

1 A conceptual framework and research approach to
2 identifying and analysing challenges to the
3 advancement of the pharmacy profession: a case study
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16 **Abstract**

17 *Background:* Pharmacists and healthcare professionals are faced with increasing and changing health
18 care needs around the world. In order to meet these demands, they are required to continuously
19 upgrade and develop their professions. Reprofessionalization drives are therefore crucial to the
20 successful delivery of health services, but traditional theories of the professions provide little practical
21 guidance to evaluating the overall status of a profession.

22 *Objective:* This study proposes a new conceptual framework of three interrelated professional sectors:
23 education, regulation and practice, and uses it to identify and analyse challenges facing the pharmacy
24 profession in Jordan.

25 *Methods:* A multiple-method qualitative study comprised of semi-structured interviews and focus
26 groups was conducted in Amman, Jordan. To explore and identify the challenges, a purposively
27 recruited cross-sector sample of fifty-three key informants, stakeholders and pharmacists were
28 interviewed. Interview transcripts were translated and then analysed using QSR NVivo 10. Thematic
29 analysis identified eight main challenges facing pharmacy in Jordan. The original participants were
30 then invited to participate in focus groups, the purpose of which was to validate the interview
31 findings, map them against the conceptual framework and discuss recommendations for development.

32 *Results:* The eight validated challenges span the following areas: graduates preparedness for practice,
33 pharmacy education accreditation and quality assurance, pre-registration requirements, workforce
34 development, workforce planning, remuneration and wage rate, pharmacy assistants, and PharmD
35 pharmacists. Focus group participants used the framework to map each of the challenges to the
36 primary sector-to-sector disconnect that they perceived to explain it. A list of recommendations
37 addressing each of the challenges was also devised.

38 *Conclusions:* The framework was found to offer valuable insight as an explanatory and diagnostic tool
39 in policy-relevant research. By emphasizing the processual and contextual nature of
40 reprofessionalization, the framework presents an alternative approach to traditional theories. This

41 study also raises important questions regarding the status of pharmacy in Jordan and aims to provide
42 guidance for local development and much-needed reprofessionalization drives.

43 **Keywords**

44 Conceptual framework; profession; reprofessionalization; health profession; pharmacy profession;
45 pharmacy; pharmacy education; pharmacy regulation; pharmacy practice; pharmacy policy; Jordan;
46 Jordanian pharmacists

47 **Introduction**

48 Sociological theorists have long been interested in the theory of professions and what distinguishes
49 them from other occupations. According to an early idealistic ‘normative’ approach to defining a
50 profession, values and ethical codes give the professions their key stabilising function in society^{1,2};but
51 this categorization of an occupation –largely based on unsubstantiated privilege granted by society –
52 was not deemed a sufficient measure for discriminating between occupations.^{3,4}The argument was
53 therefore further expanded by the ‘trait’ approach to include, in addition to a code of ethics, a
54 combined range of defining characteristics or traits (e.g. self-regulation, training, licensing,
55 examinations, and professional associations)^{5,6}; the varied interpretations of the trait approach and its
56 arbitrarily set lists of criteria explain its failure to produce a consensus.⁴ Interactionist views, on the
57 other hand, examine the dynamics of professionalism as a form of service provision rather than a set
58 of traits; this ‘occupational control’ approach argues that professionals deploy exclusive services to
59 exert market control over their occupation.^{3,7,8}Freidson proposed that in addition to this occupational
60 control or ‘dominance’, ‘autonomy’ – or the ability to control one’s work activities – is also needed to
61 give professional power to an occupational group.⁹ Sceptics, however, attribute the narrowing of
62 knowledge gaps and the rise of new and highly-specialised occupations to the decline of these
63 professional powers.^{10,11} Within the theories of professions, there appears to be no unified holistic
64 approach to what constitutes the professionalization of an occupation – or the process of it becoming a
65 profession.

66 ***Professionalization and pharmacy***

67 Throughout these ongoing disagreements, debates and theoretical evolutions, the profession of
68 medicine – firmly rooted in the historic Hippocratic Oath – has always been “the example of choice
69 when sociological theories about the professions were discussed”.¹²As the division of healthcare
70 labour progressed, the professionalization of pharmacy and other healthcare occupations began to
71 increasingly feature in such discussions.^{3,13,14}The story of the professionalization of pharmacists is set
72 within the evolutionary stages of pharmacy practice models. Manufacturing, compounding and
73 distributing medicines were key features of practice in the 19th century; the establishment of sale and

74 supply restriction laws, pharmacy schools and representative associations across Europe, the U.S and
75 Asia signalled the start of professional regulation, official representation, and organized education of
76 pharmacy.¹⁵ The large loss of pharmacists' manufacturing and compounding roles to the advent of the
77 20th century pharmaceutical industry was coupled with the consequential loss of their social purpose
78 as compounders and distributors; hospital pharmacists had more varied activities but as in community
79 practice, the emphasis shifted to the 'product'.¹⁶ These events coincided with pharmacy beginning to
80 feature in discussions- albeit with negative connotations- on sociological theories of the professions.

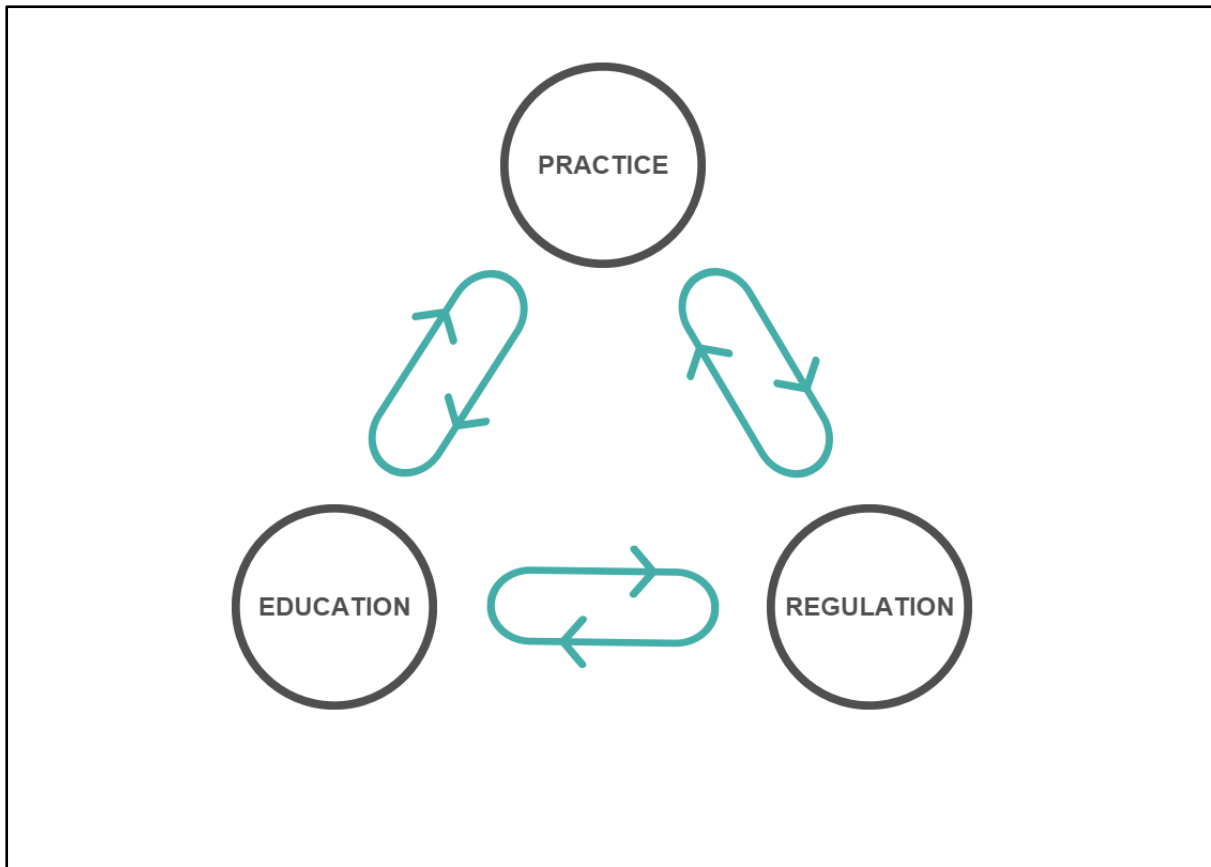
81 Despite pharmacists gaining occupational control over their service through preventing the
82 unqualified from dispensing medicines, the pharmacy profession has historically been considered
83 subordinate to the medical profession and its professional status has often been questioned. In his
84 1964 essay, 'The Professionalization of Everyone?', Wilensky critically examines the "heroic
85 struggles" of some occupations to join the rank of "clearly recognized and organised" professions and
86 describes pharmacy as a "borderline" profession ancillary to medicine.¹³ Medical sociologists Denzin
87 and Mettlin similarly argued for the "incomplete professionalization" of pharmacists and partly owed
88 their allegedly failed "attempt to turn themselves from ordinary occupations into the prestigious
89 groupings called professions" because of their lack of control on medicine, their social
90 object.¹⁷ Freidson also agreed by concluding that pharmacy is "firmly subordinated to medicine" due to
91 the inability of pharmacists to diagnose diseases and prescribe medicines, which compromises their
92 professional 'autonomy' according to him.⁹ However, the provision of drug information and
93 medication counselling by community pharmacists and the addition of clinical pharmacy to hospital
94 settings would eventually redefine the essence of practice and somewhat neutralise the negative
95 effects of the manufacturing industry.¹⁶ These developments formed the backdrop to the introduction
96 of Hepler and Strand's concept of pharmaceutical care.¹⁸ Shortly after, Dingwall and Wilson firmly
97 reject Denzin and Mettlin's claims, counter-arguing that pharmacy's social object is not the medicine
98 itself but rather its median role for social change.¹⁹ Despite these developments, the 'quasi'-status of
99 pharmacy as a profession – as defined by the traditional sense of the word – still holds in
100 contemporary literature.^{20,21}

