A CASE STUDY OF A LEADERSHIP CRISIS IN HIGHER EDUCATION:
SCHOOLS OF PHARMACY

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ABSTRACT

The budget problems of the 1970s created a perception of a leadership crisis in higher education that has spanned 25 years. Only in the last five years, however, has this perceived epidemic infected the nation's health sciences centers (HSC). Due to health care reform, the schools on the HSC are now experiencing budget shortages similar to those of other schools in higher education and cries of a leadership crisis are being heard. This study investigates the phenomenon of a leadership crisis in one of the schools on the health sciences center campus: the school of pharmacy.

This research contributes to the research on leadership in higher education by examining a case of leadership crisis. It was hypothesized
that a leadership crisis would be manifested in deans as high turnover, shorter tenure and overall discontent with the job. Phenomomenological, interpretive methods were used to investigate the perception of a leadership crisis in pharmacy schools.

Phases one and two were qualitative, while phases three and four were quantitative. In phase one, a pilot study was conducted to determine the overall perception of leadership in schools of pharmacy. In phase two, a survey of 25 pharmacy school deans collected their perceptions of the crisis, including its causes and symptoms. In the third phase, the turnover of pharmacy school deans was calculated for the last 25 years. Finally, in phase four, the tenure of these deans for the last 20 years was determined.

The results of this study show that the deans hold the perception there is a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. The analysis of turnover and length of tenure do not support this belief. Study results do show problems in the search processes for pharmacy deans. Results also implicate the rapidly changing HSC environment in creating significant
pressures on those in positions of leadership. The study concludes that the crisis talk obscures real fears about a changing environment and the lack of effective training for leaders.

This abstract accurately represents the content of the candidate’s thesis. I recommend its publication.

Signed \textit{Nancy M. Sanders}  
Nancy Sanders
DEDICATION/ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

*The Prophet Gilbran wrote: Work is love made visible*

I would like to dedicate this work to Dr. Nancy Sanders who made the words of Gilbran come alive. Throughout this project she demonstrated an extraordinary amount of patience and understanding. She gave a tremendous amount of help, just because she cared. Nancy is a teacher, a mentor and a friend. Thank you, Nancy.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Severe budget problems in higher education almost twenty-five years ago created the perception of a leadership crisis. Joseph Kauffman (1983) traced the history of this crisis back to the 1970s, and he described the difficult role of the academic leader. Kauffman stated that in the 1970s, the "crisis manager" became commonplace in higher education. As the environment changed, role expectations changed. He observed:

If the change is swift, as it has been since the early 1970s, presidents may not be able to change quickly enough to satisfy the conflicting perceptions of what is required....By the mid 1970s, the public image of the president was of a harried, if energetic, executive type rushing through revolving-door positions (p. 244).

The claims of a crisis in higher education leadership have persisted for almost 25 years. In a recent article, Lovett (1994) reflected on the continuing problems. She wrote:

For an industry with only about 3,600 chief executives, higher education is blessed with a wealth of scholarly research and accumulated vision about leadership in academe. Despite these
resources, one hears plenty of gloomy talk about a crisis of leadership (p. A44).

In 1983, Kauffman wrote that the symptoms of the crisis included the high turnover of academic administrators and the disenchantment with higher education on the part of citizenry and legislatures. He discussed the paradoxes in the college presidency by observing that "those who enjoy it are not very successful, and those who are successful are not very happy" (Kauffman, 1983, p. 241). He concluded that the job was considered impossible.

Lovett (1994) also concluded that because of new role requirements for academic administrators, colleges continue to experience a leadership crisis and the role of the dean is not as attractive as it was once thought to be. From these two authors, it appears that the leadership crisis in higher education has persisted, relatively unabated or unchanged, for many years.

Although the perception of a leadership crisis in higher education has existed for 25 years, only in the last five years has this epidemic infected the nation’s health sciences centers (HSC). Apparently, these centers have been immune to the problems in higher education. Perhaps this immunity stemmed from the multiple funding sources: research,
patient care and education. However, with health care reform syphoning off many of these revenue sources, these centers now face the same budgetary constraints that initiated the problem in higher education. It is not surprising therefore, to hear calls about changing leadership requirements, and even the presence of a leadership crisis, emanating from these centers. For example, in a 1994 address to the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Academic Health Centers, Dr. Walter J. McNerney stated that very few health sciences centers have leaders with the right training, and that leaders must acquire new skills to manage in times of resource constraints (Howe, Osterweis & Rubin, 1994). Chi (1994) reported on the widespread perception of a leadership crisis in the nation’s pharmacy schools.

**Purpose and Scope of the Study**

This research will explore the phenomenon of leadership crisis in higher education. I will address two major purposes. The first of these is to examine the leadership crisis that began in higher education in the 1970s, and to learn what is meant by a "crisis of leadership".
This question will be answered through extensive review of the literature on leadership and the crisis in higher education.

The second purpose is to study the perception of an emerging crisis on the health sciences center and uses the case of schools of pharmacy. Is there a leadership crisis in America’s schools of pharmacy? Given the recent, multiple calls concerning the leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy, this appears to be an unfolding problem. To develop an understanding of this phenomenon, I used both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Qualitative methods included interviews with key academic administrators in schools of pharmacy. Quantitative methods included researching databases of current and past deans to calculate length of tenure and turnover rates.

Analysis and data collection occurred in phases with each stage deepening the understanding of the case being studied. The data were collected as the study proceeded, following leads from one phase to the next. The first phase of data collection was a pilot study that investigated the perception of a leadership crisis with three of the senior members in pharmacy academic administration. A survey of four questions was developed, data were collected and transcripts of
interviews analyzed. These data provided a perspective on the notion of a leadership crisis and suggested questions for a wider group of respondents. Additionally, this phase provided insight into the perception of a leadership crisis and gave direction to revising the survey prior to interviewing additional participants.

The second phase was a study of 25 deans. A random sample was asked six questions about their perceptions of the leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. They represented both new deans (in their office less than two years) and seasoned deans (in office greater than two years). The objective of this phase of the dissertation was to understand the perception of the crisis in schools of pharmacy, its causes and symptoms, and to determine key environmental issues in these schools. Transcripts of interviews were coded into categories and results tabulated.

In Phase Three, I collected data to calculate the turnover of deans in schools of pharmacy over the last twenty-five years. A comprehensive list of deans was assembled with the assistance of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy (AACP). I determined the turnover
of pharmacy deans and compared this rate to other academic administrators.

In Phase Four, I collected additional information on the tenure of deans in schools of pharmacy. Using a rolling average method, I determined the length of tenure for pharmacy deans for the last 20 years.

**Origin of Interest and Concern**

The perception of a leadership crisis in higher education has existed for over 20 years. It is important to understand what is meant by a leadership crisis and why it appears to remain unresolved in higher education. Also, why is the perception of a crisis now spreading onto the nation's health sciences centers? The academic environment has become more difficult and the organizations are considered anarchies (Cohen, March & Olsen, 1972). It is imperative to learn what the continuing leadership crisis in higher education implies for these leaders and for those preparing to go into leadership positions in academia.

The problem in schools of pharmacy appears to be unfolding over the last few years, so this case can provide timely data and could benefit the profession by illuminating important issues affecting pharmacy
education. Additionally, study of the perceived crisis can offer the profession of pharmacy useful recommendations to assist in designing solutions to remedy the problem. It is also important to understand if there is an actual crisis or what Scott (1983) called "crisis-talk". She observed,

"The very idea of crisis management as the self-declared style and purpose of the new administration conveys a certain irony, for in the name of managing crises (in the sense of resolving them), crisis managers may, in fact, be provoking or intensifying them" (p. 9).

The issue of leadership crisis in higher education has been primarily studied in a retrospective process. Examining a crisis in a concurrent time frame and determining its causes and symptoms would be beneficial in understanding this phenomenon. Finally, this research could also provide a systematic way to study a crisis in other disciplines. Ping (1986) observed that in universities, the challenge is not just to recognize problems, but to recognize them in a timely fashion and to address the issues they represent. Analysis of problems can give early warning of change and possible future crisis. It is then possible to "marshal the forces necessary to address the problems" (p. 9).
Leadership Theories

There are literally thousands of books on leadership and over 350 definitions of the word. One author categorized the conceptual theories of leadership into six models. Cohen’s (1993) models include: trait theories, power and influence theories, behavioral theories, contingency theories, cultural and symbolic theories, and cognitive theories.

Although there are many theories of leadership, two of Cohen’s models help to assess leadership requirements in higher education. Both the trait and contingency models are relevant to this issue. In reviewing the traits required of academic administrators, Skipper (1978) used factor analysis to describe the two most important dimensions of the effective leader. He found that these individuals must have traits in two areas: administrative and personal. Administrative skills he identified as knowledge of position, communications, planning ability, human relations, organization and management, judgement and quality of performance. Personal qualities included traits such as responsibility, willingness to act, thoughtfulness and ethical conduct, flexibility, integrity, self control, intellectual efficiency, personal relations, motivation to achieve, and creativity.
Birnbaum (1992) stated that traits alone do not necessarily predict leadership ability and that leadership effectiveness depends on the environment, the organizational culture and subordinates’ expectations. Therefore, the contingency or environmental theories, are important considerations in any discussion of leadership. These theories state that leaders must adapt their style and behavior to the environment and that skills and approaches must be continually developed. Many authors felt that leadership requirements must change in times of environmental stress. Bensimon (1989) and Bolman and Deal (1991) illustrate how the environment dictates a change in leadership requirements.

The works of Cribben (1981) are also beneficial in understanding leadership requirements in times of environmental change. Cribben used the metaphor of a pair of scissors to describe leadership. One blade represents the leader’s traits and the other blade represents the situation that provides the leader with both constraints and opportunities. Cribben concluded that the skillful leader is able to make his personal behavior congruent with environmental realities.

In response to environmental change in higher education, it appears that a leader must use different, or new skills to manage. If the
leader is unwilling or resistant to this approach, the results could be seen as a crisis in leadership. Many writers feel that additional education would assist academic administrators in meeting the challenges of the changing academic environment (Green 1981; Kauffman, 1983; Draugalis, 1992; Wilcox and Ebbs, 1992).

A Crisis of Leadership?

The literature in higher education (Scott, 1983) and in pharmacy education (Cohen, 1993) implicate academic leaders as the cause of current problems, referring to the situation as a "leadership crisis" (Lovett 1994). How did the term crisis come to be linked with leadership in higher education?

One of the most thorough studies on the leadership crisis in higher education was conducted by Scott (1983). In her study, Scott observed that very much like the Roaring Twenties, a golden age preceded the onset of the problems in higher education. Education flourished in the postwar boom of the 1950s and then accelerated in the 1960s. This decade brought unprecedented expansion, billion dollar construction projects, burgeoning enrollments and increased numbers of faculty.
In the early 1970s, the first great wave of budget cuts put a precipitous end to the golden age. The education depression began. Cheit (1971) predicted doom and gloom for higher education. He believed that the depression in higher education of the 1970s would outstrip in severity and potential longevity the experience of the Great Depression. Bartell (1975) however, took issue with Cheit and observed that the crisis was not of the magnitude of a great depression, but rather the basis for new forms of public assistance and a need for increased managerial expertise in educational administration.

Scott also compared the problems in education to the Great Depression. She framed the situation as multidimensional, including factors that were closely interrelated and mutually reinforcing making their resolution more problematic. She believed the dimensions were financial and political. She considered the financial factors the primary cause of the leadership crisis. The political factors, she observed, included two aspects. The first "revolves around new discontents and power struggles among opposing segments of the academic community that, from an administrative viewpoint, generate a problem of order" (p. 2). The second aspect was a diminished sense of the legitimacy of the
college and a loss of confidence in its purposes and priorities. This lack of legitimacy, according to the Carnegie Commission (1973), also weakened administrative leadership in higher education. One result of this turmoil is what Trachtenberg (1981) called "presidential burnout" (p. 4), which he considered a serious national problem in higher education administration. Scott (1983) observed that "the vocabularies of crisis are sometimes apocalyptic...more often, however, they are a blend of guarded pessimism and pragmatism" (p. 2).

Symptoms of the Problem

The literature in higher education clearly fixes the cause of the problem on the budgetary issues and the solution as a need for strengthened academic leadership. Review of the literature on the budget problems of the 1970s indicates the symptoms were manifested in two areas, in the environment and in a breakdown of academic leadership.

Environmental symptoms. Aspects of the budget problems in higher education were seen in environmental symptoms including college closings, faculty and staff layoffs, lack of program...
development/advancement, steep increases in tuition, decreasing numbers of students enrolling in college due to shrinking job markets and delays in faculty salary increases and promotions. The Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education (1980) stated that in response to the crisis, schools had redirected their efforts to survival. Some of the survival tactics included:

- The lowering of admissions requirements
- The search for nontraditional students, who in the past have been the least preferred
- The increased emphasis on retention of students, sometimes regardless of their performance
- The turn toward vocational and professional subjects following student demand
- The effort to find top leadership which is good at cost accounting or at recruitment of students or at fund raising or at all three; to find managers for survival who will balance the books, recruit the students and raise funds instead of innovators and planners for a different and hopefully better future. (p. 27)

Trachtenberg (1981) stated "The situation is one of grave and deepening crisis, as institutions of higher education struggle with rising inflation and declining enrollment, with tenured faculty who have nothing to do and overworked assistant professors who have no where to go" (p.4).

**Leadership symptoms.** Other symptoms of the budget problems were framed as a crisis of leadership. Keller (1983) stated, "One of the
most significant developments in postwar academic life has been the progressive breakdown of governance and leadership" (p. 27). He reported on The Commission on Strengthening Presidential Leadership which met in the early 1980s. This commission concluded "that strengthening presidential leadership is one of the most urgent concerns on the agenda of higher education in the United States" (p. 102). Critics expected that good academic leadership would devise ways to overcome the barriers and find the cure for higher education's ills (Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum, 1989).

Investigating Leadership Symptoms

Webster’s Dictionary (1988) defines crisis as a crucial or decisive point or situation, or an unstable state of affairs. It appears that the leadership crisis was seen in high burnout and turnover rates of academic administrators (Trachtenberg, 1981); the changing selection criteria used for academic administrators (Hughes, 1987); and the recognition that the very nature of the job of the administrator had changed. The leadership symptoms are the ones that some authors
believe are problematic for higher education today. (Cibulka & Mawhinney, 1995; Lovett, 1994).

**Turnover of administrators.** Trachtenberg (1981) claims that because of the budget problems, the burnout of academic administrators "occurs faster and more frequently now" (p. 4). Mooney (1992) suggests that there is a widespread perception that the turnover of college presidents is high, there is a consensus about the increasing difficulty of the position, and of the need for programs to develop new administrative skills to prevent turnover.

**Selection of administrators.** Other authors believe that budget problems cause a change in the selection of academic administrators. The traditional approach to selecting academic administrators has been for their scholarly qualifications rather than for their administrative experience (Hughes, 1987). Consequently, they may lack or be perceived to lack administrative skills. Trachtenberg (1981) stated that the president's role had changed, and the new qualities required may not be recognized by present search and screen procedures for administrators.
In 1981, Green stated, "Higher education’s reluctance to recognize the need to prepare its academic administrators in any systematic way reflects the values of the academy, but not necessarily its needs" (p. 11). The debate on the qualifications of academic administrators in higher education continued through the 1980s and it appears that discussion continues to this day. In 1994, Lovett noted that historically deans were valued and selected because of their scholarly work. "Today, however, the candidate who is skillful in finances and/or possesses strong political abilities is the one selected for these positions" (p. A44).

**New roles and responsibilities.** As a result of the budget problems in higher education, that the administrator’s role changed dramatically. Reisman (1978) observed that visionary academic leadership was lacking. He summarized the struggles of academic administration by observing that the very nature of the job had changed so dramatically that it was no longer a job for an educator. Green (1988) reflected that the job of college presidents changed from that of an education leader to that of a fund raiser, financial manager and politician in an endless quest to obtain scarce financial resources. Austin and Gamson (1983) stated that to be successful, the academic manager must be adept and many roles. They
listed these roles to include: politician, zoo keeper, orchestra conductor and a dispensing machine operator.

Wiseman (1991) proposed "a president in whose tenure the university does not raise more money than it did before is a president who is looking for a new line of work" (p. 6). He stated that most presidents spend their time meeting with those individuals and groups that could help the university financially or that had influence. Because fund raising is now a necessary part of the job, he felt that anyone who does not excel at it cannot make a good president. He observed that many presidents complain that fund raising and external affairs take up so much time that they have little time left over for the academic agenda which normally defines their leadership capacity. In short, presidents do not have enough time to reflect thoughtfully upon the very things for which they are presumably gathering support (p. 6).

A Crisis or Not?

There appears to be much disagreement as to the presence of a true crisis. The debate in higher education has continued for over twenty years and has ranged from calls warning of a Great Depression to simply
the necessity to retrain academic administrators. While the budget problems did force some schools to close, the other environmental symptoms mentioned previously have faded. The problems in academic leadership seem to continue; if this is a true crisis or not, is yet to be determined. From the literature, it appears that there is an ongoing need to train academic administrators to be flexible and to modify their roles in the presence of environmental change. Perhaps the leadership crisis is framed by the failure of some individuals to acquire the necessary skills.

**Have the HSCs Lost Their Immunity?**

The HSC was immune from the budget problems present in other areas of higher education in the 1970s, and in fact, were enjoying a golden age. In the last five years however, health care reform has started to cause budget problems in these centers. It is not surprising therefore to hear calls about a crisis of leadership emanating from these centers. For example, the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Academic Health Centers studied the changing leadership roles (Howe, Osterweis & Rubin, 1994). One keynote speaker, Dr. Carolyn Aschenbrener, presented the challenge for university leadership in the
impending health care reform. She stated that academic health centers are facing leadership problems and that leaders must be able to "organize, motivate and inspire their constituents." She observed that "this is particularly true now when our environment is in such upheaval" (p. 29). Dr. Walter J. McNerney concurred, observing that the time has come to train key leaders in management, because the traditional leadership skills are no longer sufficient to manage the complex institution. He stated, "In today's environment it is no longer enough to be from the right school and to have published. There is a know how to management as there is to clinical practice" (p. 95). He noted that very few health centers have leaders with the right training. The meeting concluded with a call for academic leaders on health sciences centers to possess the new skills that will be required in times of resource constraints. Skills such as conflict management and negotiation, planning, oral and written communications and exposure to finance and economics will be critical for success.

Writers from schools of pharmacy are also warning of a similar crisis in leadership in the United States' 75 pharmacy schools. These calls mirror the three problems underlying the leadership crisis in higher
education: turnover, selection procedures and changing roles of the
deans in schools of pharmacy. For example, Chi (1994) indicated that
there is a widespread perception that a leadership crisis exists in
pharmacy schools, and more than a dozen positions for deans in schools
of pharmacy were open. Trinca (1993) observed that as one position
was filled, two more opened. Cohen (1993) wrote that there is a dearth
of qualified individuals able and willing to assume major positions of
leadership in schools of pharmacy, and that the turnover of people in
these positions is very high.

Rutledge (1994) focused the discussion of the leadership crisis on
the unrealistic expectations of search committees. He stated that
"Search committees are looking for a knight arriving on a white horse to
solve all their problems" (p. 119). Kinnard and Harcleroad (1993) pointed
out that the expectations of pharmacy deans have changed so
dramatically that a new set of traits is required. They described a "new
breed" of academic administrator who clearly understands the mission of
the university and who can coordinate the resources of the community to
achieve common goals.
Contents of the Thesis

The chapters in this thesis are designed to provide answers to the research questions. Since a key issue in this research is the concept of leadership, Chapter 2 will delve into the literature on leadership. Included in this chapter is information on leadership theories and leadership in higher education. Two models of academic leadership will be explored. Next, specific leadership requirements on the HSC and in schools of pharmacy are presented. Proposals for future requirements in academic management are listed. Finally, it will explore the concept of leadership crisis and how it is manifested in higher education (e.g. turnover and shortened tenure).

Chapter 3 will focus on examining the environment of the health sciences center and will provide contrast to the traditional, or parent university. Since the case study is in a school of pharmacy, the demographic and program characteristics of schools of pharmacy will be discussed.

Chapter 4 will give a detailed description of the research methodology utilized in this study. This chapter is divided into two
sections. In section one, the concept of phenomenonological research will be presented. In the second section, I will give a detailed description of the investigative processes for each phase of the study.

