

# Training Opportunities for Corrections Practice: A National Survey of Doctoral Psychology Programs

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Few empirical studies have examined how doctoral psychology training programs introduce corrections as an area of study or a venue for practice, making it difficult to understand the link between academic programs and a psychology services workforce in corrections. A representative group of directors of American Psychological Association accredited doctoral programs in clinical and counseling psychology ( $N = 170$ ) were surveyed for information on corrections coursework, faculty interest, and practicum opportunities. More than half the programs offered exposure to clinical practice in corrections; largely practicum and rarely specific coursework. Faculty considerations were the most frequently nominated factors that limited correctional training in doctoral programs. The discussion focuses on implications for policy and practice in the training of the corrections workforce and in developing corrections-competent faculty.

*Keywords:* corrections, psychology, forensic, education and training, practicum

Corrections research shows that offenders need and request correctional mental health and substance abuse services (Diamond, Magaletta, Harzke, & Baxter, 2008; Diamond, Wang, Holzer, Thomas, & Cruser, 2001; Ditton, 1999; Leukefeld, Tims, & Farabee, 2002; Morgan, Rozycki, & Wilson, 2004). These offenders often present with numerous and clinically complex problems (James & Glaze, 2006; Lovell & Jemelka, 1998; Manderscheid, Gravesande, & Goldstrom, 2004). Contributing to this challenge are the sheer number of offenders and the contextual factors that

continually shape the delivery of psychological services within criminal justice settings (Andrews & Bonta, 2010; Fletcher, Lehman, Wexler, & Melnick, 2007; Lamberti, 2007; Magaletta & Verdeyen, 2005; Mears, 2004; Morgan, 2003; Powitzky, 2003). Together, these factors create and sustain the demand for well-prepared psychologists in corrections.

For the corrections systems that need to recruit for psychology positions the good news is that doctoral training in psychology is large and thriving. Recent estimates are that over 5,000 psychol-

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ogy doctorates are awarded annually (American Psychological Association [APA], Center for Workforce Studies, 2008; Norcross, Kohut, & Wilcherski, 2005). What remains concealed, however, is an understanding of how best to link this supply of psychologists from the ivory tower to the demand for them around the gun tower. To better understand the connections among graduate training, the service needs of offenders, and the correctional mental health workforce, it is important that psychology doctoral programs be studied systematically in terms of the correctional training opportunities that they offer. In corrections, where psychologist positions remain hard-to-fill and difficulties with recruitment are common the need to develop such an understanding is imperative (Gondles & Kehoe, 2007; Harding, 2002; Workforce Associates, 2009).

Unfortunately, the degree to which training opportunities in graduate programs are used to introduce and transmit the knowledge and skills required for competent clinical practice in corrections remains unknown. This is problematic from the correctional mental health workforce perspective as graduate training programs and experiences form the initial context from which career trajectories unfold (Boylan & Scott, 2009; Magaletta et al., 2011; Shivy, Mazzeo, & Sullivan, 2007; Varghese & Cummings, 2012). Owing to their responsibility for the training and education of psychologists, doctoral psychology programs are in a key position to help meet the corrections workforce demand. Through participation in academic coursework, relationships with faculty and placement in supervised settings, their psychology students can begin to consider the psychological service needs of offenders. Despite the importance of these links among the ivory tower and the gun tower, few studies have directly examined them. Instead, a more distal approach has developed yielding two distinct, compartmentalized literatures.

The first body of literature emerged over 40 years ago and organized itself around the graduate curriculum and academic structures used to study psychology and law. The research pioneers in this area embarked in the early 1970s with an original focus on preparing students for the delivery of services in corrections (Andrews & Gendreau, 1976; Brodsky, 1973; Fenster, Litwack, & Symonds, 1975; Fowler & Brodsky, 1978; Gormally & Brodsky, 1973; Wicks, 1974). These researchers understood the important roles that graduate psychology programs held in preparing psychologists that could function competently in the correctional environment. Despite their efforts, however, this focus was soon lost and replaced by inquiries into the various ways that psychology and the law interfaced.