101 ***Towards a new approach***

102 The field of health professions is not static and shifts continuously as health care systems and the role
103 of health care professionals develop and adapt over time; and many of the assumptions underlying the
104 traditional professions theories do not survive the dynamic climate of health care.⁴ Pharmacists are
105 continuously faced with increasingly demanding and complex healthcare needs and advancing
106 technologies, forcing them to constantly re-evaluate their current practice models and envision future
107 ones.²² According to Birenbaum²³, these continuous efforts to upgrade and develop the status of
108 pharmacy within changing health care environments is referred to as reprofessionalization. Reform
109 drives in the name of reprofessionalization have become a recurring feature of literature; the topic is
110 examined through several lenses such as extending practice roles^{20,24,25}, advancing educational
111 models²⁶⁻²⁸, and reviewing existing regulatory systems.^{29,30} Birenbaum concedes that theoretical
112 frameworks “fail to recognize the interactive and contextual nature of the development of the
113 professions”.²³ According to Annandale³¹, the relationship between theory and research is also
114 reciprocal where “extant theories gradually fall out of fit with societies as they change and new
115 approaches are called for”. This presents a structural problem for research aiming to identify
116 challenges affecting the advancement of a profession and to assess if it’s time to reprofessionalize an
117 occupation, without relying on or associating with ephemeral definitions that supposedly determine its
118 professionalization. The paper presents an alternative approach to the traditional theories of the
119 professions and professionalization. It describes a simple conceptual framework that redefines what
120 constitutes a professional arena and tests it in a case study conducted on pharmacy in Jordan.

121 ***The conceptual framework***

122 The conceptual framework describes that in any professional arena, there is a dynamic and complex
123 interplay between the education, regulation and practice sectors. The framework was developed by
124 author Michael J. Rouse in the early 2000's as a result of his work with the Accreditation Council for
125 Pharmacy Education (ACPE), the U.S. national accreditation agency for pharmacy education. The
126 conceptual framework, used widely in presentations, was intended to depict the separation of the
127 entities responsible for education, practice and regulation, but at the same time the dynamic
128 relationships that exist between the sectors, working in collaboration to advance the profession. It was
129 first published in Version 1 of the Global Framework for Quality Assurance of Pharmacy Education –
130 adopted by the International Pharmaceutical Federation (FIP) in 2008. FIP is the largest global body
131 representing pharmacy and pharmaceutical sciences and whose goal is to support the development of
132 the pharmacy profession. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between the three principal components
133 of the framework. 'Practice' refers to the sector of the profession that provides a broad range of
134 services to society in and from a variety of settings. 'Regulation' refers to the sector – within and/or
135 outside the profession – that determines and enforces the statutory requirements for the organization
136 and practice of pharmacy. 'Education' refers to the sector of the profession that prepares the members
137 of the pharmacy workforce for practice; i.e. both pre-service education and continuing education (CE)
138 /continuing professional development (CPD).



139

140 **Figure 1 A conceptual framework depicting the dynamic relationships between practice, regulation and education.**

141 **(International Pharmaceutical Federation 2014, adapted with permission)**

142 The framework depicts that there should exist a dynamic relationship between its components or
143 sectors – even a ‘tension’ – constantly driving change and advancement. The separation also provides
144 for ‘checks and balances’ whereby a ‘push’ from one side can be checked (even opposed) by the other
145 sector, with some positioning back and forth until something that works in the best interests of the
146 profession and the public becomes the agreed ‘end point’. The possible negative impact of a lack of
147 separation (the absence of checks and balances) between these three sectors may lead to stagnation or
148 conflict-of-interest; ‘self-regulation’, for example, can be used to illustrate this effect and will be
149 discussed in this paper. At the same time, however, it is important to ensure that at no stage do any of
150 the separations depicted get too wide, thereby creating a disconnect, which may lead to dissatisfaction
151 or frustration. If, for example, pharmacy educators teach for a model that is not supported by
152 practitioners and/or regulators, graduates may become disillusioned if the practice or regulatory
153 environment does not allow them to practice in the manner conveyed by the academic programme.

154 Developments and innovations in any of these professional domains may lead, drive or require an
155 appropriately measured response from another, but there must always be that dynamic interplay of
156 ‘checks and balances’. Failure to make needed changes by one sector can – and should be – challenged
157 by the other sectors in the profession. For example, changes in practice needs may force appropriate
158 changes to be made in education, and new regulations will impose new effects on the practice
159 environment. A proper push-pull fit between these professional domains is crucial to not only
160 maintaining the integrity of the profession, but to also advancing it. Similarly, any disconnect between
161 them destabilises their harmony and may prove, to varying degrees, detrimental to the overall state of
162 the profession. Existing challenges hindering the advancement of a profession may also be better
163 understood by tracing them back to their corresponding ‘disconnected’ axes; for instance,
164 noncompliance to dispensing laws can be traced to a primary disconnect between ‘regulation’ and
165 ‘practice’ owed to the weak implementation of dispensing regulations in community practice. This
166 additional diagnostic or formative feature of the framework allows it to be a practical analytical tool
167 in policy-relevant prescriptive studies.