In Chapter 5 the results and analysis of data will be presented. Using a combination of tables and thick descriptions, I will present key information garnered from the qualitative and quantitative phases.

In Chapter 6, I will answer the study questions and discuss the results of the study. Finally, I will draw conclusions and offer recommendations for additional study.
CHAPTER 2  
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter will first discuss the concept of leadership and trace some of the theories that describe requirements for leaders. Then I will look at leadership in higher education and review the key environmental and trait theories related to academic leadership. Continuing to refine this discussion, I will delve into the issue by examining leadership on the HSC and finally leadership in pharmacy schools. This chapter will conclude by examining the literature on leadership crisis and determine if turnover of administrators is indicative of a leadership crisis.

What Is Leadership?

The modern word, leader, derives from the thousand-year old Anglo-Saxon root word, laedare. Ladeare meant to lead people on a journey. Leadership has been recognized as vital in every culture for the last 1,000 years and millions of pages have been written on it. Over
350 definitions of the word exist, and everyone recognizes the need for leadership in times of uncertainty. Leaders help followers through difficult times by reducing fear and building confidence. Leaders help us see possibilities and discover new resources. With the hundreds of views on this subject, how does one make sense of all the rhetoric?

Levey (1991) noted,

Unfortunately, for those who are interested in the scholarship on leadership, it is a jungle of abstruse academic theories and simplistic popular prescriptions. Nor is much of the empirical work very useful to the practicing executive (p. 8).

Cohen (1993, pp. 352-354) divided conceptual theories of leadership into six models which serve to classify hundreds of different descriptive observations of leadership styles and characteristics. His six models include: trait theories, power and influence theories, behavioral theories, contingency theories, cultural and symbolic theories and cognitive theories. I have summarized Cohen’s classifications in Table 2.1.
TABLE 2.1
Cohen’s Models of Leadership Theories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models of leadership theories</th>
<th>Elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trait theories</td>
<td>These theories attempt to develop a body of knowledge concerning the required traits of a successful leader. These theories ascribe to the concept that if a person can acquire the requisite knowledge and skills, he or she will become an effective leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power and influence</td>
<td>These theories place the acquisition of power and use of influence as key components of leadership. Bennis and Nanus (1985) found that it is not individual power, but rather the empowerment of others that was the key element of leadership. Transformational leadership is in this category.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral theories</td>
<td>These theories are advanced by social scientists to describe leadership according to personal styles. Bass (1981) for example, contrasted the autocratic or collegial, authoritarian or democratic, directive or participatory leader. Other researchers worked to develop a comparison of task-oriented behavior and relationship-oriented behaviors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingency theories</td>
<td>The contingency or situational theories addresses the issue of leadership with a focus on the environment. Situational leadership dictates that leaders adapt their style and behavior to the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural and symbolic</td>
<td>These theories state that the leader is responsible to articulate and carry on the norms of the institution while valuing its traditional values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>These theories blend ideas from the power and symbolic models of leadership.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most people agree that the characteristics of a good leader do not fit into a single model but are defined retrospectively by analyzing great leaders and their environments. For example, James MacGregor Burns (1978) wrote one of the most quoted works on leadership. Burns, a historian and political scientist, studied great leaders like Ghandi, Wilson, and Lenin. Burns believed that because we fail to grasp the essence of leadership that is relevant to our times, we cannot agree on the standards by which to measure it. He concluded, "Leadership is one of the most observed, yet least understood phenomena on earth" (p. 2).

In his Pulitzer Prize winning work, Burns developed the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership is based on an exchange of services between the leader and follower for various kinds of rewards, and recognition that the leader controls. It focuses on basic, extrinsic motives and needs.

In contrast to this, Burns believed that transformational leadership is more potent. The transforming leader "recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower;".... "seeks to satisfy higher needs" and "engages the full person of the follower." The relationship results in a "mutual stimulation...that converts followers into
leaders" (p. 4). Transformational leadership focuses on gaining cooperation and participation from followers and on higher-order, intrinsic psychological needs for esteem and self actualization.

Birnbaum (1992) observed that transformational leadership was an anomaly in higher education. He stated:

"Because the goals and enduring purposes of an academic institution are likely to be shaped by its history, its culture and the socialization and training of its participants, rather than by an omnipotent leader, attempts at transformational leadership are more likely to lead to disruption and conflict than to desirable outcomes (p. 29).

Cribben (1981) eloquently discussed myths regarding leadership. His myths included that leaders must have personality; they must be democratic; they have "genes" (e.g. people are born leaders); they have to be cute and clever; they must have charisma; they have to have the right situation to be a leader, and finally they have to be aggressive to be a leader. Cribben also described the situational factors of leadership. Many people believe that leadership is situational, but he observed that while a situation can make or break a leader, this is only half of the equation. He used the metaphor of a pair of scissors to describe leadership. One blade represents what the leader brings to the situation in terms of personal talents: philosophy, education, experience,
competence, attitudes, etc. The other blade is the situation that provides the leader with both constraints and opportunities. The skill, he noted is not in the situation, but in the leader’s ability to make his personal behavior congruent with the realities.

Bass (1987) operationalized Burns’ theory by developing a multifactor leadership questionnaire. Where Burns saw transformational and transactional leadership as ends of a continuum, Bass saw them as complementary. He believed that, at given times, the leader must know which leadership factor should be used in a given situation.

In their very popular book on leaders, Bennis and Nanus (1985) stated that there is a chronic "crisis of governance, a persuasive incapacity of organizations to cope with the expectations of their constituents" (p. 2). They identify a new leader as one who commits people to action, converts followers into leaders and an individual who converts those leaders into change agents. This is called "transformative leadership" (p. 3). By interviewing 90 leaders, they condensed their findings into four strategies that were common to all participants: they create focus, they communicate a vision, they build an environment of trust, and they creatively deploy themselves and exhibit a positive self-
regard. Bennis and Nanus observed, "Leadership seems to be the marshaling of skills possessed by a majority but used by a minority" (p. 27).

Bolman and Deal (1991) noted that much is written about leaders’ traits, styles and deeds, but too few people pay attention to how leaders think. They believed that the education of leaders should focus on problem-solving and decision-making skills. In this regard, they advanced their concept of four frames: organizational, human resource, symbolic and political. They hypothesized that leaders should be able to diagnose the environmental situation and operate from the appropriate frame.

The majority of the leadership literature is grounded in a retrospective, historical frame and studies individuals who were considered to be great leaders. These narratives attempt to discern how these individuals’ characteristics separated them from other, non-leader types. Tichy and Devanna (1990) promote the development of transformational leaders and contrast their characteristics with those of transactional leaders. They studied the characteristics of individuals who they believed were in the process of becoming recognized as transformational leaders. They developed a list of seven common traits
which they hypothesized to be key skills/attitudes of transformational leaders (pp. 271-280). Table 2.2 reviews the key attributes of transformational leaders.

Table 2.2

Key Attributes of Transformational Leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Change agents</td>
<td>Transformational leaders articulate the fact that they are change agents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courageous</td>
<td>Transformational leaders are prudent risk takers but are also willing to take a stand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief in people</td>
<td>Transformational leaders combine sensitivity to individuals and a belief in empowering all people in the organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value-driven</td>
<td>Transformational leaders can articulate a set of core values and they exhibit behaviors that support their values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life long learners</td>
<td>Transformational leaders learn from their mistakes and have a life long commitment to self development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty.</td>
<td>Transformational leaders can cope with and frame problems in a complex environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visionary</td>
<td>Transformational leaders can dream and translate those images so other people can share them, and together they can work towards a common goal.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levey (1991) stated that the wealth of information on leadership "often revealed fragmentary and unconnecting findings and conclusions"
Additionally, he believed that language and methodology barriers make it difficult to compare and evaluate studies across different disciplines.

**Leadership in Higher Education**

One of the landmark works on higher education leadership was written by Cohen, March and Olsen in 1972. They stated:

The American college or university is a prototypic organized anarchy. It does not know what it is doing. Its goals are either vague or in dispute. Its technology is familiar but not understood. Its major participants wander in and out of the organization. These factors do not make a university a bad organization or a disorganized one; but they do make it a problem to describe, understand, and lead (p. 2).

Perhaps the perception of a leadership crisis in higher education is due to the "organized anarchy" in higher education and not due to the lack of leadership. Hughes (1987) observed that traditionally academic administrators had been selected for their scholarly qualifications rather than for their administrative experience. He proposed that they were able to manage because of the self-paced environment. However, with the dramatic changes that occurred starting in the 1970s, academic administrators lacked, or were perceived to lack administrative skills.
(Hughes, 1987). Green (1988) also discussed leadership problems in rapidly changing organizations. She observed, "The harder the times, the more intense is the wish for leaders who can transcend the limitations placed on them by circumstances...and the wish for heroic or pathfinding leadership flourishes when organizations flounder" (p. 33).

Claims of a leadership crisis and calls for new leadership skills in higher education administrators span 20+ years (Cheit, 1971; Bartell, 1975; Trachtenberg, 1981; Scott, 1983; Birnbaum, 1983; Keller, 1983; Kerr, 1984; McDade 1987; Murphy, 1988; Green 1988; Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum, 1989; Simms & Simms, 1991; Wilcox and Ebbs, 1992; Keller, 1993; Lovett, 1994). In 1994, Lovett stated that faculty members complain that academic administrators come in two genres: bureaucrats, who are harmless, but ineffective; and political operatives, who are too interested in career development to grapple with difficult issues. She stated that in the past deans were valued and selected because of their scholarly work. Today however, the candidate who is skillful in finances and/or possesses strong political abilities is the one selected for these positions. Lovett concluded that we place too much emphasis on the concept of "magical thinking", putting unrealistic
expectations on the administrator (p. A44). Consequently, we believe that this person can solve all problems for us.

Kinnard and Harcleroad (1993) observed: "Most universities are collections of scholarly mobs tended to by deans that are selected from the local mob, or one from across town" (p. 282). They noted that academic leaders only receive episodic leadership experiences rather than educational programs to become good administrators. They call for a new breed of academic manager who clearly understands the mission of the university and who can coordinate the resources of the community to achieve common goals.

Some authors suggest that the role of the administrator is difficult due to the complexity of the academic institution. Bolman and Deal (1991) concluded that modern organizations are so complex they cannot be understood from a single-frame perspective, and that a manager who can use multiple frames will be more effective. They suggest that "managers who understand and use only one or two of the frames are like a highly specialized species: they may be well adapted to a very narrow environment but extremely vulnerable to changes in climate or competition" (p. 216). Managers and leaders should understand the
concept of reframing and use all four frames to resolve organizational dilemmas. Bolman and Deal believed that each frame is important under different organizational conditions and that managers must be able to match frames to situations. For example, they proposed that when resources are scarce and getting scarcer, the political frame is believed to be the most salient (p. 326). Given the rhetoric about declining resources in universities, it is understandable that administrators are expected to become politically oriented.

Bensimon (1989) measured the capabilities of university presidents by using the four frames developed by Bolman and Deal. She found that the university president who can think and act using more than one frame may be able to fulfill the many expectations of the office more skillfully than one who cannot differentiate among situational requirements. In her study of 32 presidents, she found only one who espoused use of all four frames. She concluded that as an academic leader, the ability to reframe appears to be critical for success, if not survival.

In 1993, Keller reviewed the difficulties of academic administration. He observed, "Leadership in universities demands an
exceedingly high level of sensitivity, rhetorical skill, consultation and
courage as well as a thick skin and perseverance. But it is indispensable”
(p. 281).

Theories of Academic Leadership

Of the 5 classifications of leadership theories proposed by Cohen
(1993), I feel that the trait and contingency (environment) theories are
key in a study of academic leadership. These two theories will be
reviewed in this section. As was noted earlier, Cribben suggests that
personal talents and environment are two most important factors in
leadership.

Trait Theories

Many articles discuss the requisite skills and abilities of the
successful academic administrator. For example, some researchers
focused on the identification of a set of traits (knowledge, attitudes, skills
and abilities) that are essential to lead in higher education. (Birnbaum,
1983; Murphy, 1988; Bensimon, 1989; Dill, 1980; Gardner, 1990;
Skipper (1978) used factor analysis to describe the two most important dimensions of the effective leader at the college or university level as administrative skills and specific personality characteristics:

**Administrative skills were defined as:** knowledge of position, planning ability, human relations, leadership, organization and management, judgement and quality of performance.

**Personal characteristics included:** leadership, responsibility, willingness to act, thoughtfulness and ethical conduct, flexibility, integrity, self control, intellectual efficiency, personal relations, motivation to achieve and creativity.

The most effective academic administrators were identified as people who had relationships that were characterized by mutual respect and warmth, who developed well-defined organizational patterns, who kept channels of communication open, who articulated goals and who kept morale high.

Enarson (1978) recommended that effective academic management be evaluated in four areas: tasks, problems, skills and attributes. Tasks include planning, organizing, staffing, directing, reporting and budgeting. Problems involve issues such as inadequate financial support, curricular revisions, and faculty "retooling". Skills
include negotiation, time management, and communication; and attributes include wisdom and shrewdness.

John Gardner (1990) focused on the qualities of successful academic leaders. These qualities include skills such as long-term thinking; networking with constituencies beyond their own jurisdiction; placing emphasis on intangibles such as vision, values, ethics and motivation; developing or inherently possessing political skills to work with conflicting requirements of multiple constituencies; developing an institution-wide rather than department focus, and thinking in terms of constant renewal.

Birnbaum (1992) studied academic administrators and suggested that they must recognize the interactions between the bureaucratic, collegial, political and symbolic frames in colleges and universities if they are to be effective. He conducted a five year study of college leaders and developed a list of ten research-based principles of good academic leadership (p. 172). For example, his leadership principles included making a good impression, knowing how to listen, emphasizing core values, encouraging others to be leaders, evaluating your own performance and knowing when to leave.
Murphy (1988) listed six expectations of leaders in education: a sense of clear personal vision; a good knowledge base; strength; initiative; courage and tenacity; forceful communication and the ability to amass power and use it for organizational improvement. Finally, they must be "take charge" individuals who solve "knotty problems along the way" (p. 654).

Some authors focus on the importance of management and administrative skills for academic administrators. For example, Draugalis (1992) observed that given the complexity of these positions, administrative skills may be more important requisites for dean candidates than the traditional research and teaching expertise.

Cohen (1993) supported the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership in education. Transactional leadership depends on high levels of communication between leaders and followers to achieve agreed upon shared goals. In higher education, this requires a concerted effort on the part of the academic leader to cultivate faculty and to demonstrate his/her commitment to the basic values and philosophy of the organization. In contrast to this, the transformational leader in higher education must create a new vision and carry out a
transformation of the institution. Cohen believed that the two most critical qualities of leaders in higher education are the ability to communicate effectively and the ability to manage and plan strategically in the rapidly changing environment. He developed five major leadership roles: articulate a clear vision for the college and its programs, set the college’s agenda for the future, gather and analyze information that will affect the school’s programs, generate a commitment to a high quality program, communicate extensively with people, and develop an excellent management team.

Birnbaum (1992) concluded, however, that traits alone do not necessarily predict leadership ability. He stated, “The effectiveness of different styles appears to depend on subordinates’ expectations, environmental contingencies, and values and perceptions related to organizational culture (p. 37).

Contingency/Environmental Theories

Many writers suggest that the environment causes the administrator to develop a set of knowledge, skills and abilities.
Dill (1980) stated, "Deanships are ephemeral creatures of place, time, discipline, personalities and circumstances" (p. 262).

Kinnard (1992) stated that a New American University must be designed around strong and integrated strategic planning, entrepreneurial leaders and leaner administration. He believed that entrepreneurial leaders will be required to deal with budget crises that will continue to plague universities this decade.

Cohen (1993) hypothesized that the two most critical qualities of leaders in higher education are the ability to communicate effectively and the ability to manage and plan strategically in a rapidly changing environment. He developed five major leadership roles: articulate a clear vision for the college and its programs, set the college's agenda for the future, gather and analyze information that will affect the school's programs, generate a commitment to a high quality program, communicate extensively with people, and develop an excellent management team. Cohen concluded that in attempting to determine which traits are required to be a successful leader, examination of the unique characteristics of the environment is essential.
Leadership Requirements on the Health Sciences Center

Detmer and Finney (1993) noted, "There is a dearth of research on the leadership" of health [science] centers (p. 10). To date, the majority of studies investigating academic leadership have been done on the traditional university campus. Most observers believe that leadership on the HSC has unique challenges. On a health sciences center campus, academic administrators face the problems of the traditional parent university, but they are confronted additionally with the challenges of health care reform and its potential impact on the education of health care professionals. Administrators in these centers must not only deal with managing an academic institution, they must also manage the "business" of health care.

The University Hospital Consortium (UHC) conducted research looking at some of the challenges facing these centers in the 1990s. This study concluded that the HSC leadership must be willing to assume a change-oriented style and that leaders must emulate the characteristics required in business leadership. These characteristics included: defining and communicating a vision, building external relationships, recruiting excellent people, being politically savvy (UHC, 1995, p. 3).
Cohen (1993) stated that the leadership problems on the academic health sciences center are different today due to the declining resources and the "frenetic pace of change that engulfs all of society in this era of information and technology" (p. 354). Cohen hypothesized that because of the environmental difficulties on the HSC, a different set of skills and abilities are required to manage.

Wilson and McLaughlin (1984) developed a list of the constituencies making demands on the medical school dean. These constituencies include faculty, students, unrepresented minorities, university officials, alumnae parents, boards of trustees, affiliated hospitals, third party payers, Medicare and Medicaid, medical center patients, doctors, foundations, state legislators, state higher education agencies, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) and about ten more authorities. They concluded that the multiple and conflicting agendas of these constituencies have created a tense environment for the academic administrators of the HSC, possibly contributing to the increase in turnover of academic administrators.

In discussing the uncertain future of HSCs, Aschenbrener (1993)
concluded that because many centers are confronting similar leadership problems, the leaders in these organizations should learn from the experiences of others (p. 29).

Leadership Requirements in Schools of Pharmacy

Of the five schools (Medicine, Nursing, Dentistry, Pharmacy, and Allied Health) typically found on a HSC campus, the school of pharmacy is generally one of the smallest. In this environment, as the leader of the school, the dean is in the key position to acquire resources for the school’s programs. What is the leadership role of this individual, and what qualities are key to success?

Trinca (1993) questioned if the rewards of the position were sufficient to attract qualified individuals to the position of dean, noting that many searches have dragged on for many years. He concluded that "there is a need to both enrich and strengthen the leadership and management pipeline for pharmacy schools" (p. 291). Cohen (1993) observed there is a "paucity of qualified individuals able and willing to assume major positions of leadership in higher education and the characteristics of leadership do not fit into a single model but emerge
retrospectively from an analysis of the leader and the environment they operate within" (p. 351).

Dr. Richard Penna (1994) observed that there is a deficit in leadership at pharmacy schools, and that pharmacy is no different that medicine or dentistry. He stated: "They too are suffering from a dean shortage, and they’re probably in worse shape" (p. 18). He noted that there are several reasons why pharmacy school dean positions are not being filled: expansion of new schools, retirement or death of long-term deans, movement of deans from one school to another that is considered more prestigious with better funding and resources. Additionally, he observed that there is a hesitancy on the part of qualified people to apply for the position. Penna (1994) noted that "the job is perceived to be not as glorious as it once was" (p. 16). He concluded that pharmacy schools have not found a dean because they "haven’t found the right match" (p. 16). This indicates perhaps a confusion on the part of faculties and search committees in determining the qualifications required to be a dean.

Rutledge (1994) described the process that is used to select a dean in a School of Pharmacy. He concluded that extended vacancies occur because schools do not adequately prepare and conduct a search
for a dean. Cohen (1993) stated that there is a strong belief that unless a school recruits an established dean, then the typical search process may have difficulty identifying potentially successful leaders. This may indicate a lack of confidence on the part of search committees to select a candidate who has not previously served as a dean.

But what are the requisite knowledge, skills and abilities of the pharmacy dean? A study conducted by Vanderveen (1988) examined the self perceived leadership styles of pharmacy school deans using a managerial grid concept. Twenty-six percent of all deans participating (N = 127) preferred a style of management that reflected a low regard for both people and tasks. The author concluded that leadership in colleges of pharmacy may be lacking. He concluded, "Better defined and structured career pathways providing enhanced management training and experience for future deans along with heightened sensitivity to the importance of assessing management skills by search committees might result in improved leadership skills of the pharmacy deans" (p. 148).

