - 6-10years
 - 11-15years
 - 15- more years
 - c. 2 If yes, in consideration of overall scholarly work, what portion of your overall scholarly work do you consider being community-engaged scholarship?
 - Less than 10%
 - 11% -30%
 - 31% - 50%
 - 51% - 75%
 - 76% - 99%
 - 100%
 - c.3 If yes, in what area of community-engaged scholarship are you involved? ,
Check all that apply

- Community based research (e.g. investigating a community problem)
 - Community based instruction (e.g. teaching that involves community work)
 - Community service (e.g. serving as a board member on community projects)
 - Other please specify
-

c.4 What issues do you address in your community engagement work?

Check all that apply

- Education problems
 - Health issues
 - Poverty alleviation
 - Political issues
 - Environmental issues
 - Economic issues
 - Other (please specify)
-

d) In the next six months, do you expect to participate or continue participating in community-engaged scholarship?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

e) If yes, what issues will your community-engaged scholarship address?

- Educational problems
 - Poverty alleviation
 - Health issues
 - Political issues
 - Environmental issues
 - Economic issues
 - Other (please specify)
-

SECTION 2: PERSONAL INCENTIVES FOR PERFORMING COMMUNITY-ENGAGED SCHOLARSHIP

1-3= Strongly Disagree 4-5= Disagree 6-7 = Agree 8-10= Strongly Agree

Using the scale below, select the number that indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement provided. Enter the number in the space provided to the right of each statement.

Strongly Disagree			Disagree			Agree			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5		6	7	8	9	10

I conduct community –engaged scholarship to:	Enter number here
a) fulfill my commitments to charity.	
b) transform society.	
c) deal with social wrongs in society.	
d) improve my students’ capacity to learn.	
e) co-create knowledge with community partners.	
f) empower oppressed communities.	
g) “do good” in my community.	
h) use my skills to solve problem in society.	
i) go above and beyond what is academically required.	
j) earn extra money.	
k) raise my political concerns in communities.	
l) gain recognition and honor in the community.	
m) gain professional and personal connections	
n) improve personal knowledge	

SECTION 3: INSTITUTIONAL INCENTIVES FOR COMMUNITY-ENGAGED SCHOLARSHIP

Using the scale below, select the number that indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement provided. Enter the number in the space provided to the right of each statement.

Strongly Disagree			Disagree			Agree			Strongly Agree	
1	2	3	4	5		6	7	8	9	10

I conduct community–engaged scholarship because:	Enter number here
a) it is a mission at my university.	
b) the university allocates time for it.	

c) the university provides financial support for such.	
d) I could/ got promotion and tenure.	
e) my academic discipline/profession requires me to.	
f) there is professional development for such in the university	
g) it is a framework for competitiveness of the university	

SECTION 4: GOVERNMENT INCENTIVES FOR COMMUNITY-ENGAGED SCHOLARSHIP

Using the scale below, select the number that indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement provided. Enter the number in the space provided to the right of each statement.

Strongly Disagree			Disagree			Agree			Strongly Agree		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		

I conduct community-engaged scholarship because:	Enter number here
a) government policy requires us to do so.	
b) I receive government funds for such.	
c) government officials support my engagement work.	
d) I can/will/got government public appointments.	
e) The government is democratic and peaceful	
f) I am accountable to the government.	
g) of the need for transparency to the government	
h) it is government development agenda.	
i) the government is undemocratic and oppressive	

SECTION 5: COMMUNITY INCENTIVES FOR COMMUNITY-ENGAGED SCHOLARSHIP

Using the scale below, select the number that indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement provided. Enter the number in the space provided to the right of each statement.

Strongly Disagree			Disagree			Agree			Strongly Agree		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		

I conduct community-engaged scholarship because:	Enter number here
a) I gain social and political support from community.	
b) I receive financial support from the community.	
c) The community invited me to serve them.	
d) I receive/will receive international aid and grants	
e) communities trust faculty like me and my work	
f) communities have the knowledge and expertise	
g) I can/have/will gain better jobs in the community.	

Please use the space below to provide additional comments on community-engaged scholarship.

Appendix C: Consent Form and Interview Protocol

Please read this document and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study. The researcher is Nelson Masanche Nkhoma, who is a Ph.D. student in Organizational Leadership Policy and Development at the University of Minnesota. This preliminary study is primarily for partially fulfilling the requirements for a Ph.D. program. It will be used only for these purposes.