168 ***The pharmacy scene in Jordan***

169 Modern pharmacy practice in the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan – or Jordan – can be traced to the
170 1930s and the first independent community pharmacy opened in 1946.³² The Jordan Pharmaceutical
171 Association (JPA) was established in 1957 but the JPA Law 1972 was the primary legislation that
172 enabled its present role as a statutory regulatory and registration body; in addition, the JPA also acts as
173 the principal professional body representing, promoting and developing the pharmacy profession in
174 Jordan. The regulation of pharmacy in Jordan is a complex amalgam of statutory frameworks carried
175 out by separate entities but one that can be broadly categorized as state-sanctioned self-
176 regulation.³ Pharmacy practice is governed by the JPA’s Drug and Pharmacy Law 2001 and the
177 Ministry of Health’s Public Health Act 2008, Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances Law 1988
178 and various sets of statutory rules. The registration of pharmacy premises and the inspection of
179 medicines and medical devices are the administrative responsibilities of the Ministry of Health and
180 Jordan Food and Drug Administration, respectively. The JPA defines the pharmacist as “any person

181 holding a degree in pharmacy from an accredited university in the Kingdom, and registered in the
182 pharmacists register with the Association and authorized by the Ministry to practice this profession".³³
183 Registration with the JPA is thus mandatory and pre-registration requirements include the successful
184 completion of an accredited pharmacy degree, 1440 hours of training and the JPA's licensing
185 examination. There are currently 15 universities in Jordan that offer the five-year Bachelor of Science
186 (B.Sc.) in Pharmacy and two of them also offer a six-year Doctor of Pharmacy (PharmD) degree; the
187 B.Sc. is considered the main national programme, but both degrees qualify as an entry requirement
188 and are accredited by the Higher Education Accreditation Commission (HEAC).³⁴ To maintain their
189 registration status, pharmacists are required to pay annual fees to the JPA. There are no mandatory CE
190 or CPD requirements of pharmacists, nor are there any post-licensure revalidation mechanisms in
191 place. The majority of pharmacists work in the private sector³⁵, and the various practice settings in
192 Jordan include community pharmacies, hospital pharmacy, the manufacturing industry,
193 pharmaceutical wholesalers and distributors (locally referred to as drugstores), academic institutions,
194 professional and regulatory bodies, research and consultancy companies as well as other
195 governmental and intergovernmental organisations.

196 At face value, pharmacy in Jordan is thriving: (1) Jordan is a leading global pharmaceutical industry
197 exporter and regional medical tourism destination^{36,37}; and (2) in the decade leading up to 2015, the
198 number of community pharmacies increased by 50%, exceeding 2200 pharmacies, (3) the total number
199 of licensed pharmacy schools have doubled bringing the total to 15 (5 public and 10 private), and (4)
200 the active workforce has also nearly doubled to about 12,000 pharmacists.^{32,38} Underlying these
201 quantitative growths, concurrently published literature on pharmacy practice paints a less bright
202 picture and reports a number of challenges. Despite community pharmacies being considered the most
203 accessible health care facility³², pharmaceutical care provision in Jordan continues to suffer from
204 limitations.^{32,39} Community pharmacists fully support the concept of pharmaceutical care, but a number
205 of barriers to its implementation have been reported such as inadequacies in pharmaceutical care
206 training and poor physician-pharmacist communication.⁴⁰ Despite the introduction of the patient care-
207 oriented Pharm D programme in 2000, these concerns are also echoed in the hospital setting where the

208 importance of the role of pharmacists in hospital settings is still questioned among physicians in
209 Jordan who view pharmacists within the traditional role and resist accepting or recognising newer
210 pharmacy clinical services.⁴¹ The negative dynamics of the pharmacist-physician relationship have
211 also been identified as a factor resulting in stress and low job satisfaction among a cross-sector sample
212 of pharmacists; other factors were reported to be the lack of formal career progression and
213 development due in part to the absence of CPD/CE.⁴² Additionally, a poor public image of the
214 pharmacist³², limited pharmacist-patient interactions⁴³, and deficiencies in pharmacists'
215 communication and patient counselling skills have been found.⁴⁴ The non-strict enforcement of
216 regulations in pharmacy practice has also been documented; existing classification and dispensing
217 laws are not strictly enforced and, as such, patients can buy any medication without prescription –
218 with the exception of controlled narcotics and major tranquilisers.³² One study also reported that it is
219 not uncommon to find unsupervised pharmacy assistants unlawfully running pharmacies and
220 supplying medications to patients.⁴⁵ This absence of strict enforcement of dispensing laws not only
221 sheds light on a regulations problem, but also means that pharmacists and pharmacy assistants are
222 entrusted with an unofficial but common responsibility of 'prescribing' that is outside of the realm of
223 their expertise.⁴⁶ This example demonstrates that these and other unknown problems found in
224 pharmacy in Jordan are not merely a professional and status concern, but are potentially detrimental to
225 the health and safety of the public. Therefore, understanding the underlying patterns leading to these
226 issues as well as identifying any other challenges in Jordan is a priority area for investigation.

227 ***Purpose of this study***

228 The present study is the first attempt at filling the gaps by identifying the key challenges that are
229 currently hampering the advancement of the pharmacy profession in Jordan. Using Jordan as a case
230 study, the authors incorporated the conceptual framework into the study's design and analysis, and
231 examined its value as an explanatory and formative tool for understanding the uncovered challenges
232 and devising needs-based strategies to address them. The authors use the experiences from their multi-
233 method, participant-centric research approach to discuss the framework's benefits and implications
234 for reprofessionalization drives by researchers and stakeholders.

235 **Methods**

236 *Study design and setting*

237 Qualitative research generates rich information and is ideally suited for exploratory studies of under-
238 researched topics such as this one⁴⁷, and multiple-methods are particularly recommended for policy-
239 relevant social pharmacy research.⁴⁸This qualitative study was conducted in Jordan's capital city,
240 Amman, and adopted a multiple-method approach comprised of semi-structured interviews and focus
241 groups. The interviews were conducted between October 2013 and May 2014 and their purpose was
242 to explore and identify the challenges facing pharmacy in Jordan. The focus groups were carried out
243 in May of the following year; original participants from the interview stage participated in the focus
244 groups to validate the interview findings and map them against the conceptual framework. LRB
245 recruited participants, collected all data and conducted the validation focus groups. LRB, CL and SM
246 were involved in the analytical process. This project received approval from the 'anonymised'.

247

248 ***Study participants***

249 A sample of fifty-three key informants, relevant policymakers and pharmacy professionals were
250 recruited. A purposive snowballing sampling approach was employed to enhance sample coverage
251 and facilitate access⁴⁹, the latter of particular pertinence in a culture that relies heavily on social
252 connections and influential intermediaries and where informal and formal gatekeepers play a crucial
253 role in recruitment.⁵⁰ The participants spanned all sectors of Jordanian pharmacy practice: community
254 pharmacy (both independent and chain), hospital pharmacy, the manufacturing industry, the academic
255 sector (i.e. pharmacy schools), professional and regulatory bodies (e.g. JPA), research and
256 consultancy companies (e.g. clinical contract research, training and development), and governmental
257 and intergovernmental organisations (e.g. Ministry of Health, HEAC). Table 1 lists the number of
258 participants by sector. Recruited participants included individuals with senior and middle
259 management positions (e.g. business owners; sector representatives; deans) as well as employees (e.g.
260 recent graduates; practitioners; public servants). All but 7 of the participants are pharmacists by
261 background and 29 (55%) of them female.

262

Sector	Number of participants
Community	7
Hospital	3
Manufacturing industry	3
Wholesale and distribution (drugstores)	12
Academia	8
Professional and regulatory bodies	5
Research and consultancy	6
Governmental and intergovernmental organisations	9
Total	53

263 **Table 1** Sector distribution of study participants.