Kinnard and Harcleroad (1993) stated that to manage in tomorrow’s universities a "new breed of academic manager who clearly understands the mission of the university and who can bring together the
academic community and the limited resources to achieve their common goals" (p. 290). They concluded that development of management skills must become a routine activity within pharmacy schools.

In his discussion of academic leadership in schools of pharmacy, Wolf (1993) discussed the works of Cohen and March. He concluded that the leadership and ambiguity these authors observed in American universities in the 1970s and the 1980s is certainly present in schools of pharmacy in the 1990s.

**Academic Administration of the Future**

There is a substantial difference of opinion in the higher education literature as to the leadership requirements of academic administrators in the future. Some writers proposed that academic administrators should become more business-like. Kauffman (1983) compared the manner in which educational institutions select leaders with the business world. He noted that in academia, leaders were selected through a process of natural selection. In contrast to this, business organizations found it beneficial to identify and groom future leaders.
Green (1981) provided an overview of the environments of business and higher education. She observed, "The substantive gaps between higher education and business are profound and obvious; the value systems and organizational structures underlying each institution are more dissimilar than alike" (p. 13). Because of this, Green argued that there is a reluctance by faculties to accept administratively-oriented individuals as deans and presidents. The typical individual is chosen from the faculty and his first commitment is to teaching and research.

Green compared the preparation of academic administrators with business leaders. She noted that movement into academic administration was rarely accompanied by formal preparation and most new academic administrators learned their roles by performing them. In academia, the culture holds that the experience of being a faculty member is the only grooming an administrator needs. In contrast, business leaders are extensively prepared prior to assuming their roles. Additionally, Green observed that the nature of the university affected the interpretation of leadership. She stated, "Academics do not consider administration to be a very lofty art....when administration is viewed in this way, training for it cannot be valued" (p. 13). She concluded this view had to change.
Indeed, leadership training began changing in the 1960s when the golden age saw the tremendous expansion of educational institutions and programs. At that time, training focused on curriculum, leadership styles, and the management of growth and ample resources. The severe budget crisis of the 1970s redirected this training to financial management of limited budgets, marketing, strategic planning etc. Green predicted that the pressures of the 1980s and 1990s would silence the debate about management and leadership in higher education. She proposed:

Leadership efforts will be needed to promote the development of new hybrid academic administrators who are part educational leader and part manager and who can successfully preserve a constructive tension between the academic and managerial components of their roles.

"These leaders will require preparation to cope with the management of large, but insufficient budgets and declining enrollments and to respond to the pressures of federal and state regulations, taxpayers, and student consumers. (p. 15)

Green summarized that the task of academic leadership will be difficult, and leadership development will become increasingly urgent.

Simms and Simms (1991) observed that colleges and universities are losing public support and trust because the university has become so businesslike. In addition, the university president has been transformed
from an academic to a public relations person. They cite several references that compare the university president to a shrewd businessman who is primarily concerned with maintaining a proper level of funding. They believed however, that when this transformation occurs the university loses its "noble and transforming purpose" (p. 5).

In his review of the status and future direction of educational administration, Willower (1987) stated that in the future, comparative studies in the policy studies should be helpful due to the "possibilities for inquiry on differential power and governance" (p. 26). In the next 25 years, he observed, educational administration needs a resurgence of energies devoted to serious study of politics. Reductions in schools of education and tight economies have created pressures for scholars to focus on the short term survival. In support of this, Bensimon, Neumann and Birnbaum (1989) observed that during a financial crisis, a leadership style that combines political acumen and rational management is beneficial. The majority of academic administrators however, are not trained to be financial managers, politicians and public relations experts. Perhaps that is one reason many academic administrators are unhappy with the role of dean.
Wilcox and Ebbs (1992) noted that leadership in higher education was under intense pressure to change so as to respond to societal issues resulting from economic and social forces. These authors make us wonder if we need a new type of academic administrator managing higher education and resolving the crises.

What is a Leadership Crisis?

As noted in Chapter 1, the 1970s budget problems caused environmental and leadership symptoms. While the environmental symptoms are not as prominent today, descriptions of the leadership crisis continue to be at the forefront of discussions.

Keller (1993) attributed the continuing crisis to several factors such as budget threats and the persistence of naivete and bias about organizational planning. He stated,

Americans live in a capitalist industrial society and for the most part work in medium-sized and large organizations run with the help of bureaucracies. Yet many professors, like Chinese mandarins, have a bias against business and commercial activities. They abhor organizational needs, and they detest bureaucracies. Like blacksmiths, cowboys and bookstore proprietors, university scholars tend to be in modern society but not really part of it. This makes planning, organizational behavior, good financial practices and modern management difficult in higher education. (p.34)
In a thoughtful reflection on the crisis, Bartell (1975) suggested that while the financial difficulties may have been a temporary threat to the survival of colleges and universities, new institutional constraints make the colleges less attractive to the kinds of people that are necessary for the survival of quality institutions. He proposed that rapid turnover of university administrators, decreased length of terms and a change in the quality of academic life for the president were all indicators of the leadership crisis. But can this be empirically studied?

In 1981, Trachtenberg (1981) wrote a very opinionated article on the difficulties in the role of university president. He felt that a crisis exists in academic leadership and that the burnout of administrators is very high. He attributed the crisis to the recruiting process for these administrators and the demands that are placed on the president. The recruiting process is flawed because in most searches, the candidate who survives the tough scrutiny is the one who is the least provocative. He observed that it may take several years before those involved in the process "awaken to the fact that bland, noncommittal leadership is not what the times require" (p. 5). He believed that in the tough university
environment, the processes to select the president were
counterproductive and these administrators required special skills.

Trachtenberg also noted that the demands on the president were
unrealistic. He pointed out that these administrators get very little
positive feedback and many conflicting signals in their daily work life.
College presidents, he observed, do not complain that the position is a
difficult one. What they do complain about is that faculty members do
not understand the difficulty of their position. He commented, "It hurts
to see so much empathy being taught in the classrooms and to find there
is so little of it for oneself" (p. 6). This sense of isolation contributes
to presidential burnout. He concluded that this burnout can be very
serious for academic institutions since finding the replacements can be
very time consuming. The search process sometimes takes years, during
which time "the president’s dysfunction can worsen and the school
suffers as a result" (p. 8).

Turnover as a Symptom of Crisis

If the environmental problems are too complex and the role of the
academic administrator is much more difficult, then perhaps that explains
why deans are leaving their jobs earlier. Shorter tenures and a high turnover may be symptoms of the leadership crisis.

Banaszak-Holl and Greer (1994) examined the turnover of deans on the HSC. These researchers studied medical school deans and found that the turnover of these leaders has greatly increased in the past five decades. They suggested that if deans are chosen on the basis of traditional academic status and other similar criteria, the turnover may be occurring because the deans lack the management and interpersonal skills needed to carry out their complex duties. They argued that deans may not be prepared to "effectively interact with and share authority with a variety of other senior administrators and faculty while remaining individually responsible for the school's education, research and service programs" (p. 1). Alternatively, they suggested that the turnover may simply be a reflection of the rapid growth and change in the mission of the academic health sciences center.

Banaszak-Holl and Greer recommended that additional studies exploring the causes of dean's turnover should be conducted, specifically addressing the personal and environmental causes of turnover. Results
of these data can assist in developing a set of expectations for deans in the future and subsequently decrease turnover.

In pharmacy circles, several authors have commented that the turnover of deans is very high, thereby indicating leadership problems. Cohen (1993) observed that the turnover of people in academic administration in pharmacy education is very high, and Rutledge (1994) stated that for the past several years more than 12 of the 75 Schools of Pharmacy have been searching for a dean. He observed that the pharmacy academy is not making progress in having a full complement of leadership in its schools. This turnover is occurring at a time when major changes and challenges are occurring in the profession of pharmacy. He concluded that "we need for each school to have dynamic stable leadership in the dean's position" (p. 118).

A high turnover of leadership in key positions may be a symptom of the crisis. Turnover affects the quality of academic programs and stalls necessary curriculum and program changes. The institution becomes potentially crippled while an interim dean takes charge.

In addition to the costs associated with recruitment and selection, other organizational problems can be identified such as the inability of the
campus to move forward with short and long term planning, the loss of administrative continuity and the straining of inter and intra college relationships. The HSC reflects a major industry in most cities, with significant financial impact on their communities.

Theories of Tenure

Banaszak-Holl and Greer (1994) found that the dean’s length of tenure was decreasing. The average tenure of medical school deans was less than four years. In examining the shortened tenure of the deans, they concluded that the increased frequency of shorter tenures may indicate problems for the institution and the individuals.

Green and McDade (1991) described the three phases of the dean’s job cycle that occur rather predictably over the years of the job: entry, growth and maturation.

The entry phase. Until the first crisis arises (at approximately three months) the dean thinks that the job is great. During the first crisis, he finds the job to be impossible and begins seriously to rethink his decision. In the second year, he finally realizes that through hard work he can
make it. These authors found that a new dean takes approximately two years to feel in control of the job and proactive rather than reactive.

These researchers found that there is no training ground for most administrative positions in higher education. Most deans do not have the opportunity to learn their position through experiences in the intermediary positions, as assistant and associate deans.

In addition, new deans are more reluctant to give up their faculty duties. Green and McDade stated, "New deans live with one leg still firmly planted in the faculty and the other just stepping into administration" (p. 105). This occurs because some deans are in the process of completing the research they started before entering the deanship. However, many find that they cannot do both activities well, e.g. administration of the school and research. They reported that many new deans expressed feelings of defection from their disciplines. The risk is that before they can find acceptable models of administrative and leadership success, they must shed old models of faculty success.

The growth phase. In this phase, lasting between years 2-4, deans master the details of their jobs and may feel comfortable in their
new role. During this phase, Green and McDade observed that deans must redefine themselves. At this point, they must decide to go on in administration or return to the faculty. This is problematic. If returning to the faculty, the deans must continue to define their role in their old discipline; however, as was observed previously, attempting to balance both the administrative and research areas well is almost impossible.

The maturation phase. In the next four to eight years, deans have essentially mastered the task. They are comfortable with their role and understand how to manage the institution. At this point, they frequently become involved with national associations, develop an expertise in administration, and begin to publish and present papers. Green and McDade observed that at this stage, deans may also serve as mentors to other new deans. At this time, the deans realize that they may not be able to return to their previous discipline without significant "retooling" (p. 106). In areas which are highly scientific and rapidly changing, deans have great difficulty returning to their faculty role. Consequently, deans must decide if they will go on to a higher level in academic administration, remain at the dean level, or return to faculty.
Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature on leadership. Although there appear to be many theories of leadership, there are two models that help to assess leadership requirements in higher education. Both the trait and contingency/environment models are relevant to this issue and they were presented in this chapter.

In reviewing the traits required of academic administrators, authors suggested two areas administrative and personal. Administrative skills such as knowledge of position, communications, planning ability, human relations, organization and management, judgement and quality of performance. Personal qualities included traits such as responsibility, willingness to act, thoughtfulness and ethical conduct, flexibility, integrity, self control, intellectual efficiency, personal relations, motivation to achieve, and creativity.

Birnbaum (1992) stated that traits alone do not necessarily predict leadership ability. He felt that leadership effectiveness depends on the environment, the organizational culture and subordinates’ expectations. The contingency, or environmental theories state that leaders must adapt their style and behavior to the environment. Cohen (1993) stated that in
attempting to determine how to become a successful leader, examination of the unique characteristics of the environment is essential.

Additionally, many authors felt that leadership requirements must change in times of environmental stress. The works of Bensimon (1989) and Bolman and Deal (1991) illustrate how the environment dictates leadership requirements. To respond to changes in the academic institution, some authors recommended that academic administrators must become more business-oriented (Wilcox & Ebbs, 1992).

I feel that the works of Cribben (1981) were especially beneficial in understanding leadership requirements in times of environmental change, resulting from problems such as budget shortages. He uses the metaphor of a pair of scissors to describe leadership. One blade represents the leader's traits and the other blade represents the situation that provides the leader with both constraints and opportunities. Cribben concludes that the skillful leader is able to make his personal behavior congruent with the realities.

This chapter demonstrates that in response to the leadership crisis in higher education, many writers feel that additional education would assist academic administrators in meeting the challenges of the changing
CHAPTER 3
BACKGROUND INFORMATION

This chapter will cover two areas. First I will give an overview of the programs on a HSC campus. Then I will contrast the unique environment of the HSC with that of the parent university. Finally, I will review the demographic and program characteristics of pharmacy schools. I feel a discussion of the environment is essential so the reader will be knowledgeable about the environments of both schools of pharmacy and HSCs, so that so comparisons to other academic settings may be considered.

The Health Sciences Center

A health sciences center typically consists of a teaching hospital, the schools of medicine and nursing, and one or more other schools teaching ancillary health-professional disciplines such as pharmacy, dentistry and physical therapy. Most HSCs contain three or four health
schools but the number varies from one to seven. A unique feature of the HSC is that instruction in the health sciences cannot be accomplished except in a service setting. Health care delivery is a co-equal function of the HSC, along with education and research. Consequently, no other academic department or professional school in the university shares this degree of service orientation.

HSCs are typically subdivisions of a parent university, but a few are autonomous health universities. The HSC may be located on the same campus as the parent university, but it is usually located near an urban center with accessibility to special patient populations such as the indigent. Governance in HSCs varies greatly. Some models have a university-owned teaching hospital while others have affiliation agreements with hospitals used for teaching. These affiliations are key in the educational mission of the schools such as pharmacy, since a majority of the experiential portion of the curriculum is taught in the HSC. Over 100 health sciences centers exist in the U.S. today, and most are integral components of major research universities, the parent university.

All writers agree that HSCs are complex. Complexity arises from internal and external factors. Vogel (1980, p. 11) listed the internal
factors to include multiple missions, issues of professionalism, growth, and faculty and house staff issues. External factors include changing patient and public expectations about health care, new patterns of health education and training, changing student bodies, different financial arrangements, increased governmental activities and the changing expectation of health professions.

On a health sciences center campus, academic administrators face the same problems found on the parent university, but they are also confronted with the challenges of health-care reform and its potential impact on the education of health-care professionals. Daily newspapers report the myriad of plans for changing the provision of health care in America. These changes are predicted to cause a shift in the supply and demand for both the quality and quantity of health-care professionals (McNerney, 1994).

Dr. Harold Shapiro, the keynote speaker at the 1993 Annual Meeting of the Association of Academic Health Centers listed several issues facing health sciences centers: public concern and dismay about the rapidly rising costs that are necessary to sustain the current programs, public concern about the outputs of these institutions, and a
sense that the character and mix of these activities need to be restructured. Additionally, he noted public concern about the quality, accessibility and future role of these institutions.

The HSC Crisis

As discussed previously, the leadership crisis in higher education appears to be spreading to the HSC and to schools of pharmacy. This section is designed to provide a better understanding of the differences between the parent university and the health sciences center.

When universities started experiencing the budget crisis in the 1970s the HSC was exempt from these problems due to the fact that most of their budget was generated from patient revenues and research endeavors. These days have changed. Detmer and Finney (1993) believed that the HSC will be especially vulnerable to critical review this decade, given their large operating budgets, high faculty salaries and the lengthy period between scientific breakthroughs in the lab and marketplace availability of research applications. The recent growth in academic health sciences centers is perceived by some to be a threat to the academic integrity of the entire university (Burrow, 1993).
Since so many key elements of the HSC diverge from the parent university, it is important to understand the differences between the institutions. In their work *The Sick Citadel*, Lewis and Sheps (1983) argued that because the HSC has a special relationship to the health care needs of the region, it is clearly differentiated from the rest of the university. The HSC is unique since it must function in two different worlds: both academic and nonacademic environments. Thus, they concluded that the HSC is faced with "unique responsibilities and tasks that universities and their faculties do not readily welcome, accept or cherish" (p. xvii).

**HSCs vs the Parent University**

Crispell and Vogel (1980) stated that the relationship between the health center and its parent university has been debated for over 100 years. Detmer and Finney (1993) noted that the relationship of the health sciences center and the parent is complex and sometimes uneasy. They used the metaphor of the patent:child relationship noting that often these relationships are complicated by tensions and opportunities for cooperation. They listed factors that have created this tension, such as
the large size of the HSC campus and its large operating budget relative to the rest of the university. Ridky and Sheldon (1993) stated that the HSC usually accounts for approximately 50% of the federal competitive research dollars and the indirect costs that come to the state and the parent campus. Other factors that complicate the relationship include the fact that the service orientation of the HSC is not understood nor fully appreciated by non-HSC faculty members who are often jealous and resentful of the HSC faculty whose higher salaries are supplemented by academic practice plans. Teaching loads and research standards for university faculty, when contrasted with their HSC counterparts are also sources of inequality.

Crispell and Vogel (1980) listed additional factors that prevent the HSC from developing a closer relationship with the parent university. These include the arrogance of medical facilities combined with the arrogance of faculties in the parent university who view their own fields as the only truly academic ones. Frequently, they observed, the faculty members in the parent university view medical and professional schools as trade schools. Additionally, given the administrative complexity of the HSC, many presidents and governing bodies have allowed the center
to develop its own policies and procedures, and rules and regulations. Given a higher level of autonomy to govern itself, as long as it balances its budget, the health sciences center creates controversy among the other university schools who have to "play by the rules" (Crispell & Vogel, 1980, p. 38).

**The Mission.** The triparae mission of the health sciences center is unique and differs from the parent university since it includes a patient care component. The mission of the HSC is dedicated to service (patient care), education, and research. Often the three goals conflict with each other and produce ambiguity and governance problems within the health sciences center (AAHC 1980, p 6). Because the three missions of the HSC are so closely intertwined, the HSC is especially vulnerable to the current economic and structural changes taking place in our health care system (The Commonwealth Fund Report, 1985, p.2). The financing of these three functions has developed through a network of subsidies that is based on payments for patient care in the affiliated university hospital. Reimbursement for this care has traditionally included the cost of the teaching and research missions. Financial implications will be discussed in greater detail in a following section.
The culture and traditions. The disciplines of healing: medicine, pharmacy and nursing have a long tradition of respect and esteem in society. A societal covenant that confers this esteem on practitioners of these disciplines is not restricted to the United States; it is a covenant that is enjoyed in most countries of the world. Since the quality of care is dependent on the knowledge level of the health professionals, this privileged status has been extended to the educational institutions that prepare the future health-care practitioners.

The nation’s health-care educators have worked diligently to maintain the unique traditions and knowledge base of professional medical education. A well-defined set of heuristics exists for each medical discipline and little "contamination" is permitted. Consequently, the medical school is responsible for training physicians and for overseeing intern and resident programs. The pharmacy school trains the pharmacists, and the nursing school trains nurses. Each discipline is separated into a mythologically unique body of knowledge and skills. Kinnard (1992) observed that faculty members thrive in the midst of their own discipline’s jargon. This is the culture and traditions of health-care education.
Dramatic changes in health-sciences education are predicted to occur as the nation’s hospitals restructure the knowledge and skill requirements of health-care workers. The professional schools in the HSC have been arrogant in deciding the terminal competencies of their graduates and rarely seek input from the employers of their graduates. Consequently, many health care practitioners are not being trained to meet the new challenges occurring with health care reform.

Financial issues. HSCs are funded by multiple, flexible funding sources. The centers have been funded by research grants, tuition, patient care revenues and state subsidies. Additionally, the faculty funding in each professional school is often offset by contracts with outside providers. For example, salary support frequently is given to schools of pharmacy for special services given by clinical faculty members while they provide service in hospitals.

The HSC budget in many universities represents 50% or more of the total university expenditures (Crispell & Vogel, 1980). Faculty members on the parent university often view this as an inequitable use of funds in spite of the fact that much of the revenue is from outside sources.
Traditionally the HSC has enjoyed an exemption from marketing its services to prospective patients (Detmer & Finney, 1993). High level technologies and medical expertise, cutting-edge specialties and a regional stature attract critically ill patients to the center. Additionally, most HSCs deliver a significant amount of free or indigent care to 40 million Americans. Reimbursement for indigent care is critical to the financial health of the HSC. For many years, HSCs and teaching hospitals have been in the favorable status of receiving extra funding though two federal programs that subsidize the cost of graduate medical education. Hospitals receive the indirect medical education cost, which allows the hospital to bill Medicare at a higher rate for its medical education training programs.