Background Information: This is a follow up interview from a survey research on faculty engagement that you recently were part of. The purpose of this interview is to gain a deeper understanding of the nature of faculty community engagement in Malawian higher education. The questions will range from the participants academic background to their experiences and perspectives on different issues about faculty community engagement.

Procedure: For the purpose of the study participants will be asked to meet with me for an interview. The interview will be 40 minutes long. Participants will not be paid for this interview.

Risks of being in the Study: There is no physical risk of being in the study apart from the privacy of your name and personal data of which the researcher will safeguard by not sharing the information with others.

Confidentiality: Any personal information that may reveal your identity will be kept secret or anonymous, such as, your name, education place, occupation, location of current job, etc.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: You have the ultimate right to deny participating in this study or to withdraw from this study after you have agreed to participate at any time of your choice during the study. You also have the right not to answer those questions posed by the (researcher) that you don't want to give any answer or response.

Contacts and Questions: You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have any question later please feel free to contact Nelson Masanche Nkhoma at 612-709-5025 phone number or e-mail at nkhom002@umn.edu . Also if you want to talk to someone other than the researcher, please feel free to call David Chapman, Birkmaier Professor of Educational Leadership, 310K Wulling Hall 86 Pleasant St S E Minneapolis, MN 55455, Tel: 612-626-8728 Fax: 612-624-3377, Email: chapm026@umn.edu. You will be given a copy of this form to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Name of PI: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Name of Participants: _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Interviewee Background Information: Name, age, sex, level of education, position and name of institution.

I would like to understand your relationship with the university and in what capacity you have been conducting community engagement work. Please describe your relationship with the current university

Motivations for community-engaged scholarship

1. In your own words, please describe what community-engaged scholarship means to you:
2. Why do you perform community-engaged scholarship?
3. What motivates you to perform community-engaged scholarship?
4. Which of the following factors affect your community-engaged scholarship and how?

▪ Age	▪ Region and home district
▪ Gender	▪ Politics
▪ Academic discipline	▪ Religion
▪ Faculty rank	▪ The type of the institution where you are working
▪ Academic qualification	▪ Tribal or regional background

Depth and level of faculty community engagement

1. How would you describe the level of your commitment to faculty community engagement?
2. What incentives attract you to conduct community engagement?
3. What are the disincentives to doing community engagement work?
4. What are challenges of conducting community-engaged scholarship?

Appendix D: IRB Letter of Notification of Approval from Malawi



NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

Lingadzi House
Robert Mugabe Crescent
P/Bag B303
City Centre
Lilongwe

Tel: +265 1 771 550
+265 1 774 189
+265 1 774 869
Fax: +265 1772 431
Email: directorgeneral@ncst.mw
Website: <http://www.ncst.mw>

All communication should be directed to the Director General

REF.NO.NCST/RTT/2/6

27th November, 2013

Dear Mr Nelson Nkhoma

APPROVAL OF THE RESEARCH PROTOCOL ENTITLED COMMUNITY ENGAGED SCHOLARSHIP IN MALAWIAN HOGHER EDUCATION: TOWARDS AN UNDERSTANDING OF WHAT MOTIVATES FACULTY TO CONDUCT COMMUNITY ENGAGED SCHOLARSHIP

Having satisfied all the ethical, scientific and regulatory requirements, procedures and guidelines for the conduct of research in the social sciences sector in Malawi, I am pleased to inform you that the above referred research study has officially been approved. You may now proceed with its implementation. Should there be any amendments to the approved protocol in the course of implementing it, you shall be required to seek approval of such amendments before implementation of the same.

This approval is valid for one year from the date of issuance of this letter. If the study goes beyond one year, an annual approval for continuation shall be required to be sought from the National Committee on Research in the Social Sciences and Humanities in a format that is available at the secretariat.

Wishing you a successful implementation of your study.