264

265 ***Data collection***

266 The data was collected by the lead author, LRB, a Jordanian pharmacist and doctoral researcher who
267 received training in qualitative data collection. Potential participants were initially contacted by phone
268 and invited to take part in the study. Arrangements were made with those who agreed and the
269 interviews were usually conducted at the participants' place of work. Before commencing the
270 interview, every participant was given an information sheet about the study and a consent form to read
271 and sign, respectively. The interviews were audio-recorded and field notes were also taken. The
272 interviews were semi-structured and participants were asked open questions about challenges they
273 face in their respective practice area(s), their views on pharmacy education and graduate preparedness
274 for practice, and their opinions regarding the current state of the profession and its leadership (see
275 Appendix 1). A semi-structured guide provided a balance between respondent freedom and
276 interviewer control and was ideally suited for the exploratory aims of the interviews.^{51,52} To maximise
277 her reflexivity, LRB completed a self-reflection form almost immediately after each interview; the
278 researcher critically reflected on her interaction with every participant noting her thoughts, feelings
279 and decisions as researcher and interviewer and acknowledging her centrality to the research.^{53,54} In
280 providing an auditable record of the research process, such reflective practices are used to maintain
281 transparency and methodological rigour.^{55,56} Reflective writing also helped in detecting re-emergent
282 themes and assisted the researcher in recognising theoretical saturation and eventually determining
283 sample size.⁵⁷ The point of saturation, or when no new information was obtained from data collection,
284 was reached after the 50th interview; no new ideas emerged from the following three interviews.⁵⁸

285 ***Data translation***

286 The interviews were conducted in the source language (Arabic). Because LRB was the only one in the
287 research team to share the same language and culture as the participants, translating the interviews to
288 the target language (English) was necessary for the involvement of the rest of the team in analysing the
289 data and disseminating the findings. Effective translation in cross-language research is critical to the
290 interpretation of the data and integrity of the results and steps to ensure the conceptual equivalence of
291 the translations were taken.^{59,60} Interview recordings were transcribed verbatim by an assigned local
292 transcriber who is familiar with pharmaceutical terms; LRB checked the transcripts for accuracy before
293 forward translating them (from Arabic₁ to English₁). A translation lexicon or glossary of key and
294 recurring words was devised to ensure consistency throughout the process⁵⁹; it was certified by a local
295 professional translator. Back-translation is one of the most common and highly recommended
296 methods of evaluating conceptual equivalence between source and target versions.^{61,62} Therefore ten
297 full transcripts of the translated interviews were randomly selected and back-translated (from English₁
298 to Arabic₂) by an independent bilingual pharmacist and researcher; at least one interview was selected
299 from every sector group. LRB and the back-translator compared the back-translations (Arabic₂) with
300 the original transcripts (Arabic₁) to assess whether there was any loss of equivalence or
301 misinterpretation during the initial translation. After conducting the review, both the researcher and
302 back-translator found no discrepancies and agreed that the back-translations accurately reflected the
303 original meanings of the text. The researchers (LRB, CL, SM) decided that there was no need for
304 further translation verification measures.

305

306 ***Data analysis***

307 The translated interview transcripts were analysed thematically using the qualitative data analysis
308 software NVivo 10. The thematic analysis followed the six steps laid out by Braun and Clark: (1)
309 familiarizing oneself with the data, then (2) generating the initial codes, followed by (3) searching for
310 themes, (4) reviewing them, (5) naming and defining them, before finally (6) writing-up the
311 report.⁶³Initial coding of the entire data set was carried out by LRB who has familiarized herself with
312 the interview data through translating them, checking the transcripts against the audio-recordings,
313 reading and rereading the transcripts, and noting down her initial ideas. The initial codes were
314 produced in an inductive manner, meaning they were driven by the data and not by any pre-
315 existing coding frames or theories. To reduce the risks of subjectivity, multiple-coding was
316 employed⁴⁹; CL and SM separately analysed segments of text and checked them against the initially
317 assigned codes to identify any disagreements and to further refine the coding framework. LRB
318 collated the codes into potential themes, and the three researchers met on several occasions to discuss,
319 review and name the themes; a thematic map was generated and used throughout these discussions to
320 illustrate the themes and their relationships and check whether they work consistently with coded
321 extracts and the overall data set. During the last comparison of analyses, the researchers all agreed
322 upon a final set of eight themes, with each theme representing a separate challenge area. The
323 challenges were summarised in preparation for participant validation.

324 ***Data validation and mapping***

325 ‘Participant or respondent validation/follow-up’, ‘backtalk’ or ‘member checking’: all describe the
326 process of “cross checking research findings with participants”.⁴⁹ Participant validation helps maintain
327 the analytic rigour of the research process, refine explanations, display participant respect, and ensure
328 the continuity of stakeholder-engagement (especially significant in policy-relevant research sensitive
329 to de-contextualisation).^{57,64-66} Participant validation was carried out in this study to primarily assess
330 whether the researchers’ interpretation of the data are true to the participants’ perceptions, thereby
331 increasing the interpretive validity of the study.⁶⁷ Individually reporting results to participants
332 presented several time and resource constraints so the use of focus groups was deemed the most
333 logistically effective and methodologically complementary form of generating collective participant
334 feedback. Email invitations were sent to all 53 participants inviting them to participate in the focus
335 groups. A total of 13 (25%) participants took part in two focus groups ($n_1=6$, $n_2=7$); both sessions ran
336 in the same order (see Appendix 2). LRB presented and described the 8 challenges. Every challenge
337 was then discussed among the group to validate its accuracy in terms of whether they think it fairly
338 and reasonably represents the situation as they perceive it.⁶⁸ Both groups validated the identified
339 challenges and agreed that no changes, omissions or additions were needed. Participants were then
340 asked to take part in an exercise in which each of them was handed a printout sheet with an enlarged
341 image of the conceptual framework (identical to that in Figure 1.1). A numbered list of the challenges
342 was displayed on a large screen. They were then asked to assign each challenge to the axis they
343 believed reflected the primary disconnect leading to it. To ensure their understanding of the task,
344 several fictional examples were presented before commencing the exercise. This form of mapping
345 offered a creative and participant-centric means to ground the participants’ perceptions within the
346 framework.⁶⁹ After completing the activity, the researcher facilitated a group discussion in which the
347 participants’ answers on each challenge were discussed and debated. Additional attention and time was
348 especially given to answers contradictory to the majority. Discussions continued until unanimous
349 agreement was reached on the most suitable answer, and complementary solutions and
350 recommendations were proposed and collated. A secondary aim of this participant validation process

351 was to allow the participants to raise any relevant professional issues or updates that may have
352 developed in the time elapsed since their interviews. Some participants shared new information about
353 the scene in Jordan (e.g. upcoming law changes), but no new major themes emerged and the list of
354 challenges was retained.

355 **Results**

356 *Interview findings*

357 Thematic analysis of interview data resulted in eight major themes describing the following challenge
358 areas: graduates preparedness for practice, the quality assurance and accreditation of pharmacy
359 education, pharmacy pre-registration requirements, workforce development, workforce planning,
360 pharmacist remuneration and wage rate, pharmacy assistants, and PharmDpharmacists.

361 *Challenge area #1: graduates preparedness for practice*

362 The participants, and particularly employers from across all sectors, reported that recent pharmacy
363 graduates – or newly registered pharmacists – are generally unprepared for practice, citing a gap in
364 implementation between theory and practice as the main factor. According to a training and
365 development manager of a pharmacy chain: *“There is a very huge gap between here [practice] and*
366 *there [education], and there is a gap between pure scientific information and translating it into*
367 *benefits and features for the customer.”* One manager at a wholesale and distribution company
368 similarly describes this issue: *“There is no link between science and business. That’s very clear and*
369 *we can see this when we conduct our interviews [with graduates].”* A newly registered pharmacist
370 who works in wholesale and distribution also captured this: *“They [pharmacy schools] need to*
371 *incorporate practice more which is a very important aspect for pharmacy.”* There is a general
372 consensus that this issue is mainly linked to the quality of the taught curricula which was described as
373 being traditionally science-focused and largely theory-based. Employers also reported a number of
374 skills that they perceive as generally lacking from the graduates they come across. All sectors
375 complained of gaps in interpersonal skills (e.g. communication skills) as well as analytical and critical
376 thinking skills. In community, patient counselling was also lacking. The industry and regulatory affairs
377 sectors mainly report shortages in practical knowledge in laboratory analytical skills and technical
378 knowledge on basic regulatory and drug registration concepts, respectively. A wholesale and
379 distribution sector representative illustrated this: *“The skills or knowledge that the student acquires in*
380 *this field [regulatory] is very superficial. It doesn’t give room for the student, after five years of*
381 *university- and five years is a long time- to even know what his or her future career specialty or main*
382 *orientation is.”* This additional aspect of the lack of career direction or awareness of the different
383 pharmacy sectors was also reported by a number of the participants who claim that this explains why
384 many new pharmacists often switch between a range practice settings and jobs upon entering the
385 market.