The second reimbursement is the graduate medical education factor, which is a direct cost based on the number of full-time residents in the teaching hospitals. These two funding sources have assisted the HSC to remain competitive with other non-teaching hospitals. However, both of these programs are being challenged in today’s health care reform.
In September 1993, the Chronicle of Higher Education reported that the proposed health care reforms could lead to the collapse of certain academic health centers (Jaschik, 1993). This collapse was predicated on the decrease in the revenue streams of the health center which would create crisis in the education programs, research, clinical services, and scholarship commitments.

The relative financial independence of the HSC schools has allowed them to expand faculty and facilities at a faster rate than the parent campus. This growth has created animosity in faculty outside the HSC since this expansion appears to be inequitable and not based on the total university needs. Public funding for the HSCs was especially generous during the 1960-80s as the nation identified a need for a better supply of well-trained health care practitioners. In the 1990s, this funding has evaporated, changing the budgets for HSC faculty members who have been accustomed to liberal funding sources. The HSC faculty feels that the university does not adequately support its educational program and that they are working longer hours to generate income which is used by the university for other schools which do not conduct research.
In addition to seeing a shrinking research grants from the National Institutes of Health (NIH) and other sources, the clinical faculty must compete with other providers who are not responsible for research and education. Fiscal survival threatens to replace the core values of the HSC making teaching a "loss item" (Pellegrino, 1982, p. 24).

Faculty issues. Faculty salaries represent a large item in the HSC budget. In the last few decades, there has been a dramatic increase in the number of faculty members, the specialization of their training and their reimbursement. Between 1959 and 1973 the number of full-time faculty members in academic clinical departments rose from 2,200 to 24,000; a 1,100% increase (Vogel, 1980, p. 14). This tremendous growth was due to the increase in research and continued development of specialty areas.

Vogel (1980) noted that one source of complexity on the HSC is the professionalism of many of its employees, since professionalism implies a higher degree of autonomy in working relationships between employees and with the organization itself. The salaries for the faculty on the HSC are generally more favorable than for faculty members on the parent university. Additionally, since salary is not based on rank in the
health sciences, this creates hostility towards the health science faculty members. Salary inequities occur because of the support given by research and practice plans as well as the competition with private practice salaries to retain excellent faculty members.

Teaching loads are much smaller and more elective for HSC faculty members because, for many, a significant proportion of their time is dedicated to research. Many of the schools negotiate the number of classes that will be taught by individual faculty members, using the service, education and research missions as the framework. Additionally, the HSC schools benefit greatly from a large cadre of volunteer, unpaid faculty members. Volunteer faculty is frequently used by the HSC to further relieve the teaching loads of faculty members. Volunteer faculty members give lectures and serve as preceptors for the experiential components of the programs.

Due to outside funding, the student:faculty ratio is very low in the HSC schools in comparison to the parent university. In the medical school for example, the ratio may be as low as 1:1 while in the school of pharmacy the ratio may be as much as 1:25 or more.
DuVal (1982) noted the "faculties are tired; most are tenured", and the outside world does not look attractive to them. Consequently, they are occupying slots that could be taken by younger faculty" (p. 18). He observed that "since they are products of the era of plenty (the 1960s and 1970s) they have neither the understanding nor the will to confront the nature of the problems" (p. 18). Many problems exist in the awarding of tenure, especially in medical schools. As schools have inculcated their mission of service, education and research into the expectations for faculty members, they have modified tenure to account for these differentiated roles and responsibilities. This approach is scorned by the arts and science faculty who feel the policies in the health schools are too liberal and not based on scholarship. A Rand Corporation study (Williams, Carter, Hammons, Poenter, 1987) looked at tenure in the HSC. This study concluded that the survival of the center depends on integration of schools and the relinquishment of some autonomy on the part of departments.

Student issues. Students on the HSC are different from the parent university. Students enter the HSC schools possessing a undergraduate degree, or having a significant fraction of one completed.
Because the students have completed several years in higher education, they are generally more mature and come to these programs highly motivated. Typically a large number of applicants compete for the few open slots and admissions committees frequently look at candidates with average GPAs close to 4.0.

Detmer and Finney (1993) observed that student demographics will change greatly in this decade. The typical student has been a white male. There are more women, minorities and older students (over the age of 25) who will require more flexibility on the part of faculty members; these students will require modifications in the curriculum to meet their lifestyle needs. This will challenge the entire educational process of the health science disciplines. Detmer and Finney continued, "The academic enterprise at present owns too much of the students' lives in the early years of their professional training and the specialty board control too many prerogatives during the latter half of ... professional upbringing" (p. 9). They concluded that the education and training of these professionals will determine how effective our health care system of the future will be. They believe that students will need more flexible training experiences than has been provided by HSCs to date.
Curriculum. There are several differences between the curricula of the HSC and the parent university. The HSC curriculum has been extremely homogenous and rigidly maintains its focus on the preparation of a very narrow spectrum of health care specialists, e.g. physicians, nurses and pharmacists. This paradigm is most reminiscent of the trade school approach to education, where the student learned a trade through a hands-on approach to learning. Indeed, one common attribute of all of the health professions is that they require a mandatory experiential component. In contrast to this, the parent university produces a wide range of generalist-graduates in literally hundreds of potential disciplines.

The HSC curricula are extremely focused with few options for electives. This is required because of the examination and licensure requirements for each of the health professions. In contrast to this, the parent university offers many more curriculum choices and terminal licensure requirements of graduates is not as prevalent.

Finally, because the traditional student was a full time white male, the classes were offered on a very restricted schedule: Monday through Friday between the hours of 8-4 PM. Classes are not offered in the evenings or on weekends. It has been impossible for most students in
the professional health sciences to work full time while in school. Major modifications to the traditional curriculums of the HSCs will be required to meet the needs of the older, minority student population.

There has been little room for creativity in the curriculum for the health disciplines and many of the curricula have not significantly changed in decades. This is especially true of many of the basic science courses, such as chemistry, anatomy and physiology. One of the challenges of this decade will be for the faculty on the HSC to redesign their curricula to emphasize prevention, primary care, wellness, public health issues, health promotion and population-based approaches to health care.

The School of Pharmacy

The American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy (AACP) provided the statistic that as of December 1993 there were 75 U.S. colleges and schools of pharmacy with accredited professional degree programs. Twenty-one programs are in private institutions, and 54 are in publicly-supported universities. There are three private, independent, free-standing schools; the remaining 72 schools are university-affiliated.
The number of pharmacy programs have grown in the last ten years from 72 schools in 1984-85 to an anticipated 77 in 1995. Enrollment in that same period has also risen. In the 1993 fall semester, pharmacy student enrollment ranged from 124 to 1,511 students per school. Total full-time, first professional degree pharmacy student enrollment was 32,938. Of this number, 26,118 were in the B.S. in Pharmacy program and 6,820 were enrolled in the Doctor of Pharmacy (Pharm. D.) program. The applicant pool for pharmacy professional degree programs is among the strongest of all health care professions.

The average school is receiving three to four applicants for each available position. In the fall of 1993, there were 2,869 full-time, 380 part-time, and 2,224 adjunct/volunteer pharmacy faculty members at these 75 institutions.

Pharmacy is a professional school. Anderson (1986) defines a professional school as:

an academic discipline that is closely connected with a recognized profession and is created in response to rigid educational requirements imposed upon a discipline by state laws and/or by a powerful national organization composed of practitioners. (p. 100)

Pharmacy qualifies as a profession because it represents an
occupation that requires training in a specialized field of study. Additionally, a minimum level of competency must be demonstrated; this is typically measured by state boards.

Pharmacy has been called a profession in transition, shifting from a "hard-science" to a patient-oriented, clinical profession (Wergin, 1993, p. 278). Wergin noted that there are many forces changing the profession and that it is experiencing both external and internal pressures. External pressures include decreasing budgets, increasing corporatization of professional practice, more government regulation and societal issues such as the rise of consumerism. Internal pressures include the changing demographics of students and faculty issues including the changing roles and rewards systems.

Cohen (1992) framed the difficult situation in pharmacy schools by discussing the funding crisis in higher education and listing the major changes that need to be made in areas such as curriculum design, development of problem solving formats for educational programs, enhancement of graduate programs and the commitment to multidisciplinary delivery of health care. He concluded that the changes would have been challenging for these schools in the 1970s or 1980s.
when budgets were healthy and federal support for education and research were increasing. In the 1990s however, attempting to make these changes will be a formidable task.

**The Organizational Structure**

Most pharmacy schools are divided into two distinct sections or divisions. The basic science division is headed by a Ph. D. scientist who frequently is not a pharmacist. This division includes faculty who teach the basic science courses and who contribute the majority of the research efforts to the school. Most of these faculty members are full professors and tenured.

The other division is called Pharmacy Practice. This division is headed by a Doctor of Pharmacy (Pharm. D). The faculty in this department spend a majority of their time teaching, overseeing the experiential rotations in hospitals and pharmacies and working in patient care areas. These individuals are usually not tenured, do very little research and typically are at the Assistant or Associate Professor levels.
Degree Programs

Schools of pharmacy offer various graduate and undergraduate programs leading to degrees in both pharmacy and non-pharmacy areas.

The B.S. in Pharmacy: The undergraduate degree awarded by schools of pharmacy is the Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy (B.S. Pharm). This degree is offered by 28 schools of pharmacy as the only first professional degree. The B.S. program is a three year professional program completed in a school of pharmacy. The preprofessional program is two years and can be completed in community colleges or the parent university.

The professional program offers a fairly well defined, yet compartmentalized curriculum. The first year is largely devoted to basic science coursework. Students take courses in biochemistry, pharmacology, and medicinal chemistry. These courses are taught by Ph. D. basic science faculty members. In the second professional year, the students take a combination of basic science courses, as well as begin the practical, or professional component of the program. In the last year, the student finishes the remaining professional courses and completes approximately 18 weeks of externship rotations in areas such
as retail, hospital and clinical pharmacy sites. The professional and experiential components of the pharmacy curriculum are taught by Pharm. D. faculty members.

**Graduate programs:** Sixty-three schools offer graduate programs in the pharmaceutical sciences at the Master of Science (M.S.) and Doctorate (Ph. D.) levels. The M.S. programs are typically two year post-B.S. programs that emphasize skill development in areas such as hospital pharmacy and pharmacy administration. M.S. programs generally focus on research and require a thesis. The Ph.D. programs are research-oriented programs that are offered to students with or without a B.S. in Pharmacy. Doctoral programs are offered in the basic sciences in areas such as pharmacology, medicinal chemistry and pharmaceutics.

**The Doctor of Pharmacy (Pharm. D.).** The five year, B.S. program was challenged in the 1960s (Mrtek, 1976). One of the key factors fueling this challenge was that the role of the pharmacist was changing from the traditional practice of compounding and distributing medications to one focused on patient care. To respond to this change in practice, in the early 1960s two California schools of pharmacy began offering a six year Doctor of Pharmacy program. This program consisted of two
preprofessional and four professional years of study. This action caused academic pharmacy to carefully examine the current pharmacy curriculum and change it to provide more clinically-oriented, patient-focused education. Additionally, the experiential component of the Pharm. D. program emphasized the pharmacist’s role in the management of drug therapy outcomes.

In 1992, a landmark decision was reached at the Annual Meeting of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy (AACP). Meeting delegates passed a resolution that the Pharm. D. degree would become the official degree for all pharmacy schools. Since that decision, all pharmacy schools have worked to develop a Pharm. D. program. There are currently three different program designs for the Pharm. D. degree: Entry level, Post-baccalaureate, and Track-in programs.

The entry level programs have followed California’s lead eliminating the baccalaureate program and offering only the Pharm. D. as the first professional degree. These programs condense the didactic coursework into a total of four years, and the student completes one year of experiential rotations. Forty-seven schools offer the Pharm. D. as a first
professional degree. These programs do not have a research component.

The post baccalaureate option offers the Pharm. D. degree in a two year post-baccalaureate program. These programs have one year of didactic coursework and one year of experiential rotations. Like the entry level programs, these programs generally do not require a research project or thesis. Fifty-seven schools offer the Pharm. D. as a post-B.S. degree. Finally, another set of schools offer a track-in option after the first professional year of a baccalaureate program. The student does not complete the B.S. program but receives the Pharm. D. degree in a six year time frame.

The decision to make the Pharm. D. degree the official degree for pharmacy graduates has not been supported by all schools of pharmacy. Major barriers thwart efforts to implement this decision. For example, most schools have been unable to secure the funding for the additional year of training. Funding is required for increased faculty, facilities and experiential cost requirements of the program. Some schools have proposed cutting the number of baccalaureate students by 50% so the school can afford to develop the Pharm. D. program; however, many state legislatures will not support the proposal. Additional resistance is
being directed by national organizations such as the National Association of Chain Drug Stores (NACDS) who believe that the five year program is sufficient to train practitioners.

Accreditation

The goal of the accrediting body for schools of pharmacy, the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education (ACPE) is to facilitate quality assurance and quality enhancement for B.S. and Pharm. D. programs. The Accreditation Standards and Guidelines represent the characteristics of quality which schools of pharmacy should develop.

The Pharmacy Dean

The pharmacy school dean is often both the chief executive officer and chief academic officer in a largely self-contained academic unit. The pharmacy school typically runs its own recruiting, admissions, registration, student affairs, and discipline. The position of the pharmacy school dean is therefore considered analogous to that of the president of a small independent college (AACP, Deanship Manual, 1994, p. 1).
Vanderveen (1988) presented an overview of the demographics of pharmacy school deans. Of the 54 respondents in his study, the mean age of the deans was 51 years and the mode age was 62 years. He suggested that these statistics would naturally predict a higher turnover of deans in the immediate future. These demographics are key to understanding the number of vacant positions in schools of pharmacy.

Selection of Deans

In 1988, Vanderveen observed that selection of deans was based on many individual qualifications. He wrote, "Qualifications in the selection of pharmacy dean includes excellence in teaching or research, ability to obtain grants, political astuteness, or even the fact that no one else wanted the job" (p. 142). Recognizing the large number of deanships available at any one time, AACP developed a Deanship Manual (AACP, 1994). The manual was developed because of the growing concern among pharmaceutical educators about the number of open positions, the changing nature of the deanship and the apparent declining interest of faculty to assume positions of academic leadership. AACP has taken other measures attempting to address leadership concerns in
the schools of pharmacy. These efforts include a week-long conference for new deans, and development of the Academic Management System (AMS, 1994) which is a compilation of articles on running a school of pharmacy.

Summary

In this chapter I outlined the demographics and environment of pharmacy schools and provided a contrast between the HSC and the parent university. Because this environment offers special challenges for leaders, an overview of its key features is essential to understanding the leadership crisis.
CHAPTER 4
METHODOLOGY

As presented in Chapter 2, a perception of a leadership crisis exists in pharmacy schools. Pharmacy writers focus on the high turnover of administrators, the changing role of the dean in the rapidly changing HSC environment and the unrealistic expectations of search committees (Cohen, 1993; Trinca, 1993; Rutledge, 1994). These factors contribute to the perception of crisis or an emergent problem in pharmacy leadership. The goal of this research is to develop an understanding of the perception of a leadership crisis in pharmacy schools.

This chapter is divided into two sections. First, I will discuss how I used phenomenological or interpretive-based methods to investigate the perception of a leadership crisis in pharmacy schools. The second section gives a detailed description of the investigative methods for each phase of the study. Using a combination of qualitative and quantitative
methods, I will discuss the rationale for each phase: data collection, data analysis and finally presentation of results.

In this study, I used multiple sources of evidence to answer the question: is there a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. Sources of evidence included surveying a random sample of pharmacy deans to get their perceptions of the presence or absence of a crisis. Secondly, I gathered evidence apart from these perceptions, including an investigation of the turnover and tenure of pharmacy deans, to validate the existence of a problem in the leadership of these schools.

**Research Design**

Erickson (1990) presented an excellent overview on qualitative methods in research on teaching. Specifically, he defines the use of interpretive methods of participant observational research. In selecting the term interpretive, he notes it offers several advantages. First, it is more inclusive than other methods (e.g. ethnography), also it permits the use of both qualitative and quantitative forms of data, and it enhances the key feature of this type of research by conducting investigation into the human meaning in social life as studied by the researcher. A critical
element in distinguishing interpretative participant observational research from the other types of observational techniques, is the use of what Erickson calls "the immediate and local meanings of actions, as defined from the actors' point of view" (p. 119). In this study, the qualitative phase is seeded in interpretative-participant research collected from the actors, here the deans' local meaning of pharmacy leadership. It is their point of view, or interpretation of the leadership crisis, that is researched in this phase of the study. In this regard, the deans' narrative descriptions are used with a nonpositivist, interpretative orientation. Here the immediate meanings of actions to the deans are of central interest to gaining an understanding of the presence of a crisis, and the nature of the crisis. It is seeking to understand their orientation which frames the interpretivist nature of this study. The quantitative pieces of this research, the turnover and tenure calculations, serve to prove or refute the actors' comments, and provide additional insight into the presence of a real crisis.

Erickson (p. 121) noted that interpretative methods using participant observational fieldwork are most appropriate when one is seeking to understand the meaning-perspectives of the particular actors.
in particular events and to understand specific casual linkages that relate causes and other influences on the patterns that are identified in survey data or experiments. Questions that can be answered in fieldwork include: What is happening in the environment? What does this mean to the people involved in them?

Interpretative participant observational research methods are especially beneficial in this study because the actors (the deans) in the study may not realize the patterns of their actions as they are occurring. Therefore, by believing a crisis is occurring, they may actually cause one to occur. Additionally, these methods allow for the consideration of local meanings that are relevant to schools of pharmacy, within the context of the health science center. The results of this study answer questions such as what is happening here, and what do these happenings mean to the people engaged in them. Erickson (p. 124) found this unique. Frequently, the meaning-perspectives of actors are overlooked in other approaches to research.

For this research, the phenomenon under study is the concept of leadership crisis. The study questions are: what is meant by a "crisis of
leadership in higher education", and is there a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy?

In investigating the literature to research on the first question, I chronicled the parameters of the crisis in higher education that began in the 1970’s and then applied them to the school of pharmacy environment to see if they mirror the situation there. I learned what the key symptoms of the education crisis were in the 1970’s (e.g. closing of schools, decrease in length of tenure and increase in turnover of administrators). Sets of questions from the higher education crisis were used to conduct interpretative research in schools of pharmacy.

The Four Phases of the Study

Four distinct data collection phases were used to investigate the study questions. Each phase is designed to enhance the understanding of the perception of leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. Table 4.1 presents a brief overview of each phase. A detailed discussion of each phase follows the table.
Table 4.1
Phases of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Data description</th>
<th># of elements</th>
<th>Type of data</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pilot survey</td>
<td>3 senior leaders</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>To explore leadership traits and the presence of a crisis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Crisis survey</td>
<td>25 deans</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>To determine if there is a leadership crisis and if so, what the causes and symptoms are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Turnover study</td>
<td>25 years</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>To see if the turnover of deans is abnormally high.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Analysis of tenure</td>
<td>20 years</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
<td>To determine if the tenure of deans is changing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When faced with the question, "Is there a leadership crisis in Schools of Pharmacy?" my first approach was to conduct an in-depth review of the pharmacy literature. In this review, I found that there were indeed many authors warning of an unfolding crisis. From the leadership literature in higher education, I discovered there were also admonitions about the leadership crisis, many of which dated back to the early

93
1970s. However, the warnings of this type of crisis were new to pharmacy literature. Why had the leadership crisis spread to pharmacy? What protection had the HSC enjoyed that made it immune to the crisis for over 20 years? The answers to these questions directed me to a path of investigation that resulted in four phases of study.

Phase One: The Pilot Study

In Phase One, I designed an instrument to study overall leadership issues in schools of pharmacy. The instrument was given to several of the key leaders in pharmacy education today. The pilot study was conducted in November 1994.

Study objectives. The objectives of this phase were to gain an understanding of the critical leadership issues in pharmacy education and to develop a plan on how to tackle the issue of leadership crisis.

Research questions: Four questions were developed for the study:

1. Is there a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy?
2. What knowledge, skills and dispositions have been the norm for deans in schools of pharmacy? What skills will be required in the future?
3. What effect does the environment play in the definition of those skills?

4. Does there need to be a new breed administrator to manage schools of pharmacy?

Study participants. Three senior pharmacy educators were asked to participate in the study.