For example, in the first comprehensive investigation of graduate programs in psychology and law related courses and programs was published in 1982 by Grisso, Sales, and Bayless. Among the 365 masters and doctoral programs surveyed, 23% offered a "course at the graduate level where at least half the content examined issues in the relationships between psychology and the law, legal systems, or legal process." These were further parsed by the characteristics of the courses: 2.7% offered course content that focused upon corrections, rehabilitation, or professional services in correctional settings. In terms of informal opportunities, 16% ( $n = 58$ ), reported optional specialized opportunities available to their students, such as a practicum in court or correctional settings or faculty research focused on law-related topics.

The Grisso et al. (1982) study illustrates the substantial interest in psychology and law and, at the same time, the subtle movement away from delivering services to offenders in corrections. As such, it foreshadowed the degree to which graduate training in psychology trended away from developing coursework and other training opportunities focused on clinical practice in corrections and toward deeper understandings and specializations in psychology and law. In the 30 years that followed publication of the seminal work, the psychology-law literature proliferated as did student interest in forensic psychology. Over time, a new genre of literature emerged on the curriculum for preparing forensic psychologists at pre- and postdoctoral levels (e.g., DeMatteo, Marczyk, Krauss, & Burl, 2009; Packer & Grisso, 2011; Poythress, 1979). Therefore, when corrections work does make an appearance in this scholarship it is mentioned primarily as a setting where forensic psychologists might find employment. Moreover, this literature never addresses the curriculum and training necessary to assist psychologists in rendering evidence-based practices with offenders in criminal justice settings. Thus, curriculum questions on how offenders change criminal behavior and a consideration of the training needs among the clinicians that could facilitate this process remain unknown.

The second body of literature examines contemporary student perceptions and experiences of training in corrections (e.g., Ax & Morgan, 2002; Fagan, Ax, Resnick, Liss, Johnson, & Forbes, 2004; Magaletta et al., 2011; Magaletta, Patry, & Norcross, 2012; Morgan, Beer, Fitzgerald, & Mandracchia, 2007; Olver, Preston, Camilleri, Helmus, & Starzomski, 2011; Pietz, DeMier, Dienst, Green, & Scully, 1998). Although none of these studies provide a comprehensive view of graduate training programs, findings do converge on several informative points. First, a hallmark experience of training in correctional settings is the broad, not specialized, range of clients served and problems addressed. Medical conditions such as HIV and dementia are treated alongside serious mental illness, personality disorders, substance abuse, trauma, and adjustment reactions. Second, brief assessments and individual and group treatments remain the prime experience gained by the students. Third, student perceptions of working with offenders are favorable (Morgan et al., 2007; Pietz et al., 1998). Finally, and from a workforce perspective, most importantly, the studies point to an increasing number of students in criminal justice system practicum and a robust link between graduate training in a correctional setting and later employment in the correctional workforce (Boothby & Clements, 2002; Magaletta et al., 2011; Magaletta et al., 2012).

When the two bodies of literature, the psychology-law training literature and the student centered studies are considered together two main points become clear. First, interest in corrections has grown over several decades. Despite this interest, however, correctional psychologist positions remain hard-to-fill. Few empirical studies allow us to know specifically how graduate programs introduce corrections as an area of study or a venue for practice, making it difficult to understand the link between academic programs and a psychology services workforce in corrections. Second, to facilitate such an understanding, a more comprehensive understanding that parses corrections work from forensic interest and study is needed. Among the leading scholars in the field (Ax & Morgan, 2002; Barton, 2011; Brodsky, 2000; Gendreau, Goggin, French, & Smith, 2006; Helmus, Babchishin, Camilleri, & Olver, 2011; Magaletta, Patry, Dietz, & Ax, 2007; Morgan et

al., 2007; Olver et al., 2011; Simourd & Wormith, 1995; Smith & Gendreau, in press), the distinction between corrections practice and psychology-law or forensic training has been consistently observed, increasingly noted, and unfortunately, ignored. There is not a single study that provides a complete description of the training opportunities being conveyed for corrections practice in graduate psychology programs.