386 *Challenge area #2: pharmacy education accreditation and quality assurance*

387 Academics highlight a different challenge in the field of pharmacy education. Pharmacy schools
388 deans describe the current curricular accreditation standards imposed by HEIAC to be restrictive with
389 a science-centric scope, resulting in rigid, science-based curricula. This effect was described by a
390 private school dean as: *“There are decent systems in higher education that the Accreditation*
391 *Commission put to conserve the reputation of higher education and preserve these specialities.*
392 *Unfortunately, on the other hand, there are some restrictions that hinder the freedom of the way*
393 *deans and stakeholders should think about developing the programmes.”* There is also a reported
394 variation in the way private and public schools undergo accreditation and quality assurance (QA);
395 with private schools apparently subject to stricter processes while regulations are somehow more
396 ‘relaxed’ for their public counterparts. Another private school dean reported this as: *“If I want [the*
397 *curriculum] to be unique in anyway, I can’t because the accreditation won’t allow me. So the*
398 *accreditation standards are enforced on me and the other schools, but the public schools are exempt*
399 *for an unknown reason.”* A HEIAC spokesperson countered this: *“We enforce our standards on*
400 *everyone but the public universities have excuses, one of which is the admission system they have. The*
401 *[student intake] numbers come to them through the Ministry of Higher Education, so the numbers are*
402 *enforced upon them. For example, if the university requests 2000 students, they are sent 4000. So how*
403 *can I apply the same restrictions?”* Another topic discussed by participants, both academics and non-
404 academics, was The Pharmacy Assistant Bridging Programme (PABP). The PABP allows a Pharmacy
405 Assistant Diploma (PAD) holder to enrol into a Bachelor of Pharmacy programme. Participants
406 reported that the admission processes of the PABP and PAD are commonly known to be unregulated,
407 allowing individuals who did not meet the stipulated entry requirements to enter the programmes and
408 eventually the profession. Some participants view the entire PABP as a threat to the profession; one
409 drugstore owner expressed this strong opposition to it as: *“They need to stop the Bridging! Why can’t*
410 *the nurse study further and become a doctor, or the surveyor an engineer?! Why are they allowed to*
411 *become pharmacists?!”*

412 *Challenge area #3: pre-registration requirements*

413 Participants expressed alarmed concern about the organization and regulation of pre-registration
414 training. One chief operating officer of a pharmacy chain described this as: *“Training is the number
415 one major issue on which there is hardly any focus and there is barely any regulation. It’s extremely
416 unorganized and there is no follow-up and it’s harming them [the trainees].”* Others described how it
417 is widespread practice – and common knowledge – for pre-registration trainees not to complete their
418 mandatory 1440 hours of training. Trainees are required to provide evidence to the JPA that they’ve
419 completed their training to be able to register, and this is usually done by providing a signed statement
420 (or more if conducted in more than one site) from the supervising pharmacist confirming the number
421 of hours the trainee completed. It was reported that the forging of training statements is common
422 practice. One recent graduate who works as a community pharmacist illustrates this: *“Some people
423 tell you: ‘Don’t worry, I can arrange it [the statement] for you.’ So you say to yourself, why should I
424 do the training? They need to be more strict when it comes to pre-registration training; because no
425 one trains. None of us trained. Because if we had actually trained, we would have entered the
426 workplace with some understanding; it would have made a difference.”* This is not a new
427 phenomenon; a vice president of a drugstore reflected: *“Training should be more controlled. I
428 remember even back when I graduated the training wasn’t so controlled and anyone can sign a
429 training slip without actual training, to be honest. We just had to get a pharmacist’s signature.”* There
430 are currently no official training frameworks or validation mechanisms in place; but a JPA
431 spokesperson explained that the introduction of the pre-licensing examination in 2011 was in part a
432 responsive measure to this training issue and its aim is to filter out unqualified pharmacists:
433 *“Whether they trained or not, whether the statement is real or fake, if they pass the exam, then at least
434 they know something. They must have walked into a pharmacy during their lives.”* The examination is
435 not viewed as a rigorous entry requirement though. According to a managing director of a drugstore,
436 *“It’s a very simple one. It should be a proper exam, one that would require them to revise everything
437 they’ve studied. Because you want to guarantee that those who enter the market are of quality and
438 qualified. Other than that, the reputation of the profession will be ruined and so will be the market.”*

439 *Challenge area #4: workforce development*

440 The fourth theme emerged from an issue that was commonly recurring in the interviews: the complete
441 absence of mandatory CPD and/or CE requirements of pharmacists, as well as of any post-licensure
442 revalidation systems. A senior pharmacist and researcher from the Ministry of Health (MoH)
443 described this as: *“There is no national mandatory continuing pharmacy education system. We have
444 no re-licensing processes. My license could be 50 years old without a change. The medics on the
445 other hand have a Higher Medical Council that regulates continuing education. We are fighting and
446 battling to have a similar pharmacy council that would stipulate systems for continuing education.”*
447 There is significant frustration with the situation, with considerable blame directed at the JPA for not
448 taking measures to ensure its members’ fitness to practice. A director working in the manufacturing
449 industry captures this frustration: *“The JPA should have a stronger role. We have been talking about
450 continuing education for about a million years now!”* Another MoH pharmacist voiced her discontent:
451 *“This [lack of CPD] is the first big flaw! And whose responsibility is this? The JPA’s!”* Pharmacists
452 have been actively calling for the establishment of a JPA-commissioned pharmacy board or council
453 that would address and oversee the issue. According to the JPA, systemic bureaucracy and difficulties
454 in implementing legislative measures have been to blame for the lack of tangible progress by its
455 existing CPD/CE Working Committee; a spokesperson explained: *“Unfortunately it’s taking a lot of
456 time because it needs... It’s a law by itself so it needs legislation. That’s the part we’re working on;
457 unfortunately it’s going to take a long time.”* Private sector employers have taken initiatives involving
458 the creation and deployment of in-house assessment systems; a community pharmacy training
459 manager illustrated an example: *“Our problem in the country is that we don’t have any certification
460 body to certify your license; once you’re licensed, you’re licensed... So you feel that there is no
461 difference between those who had just graduated and what they’re like ten years after graduation,
462 which is a disaster. The pharmacist is not developing. So to keep up with that, we did something, an
463 internal policy, to enforce on everyone. We haven’t got a certification board or a re-licensing system
464 so we made it part of our promotion criteria.”*