The survey instrument. A three part, open-ended questionnaire was developed to gather the perceptions of these educators concerning leadership problems. The first part of the questionnaire assessed the dean's perception of a leadership crisis in pharmacy schools. I felt that this qualitative piece was essential to understand the perceptions that were prevalent in pharmacy leadership. The second part determined the environmental complexities that may be causing a change in the current leadership abilities of pharmacy deans. Finally, the last section dealt with the future competencies that will be required to manage schools of pharmacy. The pilot study questionnaire is presented in Appendix A.

Data Collection. Each participant was contacted by phone and asked to participate in the pilot. Each respondent requested a copy of
the survey instrument prior to their participation in the study so they could take time to review the questions and reflect on their answers.

**Analysis procedures.** Comments were entered into a data base and analysis performed by pooling responses. Since the sample was small (n = 3) and the questions very focused, the responses were easy to collate. Responses to each question were analyzed for common themes and statements.

**Presentation of data.** Data from this phase of the research are presented in a table and in a summary of respondent narratives.

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**Phase Two: The Crisis Investigation**

Comments obtained from the participants in Phase One were used to improve the survey instrument and to focus the questions on the leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy.

**Study objectives.** The objectives of this phase of the study were to broaden understanding of a perception of leadership crisis by conducting interviews with 25 deans. These interviews provided a clearer understanding of what people meant when they discussed a leadership...
crisis. Additionally, I sought to gather information on the cause(s) and symptom(s) of leadership crisis.

**Study participants.** Twenty-five pharmacy deans were asked to complete the survey; 100% agreed to participate. Of the total number, six were new deans, representing 42.8% (6/14) of that category. These individuals had been in their position for less than two years. The remaining nineteen, 35.1% of the population (19/54) were seasoned deans, defined as administrators who had been in their positions for over two years.

**The survey instrument.** The open-ended interview protocol contained six questions which focused on determining various parameters of the perceived leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. Responses were solicited to questions in areas such as the presence of a crisis, the definition of the word crisis, and the cause(s) and symptom(s). Additionally, two questions regarding environmental issues were included in the survey instrument. These questions sought to gain an understanding of the changing environment in schools of pharmacy. The questionnaire is displayed in Appendix B.
**Data collection procedures.** Each respondent was contacted via phone and asked to participate in the study. Telephone interviews were taped as feasible.

**Analysis procedures.** Responses were entered into a data base either by listening to tapes and transcribing whole interviews, or by copying hand written notes into the data base. Responses from the new deans were separated from those of the seasoned deans. Each interview question was treated separately and codes developed for all questions. Codes were kept semantically as close as possible to the terms or issues they represented. For example in question #1 the code YP was assigned to respondents who felt there was a problem, but not a leadership crisis.

Finally, to improve reliability in assignment of the codes, an independent coder reviewed 2/3 of the interviews after I had assigned codes; agreement was reached at the 90% level. In Chapter 6, the results section, each set of codes is presented in relation to the question being analyzed.

**Presentation of data.** Data from this phase of the study is presented by tabulating results and presenting thick descriptions of the responses from the deans.
Phase Three: The Turnover Study

Review of the literature continually focused on the high turnover of pharmacy deans (Trinca, 1993; Cohen, 1993; Chi, 1994; Rutledge, 1994). I felt that an empirical study should be conducted to verify the presence of a high turnover.

**Study objectives.** The objective of this phase was to quantitatively determine the rate of turnover of deans in schools of pharmacy. For this study, turnover is defined as the number of new deans (seated and interim) for each year of the study period.

**Data collection procedures.** Working with the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy (AACP), I compiled a listing of the deans in schools of pharmacy from 1984-1994. This list provided a comprehensive listing of the deans in schools of pharmacy and showed interim deans.

**Analysis procedures.** The turnover was determined by calculating the proportion of deans who left their position in any one year for the 25 year period from 1974/75 to 1994/95. This was measured by noting the names of the individuals in office each year and comparing those names with the incumbents the next year. The total turnover number includes
new deans and interim deans for each school year and is expressed as a percentage of the total number of slots available. This number was calculated by dividing the number of new deans/interims by the total number of pharmacy schools. Measures of central tendency (mean, median and mode), common statistical procedures for this type of research, were calculated. Regression analysis, correlating the change in the number of open positions over time was calculated. Additionally, the number of open positions for the last ten years was calculated.

Data presentation. Data are presented in figures and tables.

Phase Four: The Tenure Study

As the third phase of data collection progressed, I recognized that there were many respondents who stated that the length of tenure for pharmacy deans was decreasing. Additionally, many respondents believed that there should be a term limit of ten years. Because of these responses, I felt that analysis of the tenure of pharmacy deans over the last 20 years should be conducted to determine if it was changing.
Study objectives. The objective of this phase was to collect data on the tenure of pharmacy deans for the last 20 years and to determine if the tenure of these individuals is, in fact, decreasing.

Data collection procedures. Again working with the AACP, I compiled a listing of the deans in schools of pharmacy from 1966-1994. Although most of the data was collected for the turnover phase, it was necessary to telephone 22 schools to determine the tenure of deans who had been in office in the 1940s and 1950s.

Analysis procedures. Using the rolling average method, I calculated the length of tenure for pharmacy deans in the 20 year period from 1974/75 to 1994/95. In the rolling average method, I used 1974 as a base year, and determined the exact length of tenure for each dean in that year. In reviewing subsequent years, I added 1 year to each dean's tenure for those who remained seated. For new and interim deans I assigned the number 1 indicating this was their first year in the position. I continued filling in the tenures for each year up to the 1994/95 school year. Finally, I calculated the column totals for each year in the 20 year period. The data was charted and regression analysis performed. Regression analysis compared the number of years in office
over the last twenty years. Finally, to determine the significance, r-square was calculated for the line.

Data presentation. The results of the change in tenure are presented in the form of figures and tables.

Summary

Four investigative phases were designed to collect data to answer the research questions presented in Chapter 1. Two of the phases were qualitative in nature. Phase One, an initial assessment of the perception of the key leadership issues in pharmacy schools, was conducted with three of the most prominent education leaders in the country. Interpreting the results of this inquiry, in Phase Two, I redesigned the survey to understand better the phenomenon of a leadership crisis. This survey was administered to 25 additional respondents, representing new and seasoned deans.

In the two quantitative phases I collected extensive data on deans in schools of pharmacy for the last 20 years. Using these data, I calculated the turnover of administrators and the changing length of
tenures for deans. Chapter 5 will present the results of these four investigative processes.
CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

In this chapter, I will present the results of data collection used for research question #2, and discuss what each phase contributes to the understanding of the problem. The four phases, using both qualitative and quantitative data, comprised a logical approach to studying the perception of a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy.

Phase One: The Pilot Study

In Phase One, I designed an instrument to study leadership issues in schools of pharmacy. The instrument was given to three of the key leaders in pharmacy education today. The questions in the pilot included: is there a leadership crisis; what are the key skills of administrators; how does the environment affect those skills; and do schools of pharmacy need a new breed administrator to handle the difficult times facing
administrators? The pilot study, conducted in November 1994, is displayed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1
Overview of Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Respondent #1</th>
<th>Respondent #2</th>
<th>Respondent #3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there a leadership crisis?</td>
<td>Yes, but not seen in turnover. Length of tenure decreasing: lack of good candidates for the positions.</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes, documented by turnover of pharmacy deans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vary by environment (e.g. comprehensive vs noncomprehensive)</td>
<td>Excellence in research, recognition within the profession. Rarely selected for managerial experience.</td>
<td>Knowledge of scope of school, mission, good managers, team players, ability to make tough decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills of administrator</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Deans are in situational environments</td>
<td>Environment is very important but must differentiate internal and external</td>
<td>Must differentiate between internal and external environments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New breed</td>
<td>Agreed with concept, added additional skills</td>
<td>Felt there is a need for the new breed.</td>
<td>Agreed that new breed is required; however they are not accepted by academy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Findings

Is there a crisis? In the question concerning the leadership crisis, all three respondents felt there was a leadership crisis in pharmacy schools. Respondent #1 articulated the reasons for this crisis as the mismatch in expectations. He observed that "the faculty have unrealistic expectations of what deans can and should do. This doesn’t match the capabilities of the candidates. There are a lot of people who are interested in the job, who are not good candidates." Conversely he observed, "There are a lot of good candidates who do not want the job. They know the job is tough. You have many long hours and nights away from the family, meetings and pressure."

He also stated that he felt the length of tenure for dean is going to decrease and that two terms in the position (7-10 years) is realistic. Additionally, he felt that a consequence of becoming a dean is that after two terms it becomes very difficult to go back to your former job. That is one reason why many of these individuals continue to attempt to balance the responsibilities of research while they are dean. He concluded, "To become dean you must give up the career you trained
for. Being a dean carries risks, a lot of people don’t want to put their career at risk. It’s not as sure a job as it once was."

Respondent #1 felt that turnover was not bad and that places need a quick turnover to keep up with the tremendous changes that are occurring on the HSC. "Turnover keeps people fresh." Respondent #3 explained the leadership crisis through the turnover rate, and felt that the cause of the crisis is "people don’t want to be bothered doing the hard work it takes to be a dean."

Skills required of administrators. There were relatively common answers about the skills required to be deans. Deans were selected for skills and abilities in the area of research experience. Respondent #2 noted "deans are selected for excellence in research and recognition within the profession. Rarely are they selected for managerial experience." He believed that it is the managerial skills that are the most important in these difficult times, and that both new and seasoned deans would benefit from this training. He felt that deans are so far behind and they don’t even understand they don’t have these skills.

Respondent #1 developed the distinction between the comprehensive and noncomprehensive schools of pharmacy. He felt that
the comprehensive centers (research-oriented) are looking for deans who have a strong background in research and who have served as a department chair. In the noncomprehensive schools (practice-oriented), he felt the dean must be well connected with their constituencies. They must have knowledge of budgets and financial issues, and demonstrate management skills and have a knowledge of business. They must be able to do fundraising.

Environmental influences. The respondents recommended dividing the question into the areas of internal vs external environments. The internal environments were defined as curriculum and faculty issues. The external environmental issues included practice changes, economy, health care changes.

Each of the respondents noted the importance of the changing environment. When asked about the increasing complexity of the environment Respondent #3 replied, "Yes, they certainly are becoming more complex!" Respondent #1 discussed the difficulties in managing multiple constituencies with multiple demands. He observed, "Learning to adapt to your environmental changes is critical." He listed key environmental issues as the budget, grants and contracts, and managing
multiple constituencies. He felt that political skills were key for a dean to manage his constituencies. Additionally, learning to read the environment and adapt to new situations was very important.

Respondent #2 felt that given the rapid changes in the environment (internal and external) the dean must learn to deal with more complex issues. He stated that deans should be more integrated with the profession and its previous graduates, "Some deans live in an ivory tower and they do not really understand practice issues."

A new breed academic administrator. In the pilot, I used the quote from the Kinnard & Harcleroad (1993) article that presented the concept of the new breed as: "a manager that clearly understands the mission of the university/school and can bring together the academic community and the limited resources to achieve many of their common goals." In this study, he was adamant that the wording be changed to "a manager who has an understanding of the mission of the school and a manager who can coordinate the limited resources of the academic community to achieve common goals." Obviously, his perception of the new breed has changed slightly, and the new breed understands (rather than clearly
understands) the mission of the school and is now responsible for coordinating limited resources.

For the question on the concept of the new breed academic manager, although Respondent #1 agreed with the concept, he advanced opinions concerning other abilities that are required to be successful. These included strategic planning, putting good people in positions where they can be successful, brokering and working for win/win compromises. Again, these are more management-oriented, political skills.

In discussing the concept of the new breed, Respondent #1 felt that as the searches for the vacant dean positions turn into fiascos, faculty will eventually recognize that their expectations don't match reality. He related the story of the search process in Kansas. They went through the process in the old fashioned way, looking for a research-oriented dean. This was futile. Finally, they reopened the search using different criteria and they found a "new breed" dean. He gave this as an example of how the new breed will eventually be accepted.

He expressed the concern that another problem is that large universities don't take searches for pharmacy deans very seriously. They spend much more time and conduct more serious searches for the deans
of the schools of medicine and nursing. He called it the "Rodney Dangerfield Phenomenon;" they get "no respect" on campus.

Respondent #3 observed, "The academy hasn't taken the new breed, they're still looking for the old breed." He continued, "Search committees are still members of the old breed and they are looking for the old breed. They are not looking for people who can do the things which is what the environment is demanding." These three leaders all saw significant problems in the recruitment processes for new deans.

**Contribution to Understanding**

All participants agreed there is a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy and two of the respondents believed turnover was a symptom of the problem. These data suggest that researching the presence of a crisis is strongly recommended and that investigating the turnover of administrators would be one data element to verify the presence of a crisis. The role of the dean appears to have changed and it is not as pleasant as it once was.

There appears to be a set of skills that have been key for academic administrators. The environment is causing these skills to change and a
new set of skills will be required to be successful in the future. Additionally, each respondent valued the importance of the new breed dean who would have this new set of skills. However, each respondent felt that the "academy" of deans and faculty members has not accepted this concept in a timely manner. The search process for new deans appears to be flawed.

I found a high degree of agreement in the responses of these participants. Perhaps this is to be expected since the training of these individuals was similar and each has been in academic administration for many years.

Phase Two: The Crisis Survey

Comments obtained from the participants in Phase One were considered in the redesign of the survey instrument, focusing more on the leadership crisis. The survey was administered to an expanded population of both seasoned and new deans. The survey was conducted by phone and in person, between January-February 1995.
**Question 1: Is there a Leadership Crisis?**

This question was simply stated: "Many writers believe there is a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. Do you feel there is a leadership crisis in pharmacy education?" Responses were coded into four categories based on the responses:

- **Y1** = yes, there is a crisis;
- **YP** = yes, there is a problem but not necessarily a crisis;
- **N1** = no, there is not a crisis and finally,
- **DN** = do not know.

The responses are tabulated in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2**

Responses to Question #1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Seasoned Deans (n = 19)</th>
<th>New Deans (n = 6)</th>
<th>Overall totals (n = 25)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Y1</strong></td>
<td>7 (36.8%)</td>
<td>6 (100%)</td>
<td>13 (52%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>YP</strong></td>
<td>7 (36.8%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>7 (28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N1</strong></td>
<td>4 (21.1%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>4 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DN</strong></td>
<td>1 (5.3%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 (4%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Contribution to Understanding

I feel it is significant that 100% of the new deans and all the pilot participants believe there is a leadership crisis. This compares with 36% for the seasoned deans. The reasons for this variation may be due to the fact that the new deans have recently gone through a search process and have encountered problems firsthand. The academic administrators in the pilot are probably more knowledgeable of the leadership crisis on a national basis. The group of seasoned deans was randomly selected and may or may not be cognizant of the discussions concerning leadership problems in schools of pharmacy.

Question 2: The Definition of the Word Crisis

This question queried the deans on their definition of the word crisis. For the deans who believed there is a crisis, the responses fell into three distinct categories. Some of the respondents gave a dictionary response, the second group defined it in terms of environmental issues and the final group responded in terms of leadership crisis.

Table 5.3 gives an overview of the three categories of responses to this question by participants who believed there is a leadership crisis.
Table 5.3

Definition of the Word Crisis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Environmental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crisis is a dangerous situation and</td>
<td>A crisis impedes us in terms of attaining targets for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indicates there is a real sense of</td>
<td>the profession and graduating good students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emergency; changes need to be made.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis forces change: when you are</td>
<td>I think there is an unrelated crisis, it is a crisis in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a crisis you are forced to change.</td>
<td>profession of pharmacy. The SOP will have to produce pharmacists, but the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes it leads to improvement,</td>
<td>job pharmacists are doing is changing and has changed over the last 30 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes it doesn’t.</td>
<td>This is the problem, because pharmacists are still caught in the dispensing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis is something (an event or</td>
<td>mindset.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>situation) that creates the reason</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to change.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis impedes us from realizing the development of high quality schools, because leadership is lacking to make that happen. Deans are unwilling to take a long term view and make tough decision for success. What you don’t have is things progressing and moving forward during these times. It takes a good leader to do this for the school. That there’s not enough people out there to do the job. There’s a concern that we should work to develop programs and activities that would encourage people to apply for positions, and to provide various workshops and programs to facilitate people becoming deans.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Crisis: There is burn out due to unrealistic expectations by the faculty of what deans are supposed to do for them! We are expected to do everything. It isn’t limited to deans, the chancellors, presidents etc. are all in the same boat. Five to ten years is the average expectancy for a dean. |

Crisis: is the difficulty in recruiting. But there are unrealistic expectations. Additionally, the inability of the basic science faculty to comprehend/understand the growth and increase in importance of the pharmacy practitioner element in pharmacy education. There is burn out due to unrealistic expectations by the faculty of what deans are supposed to do for them! We are expected to do everything. |

Crisis is a lack of people in the pipeline. We used to be able to see people coming along, even groomed for these positions, but this is not happening now. We look it as an absolute rather than relative. People are testing the waters, we need to have new people take these positions. But who should cultivate future leadership? Probably the current leadership should take this responsibility. |
The group of respondents who did not believe there was a leadership crisis related this question back to a diagnosis of the environment. These individuals reasoned that if there were a crisis there would be significant problems in the environment of the schools. For example, their responses included the following:

Crisis threatens the stability of a particular organization. If it’s a crisis, I would say then classes aren’t being taught, people aren’t doing research etc. I think the schools are doing reasonably well; so that I don’t call that a crisis. As long as you don’t have schools closing, and students are not choosing to go to the program.

Crisis is a falling apart, or about to. I don’t think we’re at that point. For example, we have ten times the number of applications than we have openings on our campus, but that probably won’t last forever.

We don’t have a crisis in schools of pharmacy because we have a whole group of extremely efficient associate deans and interim deans who keep things together and don’t allow a crisis to exist when the dean’s position is open.

**Contribution to Understanding**

This question was extremely beneficial in developing an understanding of how participants viewed the phenomenon of a leadership crisis. The respondents who believed there was a crisis, articulated a set of problems that the crisis would create. These problems were framed in the environment and leadership areas. The respondents
who did not believe in the presence of a crisis focused primarily on
demonstrating that a crisis would be seen in environmental symptoms,
which they believed are not present.

Question 3: Symptoms of the Crisis

From the preceding questions, I directed the deans to discuss the
symptoms of the leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. These
discussions were quite lengthy and respondents were generally very
anxious to discuss possible symptoms. The answers fell into two distinct
categories, environmental and leadership symptoms.

To understand their replies, I coded their responses using the key
displayed in Table 5.4:
Table 5.4
Coding for Symptoms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3A</td>
<td>Environmental symptoms</td>
<td>The crisis in pharmacy is seen in environmental problems: decrease in number of students, politics, poor quality schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3B</td>
<td>Leadership symptoms</td>
<td>The crisis in pharmacy is seen in its leadership. Three areas are important:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership symptoms Type 1</td>
<td>See the crisis in a high turnover of deans, large number of empty positions, shorter tenure, small applicant pool.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership symptoms Type 2</td>
<td>Crisis is seen in the slow recruiting process. Committees are recruiting for wrong talents, seeking impossible expectations. Colleges go through 2-3 searches for a dean.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership symptoms Type 3</td>
<td>Crisis is seen in personal problems/characteristics of deans. Deans need new administrative skills, political skills. Need to learn new skills because of new environment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.5 lists the responses for all symptoms and differentiates the responses from the new deans vs the seasoned deans.
Table 5.5
Symptoms of the Leadership Crisis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symptom(s)</th>
<th>Seasoned deans</th>
<th>New deans</th>
<th>All deans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>3 (11.5%)</td>
<td>2 (22.2%)</td>
<td>5 (14.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Type 1</td>
<td>15 (57.6%)</td>
<td>3 (33.3%)</td>
<td>18 (51.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Type 2</td>
<td>3 (11.5%)</td>
<td>1 (11.1%)</td>
<td>4 (11.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Type 3</td>
<td>5 (19.2%)</td>
<td>3 (33.3%)</td>
<td>8 (22.8%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contribution to Understanding

There was a high degree of agreement among respondents that leadership crisis is seen in symptoms such as turnover, shorter tenure, and burnout of administrators. For all respondents (n = 25) this received 51.4% of the answers.

In review of these data, I find it significant that the new deans feel that the symptoms of the crisis are more prominent in environmental issues than the seasoned deans. Additionally, the seasoned deans view the turnover as a more significant factor than the new deans. However, similar responses to Symptom Type 2, (recruiting problems) is surprising
in that only 11.4% of the respondents thought recruiting problems were a symptom. This is in contrast to the pilot respondents, who felt that the search process was tremendously flawed.