Yours sincerely,

M.G Kachedwa
CHIEF RESEARCH SERVICES OFFICER
HEALTH, SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES
For: CHAIRMAN OF NCRSH

Annex- Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

1. Sex

	Frequency	Percent
Male	78	72.2
Female	30	27.8
Total	108	100.0

2. Marital Status

	Frequency	Percent
Married	91	84.3
Single	14	13.0
Divorced	2	1.9
Widowed	1	.9
Total	108	100.0

3. Religion

		Frequency	Percent
	Islam	1	.9
	African tradition	1	.9
	Christianity	102	94.4
	Hinduism	2	1.9
	Other	2	1.9
Missing	System	2	
Total		110	

4. Specify Religion

	Frequency	Percent
Other	107	97.3
Atheist	1	.9
none	2	1.8
Total	110	100.0

5. Region of Origin within Malawi

	Frequency	Percent
Northern Region	28	25.9
Southern Region	39	36.1
Central Region	36	33.3
International	5	4.6
Total	108	100.0
Missing System Total	2	
	110	

6. Faculty Age on Last Birthday

	Frequency	Percent
20-29	5	4.6
30-39	35	32.4
40-49	36	33.3
50-59	23	21.3
60-69	8	7.4
70-79	1	.9
Total	108	100.0
Missing System	2	

Total	110
-------	-----

7. Current Academic Rank

	Frequency	Percent
Staff Associate	4	3.7
Assistant Lecturer	3	2.8
Lecturer Associate	45	41.7
Lecturer	1	.9
Senior Lecturer	28	25.9
Assistant Professor	2	1.9
Associate Professor	11	10.2
Professor	12	11.1
other	2	1.9
Total	108	100.0
Missing System	2	
Total	110	

8. Current Academic Rank Specified

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Other Chief	107	97.3
Technician Extension	1	.9
Dean of Students	1	.9
Public Relations Officer	1	.9

Total	110	100.0
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9. Appointment Status

		Frequency	Valid Percent
	Tenured	23	21.3
	Permanent	77	71.3
	Probation	5	4.6
	Visiting/adjunct	3	2.8
	Total	108	100.0
Missing	System	2	
Total		110	

10. Highest Academic Degree Obtained

		Frequency	Percent
	Bachelors	10	9.1
	Masters	45	40.9
	Doctoral	52	47.3
	other	1	.9
	Total	108	98.2
Missing		2	1.8
Total		110	100.0

11. Type of Institution Where Highest Degree was Earned

	Frequency	Percent
Public Doctoral Institution	80	72.7
Private Doctoral Institution	7	6.4
Comprehensive Post-baccalaureate	12	10.9
Other	9	8.2
Total	108	98.2
Total	110	100.0

12. Type of Institution (Specified)

	Frequency	Percent
Other	101	91.8
Open University	2	1.8
Community College	1	.9
Public University	1	.9
University College	1	.9
Schools Architecture of Paris-Belleville	1	.9
University	1	.9
University College	1	.9
University college	1	.9
Total	110	100.0

13. Place where highest degree was obtained

	Frequency	Percent
North America (America, Canada etc.)	15	13.6
Africa (South Africa, Malawi etc.)	46	41.8
Western Europe (UK, Germany, Holland etc.)	43	39.1
Asia (China, Japan, India etc.)	2	1.8
Oceania (Australia etc.)	2	1.8
Total	108	98.2
Missing	2	1.8
Total	110	100.0

14. Place of highest degree (Specified)

	Frequency	Percent
Other	107	97.3
Nordic Countries	1	.9
Thailand	1	.9
United Kingdom	1	.9
Total	110	100.0

**15. How well do you understand the Concept of Community-Engaged
Scholarship**

	Frequency	Percent
Not at all	5	4.5
Slightly well	12	10.9
Moderately well	35	31.8
Very well	49	44.5
Extremely well	7	6.4
Missing	2	1.8
Total	110	100.0

16. How comfortable are you conducting community-engaged scholarship?

	Frequency	Percent
Not at all	5	4.5
Slightly comfortable	3	2.7
Moderately comfortable	18	16.4
Very comfortable	60	54.5
Extremely comfortable	22	20.0
Missing	2	1.8
Total	110	100.0

17. Have you ever conducted community-engaged scholarship?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	84	76.4
Don't Know	17	15.5
No	7	6.4
Missing	2	1.8
Total	110	100.0

18. How many years have you been involved in community-engaged scholarship?

	Frequency	Percent
0	7	6.4
< 1year	32	29.1
1-5 years	26	23.6
11 - 15 years	9	8.2
15 years - more	10	9.1
Missing	26	23.6
Total	110	100.0

19. What portion of your overall scholarly work do you consider being community-engaged scholarship?

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Less 10%	11	10.0
	11% - 30%	28	25.5
	31% - 50%	23	20.9
	51% - 75%	14	12.7
	76% - 99%	7	6.4
	100%	1	.9
	Missing	26	23.6
	Total	110	100.0