465 *Challenge area #5: workforce planning*

466 In light of the concurrent surge in the number of pharmacy schools and the absence of workforce
467 planning strategies, the ensuing growth in the workforce posed another concern for some pharmacists.
468 A pharmacist who owns an independent pharmacy said: *“Well this is what they call random planning!
469 This is not acceptable really. At whose expense will this be? Will it be at the expense of the society?
470 Or will it be at the expense of the pharmacy society later on? Or is it at the expense of quality the [of
471 graduates]? What will happen when in the future the supply exceeds the demand?”* Some insist
472 that controlling student intake be considered. A senior MoH pharmacist and researcher described
473 this: *“There are no accurate studies as to how many pharmacists Jordan needs. In the past, it used to
474 be just the Bachelor degree and now we have the PharmD degree as well... Like I said there should
475 be planning for the profession: a plan for how many students to teach and how many graduates we
476 need.”* According to one public pharmacy school dean, no new pharmacy schools should open; in
477 describing this, he also highlights an underlying issue regarding the JPA’s role in influencing
478 pharmacy higher education policy: *“It is best that we do stop [opening new schools]. From my
479 knowledge and managerial experience, I don’t think it will work without pressure from the JPA.
480 Unfortunately, the JPA is not practicing any regulatory role on education nor does it contribute to it;
481 it has absolutely no relationship with education.”* In contrast, other participants think that focus should
482 be turned to actively creating cross-sector job opportunities for pharmacists rather than controlling the
483 supply-side. This is also the JPA’s view according to one spokesperson: *“I’m not saying we should
484 cap the number of students or reduce them, I’m not with that. Let them study pharmacy if they want to
485 but I think we need to work more on creating job opportunities for them.”* Contrasting but
486 unsubstantiated views among participants also emerged on the workforce’s employment rate. On the
487 one hand, some argued that the continued uncontrolled supply of pharmacists will exacerbate an
488 already looming unemployment crisis. Opposing viewers deny an underlying problem in
489 unemployment.

490 *Challenge area #6: remuneration and wage rate*

491 Participants report that pharmacists are routinely paid below the officially-stipulated rate by the JPA
492 (\approx \$423-494 US Dollars/month for community pharmacists). A senior pharmacist in a private hospital
493 described this: *"I mean until now, there are pharmacists who take 150JDs [\approx \$211] especially in rural*
494 *areas. If there was a strong syndicate, it would be able to enforce its laws through the Parliament and*
495 *Ministry [of Labour], and then no one would dare overstep the pharmacist... The JPA shouldn't allow*
496 *transgressions on the salary issue. Pharmacists should be able to report on employers who pay less*
497 *and the JPA should be ready to punish and enforce but you know how it is, it's all connections and*
498 *people knowing each other."* A training manager at a community pharmacy chain also discussed the
499 issue of underpayment: *"We hear a lot about people especially those working in the provinces whose*
500 *salaries are 80, 90, or 120 JDs. So there is no good support from the JPA. I don't feel at all that there*
501 *is any support... There is a conflict of interest by those in charge of the JPA. I mean if I own a*
502 *drugstore or a pharmacy I will influence many things."*The participant was referring the JPA's
503 organisational structure, in which the majority of the governing Council's seats are reserved for
504 pharmacy and drugstore owners; participants argue that, by making up part of the Council, business
505 owners are thus positioned to influence policies in such a way that may not represent the best interests
506 of the employed workforce. The business department head of a drugstore explains: *"There are*
507 *problems in the profession which stem from the JPA in my opinion. The profession here is politicized.*
508 *I mean drugstore owners have a slice. Pharmacy owners have it too. Private pharmacies also have*
509 *their own sector. So the profession starts from the top of the pyramid with those who are supposed to*
510 *represent the profession and who, I believe, look out for their own personal interests - which is their*
511 *main driver."*Both employees and employers have complained that the current minimum rate has
512 been set arbitrarily and is too low in the context of rising prices and living costs. The chief executive
513 officer of a pharmacy chain said: *"The minimum salary is generally low... this is frustrating to many*
514 *extents."*

515 *Challenge area #7: pharmacy assistants*

516 The seventh challenge area describes the issues reported about pharmacy assistants. The first is their
517 deregulation. Besides the Diploma, pharmacy assistants aren't required to complete any more
518 requirements before practice, training or otherwise. Additionally, there is no registration body for
519 pharmacy assistants and thus no practice license to be given. According to a participant from the
520 MoH's Health Professions and Licensing Directorate, pharmacy assistants were deregulated in 2000;
521 the participant described the negative consequences of deregulating pharmacy assistants and indicated
522 that it was fuelled by "professional politics": "*There used to be control before, whereby you couldn't*
523 *practice without approval from the Minister. Now all you need is to pass the examination. Whether*
524 *you trained or not, no one can control you. The label 'pharmacy assistant' was dropped from the*
525 *Public Health Act and the JPA's Drug and Pharmacy Law. This is professional politics. They felt that*
526 *the pharmacy assistant is an intruder into their profession.*" Indeed, many pharmacists view pharmacy
527 assistants in a negative light and consider them "intruders" onto the pharmacy profession; one
528 independent pharmacy owner captures this shared sentiment: "*We have a lot of intruders in the*
529 *profession and these are the pharmacy assistants.*" They described how professional boundaries are
530 overstepped through the illegal dispensing of medicines by pharmacy assistants; while only registered
531 pharmacists are allowed to dispense medicines, participants described how common it is to find
532 pharmacy assistants not only dispensing to patients, but in some instances running pharmacies alone.
533 An independent pharmacy owner describes this: "*Legally they [pharmacy assistants] shouldn't*
534 *[dispense] but if you go around pharmacies after 5 pm, especially in the downtown, you wouldn't find*
535 *pharmacists. You would find pharmacy assistants.*" The MoH's licensing directorate employee raised
536 another important notion: "*Now let's talk about who has real impact. Let's assume doctors stopped*
537 *working. The whole of Jordan would stop. The same goes for nurses. But if pharmacists were to stop*
538 *working? Pharmacy assistants will simply replace them.*"

539 *Challenge area #8: PharmD pharmacists*

540 The B.Sc. and the PharmD are viewed by the participants as two entry-level degrees in a practice
541 environment that is essentially the same for both. The unclear role of PharmD graduates within the
542 Jordanian national health system force many to share the same jobs of those with a B.Sc. One PharmD
543 graduate described her own situation: *“I am a PharmD graduate and there is no work in hospitals.
544 PharmD, at the moment, is not active as a field. I don’t like to work in a pharmacy; I trained there
545 and I didn’t like it. I wanted to work in a hospital but didn’t find one to work in. I tried being a
546 medical representative but I didn’t like roaming around in the streets so I felt that this [regulatory
547 affairs] is nice, but it has nothing to do with what we studied, absolutely nothing.”* According to the
548 participants, there are far less clinical and hospital positions than there are PharmD graduates. A
549 representative of a national pharmacy student association posed the following: *“How can you, as an
550 educational provider, start a programme when you didn’t communicate with business owners to
551 discuss job creation?”* Additionally, interprofessional tension between physicians and pharmacists
552 continues to form a barrier for the level of integration required for proper pharmaceutical care
553 provision. A pharmacist manager at a sales and marketing company raised this issue: *“Whoever
554 suggested the PharmD programme... should have done full awareness campaigns to the hospitals so
555 that each hospital knows the importance of the PharmD pharmacist and so the doctors themselves
556 know that this is a partner: someone who will stand by your side and work with you. Until now, their
557 view of them is quite bad.”* There are ongoing efforts by the JPA to help secure permanent positions
558 for some Pharm. D. graduates mainly through arranging temporary hospital posts in the hope of them
559 becoming permanent and in some cases sharing their wages with employers; a JPA spokesperson
560 indicated that this has had positive effects so far: *“Slowly once they [physicians] get used to them
561 [pharmacists], they will realise that these pharmacists are good and that they help; then they won’t be
562 able to dispense them. We’ve seen this happening in one of the hospitals. They started with 1
563 [pharmacist] and now they have 10.”*

564 ***Focus group findings***

565 The eight main challenges affecting the state of the pharmacy profession in Jordan were validated
566 with the study's participants during the focus groups. The conceptual framework was used to identify
567 the primary sectorial disconnect that was perceived by the participants to explain each challenge.
568 Recommendations for solutions to each challenge were also proposed. Table 2 summarizes the
569 validated challenges, agreed outcomes of the mapping exercise and lists the participants' main
570 recommendations for development.