Type 1 leadership symptoms. The major symptom of a leadership crisis is seen in the turnover of academic administrators in schools of pharmacy. This is similar to the perspectives of the pilot participants, who also felt the turnover was a key symptom of crisis. The deans had many insightful comments about the turnover of administrators:

Few people are applying for these jobs, and positions remain vacant for extended period of time.

There is a small applicant pool because candidates say, "I’m a senior faculty member with a good research program and I’m doing well and happy with what I’m doing. I don’t need the aggravation [of being dean]."

One new dean stated: Symptoms of this crisis include the flight from academia for so many faculty members. In addition, the recruitment and hiring of deans has become an arduous process. For many deans, the acquiring of one deanship is seen as a stepping stone to other positions, this may include either other deanships or non-academic positions. Also the stress of being a dean has led to deans viewing their tenure as 5-10 year commitments, rather than longer term opportunities.

There is burnout due to the unrealistic expectations by the faculty, of what deans are supposed to do for them!

Some of the respondents did not believe there was a crisis and
actually discussed turnover as a positive thing:

There is a circular filling and unfilling of dean’s positions, so people feel there is a crisis. We don’t have a crisis because we have a whole group of efficient associate and interim deans who keep things together and don’t allow a crisis to exist when the dean’s position is open.

I don’t see turnover of deans as bad. Many deans move from one position to another, they’re not leaving the pharmacy deanship, they’re just going to another school of pharmacy. So I don’t think the turnover is so bad.

**Type 2 leadership symptoms.** These symptoms were related to the recruiting process. Examples of these symptoms included the lengthy time required to fill open positions and the unrealistic expectations of search committees.

Search committees expect to find at least someone who will walk on water. **At the very least!** They have expectations for individuals that are clearly out of sight. If you look at the number of searches that have taken place over the last five years, they take a run at it two, sometimes three times. I expect in that process they modify their expectations.

Search committees don’t have a commonality of leadership expectations. Search committees are looking for the super dean.

**Type three leadership symptoms.** Comments regarding the third type of leadership symptoms were in the category of personal problems.
Comments in this area included:

Those in leadership positions are not providing leadership or guidance. They have no vision for the future.

Deans need key skills required in deans: knowledge of medical care market; managerial/people skills, and they must know more hard core administrative stuff.

**Question 4: Causes of the Leadership Crisis**

To determine the causes of the crisis, all responses were coded into the following categories shown in Table 5.6.
Table 5.6

Cause/Nature of the Crisis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Number</th>
<th>Description of code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4A: Nature of the deanship</td>
<td>There has been a change in the nature of the job. Deanship is a poor position, a tough job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4B: External factors</td>
<td>External factors are causing the crisis: health care reform, changing role of pharmacist, accrediting bodies, declining resources, crisis in higher education in general.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4C: Internal factors</td>
<td>Internal factor such as incongruity with faculty expectations, segregation among faculty. Size and structure of schools is a problem. Faculty recruiting of deans is poor; they are looking for wrong talents and have impossible expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4D: Personal factors</td>
<td>Poor leadership skills in deans is causing crisis. Deans lack management abilities, are too oriented to science rather than practice. They have little or no training to be a dean, and they have poor continuing education.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses were coded and tabulated. A review of the responses is compiled in Table 5.7.
Table 5.7

Causes of the Leadership Crisis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Seasoned deans</th>
<th>New deans</th>
<th>All deans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nature of the job</td>
<td>13 (32.5%)</td>
<td>5 (33.3%)</td>
<td>18 (33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External factors</td>
<td>10 (25%)</td>
<td>3 (20%)</td>
<td>13 (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal factors</td>
<td>11 (27.5%)</td>
<td>4 (27%)</td>
<td>15 (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal factors</td>
<td>6 (15%)</td>
<td>3 (20%)</td>
<td>9 (16%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Review of their responses shows that all deans in the study were in fairly close agreement as to the causes of the leadership crisis.

Select individual responses by category follow.

Nature of the job (4A). These comments are similar to those that were voiced by the administrators in the pilot study.

It takes so long to fill positions because of the nature of the job. The job is very difficult, that really doesn’t seem as rewarding. The faculty is kicking you from the bottom and the administration is kicking you from the top.

The cause is that there is a bad name placed on leadership positions today. People used to aspire to these positions. Now people say ‘Congratulations, but why do you want to do this?’
This is a new game. I think that administrative jobs have a half life. You have to have an agenda going in, and know you have a finite period to accomplish your agenda. People should know that when you start to be a dean it will be a thankless, bad job.

The large number of openings is due to the fact that the role of the dean has changed greatly in 20 years or so. I’m spending more time with fund raising and playing politics. The role of the dean is much more stressful. Because of the stress you don’t see people sitting in that position for 20 years, like you used to.

The glory and the glamour of being is dean is not what it used to be. I think because the turnover rates are high, the job security is so low, I just don’t think it has the glamour, attractiveness that it once had. They’re tough jobs, to be honest. I’ve said this to an individual who was a member of my faculty. I asked him: "What do you think I do?" He mentioned all these philosophical things, and I told him I don’t do any of that. Basically, what I do is to try to defend the college on the health science center, I defend my budget, I do a lot of politicking, I attend a lot of receptions that I don’t care to, I eat a lot of food that I don’t care to and go to a lot of places I don’t wish to be at. That’s what my job is! The job is becoming more of one of projecting the image of the college. Most colleges are not good at it and they don’t do it. More so, the public-types institution. They don’t know how to compete.

External factors 4B. These factors look at influences outside the school of pharmacy.

There is no give and take in education. We must decide how to aggressively fit our program into new health care markets.

The budgets are decreasing and the nature of the profession is changing rapidly. Therefore the situation is different, it is not positive.
Higher education is in a state of crisis, both from the standpoints of financing and commitment of the population to support higher education at local, state or the federal level.

**Internal factors 4C:** These factors are those that are internal to the school of pharmacy.

There are not a lot of new people are going into these positions. It is a tough job. Unfortunately, we are seeing a large recycling of deans now, and not a lot of new deans coming into system. Unfortunately, university administration knows there is a crisis so they hire old deans to be safe. Faculty also goes after safety, and is afraid of change.

There are individuals, Pharm. D.’s who want to be deans: these folks will be harder to place. They need to have a Ph D. to be recognized as credible. There are major credibility problems, especially when the Pharm. D. deans try to integrate with the other deans on the health science centers. We need to have more Pharm. D. deans, but it will be awhile before they are accepted.

When people recruit for deans they place old, unrealistic expectations on the candidates. Look at the job description: outstanding researcher, ability to garner funding, internal and external relationships, teaching, good student rapport, practice knowledge etc. No one can meet these criteria? God himself couldn’t do this, If someone could do all these things they would get a job in another industry or a better job, one that pays more.

There is no pool of talent for open positions. We make no effort in identifying people early and in grooming them for these positions.

We need a sustained approach. But there is a mindset in faculty members. They don’t want to think about training administrators. This is a short sighted view and hurts the future of the schools.
Leadership in deans 4D. Finally, a set of causes is attributed to the failure of administrators to learn new skills required to manage the school. These comments would be represented in the pilot study’s discussion of the new breed.

Old deans are passive providers. What is needed are leaders in the state to help practitioners move on; need practice people representing pharmacy at upper levels of university administration. Develop interactions/networks with other disciplines (e.g. nursing etc.) There are no change agents out there. We’ve having deans who know nothing about administration. The university and faculties think they will make great deans, but they have no background to do this. They are introverted, poor communicators, don’t understand human resources, and are afraid of change. So only a few of them have tried to make something happen. Fifty percent of this job is politics; internal and external! These individuals don’t have these skills.

The next generation of leaders in pharmacy are not being cultivated and mentored to the same degree as many current leaders have been in their careers. The tenure of deans has become shortened to such an extent that deans are not in leadership positions long enough to serve future leaders as mentors.

I would say 100% of the job is political. I have kept my hand in scholarly work, but I view this as self enrichment. To be a good administrator, you have to consult with your group, have no surprises, no secrets.

The traditional means to obtain pharmacy leaders in academe has changed in the last 15-20 years. Once a faculty member who aspired to be a dean would rise through the professorial ranks and become promoted and tenured. After this achievement, more than likely the individual would then seek a department chair
opportunity and progress through time into a deanship. At present so many future leaders who in the past would have aspired to be a dean now choose alternate career paths in industry or elsewhere rather than enter into leadership position in pharmacy academia. Also many deans now try to continue the academic and scholarly aspects of their previous lives while also being a dean. This conflict of commitment has powerful ramifications for the present and future of academic pharmacy and the profession as a whole.

Table 5.8 summarizes the comments for the first three areas of this phase of the study.

Table 5.8
Type of Perception

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No crisis</th>
<th>Crisis of leadership</th>
<th>Crisis in environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there a crisis?</td>
<td>No, there is no problem (16%)</td>
<td>Yes, there is a leadership crisis in pharmacy (52%)</td>
<td>There is not a leadership crisis, there is however a problem (28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are causes</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Budget, poor deans, poor search committees, it is a bad job</td>
<td>Budget, faculty, search process, bad job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symptoms</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Turnover Open positions</td>
<td>Turnover Length positions are open</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Contribution to Understanding

It is very interesting that responses fell into fairly narrow groups around key points. The causes and symptoms of the crisis were coded into a few common themes. The symptoms were either demonstrated in environmental or leadership problems. The causes of the crisis were divided into four areas: the nature of the job, external and internal factors and personal factors. The symptoms and cause information narrow the focus of the crisis.

There is a perception that the turnover of administrators is high and that the right people are not being trained or recruited into these positions. This information directs me to investigate the turnover of deans in schools of pharmacy. Additionally, I received a large number of responses that indicated the tenure of deans is changing. This phenomenon should also be investigated.

Question 5: Importance of Environmental Issues

This question was based on the writings of Jordan Cohen (1993) who stated "the environment of the school is a key factor in determining leadership requirements". Cohen believed that we need leaders who can
"quickly study and grasp all aspects of new and rapidly changing situations and... deal with all of the unique constituencies in higher education" (p. 354). This question was included in the questionnaire to study the effect(s) of the environment on leadership requirements. Responses were coded into the following categories:

Table 5.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental Influence</th>
<th>Seasoned deans</th>
<th>New deans</th>
<th>All deans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, environment is a key factor.</td>
<td>12 (63%)</td>
<td>4 (66%)</td>
<td>16 (64%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, but it is not the only factor</td>
<td>7 (37%)</td>
<td>2 (34%)</td>
<td>9 (36%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the respondents who answered yes, a sample of their comments included:

Jordan is right on! Every school operates differently. Every one has different resources. A dean must be very adaptable, especially if he changes schools. Experiences will be very different depending on the environment. The dean must adapt, be flexible. He may have to develop a new style to accommodate the needs of the school’s resources and personalities.

My environment here determines a great deal of what I do. It’s kind of like playing a different opponent. You adapt your dean’s game plan depending on the institution, public or private.
A new dean responded: The environment of schools is definitely a key factor in assessing leadership requirements. It is a factor not only the environment in the schools, but also in pharmacy constituency groups that are crucial to the success of a dean. This includes state and local associations, pharmacy practice groups, and internal and external "customers" of schools and colleges of pharmacy-faculty, employers, physicians, academic higher administration and students. Also, what is the mission and/or vision of the school—is it teaching and/or research and/or service, or is it a for profit motive only?

For those who saw the environment as contributing factor to leadership requirements their comments centered around the following issues:

I think it’s not the only factor, but it is a key factor. That’s why I said that faculties should clarify what they’re looking for before they begin a search. There’s a tendency out there to have very high expectations of the leaders. People look for someone like themselves, but who are better at everything. We can’t find that.

There is not a cut and dry answer. The environment is a contributory factor to the leadership. But it is not the limiting factor. The environment can facilitate or serve as a barrier to leadership, but leadership is leadership. I don’t think anything can stop leadership if it has a desire to go forward. In my own experience, the faculty expect you to lead. They don’t want you to lead, but they expect it. A paradox in a way. If you don’t lead they’re upset with you, if you do lead they’re upset with you. It’s the nature of the academy when you’re with such free thinking and high spirited people. Obviously there is a conduit for inquiry etc. So they expect you to lead, they will challenge you about it. So you shouldn’t be afraid to lead.
It is a mix of both the leadership capabilities of the individual and the environment. Successful leadership is a good fit. It is a good fit between what the candidate can offer and what is needed in the particular environment. For example, a person may come in with a strong scholarship background, and they would be a good fit for a school that has a strong mission of scholarship. That person would be bad fit where the mission of the school is focused on teaching and not focused on scholarship. He tries to force his personal mission in a culture that is not deemed to support that kind of mission. Another example is if the position is in an environment (public or private) that relies heavily on outside funds. If the person is a pure academic and does not like fund raising, he would not be a good fit with the institution. It has to do with both the environment and the talent and expertise that the candidate brings to that environment. It is the responsibility of the both the search committee and the candidate to determine if the fit is right.

Environment has a very strong influence. My school is private. I would be hard pressed ever to go back to a public institution. Because of the layers of bureaucracy, I would find it difficult to be very creative and try to make major changes within a public institutions, in that atmosphere. We can do more things in a private institution, I have the VP and President of the University to convince. I don’t have to convince a state-wide system, the board of education, regents and the legislature.

Environment is important in defining leadership but I think we all share certain things. I don’t see any one institution as being particularity unique. I think the issues are pretty uniform, I don’t know anybody who has all the money they need and who can do all they want to do. We all have similar ideas of what we’d like to do and how we would like to teach.

Another individual responded that environment was a key factor, but that environmental issues were fairly uniform between schools. He stated: Environment constrains, but should not limit leadership. I don’t believe the environment helps to choose and create the leader. I think the individual is key, the individual’s
style, and approach. I think if someone is a good leader, they should be able to do it no matter what the environment is like. You can sometimes look to the environment as an excuse, instead of moving things forward.

**Contribution to Understanding**

In the pilot, one of the respondents contrasted the skills required in deans based on their practice sites (comprehensive vs noncomprehensive centers). However, in this phase of the study, the respondents stated that these are now critical skills (e.g. knowledge of budgets, business skills and fund raising) for all deans. These respondents did not feel it mattered if the dean was in a comprehensive or noncomprehensive school, a fit must be achieved between the school and the person. This reinforces Cribben’s (1981) concept of the scissors: the environment and the individual’s talents are the two key determinants of leadership.

**Question 6: Identification of Environmental Issues**

In this question, I sought to determine if there was consensus on the environmental issues in schools of pharmacy today. I coded the responses into the categories listed in Table 5.10.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>New deans</th>
<th>Seasoned deans</th>
<th>Responses (all deans)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Budget, lack of financial resources, increased accountability for school’s resources</td>
<td>2 (20%)</td>
<td>16 (16%)</td>
<td>18 (16.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Change, rate of change of health care environment</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8 (8%)</td>
<td>8 (7.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSC</td>
<td>Health science center issues: turnover of provosts, etc.</td>
<td>1 (10%)</td>
<td>9 (9%)</td>
<td>10 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Student issues: age, preparation of students, decrease professionalism</td>
<td>1 (10%)</td>
<td>7 (7%)</td>
<td>8 (7.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Faculty issues: accountability, numbers. Basic science vs clinical faculty issues.</td>
<td>2 (20%)</td>
<td>13 (13%)</td>
<td>15 (13.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Professional issues: change in degree to Pharm. D., nature of profession, change to clinical focus</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9 (9%)</td>
<td>9 (8.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Other resources, clinical sites etc. Raising funds from other than budget, e.g. fundraising etc.</td>
<td>2 (20%)</td>
<td>12 (12%)</td>
<td>14 (12.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Technologies &amp; information technology</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>4 (3.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>Reputation of school, being recognized as quality program.</td>
<td>1 (10%)</td>
<td>3 (3%)</td>
<td>4 (3.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Culture of school, vision</td>
<td>1 (10%)</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
<td>6 (5.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC</td>
<td>Societal changes, e.g. aging population, legislative changes, consumerism, diversity.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7 (7%)</td>
<td>7 (6.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Poor deans, resistant to change; deans not adequately trained.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7 (7%)</td>
<td>7 (6.4%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Contribution to Understanding

The most critical problems facing the majority of the administrators in the study was related to budget issues and resources. Even in the major research universities, funding is now the most critical issue. This finding is consistent with the discussion about funding issues that was presented in Chapter 3, in the health sciences center section. Of the responses over 16% felt that the budget was a key environmental factor.

Some of the comments on financial issues include:

Our restrictive budget is the most critical issue; there is a golden era philosophy. Deans don’t want to change, they want to keep the golden era of the past. They have no futuristic outlook for the future.

There are major financial issues. These are hard times and it is scary. We don’t get enough attention on campus. Although there is more focus on medicine and nursing education, we are still tremendously vulnerable.

We no longer have the resources to meet all the needs of the university. The difference between needs and actual resources is what I call the excellence gap. This gap must be filled with external funds.

There is one key environmental issue: the bottom line is resources. To make the required changes is going to require resources. Deans must fight big time battles to get support inside and outside their institutions. But deans are not trained to do confrontational stuff, and they don’t like to do it. If they lack the training to do this, they take the path of least resistance. That’s part of the
leadership crisis. Currently I’m spending 85% of my time in politics, right now trying to get the Pharm. D. program approved.

Funding, and the costs associated with going to the Pharm. D. program and the expanded experiential portion (the expensive portion) is probably the main problem.

The other resources (R) class is similar to the budget class. In this area are issues such as clinical sites and raising funds from sources other than the state or university budget.

As we move into the entry level Pharm. D. program, the availability of clinical sites. It doesn’t mean they have to be there, but if you’re stuck in the middle of Wyoming, it’s hard to figure out how to do clinical training. But it can be done! You’ve got to be innovative. There’s still a lot of belief out there that if you’re not from one of the big ten schools, you’re not good.

Obviously, as curricular change occurs, we are always looking for more external sites, when we all have Pharm. D. programs, we will have a problem. As the clinical programs expand, the patient care component expands your need for more sites. But the state of affairs is going in the opposite direction, e.g. we seeing the closing of hospitals in the external environment, while we’re trying to expand.

Another class of environmental issues were related to faculty issues. Comments on these issues included:

Faculty who are teaching in the past and not looking to the future needs of the profession. We need faculty who are outstanding teachers, more flexible and who have an understanding and appreciation of the changing environment and changing role of the pharmacy practitioner.
Change in profile of the basic science faculty from individuals holding entry level pharmacy degrees to those that don’t. Because they don’t have a pharmacy degree it is difficult for them to set their priorities appropriately.

Availability of faculty. Finding the right people who have come up through the right channels, to gain their qualifications and degrees. This problem will worsen.

The rate of change in health care and education are key factors for schools of pharmacy:

There are a number of issues involved, but certainly the rapid change of pace is critical.

Another environmental issue is the transformation of the health care industry, and how we are attempting to keep pace with that transformation. The rate of change can scare people, it depends on how confident people are. If they are confident they will take risks.

We are seeing change much, much more rapidly than we have ever seen in all of history in pharmacy. When you see rapid change, and it tends to be imposed on you, then you’re going to get resistance. Then you get what people perceive is a crisis.

Health care change is causing problems, and faculty members are not responding quickly. There is too much resistance. This is going to be very bad for pharmacy education.

What happens is that this change determines other priorities, other than finding a dean of a school of pharmacy. On the health sciences center, you’re worrying if you’re going to keep your hospital open or not, and if you are going to be able to train medical students or not. The recruiting and getting a supportive package including positions (and so forth) approved for the school
of pharmacy may decline in priority. The change may force other priorities to be higher than finding leadership for the school of pharmacy.

Some of the responses concerned public relations for the school:

It is extremely important for us to maintain a strong liaison with the profession in your state. Some people have been more successful than others in doing that. This is something that falls squarely on the shoulders of the dean and in my opinion the practitioners of the state are going to expect the presence of the dean, always holding the banner high for the school, whether it’s in a very specific business meeting, whether you’re talking about legislative or contemporary issues, or at an association convention. You’ve got to be a Super dean!

Other deans focused on environmental challenges on the HSC and with university administration:

I think another issue is the rapid turnover at the Provost and VP levels. This instability in the reporting channels, and negative progress become discouraging to the dean. It kills your confidence, support and is discouraging. The turnover in those positions is very high. This could cause more people at the dean’s level to leave their positions.