Thus, the purpose of the present study is to produce a contemporary, focused, and first ever description of the ways that clinical practice in corrections is conveyed in and by doctoral psychology training programs. We assess doctoral training for corrections practice at three levels: coursework, faculty, and practicum. To help us better understand the national training landscape for clinical practice in corrections, we present the prevalence of these opportunities, make several comparisons between different types of doctoral programs, and summarize factors limiting training in corrections as perceived by the training directors of the doctoral programs.

## Method

### Participants

There were 170 training directors of APA-accredited doctoral programs who completed a structured telephone interview for this study. Approximately 74% ( $n = 125$ ) directed clinical psychology programs, 24% ( $n = 41$ ) counseling psychology programs, and the remaining 2% ( $n = 4$ ) combined clinical and counseling programs. Degrees offered by their programs were either the PhD (79%,  $n = 135$ ) or the PsyD (21%,  $n = 35$ ).

The population from which the sample derived was directors of doctoral programs in clinical, counseling, or combined psychology located in the United States and accredited by the APA as of 2007 ( $N = 291$ ).

### Measures

We developed a structured interview to determine three types of training opportunities (coursework, faculty, and practicum) with corrections offered by doctoral programs. The interview questions were subject to several iterations of revision, including review by three subject matter experts and pilot testing with 10 program directors, all of whom were included in the final sample. This way, the validity of the content and the clarity of the interview questions were reshaped until the final interview emerged.

Directors were read the following introduction: "I am calling from the Psychology Services Branch of the Federal Bureau of Prisons. We are conducting an outreach survey to help us understand how graduate students within your program are exposed to clinical/counseling practice with offenders in prisons. Would you be willing to answer a few questions for us on this topic?" After an affirmative response, the director was provided this definition of correctional psychology: "Correctional psychology refers to treatment and management work with offenders who are currently in the custody of a jail, detention center, prison, correctional system or facility. Unlike forensic psychology which includes practice at the interface of psychology and law, we are interested in learning about training for work in a correctional facility." Once the director indicated an understanding of this definition, he or she was

asked three blocks of interview questions indexed to that definition.

Coursework questions included availability of courses and the instructors' names and availability of syllabi. Faculty questions included contact information and whether their corrections interest was oriented toward research, practice, or both. Practicum questions were more extensive: whether the corrections experience was mandatory or optional; assigned by faculty, chosen by the student, selected by the practicum site, or a combination thereof; specific types of available facilities (e.g., adult jail, prison, juvenile detention center, half-way house, and forensic mental health units) and identifying information on those facilities and the contact information for the practicum supervisor. All program directors were also asked general questions about all practicum opportunities in their program (e.g., Does your program contain an in-house training clinic? Are your off-site practicum required or optional? How many semesters of practicum are required for your students?). These questions allowed us to calculate an approximate emphasis on the correctional placements.

The interview concluded with questions on limiting factors that programs might encounter when implementing training experiences in corrections. Forced choice (yes or no) responses were asked for each of the following factors: limited faculty interest in corrections, no correctional setting nearby, faculty busy meeting other specialty or program requirements, students not interested in corrections, students have concerns about safety, students are unaware that corrections is a practice environment for psychologists, students lack empathy toward offenders and, students prefer to work with clients who are more similar to themselves and have similar values. A last factor, "other" was also offered for any additional factors and these responses were written in. Finally, directors were asked to nominate the factor they believed had the most limiting impact.

In addition to the interview data, we collected graduate program information provided by the program director and published in the *Insider's Guide to Graduate Programs in Clinical and Counseling Psychology* (Norcross, Sayette, & Mayne, 2008). This information included the degree offered (PhD or PsyD), the program area (clinical, counseling, or combined), a self-rating on practice-research orientation (practice oriented, 1–3; equal emphasis, 4; and research-oriented, 5–7), and region of the country. Average Graduate Record Exam (GRE) scores and Grade Point Average (GPA) among the program's incoming students were also available. The program-level information allowed an examination of possible program and selection differences between programs that did and did not have a director complete the telephone interview and among those that did and did not offer corrections training opportunities.