Summary of validated challenges	Framework mapping outcome	Recommendations for development
1) Graduate skills gap and unpreparedness for practice	Education-practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Education providers to review and adjust the balance between theoretical and practical aspects of the curricula they teach. ➤ Accreditors to re-evaluate current curricular standards and develop an outcome-based standards framework based on needs-based competencies.
2) Shortcomings in higher education accreditation and quality assurance	Regulation-education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Accreditors to review the current admissions processes and entry requirements of the PAD and PABP. ➤ Accreditors to review the usability and flexibility of current curricular standards for the purposes of pharmacy programme development.
3) Unregulated pre-registration training and substandard licensing examination	Regulation-practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ JPA to urgently establish a training framework and introduce a structured penalties regime for noncompliant trainees and complicit pharmacists. ➤ JPA to review the standards of the current pre-registration examination.
4) Absence of workforce development and license revalidation systems	Regulation-education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ JPA to urgently establish a CPD standards framework and push for the legislation of CPD requirements and, in due course, for continuing fitness to practice.
5) Deficiencies in workforce planning and intelligence	Education-practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Education providers to collaborate with all stakeholders on creating cross-sector job opportunities for pharmacists. ➤ JPA to establish workforce planning strategies and assess current and future supply and demand.
6) Low and unmet pharmacists basic salaries	Regulation-practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ JPA to introduce a structured penalties regime for non-compliant employers and consider implementing whistleblowing mechanisms. ➤ JPA to review and assess the need to increase the current minimum wage rates.
7) Loss of occupational control to pharmacy assistants	Regulation-practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ JPA to urgently review enforcement of dispensing, pharmacy ownership and management laws are urgently called for. ➤ JPA to consider creating clear national definitions of the roles of all pharmaceutical personnel. ➤ JPA or/and MoH to urgently consider a reregulation drive for pharmacy assistants.
8) Mismatch between job expectations and fulfilment for PharmD graduates	Education-practice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Education providers to lead efforts in integrating graduates into the market and address any misapprehensions held by prospective PharmD students over their future.

573 **Discussion**

574 This study set out to identify and understand the current challenges facing the pharmacy profession in
575 Jordan. The validation of thematically analysed interview data and their mapping using conceptual
576 framework that has been used in pharmacy⁷⁰ resulted in eight main challenges spanning education,
577 regulation and practice. (1) The unpreparedness of graduates for practice highlights a disconnect
578 between educational outcomes and practice needs. (2) The inconsistencies of higher education
579 accreditation and quality assurance mechanisms point toward a gap between educational
580 regulations and their operationalisation in the respective educational institutions. (3) The extent to
581 which pre-registration training is unregulated and unorganized is a result of a regulation- practice gap.
582 (4) The absence of educational workforce development systems (i.e. CE and CPD) corresponds to a
583 lack of regulatory policies on workforce education, hence a regulation-education gap. (5) The growing
584 supply of the workforce coupled with unclear market demand are a symptom of a general lack of
585 engagement between the educational and practice sectors. (6) The reported occurrence of community
586 pharmacists being paid below their nationally stipulated minimum wages is traced to the ineffective
587 enforcement of minimum wage regulations in practice. (7) The illegal dispensing by pharmacy
588 assistants in community is another example of a regulation- practice gap. Finally, (8) the mismatch
589 between the intended role of PharmD graduates and actual job fulfilment highlight another disconnect
590 between the education and practice sectors.

591 Most of the challenges are complex and the causal factors are multifaceted and could be traced to
592 more than one, or all, of the three disconnections of the framework. This was illustrated by the
593 different answers raised by the participants during the focus groups. For example, CPD/CE was also
594 explained as a lack of workforce education in practice settings (education-practice gap), but it was
595 eventually agreed that the absence of legal CPD/CE requirements of pharmacists merited
596 prioritization (regulation-education gap). Collaborative efforts among the groups to simplify the
597 explanations by reducing them to one disconnection axis per challenge were not meant to
598 oversimplify the issues but rather facilitate prioritizing them; identifying a priority area for

599 development within each of the themes allowed for a more streamlined process of formulating the
600 most relevant recommendations. One example can be found in pre-registration requirements which
601 include both the training and the examination, but the state of the unregulated training was prioritized
602 over the examination's standard and thus drove the mapping process and listing of the resultant
603 recommendations. Recommendations and suggested solutions addressing – what were viewed to be
604 secondary – sub-challenges were not excluded and are reported in the findings of this study (see Table
605 2 above). In the case of the pre-registration requirements challenge, participants suggested that the
606 JPA consider reviewing the current examination's standards. The framework not only allowed us and
607 the participants to conceptualize the challenges, but also to view them from multiple perspectives; in
608 doing so, we were allowed to consider factors beyond those reported in the literature.

609 The framework also highlights the importance of multi-sector engagement and collaboration in
610 professional arenas. According to the framework, the separations between its components allow for
611 checks and balances between any two sectors and it is important that the separations don't get too
612 wide. The PharmD challenge in Jordan illustrates the effects of a separation that is too wide between
613 education and practice. While it was reported that the programme's addition to pharmacy education in
614 Jordan was intended to expand the pharmaceutical care role of pharmacists in practice³², the practice
615 environment – particularly in hospital settings – is not prepared for the uptake of hundreds of PharmD
616 graduates according to the participants. A 2012 study stated that less than 5-10 institutions offered
617 comprehensive pharmaceutical care services in Jordan.⁷¹ This was not taken into consideration when
618 the PharmD – a degree originally designed for the North American practice settings – was first
619 adopted by a public school. The controversy of the PharmD in Jordan is not surprising; the
620 establishment of the PharmD model by a number of developing countries in Asia, Africa and the
621 Middle East is not a new trend and Anderson et al. have described the downfalls of adopting a
622 program that is not aligned with the local health care systems and population needs (i.e. needs-
623 based).⁷² Similarly, the unpreparedness of graduates for practice and their skill shortages also indicate
624 an education-practice disconnect that points towards a general lack of a unified professional vision for
625 education driven by and for all stakeholders.

626 Another important aspect of the framework is its illustration of the limitations of professional self-
627 regulation. Where dual or multiple responsibilities are held in one sector, there is not the same
628 motivation or incentive to look for changes and improvements. Instead, there is always the potential
629 that ‘internal arguments’ – for and against any development or change– will tend to perpetuate the
630 ‘status quo’ instead of bringing about needed changes. This may explain the stagnation depicted in
631 some of the challenges, especially those that fall under the responsibilities of the JPA. Participants
632 reported that some of the challenges are not new and have remained unsolved for a long time, namely
633 the lack of requirements for CPD/CE and the unregulated pre-registration training. The conflict of
634 interest inherent to the JPA’s dual role as both regulatory and professional body, presents a situation in
635 which patient safety is undermined by pharmacists’ self-interests. Due to government pressure prompted
636 by a series of national healthcare professional regulation failures, the United Kingdom’s former Royal
637 Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain (RPSGB) was split in 2010 into a professional leadership
638 body (RPS) and the General Pharmaceutical Council (GPhC), a separate pharmacy regulatory and
639 registration body. Earlier in 2004, New Zealand’s government legislated against the healthcare
640 professionals’ self-regulation, driving the split of the Pharmaceutical Society of New Zealand
641 (PSNZ). These examples, coupled with the current situation in Jordan, demonstrate that a profession
642 may be best served by the separation of its regulatory and registration functions on the one hand, and
643 its representative and professional leadership function on the other. Despite it being considered one of
644 the defining ‘traits’ of a profession, self-regulation has always been subject to criticism – raising major
645 accountability and conflict of interest concerns.^{3,73} On the other hand, it is argued that without
646 ‘competent’ self-regulation, true professional dominance cannot be assured.⁷⁴ The concept of
647 achieving competence in self-regulation is, however, questionable in health professions where patient
648 interests are constantly positioned to be weighed against the professionals’ own self-interests, and are
649 thus bound to be sacrificed.