Public institutions are going to have to compete more. We’re doing that. The problem is the institution is spending money on the hospital and the medical center with the thought that if they don’t survive we don’t have a health science campus. I told our chancellor, that basically we don’t have to have a college of medicine to be called a health science center, but we do have to have a hospital. The chancellor should have thought about what I said, but she stuck to the concept that we have to have a school of medicine and a hospital. Then if there’s enough money to go around, maybe we’ll bring in the other professions.
If you look at the health science professions, they are the ones who are losing everything. The college of medicine used to have it all. It’s diminishing more each day. Whatever campus I was on, I would polarize and politically join forces with the College of Nursing, because I think the Nurse practitioner is the way to go. The insurance agencies, the third party payors, government is going to see. And they have the masses! There’s more nurses than physicians, and they have the voters. Nurses care more about the patients and quality.

A few of the respondents mentioned student issues:

Private schools: it is not affecting us right now, but the issue of where our pool of students will come from in the future will be important. We now have a captive pool of traditional students, but is that going to change? You are getting fewer students who are 18, 19 and 20 year olds going to college in the traditional fashion; there are more nontraditional students. Also the numbers of students may go down.

The changing demography of our student body is an environmental thing. The age of students is increasing. They have different expectations of faculty. We’re not dealing with 18 or 21 year olds, many of the students are older than the faculty. They approach the classroom quite differently, and have different expectations. We’ve had Ph.Ds in chemistry, pharmacology, etc. in our professional program. Those are exceptions, granted, but I think the average age in our baccalaureate program is around 24-25 years old, and it’s up probably 4-5 years from a decade ago. So I think that adds a different taste to the environment.

Difference in expectations between customers and what we think we’re about. This is a big problem. Young people coming to college and their families have different expectations that they used to. It seems to me there is a greater expectation that "I want my needs met!!" That isn’t just in the young people, I hear it more in families. I’m in a private school campus, the involvement of the parents and families in these kind of issues is greater than in
public schools I believe. That stems from the costs. They feel they have the right to expect such and such.

Professional issues were cited by some respondents as key environmental challenges:

Lack of direction in profession. No one can be really sure where the profession is going to go. There is a general agreement that pharmacy is going to become more clinically oriented, and pharmacists more involved in patient care. This is the basic direction for schools to move. There is a general consensus that we must move in that direction, this is reflected in the move from the B.S. to the Pharm. D degree. There’s some that obviously disagree with that. Either we do that or the pharmacists will be out of a job as we know. I think that is our crisis. With technicians, more robots, mechanical approaches to dispensing, if we don’t move we will see major problems, so this is an attempt to safeguard the profession.

Not as much health care changes, as it is the switch in the educational system, e.g. going from the B.S. to the Pharm. D. degrees. Also, the other thing that is driving a crisis, is the whole funding of higher education in general; the economics of higher education. You tie that in with the schools having to go from a five year to a six year curriculum and they don’t see lots of money out there to support that.

I think it will take a crisis for any meaningful change to occur. Crisis created by external forces, so we need a crisis to create change. But it is frustrating to me, ACPE is stalling to make the changes in pharmaceutical education. Another piece of the leadership crisis is that the council of deans has backed off the needed change in degree programs.

Another environmental issue is the shifting in the profession from one in which the focus is on the distribution of products to where the focus is on helping patients and drug therapy management.
Although the major organizations and colleges of pharmacy have agreed on the shift of mission, it has not been enacted in the community pharmacies. It has been to some degree, enacted in institutions and in the long term care setting. But by and large this mission, although agreed to in theory, has not been adopted and accepted and so the environmental challenge for us is to either change the environment, or have our graduates help change the environment, so we can change in fact what the mission of pharmacy is.

Technology and information-systems comments were as follows:

Information technology is a tremendous environmental issue because it affects not only the removal of the product distribution responsibility from the pharmacist but it is also instrumental in providing pharmaceutical care for patients. Pretty soon the information about patients is going to be as available in the community setting as it has been in the hospital. Information about paying, protocols for drug therapy management will all be available. Video teleconferencing will be important both for the profession and for education.

The deans were critical of the lack of ability they had seen in some of their colleagues:

The old breed should have a vision of the whole university and how you can fit your resources into the changing needs of the university. The old breed should have been doing this already! I really believe that. We can’t live in little ivory towers and isolated fiefdoms. It doesn’t work. I’m not sure it ever did work well, but especially now.

A lot of our present leaders don’t keep up with change. They still spend too much time in their labs. We’re too willing to play the games instead of improving the programs.
I know a dean who was hired a year ago because he has a tremendous amount of research grants. I find that to be a tragedy. This guy knows nothing about Pharmacy education, what is required to move the profession into the whole arena of pharmaceutical care. And I know of one or two more people like that. If you want to see a crisis, that is what I consider a crisis. When he opens his mouth at national meetings, he embarrasses himself because of his lack of knowledge.

There is too much conflict of interest by the older deans. They are receiving money from NARD, NACDS and this is in direct conflict to advancing the profession. How can a dean sit on Eckards Board of Trustees? This is a conflict of interest and fuels the crisis in pharmacy not having a clear vision of where it is going. Deans have a wishy-washy approach to change. The whole profession is suffering from these conflicts of interest. A few deans are receiving too much money, therefore can’t advance vision for profession. There is a conspiracy not to change. Don’t want to sell the public on new ideas.

Most people who are in positions of leadership in schools of pharmacy come from a discipline-specific background. They are often by chance, administrators. And few have had formal training in higher ed administration. Because of that, you tend to think in isolation, and don’t see the larger system view. You only tend to see your own area. You have to have special feeling for your area of course, but if you cant see put it in the context of the whole, it is very difficult to be an effective administrator. If I’ve had any successes as an academic dean, it’s because I’ve refused to be an isolationist.

It is absolutely imperative to get a new breed of dean! The new breed should be someone who has other than discipline-specific progression through academic chairs; a person who has a systems view of higher education and the profession. I don’t mean to imply the person shouldn’t have a sensitivity, even a passion for their profession. But it takes more than that to be successful today as a dean. Some people acquire that OJT (on the job training), others
acquire it through more formal training. You can lead yourself in that direction if you’re willing to read the literature on higher ed and higher education management.

I don’t believe you can train somebody to be a dean. I don’t think you can do that. I believe a lion’s share of what a dean does is just human relations. You have to be able to get along with all kinds of people in all kinds of situations. Either you’ve got the personality that you can do that, I don’t believe you can "fake it" for very long. It’s that culture I was talking about. I’ve seen some people try to fake it, and they crash and burn. It doesn’t take very long sometimes. We have new dean workshops, they talk about financial, personnel stuff. That stuff is good, but if you can’t get along with the people you have to work with, you might as well "bag it!" That’s the most important stuff, I really do. Also, in the first two years of being a dean, it’s panic. They should talk about that.

Finally, societal and other environmental issues were sources of concern for several respondents:

I think another issue is the aging of the population and the increased need for drugs. Part of the determinant for the manpower issue will be determined by the volume of prescriptions. I don’t think this has been properly acknowledged in the literature, the point is, if you plot the number of prescriptions that have been written over the last ten years, this continues to go up. I think the aging of the population and their demand for more medications, they will be able to afford more medications, this volume will offset the downside of the removal of the distributive function.

The legislative issues, the laws are going to change in response to some of these other issues. I think the advent of consumerism and lifestyle changes will have an impact on health. I do believe that people are demanding more of a say if they are going to have treatment. They want to make the decision if they are going to
have chemotherapy or surgery. The baby boomers have done this all along throughout their lives and they will continue to be insistent to see all the options and will be less likely to take the suggestion of a physician.

**Phase Three: The Turnover Study**

The objective of this phase was to quantitatively determine the rate of turnover of deans in schools of pharmacy. Turnover in this study is defined as the occurrence when a new dean (either interim or seated) takes office. The initial study calculated turnover for the years 1984-94. This was expanded to include the time period 1966-84. Analysis of the number of interim, new and seated deans is included in Appendix C. Tables listing the number of administrative changes and number of open positions are in Appendices D & E. Twenty-five years of data on the turnover of deans is displayed in Appendix F.

**Contribution to Understanding**

The results of the research on the turnover of deans in schools of pharmacy indicates a fairly normal distribution of open positions. Statistically analyzing the data gives an r-square of +0.02447. This indicates that the over the 25 year period, turnover is not significantly
different and it is only slightly positive. Contrary to the beliefs of the study participants, turnover is not increasing dramatically in this period. Obviously, the turnover in the most recent period (1994-95) was the highest of any year in the twenty-five year period. If this turnover continues to remain high, or rises even further, these calculations will change significantly. Turnover is therefore a good method to track the leadership crisis.

The mean turnover of pharmacy deans in the 29 year period from 1966/67 to 1994/95 was 11.9%. The range was 2.8% to 22%. Interestingly, the highest turnover of deans (22% occurred in the most recent period, the 1994-95 year. The 11.9% turnover compares very favorably with the 14% that was recorded in university presidents (Mooney, 1992), and is significantly less than the 16% that was recorded for medical school deans (Banaszak Holl and Greer, 1994).

In the study by Banaszak-Holl and Greer (1994), they found that the turnover of medical school deans had greatly increased in the past five decades. Although I have only two decades of information, these data support the comments that the turnover has increased in the last two decades.
Additionally, these data do show a tremendous increase in the number of interim deans. In the five years between 1990-94, twenty-six schools were run by 28 interim deans. This is a phenomenon that seems to be increasing in frequency. Prior to the mid 1980s there were relatively few interim deans appointed; at that time interim appointments became more common. I believe these data reinforce several findings: the length of time required to fill positions is extraordinarily lengthy and there are a number of individuals in the schools who could become dean, but who choose not to do so.

Finally, I attempted to determine if the number and length of time positions remain open would give information about the leadership crisis. I did this to validate the calls in pharmacy literature that claim there are over 12 positions open at all times. Analyzing the data I found that this was not a good measure of the leadership crisis because the number of open positions is under-represented in most years due to the fact that the seated dean remains in office until his replacement is found. For example, in 1995 there are 9 openings reported, this includes 7 interim appointments and 2 new schools. However, there are actually 15 openings. This includes 6 deans who have announced their intent to
leave/retire and searches for their replacements have begun. Appendix G shows the number of interim and new appointments for each year. These data are not useful in tracking the number of open positions over the last 20 years and do not accurately represent the situation in schools of pharmacy.

Phase Four: The Tenure Study

In the last phase, the tables used in Phase Three were analyzed to determine the tenure of deans. As was noted, there is a perception from study respondents that the length of tenure for pharmacy deans is decreasing significantly. The length of tenure for each dean was determined by performing a rolling average. Appendix G contains the data that were tabulated. Appendix H displays the graph for the tenure of deans.

Contribution to Understanding

This piece of the study provided information on the tenure for deans over the last 20 years. There is only a slight decrease in the tenure in this period. Calculation of $r$-square gave the regression statistic
of -0.1296. Standard error is 0.5679. These calculations indicate that there is no consistent linear trend in length of tenure over the period.

Many study respondents stated that there is an expectation that the dean's tenure should be limited to ten years. Monitoring of the change in the tenure over time should be tracked to see if this expectation becomes reality. Additionally, I feel that if the tenure was calculated for five decades, as was done in the Banaszak-Holl and Greer study (1994), there would be a significant decline over the total period.

**Summary**

Four investigative phases were designed to collect data to answer research question #2. Two of the phases were qualitative in nature. Phase One was an initial assessment of the perception of the leadership crisis, conducted with three of the most prominent educational leaders in the country. In Phase Two, the survey designed in Phase One was redesigned and administered to 25 additional respondents. In all 28 individuals were contacted to gain their perceptions of this crisis. In the two quantitative phases I collected extensive data on deans in schools of
pharmacy for the last 20 years. Using this data, I calculated the turnover of administrators and the changing length of tenures for deans.

The path of investigation of the leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy took an interesting course. In Phase One, I had the opportunity to discuss leadership with three of the most influential men in pharmacy academia today. I learned that these individuals believe there is a leadership crisis, and that they feel the crisis is exhibited by the high turnover of deans. These respondents identified a new set of skills and abilities that are required to manage today's pharmacy school. I learned that deans consider the job not as much fun, and that environmental influences are significantly changing the role of the dean.

From this phase, I broadened the investigation of the perception of crisis and interviewed 25 additional deans. In the second phase, I focused the investigation to learn more about the crisis. Overall 52% of the deans interviewed felt there was a leadership crisis. I investigated what caused the crisis. I found that budget problems, similar to those that started the crisis in higher education, were cited by some deans to be the genesis of the crisis in schools of pharmacy. However, other respondents felt that the changing nature of the job was causing the
crisis and another group felt strongly that internal factors, such as poor recruiting efforts, caused the leadership crisis.

A majority of the respondents felt the primary symptom of the crisis was the increased turnover of administrators. Additionally, I learned that a number of deans felt that the length of tenure for these positions was decreasing, and that there is an expectation that deans would remain in office for only ten years.

The final question in the survey garnered a rich amount of data on the environmental challenges that are creating a more complex work environment for deans. Here the data showed that 18 of the 25 respondents felt that the budget was the key environmental factor.

These two qualitative investigations provided a kaleidoscope of information on the perception of the crisis. However, as the data collection proceeded, I recognized that the path of investigation should include a quantitative component. Therefore, I decided to perform an analysis of turnover of deans. This information showed that although respondents felt the turnover was abnormally high, the data themselves paint a fairly normal cycle of peaks and troughs. These data refute the comments I received that there was an abnormally high turnover rate in
pharmacy deans. Finally, in the course of the interviews, many deans stated that the length of tenure was decreasing significantly. In Phase Four, I calculated the turnover for the last 20 years and found that it has decreased only slightly in that period.

The four phases of investigation each built on the preceding phase and provided a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. In Chapter 6, I will answer the study questions, and make conclusions and recommendations on the leadership crisis.
CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, I will present a summary of this research and discuss conclusions that may be drawn from the data. Finally, I will make recommendations for further study.

Purpose and Focus

The purpose of this research was to explore the phenomenon of leadership crisis. Two research questions were posed:

1. What is meant by a "crisis of leadership" in higher education?
2. Is there a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy? If so, what is the nature of this crisis?

I began by investigating the origin of the concept of a leadership crisis in higher education through extensive literary searches. Then I used an interpretive approach to investigate the presence of a leadership crisis on the nation's health sciences centers. Using qualitative and
quantitative methods, I sought to determine if deans in schools of pharmacy there is a crisis of leadership. The timeliness of the topic, as well as the consequences a leadership crisis could have for schools of pharmacy in times of rapid change, prompted this investigation.

In this chapter, I will merge the following information: the research question, the theory presented, the data obtained either from literature searches or from the research, the meaning or relevance of the data and finally recommendations that emerge from the data. Each research question will be framed in this format. Schematically this presentation is represented by the following chart:

Research Question

\[ \downarrow \uparrow \]

Theory

\[ \downarrow \uparrow \]

Data

\[ \downarrow \uparrow \]

Relevance/meaning

\[ \downarrow \uparrow \]

Recommendations

154
Research Question #1: What is a Leadership Crisis in Higher Education?

Theory

To answer this question, the very elusive concept of leadership was explored. It appears from the literature review presented in Chapter 2, leadership is an elusive concept. As Levey (1991) observed, it is a "jungle of abstruse academic theories and simplistic popular prescriptions" (p. 8). Levey concluded that the wealth of information on leadership "often revealed fragmentary and unconnecting finding and conclusion" (p. 12). Additionally, he believed that language and methodology barriers make it difficult to compare and evaluate studies across different disciplines. The theory on leadership contains a vast quantity of information, complicated by the heuristics of individual disciplines.

Cohen (1993) looked at categorizing theories of leadership into six classifications. In higher education both the trait and the contingency/environment theories seem to have relevance. I decided to investigate these two theories in greater detail.
**Trait theories.** To investigate the importance of trait theories in academic leadership, I conducted an extensive literature search. There are many studies that identify the required traits in academic administrators (Skipper, 1978; Enarson, 1978; Birnbaum, 1983; Murphy, 1988; Bensimon, 1989; Dill, 1980; Gardner, 1990; Birnbaum, 1992; Cohen, 1993, Detmer & Finney, 1993; Lovett, 1994). These studies support the belief that there are definable traits that improve the leadership abilities of the academic administrator. However, Birnbaum (1992) stated that traits alone do not predict leadership ability and that leadership effectiveness depends on the environment, the organizational culture and subordinates’ expectations. Therefore, the contingency (or environmental) model is also an important consideration in the discussion of academic leadership.

**Contingency/environment theories.** These theories state that leaders must adapt their style and behavior to the environment and that their skills and approaches must be continually developed. Many authors supported this belief and stated that leadership requirements must change in times of environmental stress. Studies by Bensimon (1989) and Bolman and Deal (1991) illustrated how the environment dictates a
change in leadership requirements. The works of Cribben (1981) are also beneficial in understanding leadership requirements in times of environmental change. Cribben's scissor-metaphor showed how both traits and the environment provide the leader with constraints and opportunities.

Data

One of the most thorough studies on the leadership crisis in higher education was conducted by Scott (1983). In her study, she described a golden age that preceded the onset of the problems in higher education. In the early 1970s however, the first great wave of budget cuts put a precipitous end to the golden age. The education depression began. Cheit (1971) believed that the depression in higher education of the 1970s would outstrip in severity and potential longevity the experience of the Great Depression. Bartell (1975), took issue with Cheit and observed that the crisis was not of the magnitude of a great depression, but rather the basis for new forms of public assistance and a need for increased managerial expertise in educational administration.
Scott (1983) saw the situation as multidimensional, including factors that were closely interrelated and mutually reinforcing making their resolution more problematic. She believed the dimensions were financial and political. She considered the financial factors the primary cause of the leadership crisis. The political factors, she observed, caused discontent and power struggles in the academic community, and a loss of confidence in the purposes and priorities of the academic community.

The literature review framed the symptoms of the problems in higher education in two areas: environmental and leadership.

Environmental symptoms. Aspects of the budget problems in higher education were seen in environmental symptoms including college closings, faculty and staff layoffs, lack of program development/advancement, steep increases in tuition, decreasing numbers of students enrolling in college due to shrinking job markets and delays in faculty salary increases and promotions.

Leadership symptoms. Other symptoms of the budget problems were framed as a crisis of leadership. Keller (1983) stated, "One of the most significant developments in postwar academic life has been the progressive breakdown of governance and leadership" (p. 27).
Critics expected that good academic leadership would devise ways to overcome the barriers and find the cure for higher education’s ills (Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum, 1989).

The leadership crisis was seen in high burnout and turnover rates of academic administrators (Trachtenberg, 1981); the changing selection criteria used for academic administrators (Hughes, 1987); and the recognition that the very nature of the job of the administrator had changed.

Relevance/meaning

From the literature search, it is apparent that criticism of academic administrators is not new (Gould, 1964; Dodds, 1962). However, in the last 20 years, writers now criticize administrators using the term "crisis". The budget problems of the 1970s created strong criticism of academic leaders. The perception of a leadership crisis developed because of the belief that strong leaders should have able to quickly resolve the financial difficulties.

Analyzing the data shows there is disagreement as to the presence of a true crisis; yet authors still use the vernacular "leadership crisis" in
publications (Lovett, 1994). If there had been a leadership crisis in higher education for the last 25 years, we would have seen many colleges close and academic leadership would be in a profound state of chaos. While the budget problems did force some schools to close, the other environmental symptoms mentioned previously have faded.

From the literature, it appears that there is an ongoing need to train academic administrators to be flexible and to modify their roles in the presence of environmental change. Perhaps warnings of a leadership crisis are framed by the failure of some individuals to acquire the necessary skills. As Cibulka & Mawhinney (1995) observed, the interface of rational management with an appreciation of the educational component is "largely silent despite exhortations by some scholars to move int that direction" (p. 507). The rapidly changing university environment will certainly continue to challenge academic administrators. In response to these changes, it appears that leaders must continually work to acquire new skills. If the leader is unwilling or resistant to this approach, the results could be seen as a crisis in leadership. Many writers feel that additional education would assist academic administrators in meeting the challenges of the changing academic
Comparing the budget problems to the Great Depression was certainly inappropriate. As Scott (1983) observed, it is imperative to understand if there is an actual crisis or simply "crisis talk" resulting in aggravation of the sense of crisis. I feel the whole idea of a crisis should be eliminated from a discussion of academic leadership.