### Procedure

Research assistants were trained to ensure standardization of study procedures and interview administration. The names and phone numbers for directors of the APA-accredited programs were confirmed through an Internet search. Attempts to contact participants were systematically made by following a call schedule organized so that no two morning/afternoon or days of the week

were repeated across the first four contact attempts.<sup>1</sup> If the director was contacted and requested rescheduling, a specific date and time for the interview was selected. Research assistants called all 291 training directors until all nonresponders had received eight attempts. Once eight phone contacts had been exhausted, a letter requesting participation was sent to the nonresponding program's "Director of Training." This entire procedure remained active for a 1.5-year period throughout the calendar year.

In the end, 196 directors of training (68% response rate) were contacted: 170 directors completed the interview, 19 declined the interview, and 7 agreed to be interviewed but did not complete the interview (58% participation rate). In total, 95 programs were eventually characterized as nonrespondents.

## Results

We compared the participating ( $n = 170$ ) and nonparticipating ( $n = 121$ ) doctoral programs to investigate the possibility of response bias.  $t$  tests and  $\chi^2$  tests revealed no significant differences on any key program variables (i.e., GPA, GRE scores, practice-research orientation, degree type, and programs area). That is, we found no evidence to question the generalizability to the population of APA-accredited doctoral programs in the United States.<sup>2</sup>

Overall, 111 or 65% of the responding doctoral programs offered one or more of the corrections training opportunities—corrections coursework, faculty interest, or practicum, 35% ( $n = 59$ ) offered none, and only 5% ( $n = 8$ ) offered all three training opportunities. A summary of corrections training opportunities by graduate program characteristics is presented in Table 1. The first several columns of data describe each training opportunity independent of one another, and then data for programs with one or more opportunities is presented and followed by programs with no corrections training opportunities represented. In addition, Figure 1 visually displays the singular and additive combinations of training opportunities offered.

Corrections coursework was offered by very few doctoral psychology programs ( $n = 11$ ; 6%). All of those that did offer coursework in corrections were in the clinical psychology programs. In terms of degree, three offered the PhD and eight were PsyD. The average practice-research orientation across the 11 programs on the 7-point rating scale was 2.7 ( $SD = 1.0$ ), indicating greater program emphasis on practice as opposed to research.

Next, we examined faculty interest in corrections. Here, one in five programs (54 or 19%) reported having one or more faculty members with an interest in corrections. Specifically, 19% ( $n = 10$ ) of the faculty had a research interest in corrections, 17% ( $n = 9$ ) had a practice interest, and 64% ( $n = 33$ ) had both practice and research interests represented. Overall, the majority of these faculty members were also in clinical psychology programs ( $n = 48$ , 89%), two thirds were PhD programs and the remaining were PsyD programs. The average practice-research rating for these programs was 4.0 ( $SD = 1.4$ ), indicating equal emphasis on practice and research.

In contrast, more than half of the doctoral programs (97 or 57%) offered a practicum in a criminal justice setting. The available settings, in descending order of frequency, were prisons (55%,  $n = 53$ ), jails (42%,  $n = 40$ ), juvenile detention centers (40%,  $n = 38$ ), forensic mental health units (19%,  $n = 18$ ), and halfway houses

(4%,  $n = 4$ ). Of the programs offering a criminal justice practicum most were in clinical psychology ( $n = 74$ , 76%), with 21 in counseling psychology (22%) and two combined programs (2%) also represented. Stated another way, by viewing practicum offerings within program type, 59% of all sampled clinical psychology programs offered a corrections practicum, followed by 51% of counseling programs and 50% of combined programs. In terms of degree type, among those having a criminal justice practicum, 68 (70%) offered the PhD degree and the remaining 29 (30%) offered the PsyD degree. The average practice-research rating was 3.9 ( $SD = 1.3$ ), indicating equal emphasis on practice and research.