650 Self-regulation highlights not only the limitations of the trait approach, but also those of the
651 interactionist theorists who place the power dynamics of professionals at the heart of their theories.
652 The conceptual framework presented in this paper views the professional arena in terms of a list of

653 three generic and broad sectors rather than focussing on ‘interactions’, ‘functions’ or ‘definitions’. For
654 example, the regulation component of the framework encompasses all and any parties with regulatory
655 powers affecting the profession in question, be it self-regulatory or otherwise. This is an important
656 aspect of the framework because it makes it complementary to the reprofessionalization paradigm.
657 Holloway et al. point to the fact that reprofessionalization emphasizes and respects the “processual
658 and conditional nature” of occupational control, as opposed to the unilinear approach traditional
659 theories take in determining the once-and-for-all professional status of an occupation.⁷⁵ In turn, the
660 structure of the framework and the dynamic relationships between its components respect and
661 emphasize the processual nature of reprofessionalization. Another important aspect of the framework
662 that lends it with an advantage over tradition theories of professions is its ability to be contextualized
663 and accommodating of the varying characteristics of professional arenas. Any list of criteria borrowed
664 from the trait theory for instance may not be work in more than one settings; a profession in one
665 nation may not have a professional association, or a pre-licensing examination in the first place – in
666 which case the trait theory will immediately disqualify it from the professionalization race. Indeed,
667 the pharmacy community are warned from blindly relying on and supporting professional ideologies
668 and professionalizing projects.⁷⁶ Efforts to do so may be deemed fruitless considering the lack of a
669 universal consensus on what constitutes and defines a pharmacy profession; Traulson and Bissel
670 instead rightly point out that pharmacy is in fact “embedded in the culture and the laws of the land
671 where it is practiced”.¹²

672 The study identified a number of significant challenges that require urgent consideration by all
673 stakeholders in Jordan, and particularly by governmental, regulatory and professional bodies. Before
674 developing a professional vision, the need for change must be recognised and accepted⁷⁷, and the
675 researchers hope to have succeeded in establishing a sense of urgency around the necessary changes
676 that must be undertaken. The researchers hope that this study’s findings, and the resultant
677 recommendations, will serve as a useful roadmap for informing and guiding current and future local
678 professional initiatives and policymaking efforts. Further research into each of the issues identified is
679 required to better understand and address them; local researchers and policymakers are therefore

680 urged to consider formulating questions from the issues presented in this study and investigating them
681 further. The researchers also urge regional and global researchers and stakeholders – particularly in
682 developing countries where challenge-identification may be a challenge in and by itself – to employ
683 the methodological approach used in this study in their respective contexts. The authors believe that
684 the stakeholder-centric approach employed in conducting the research increased the validity and
685 reliability of its conclusions, and the involvement of key policymakers increases the potential impact
686 and implementation of the its findings and recommendations. In addition to the methodological design
687 lending itself as a replicable example to pharmacy practice and health policy researchers, many of the
688 issues highlighted in this study will have international resonance,thus potentially providing insights of
689 value to health professions worldwide.

690 ***Study limitations***

691 The researchers note that this study has several limitations. First, participant validation was found to
692 be a logistically challenging method; the lead researcher, LRB,could only hold the focus groups on
693 one particular day and this may have disallowed many participants from taking part. Despite the
694 difficulty in re-engaging the entire original sample, the researchers believe that the cooperation of any
695 number of original respondents is valuable. Second, the authors recognise that the sample of
696 participants does not represent the total population of the pharmacy population; additionally the non-
697 recruitment of other stakeholder groups such as patients and other health care professionals may have
698 affected the breadth of views presented. Therefore, caution should be used in drawing conclusions
699 from the results of this study. The third limitation is related to data translation. Taking into account
700 time and cost constraints, maximal measures were taken in this study to maximise the trustworthiness
701 of the translation process, translating the source language to target language – particularly Arabic – is
702 challenging and may have an impact on conceptual equivalence and this is an intrinsic limitation of
703 cross-language research.⁷⁸

704 **Conclusion**

705 This paper has, for the first time, provided a holistic overview of the challenges facing the pharmacy
706 profession in Jordan. It also presented a new conceptual framework that describes the relationship
707 between three sectors of a professional arena: education, regulation and practice. The framework was
708 used in a participant-centric study design to aid in understanding the challenges and devising
709 appropriate recommendations for professional development. The framework was found to not only be
710 a practical and effective interpretive and formative tool for research purposes, but also a modern and
711 dynamic approach that may potentially redefine the way professions are viewed and guide the inevitable
712 reprofessionalization processes necessary to the survival of health care professionals and their roles in
713 ever-changing health systems.

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883 and education. (International Pharmaceutical Federation 2014, adapted with permission)..... 8

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Semi-structured interview guide
<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Tell me about the nature of your practice and your role. What challenges do you face in your practice setting?2. What are your thoughts on pharmacy education in Jordan? What do you think of the quality of graduates? What skills or competencies do they lack, if any? What changes, if any, would you like to see in pharmacy education in Jordan?3. With regards to your practice, what are your thoughts on the regulation of pharmacy? What challenges do you face? What changes would you like to see in regulation?4. What do you think of the regulatory role of the JPA? What do you think of the JPA as a professional body? Do you perceive the JPA to be carrying its responsibilities effectively? If not, why?5. Generally speaking, what do you think of the overall status of the profession here in Jordan? Why?6. What challenges do you think it faces? How do they affect you in your practice?7. How do you think those challenges should be addressed? Who should be responsible for addressing them?8. What is the most important change that you want to see in the profession? Why?

Focus group guide	
Opening question	1. I'd like to start by briefly telling you what we did with your interviews and how we used them to identify 8 challenges the research team believes to be facing the pharmacy profession in Jordan and negatively impacting on its overall advancement.
Validation phase questions	<p>2. I want to discuss with you the validity of our findings. We've asked you to come today so you can help us. Your participation is vital to the final conclusions of the study and I would like your full input. We are especially keen on hearing any opposing views or constructive criticisms which will only help us to further refine the results and improve the study.</p> <p>3. What do you think of challenge X? Do you think it's true? Does it accurately reflect the situation?</p> <p>4. Do you think it <i>doesn't</i> represent the situation? How? Do you disagree with it? Why?</p> <p>5. Do you perceive X as a challenge facing the pharmacy profession in Jordan? Do you think that this challenge is affecting the overall advancement of the profession? How? If this challenge is addressed, do you think the profession would be in a better state?</p> <p>6. Do you think there are other major challenges that are not described by this list?</p>
Transition question	7. Now that we've validated the challenges, I would like to tell you about a conceptual framework that we can use to help us better understand each challenge and discuss ways of addressing it.
Mapping phase questions	<p>8. On the piece of paper with an illustration of the framework in front of you, please take as much time as you need to assign each of the 8 challenges to the axis you perceive to be the main cause of the challenge. More than one may apply, but please try to assign it to what you perceive to be the primary one.</p> <p>9. Regarding challenge X, who perceived the challenge to be related to a disconnect between education-regulation? Regulation-practice? Practice-education? Why?</p> <p>10. Do you all agree that challenge X is primarily related to disconnect Y? If not, why?</p> <p>11. The research team initially assigned challenge X to disconnect Y-Y because they thought the reason is Z. What do you think of their interpretation?</p> <p>12. How do you think challenge X can be addressed? What solutions do you perceive to be appropriate? What recommendations do you have?</p>
Ending questions	<p>13. We hope to publish the final results of this study. Do you think the results may have an impact on pharmacy in Jordan? Do you think you or other stakeholders would use this information?</p> <p>14. Finally, is there anything else you would like to say?</p>