This comment does not dismiss however, the obligation of academic administrators to acquire skills that are necessary to manage the rapidly changing environment. The 1990s have an additional focus which could cause new problems for higher education. This new focus is an examination of the quality of the academic experience. As Green (1988) observed,

The preoccupation of the 1970s and early 1980s with money and management now shares center stage with issues of quality, institutional effectiveness and some very fundamental questions about whom higher education is serving and how well. (p. 35)
In a reflective article on a similar crisis in Canada, Sibley (1993) stated:

External constraints continue to increase in number and severity; the contemporary academic culture has greatly weakened old institutional values and identities; and governance structures have become inordinately complex, cumbersome and ill adapted to deal with existing realities. In these circumstances strident demands for 'greater accountability' and 'stronger leadership' cannot really be met. (p. 114)

He concluded that new methods of governance and problem solving are required to solve the pressing problems in higher education.

The decade of the 1990s should produce a rational discussion of the requirements of academic leadership. Criteria for selecting academic administrators should be debated. A balance between a strong background in education with a demonstrated competency in business-oriented skills should result. I believe this change will help to alleviate the symptoms of the leadership crisis: the high burnout and turnover of academic administrators, ambiguous selection requirements, and shorter tenures should be aided by the identification of individuals who possess the "right" abilities. This discussion should include a definition of the discipline of higher education administration and the educational requirements to train individuals to be academic administrators.
Concepts such as strategic planning, human resource development, political astuteness, negotiations, total quality management etc. must be reengineered for academic administration. Additionally, concepts such as curriculum design, program development and evaluation must be included in the training of these administrators. Finally, I feel the perception of the unpleasantness of the job would diminish as individuals are trained to understand the complexities of the office.

Question #2: Is There a Leadership Crisis in Pharmacy? What is the Nature of This Crisis?

In this study, I traced the crisis in higher education and found that over the last 5 years it appears to be spreading onto the nation’s health sciences centers and into schools of pharmacy. The pharmacy literature indicates the existence of a leadership crisis that is seen in high turnover rates, misguided search committee processes, and the perception that the job is unpleasant (Chi, 1994; Trinca, 1993; Rutledge, 1994).
Theory

In Chapter 2, I reviewed the literature on academic leadership, leadership on the HSC and in schools of pharmacy. Detmer and Finney (1993) noted, "There is a dearth of research on the leadership of health [science] centers" (p. 10). Most observers believe that leadership on the HSC has unique challenges and leaders not only face the problems of the traditional parent university, but they are confronted additionally with the challenges of health care reform and its potential impact on the education of health care professionals. Administrators in these centers must not only deal with managing an academic institution, they must also manage the "business" of health care.

Cohen (1993) supported the importance of both the trait and contingency models in pharmacy. He observed there is a "paucity of qualified individuals able and willing to assume major positions of leadership in higher education and the characteristics of leadership do not fit into a single model but emerge retrospectively from an analysis of the leader and the environment they operate within" (p. 351). This information suggests the importance of using more than one model to identify leadership requirements.
As Levey (1991) observed, leadership theories are a jungle of "abstruse academic theories and simplistic popular prescriptions" (p. 8). Additionally, language and methodology barriers make it difficult to compare studies across different disciplines. This would suggest that identification of the unique leadership requirements for health sciences centers, and schools of pharmacy should be determined.

Cohen (1993) stated that the leadership problems on the academic health sciences center are different today due to the declining resources and the "frenetic pace of change that engulfs all of society in this era of information and technology" (p. 354). In 1992, Cohen observed, the changes that are being made would have been difficult for pharmacy in the good times of the 1970s and 1980s but that in the 1990s, with severe budget problems prevalent in all schools, these changes are very difficult. These schools are now experiencing budget problems similar to those that plagued higher education in the 1970s. Consequently, many pharmacy writers believe there is a leadership crisis. The scenario for the perception of a leadership crisis seems to mirror the one that was presented in Chapters 1 and 2: budget difficulties in higher education cause a perception of a leadership crisis.
Cohen hypothesized that because of the environmental difficulties on the HSC, a different set of skills and abilities are required to manage. Kinnard and Harcleroad (1993) also discussed the need for a new set of skills. The pharmacy dean faces additional challenges because the school of pharmacy is one of the smallest schools on the HSC campus. Consequently, the dean is in a difficult position as he must compete with the larger schools of medicine and nursing for diminishing resources.

Vanderveen (1988) examined the self perceived leadership styles of pharmacy school deans using a managerial grid concept. Twenty-six percent of all deans participating (N = 127) preferred a style of management that reflected a low regard for both people and tasks. The author concluded that leadership in colleges of pharmacy may be lacking. He recommended, "Better defined and structured career pathways providing enhanced management training and experience for future deans along with heightened sensitivity to the importance of assessing management skills by search committees might result in improved leadership skills of the pharmacy deans" (p. 148). This study presents data demonstrating the fact that pharmacy deans are not receiving the continuing education programs to keep pace with the changes that are
occurring in the environment. Kinnard and Harcleroad (1993) support this study when they called for a new breed academic manager who clearly understands the mission of the university and who can bring together the academic community and the limited resources to achieve their common goals" (p. 290). They conclude that to manage in tomorrow’s complex environment, the development of management skills must become a routine activity for pharmacy school leadership.

Data

Data from the two qualitative phases of the study can be used to answer the question regarding the presence of a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. In these phases, interpretive methods of participant observational research were used. A critical element that distinguishes interpretative participant observational is the use of what Erickson calls "the immediate and local meanings of actions, as defined from the actors' point of view" (Erickson, 1990, p. 119). In this study, the qualitative phase is seeded in interpretative-participant research collected from the actors, here the deans' local meaning of pharmacy
leadership. It is their point of view, or interpretation of the leadership crisis, that is obtained in these phases of the study.

Interpretative participant observational research methods are especially beneficial in this study because the actors (the deans) in the study may not realize the patterns of their actions as they are occurring. Therefore, by believing a crisis is occurring, they may actually cause one to occur. Scott (1983) felt it was imperative to understand if there is an actual crisis or simply "crisis talk". In Chapter 1, I presented her quote, "The very idea of crisis management as the self-declared style and purpose of the new administration conveys a certain irony, for in the name of managing crises (in sense of resolving them), crisis managers may, in fact, be provoking or intensifying them" (p. 9).

To review the responses of the participants in the two qualitative phases, Tables 6.1 and 6.2 summarize the findings.
Table 6.1
Summary of Responses from Deans: Phase 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is there a crisis?</th>
<th>All 3 respondents believed in the presence of a crisis.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the cause of the crisis?</td>
<td>Varied reasons: job is bad, increased turnover, decreased length of tenure, poor searches for deans. Environment is causing a change in leadership requirements. Traditional skills must change because of this. Need a new breed administrator with more management-oriented skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6.2
Summary of Responses from Deans: Phase 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is there a crisis?</td>
<td>100% of the new deans and 36% of the seasoned deans believe there is a crisis. 80% of respondents believe there are leadership problems in schools of pharmacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is the cause of problem?</td>
<td>Nature of job: job is very tough job, the role of the dean has changed. External environment: higher education crisis, decreasing budgets, health care reform. Internal environment: poor recruiting efforts, faculty recruit for old skills, don’t understand what is needed. Leadership in deans: failure of deans to learn new skills to manage, deans are not political, are not change agents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How does environment impact leadership?</td>
<td>64% of respondents stated that environment was a key factor in leadership requirements. Funding and resource issues were considered the most critical factors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Relevance/Meaning

Research question #2 can be answered by looking at both the theory and the data. Is there a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy?

Qualitative evidence. Data from the qualitative phases would indicate that generally, the actors believe there is definitely a problem, but perhaps not a "crisis" in academic leadership. The pilot participants and the new deans all felt it was at a crisis level.

The cause. The cause of the leadership problem was attributed to both environmental and leadership issues. The environmental issues centered around budget and resource problems. The leadership issues were framed by the fact that the role of the dean had changed, the job was tough, and that deans do not have the right skills to manage in the new environment. Sixty-four percent of the respondents felt that the environment was a key factor in determining leadership requirements. We know from Cohen's (1992, 1993) works that the environment in schools of pharmacy and on the HSC is dramatically changing. The comments from the participants echoed the ones heard in the higher education leadership crisis: critics expect that good academic leadership should devise ways to overcome the barriers and find the cure for
pharmacy’s budget problems. New skills are required to do this, but pharmacy leaders are not working to develop those skills.

The symptoms. In contrasting the symptoms of the higher education leadership crisis, with the issue in schools of pharmacy presents an excellent summary of these findings. Tables 6.3, 6.4 and 6.5 summarize this analysis.

Turnover of administrators

Table 6.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher education</th>
<th>Study participants</th>
<th>School of Pharmacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mooney (1992) suggested a widespread perception that the turnover of college president is high, there is a consensus about the increasing difficulty and of the need to develop new administrative skills.</td>
<td>Turnover is high. Deans need new administrative skills. Need mentoring type programs.</td>
<td>Several articles (Chi, 1994; Trinca, 1993; Kinnard and Harcleroad, 1993; Vanderveen, 1988) note high turnover of deans and need for new administrative skills.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Selection of deans

Table 6.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher education</th>
<th>Study participants</th>
<th>School of Pharmacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The traditional approach to selecting academic administrators has been for their scholarly qualifications rather than for their administrative experience (Hughes, 1987). Consequently, they may lack or be perceived to lack administrative skills.</td>
<td>Selection of deans must change.</td>
<td>Rutledge (1994) stated schools must understand what they need for leaders. Selection criteria must be carefully determined.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is consistent with Green’s observation, &quot;Higher education’s reluctance to recognize the need to prepare its academic administrators in any systematic way reflects the values of the academy, but not necessarily its needs&quot; (1981, p. 11).</td>
<td>Search committees do not understand changing role of dean.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Need to prepare leaders for their new roles.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Political and management skills are critical.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
New Roles and Responsibilities

Table 6.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher education</th>
<th>Study participants</th>
<th>School of Pharmacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New roles and responsibilities. As a result of the budget problems in higher education, that the administrator’s role changed dramatically. Green (1988) reflected that the job of college presidents changed from that of an education leader to that of a fundraiser, financial manager and politician in an endless quest to obtain scarce financial resources.</td>
<td>The role of the dean is now very different, very political. It is not fun. Need new skills.</td>
<td>Vanderveen (1988) and Kinnard and Harcleroad (1993) documented the need to prepare pharmacy deans.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This analysis demonstrates clear parallels between the calls concerning the leadership crisis in higher education with both the pharmacy literature and the study respondents. It is expected therefore that although the environment may be different, the symptoms and therefore calls to resolve the issue are very similar in both higher education and pharmacy education.
Quantitative evidence. The data collected in the quantitative phases of the study disproved some elements of the actors' opinions. These phases demonstrated that there is not a problem with the turnover of academic administrators. In the last 30 years the turnover has fluctuated, but it has not increased significantly. Additionally, tenure of pharmacy deans has decreased slightly over the last 25 years, but the change is not significant. These data may represent normal rhythms and do not indicate a serious crisis at this time. These two data sources will be excellent markers to track the progression of the situation over time.

Recommendations

The crisis in pharmacy today appears to be following a similar path to that of the "leadership crisis" in higher education.

Use of the word "crisis". I feel that Pharmacy educators should not use the word crisis to describe the problems that are occurring. It serves no benefit and only causes misinterpretation of the situation. The leadership problems are clearly identifiable and resolvable.

Identification of leadership attributes. Pharmacy education needs to identify the unique knowledge and skills that are required to manage in
the rapidly changing health care environment. This has not occurred in schools of pharmacy or on the HSC. This situation must be resolved.

Only recently, at the 1994 meeting of the Association of Academic Health Centers, did academic administrators focus their attention to identifying the changing leadership requirements of academic administrators.

Clawson (1993) discussed the requirements of the future academic leader on a health sciences center; I believe these traits should be included in the search process for each dean in schools of pharmacy. The first trait Clawson discussed was a tract record of success in an area germane to the institutional mission. Clawson warned against the individual who has enjoyed success as a researcher but who has not achieved national credentials for excellence in any area. The second trait he mentioned was that the individual must be a futurist. He believed this is critical because of the rapid changes that are seen in academic administration. The third, and probably most important attribute, was that the leader must be a people-person. Since the role of the administrator is highly interpersonal, these skills are requirements of effective leadership. Clawson warned against hiring the brilliant
researcher who is only comfortable with his immediate colleagues in the laboratory or in his own discipline.

The next two traits were that the person must be comfortable in dealing with ambiguities and he/she must be an institutional person. To become an institutional person the leader must become involved in the broader goals of the institution and place those goals above their own problems. Finally, the ideal person should have a balanced personal life. Clawson concluded that the health sciences center must change the selection process "to identify individual with the above characteristics and give them opportunities to succeed in jobs of ever increasing responsibility" (p. 349).

**Education of academic leaders.** Academic leadership on the HSC has not responded to the calls for more business-oriented approach. Consequently, in the 1970s and 1980s when other academic administrators were being educated in these techniques HSC administrators were not. Vanderveen (1988) and Kinnard and Harcleroad (1993) all noted that new skills are required.

The role of the dean in schools of pharmacy has changed greatly over the last 10 years. Where it was once thought to be a prestigious
job, now it is steeped in politics, conflict management and budget issues. Fund raising is key. A majority of the respondents noted that the job is not fun anymore. Because of the limited training pharmacy deans receive, they enter their position not understanding the true nature of the job. I believe if expectations are outlined for these individuals, and they understood the true nature of the job, this problem could be resolved.

I believe the profession also needs extensive discussion the retraining of older deans, and that this effort should be given a high priority. Unfortunately, at the present time there is a paucity of programs to train seated deans. Additionally, many of the older deans do not recognize that their skills are outdated, and do not feel they need to attend programs.

Selection of academic administrators. Pharmacy authors discuss the concept of a new breed of academic manager and articles focus on the new management requirements of the pharmacy dean. To date, the selection of pharmacy deans has been primarily focused in the educator-turned-administrator, or researcher-turned-administrator model. The current perception that the turnover of deans is high may simply be the reflection of many 60+ year old deans who do not want to learn new
management skills to lead the school in the rapidly changing health care environment.

Because pharmacy search committees have not identified what is required to be a dean, individuals hired do not understand the true nature of the job. As one of the interviewees stated: "I asked a member of my faculty: What do you think I do?" The faculty member's perspective was that the dean's role was centered in philosophical activities. The dean's role however is highly political, and focused on projecting the image of the college. Many of the respondents criticized the fact that the job is highly political. It is understandable that individuals educated in highly rational scientific disciplines would have disdain for the irrational nature of organizational politics. There must be a rational discussion of the new requirements and search committees must be willing to recruit individuals who possess the right abilities.

**Strategic planning.** Finally, while pharmacy leadership is experiencing some problems, the profession must not let these issues distract from resolving the critical professional issues. As Sibley (1993) noted, external constraints will continue and the demands for stronger
leadership cannot really be met. The profession needs to develop long term strategic plans for the advancement of the practice of pharmacy.

SUMMARY

There is a strong perception by pharmacy deans that the 20+ year old crisis in higher education is spreading into the nation’s schools of pharmacy. The crisis there appears to mirror the one in higher education:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Higher education</th>
<th>Schools of Pharmacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Golden age preceded crisis</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes; but some would argue that we are still in this age as evidenced by increase in # of schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cause</td>
<td>Budget problems</td>
<td>Budget problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symptoms</td>
<td>Environmental (closing of schools etc.) and leadership (turnover etc.)</td>
<td>Leadership: turnover of administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reaction to budget problems</td>
<td>Leadership and political</td>
<td>Leadership crisis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods to overcome</td>
<td>Educate leaders in management (1980s); identify new leaders (1990s)</td>
<td>Educate leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Success in resolving crisis</td>
<td>Not working? Rhetoric still abundant about leadership crisis</td>
<td>Talking about it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although there is a perception of a crisis, the data do not indicate that the criteria usually cited are, in fact, met. Future research should be conducted to continue to track the tenure and turnover of pharmacy deans. Finally, the education and training of these administrators should be given the highest priority by the profession of pharmacy.
APPENDIX A
THE PILOT SURVEY

Name: ____________________________
Current position: ______________________
Institution: __________________________

INTRODUCTION:
This qualitative survey is designed to garner information concerning the changing skills that are required of deans in schools of pharmacy. I will be asking you questions in three areas: the current skills and abilities of deans, the role of the environment in shaping these skills, and finally, your vision of the skills and abilities will be in the future. These data will help identify the educational pathway for those individuals who are aspiring to a position in academic administration.

QUESTIONS

1. Do you feel there a leadership crisis in pharmacy education?
   What is the cause/nature of the crisis:
   Is the turnover of deans high?

2. What attributes have been key in the selection of pharmacy deans in the past?

3. Jordan Cohen has written that the environment of the school is a key factor in determining leadership requirements. What is your response to this statement?
Please explain what you feel are the key environmental issues in schools of pharmacy:

Are environmental issues becoming more or less complex?
Please explain your answer:

How is the role of the dean changing secondary to environmental changes?

4. Kinnard and Harcleroad observed that in the future, we will need a new breed manager who understands that the two most important things are: first, an understanding of the mission of the university, and secondly an administrator who can coordinate the resources of the community to achieve common goals. What do you think of the concept of the new breed:

What is your response of the two important abilities they noted?

I’ve asked you all the questions, and I really appreciate the time you have given me. Thank you for your input. Would you mind if I call you again if I need to follow up on any of these points?
APPENDIX B

THE CRISIS SURVEY

Name:

School:

Status: New dean__ Seasoned dean__

QUESTIONS:

1. Many writers believe there is a leadership crisis in schools of pharmacy. Do you feel there a leadership crisis in pharmacy education?

Yes/Please explain:

No/Please explain why you feel some people believe there is a crisis:

2. What is your definition of the word "crisis"

3. What are the symptoms of this crisis?

4. Jordan Cohen has written that the environment of the school is a key factor in determining leadership requirements. What is your response to this statement?

5. Please explain what you feel are the key environmental issues in schools of pharmacy.
### APPENDIX C

#### ANALYSIS OF THE NUMBER OF DEANS IN SCHOOLS OF PHARMACY

1966-1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th># Interim</th>
<th># New</th>
<th>Seated deans</th>
<th># Schools</th>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>75</td>
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APPENDIX D
ANALYSIS OF THE NUMBER OF ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES IN
SCHOOLS OF PHARMACY FROM 1966-1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th># Changes</th>
<th># Colleges</th>
<th>% Change</th>
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<td>1973-74</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td>16.4</td>
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</table>

1 This includes two new schools that recruited deans.
2 The two new schools of pharmacy are not added in.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Graduates</th>
<th>Turnover</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1972-73</td>
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<td>74</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-67</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For 29 years the average turnover is 11.9

- 1966-70 (5 years) = 11.9
- 1971-80 (10 years) = 10.8
- 1981-90 (10 years) = 11.9
- 1991-94 (4 years) = 14.0

Interim deans:

In five years review (1990-94), 26 schools were run by 28 interim deans. Of the 28 interims deans, five went on to become dean of the specific school that they served as interim.

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3 The closing of one school put one additional dean out of work, therefore this number is added in, rather than subtracted.
### APPENDIX E
### ANALYSIS OF NUMBER OF OPEN POSITIONS
#### 1975-95

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Openings</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Opening Rate</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>15*</td>
<td>77</td>
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</tr>
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<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
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<td>1975-76</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>6.9</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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*4 In each year, the number of openings is under-represented due to the fact that the seated dean remains in office until his replacement is found. For example in 1995, there are 15 openings for deans. This includes the following: Interim appointments = 7, Seated deans who have announced their intent to leave = 6, New schools = 2*
APPENDIX F
ANALYSIS OF THE TURNOVER OF DEANS

ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES
1966-1994

YEAR: 1966-1994

Series 1
APPENDIX G
ANALYSIS OF THE TENURE OF DEANS IN SCHOOLS OF PHARMACY
FROM 1974-1994

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th># Years total service</th>
<th># Colleges</th>
<th>Average tenure per year</th>
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<td>72</td>
<td>8.12</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Mean = 577.3 years
Median = 563 years
Mode = 560 years
Mean = 7.5 years for the 20 year period.

This does not include the two new schools that recruited deans.
APPENDIX H
ANALYSIS OF THE TENURE OF PHARMACY DEANS

TENURE OF PHARMACY DEANS
1975-94

Average Years

1975-1994
BIBLIOGRAPHY


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