To explore potential program differences in types of training opportunities, we collapsed the 7-point, program practice-research self-rating into three categories: Practice (1–3), Equal Emphasis (4), and Research Emphasis (5–7). Chi-square analysis revealed that programs offering corrections practicum were equally distributed across the three categories. However, it also revealed that programs *not* offering the corrections practicum were more likely to emphasize research  $\chi^2 (2) = 15.4, p < .001$ . Similarly, comparisons between degree type revealed that those programs offering the PsyD were significantly more likely than PhD programs to offer a criminal justice practicum,  $\chi^2 (1) = 12.0, p = .001$ .

We examined the larger context of practicum training within all responding programs to investigate additional differences between those offering criminal justice practicum and those that do not. Three quarters ( $n = 128$ ) of programs had an in-house training clinic and one quarter (27%,  $n = 46$ ) had a clinic affiliated with another department. In addition, 74% ( $n = 126$ ) required an off-site practicum for their students; of these, 66% ( $n = 83$ ) reported students completing between four and six semesters of practicum, 26% ( $n = 33$ ) reported students receiving more than six semesters of practicum, and 8% ( $n = 10$ ) reported less than four semesters of practicum. Within these general patterns of practicum training, we did not discern any significant differences in terms of likelihood that they offered a criminal justice practicum.

Table 2 summarizes the training directors' responses to those factors that limit doctoral programs from implementing training experiences in corrections. The two most frequently endorsed items were faculty busy meeting other specialty or program requirements (62%) and limited faculty interest in the area (61%). Interestingly, only 19% reported distance to correctional facilities and 14% indicated that student concerns about safety were limiting factors. The 66 "other" responses were coded by the authors and fell nicely into four themes: funding problems (24%;  $n = 16$ ), lack of qualified on-site supervision (18%;  $n = 12$ ), logistical obstacles

<sup>1</sup> The schedule began with attempting the initial contact on Monday, Wednesday or Friday, in an a.m. or p.m. time panel referenced to the geographic time zone and location of the graduate program. After this initial attempt a second attempt was then selected from a Tuesday or Thursday, a.m. or p.m. The third attempt was one of the remaining days and opposite time from the first attempt, and the fourth attempt was selected to reflect the opposite day, and time, a.m. or p.m. from the second attempt.

<sup>2</sup> We also compared all those responding ( $n = 196$ ), including interview decliners and unsuccessful completers with the 95 nonresponding programs. Comparisons for average GRE scores, GPA, Practice-Research Continuum rating, degree type, or program area revealed no statistically significant differences.

Table 1  
*Training Opportunities for Corrections Practice by Graduate Program Characteristics*

	Correctional course <i>n</i> = 11 % ( <i>n</i> )	Faculty interest <i>n</i> = 54 % ( <i>n</i> )	Practicum <i>n</i> = 97 % ( <i>n</i> )	Programs with one or more training opportunities <i>n</i> = 111 % ( <i>n</i> )	Programs with no training opportunities <i>n</i> = 59 % ( <i>n</i> )
Program type					
Clinical	100% (11)	88.9% (48)	76.3% (74)	76.6% (85)	71.2% (42)
Counseling	0% (0)	9.3% (5)	21.6% (21)	21.6% (24)	25.4% (15)
Combined	0% (0)	1.9% (1)	2.1% (2)	1.8% (2)	3.4% (2)
Degree type					
PhD	27.3% (3)	68.5% (37)	70.1% (68)	72.1% (80)	93.2% (55)
PsyD	72.7% (8)	31.5% (17)	29.9% (29)	27.9% (31)	6.8% (4)
	M ( <i>SD</i> )	M ( <i>SD</i> )	M ( <i>SD</i> )	M ( <i>SD</i> )	M ( <i>SD</i> )
Practice-Research Rating	2.7 (1.0)	4.0 (1.4)	3.9 (1.3)	4.0 (1.3)	4.8 (1.2)
GRE Scores					
Verbal	569 (35)	569 (52)	575 (46)	572 (46)	599 (55)
Quantitative	601 (71)	617 (58)	624 (61)	623 (59)	657 (53)
Writing	4.8 (0.2)	4.8 (0.4)	4.8 (0.5)	4.8 (0.5)	5.0 (0.3)
Psych	683 (4)	665 (29)	671 (33)	669 (31)	687 (56)
GPA	3.5 (0.1)	3.6 (0.2)	3.6 (0.2)	3.6 (0.2)	3.7 (0.2)

Note. Table presents data within columns: row breakdowns present percentage (*n*) within each column.

(18%; *n* = 12, e.g., “background check process too lengthy,” “access to programs”), and competing program requirements (39%; *n* = 26, e.g., “focus of our program is children and adolescents”).

Comparisons between doctoral programs with one or more training opportunities and doctoral programs with no training opportunities in corrections showed a number of differences in the limiting factors cited. Low faculty interest, faculty busy meeting

other programmatic requirements, and low student interest in corrections were all more frequently reported as barriers by programs with no training opportunities in corrections. Counter intuitively, student lack of empathy for offenders was more commonly cited as a barrier to training in corrections by programs that *do* offer training in corrections compared with those that do not. Similarly, funding was identified more often (coded from the open-ended other barrier responses) as a barrier to training among programs

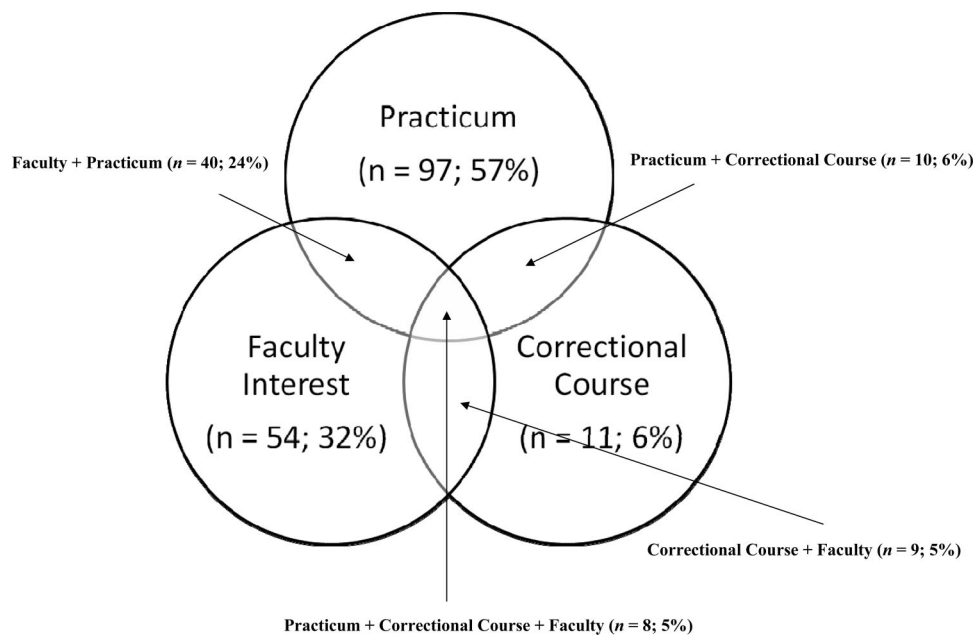


Figure 1. Unique and additive elements of three correctional training opportunities (among participating programs, *N* = 170).

Table 2  
*Limiting Factors to Implementing Training Experiences in Corrections*

Limiting factor	Programs with any training opportunities <i>n</i> = 111 % ( <i>n</i> )	Other programs: no training opportunities <i>n</i> = 59 % ( <i>n</i> )	All programs <i>N</i> = 170 % ( <i>n</i> )	Ranked limitation with most impact % ( <i>n</i> )
Faculty factors				
<b>Low faculty interest</b>	<b>47.7% (53)</b>	<b>89.8% (53)</b>	62.4% (106)	33% (55)
<b>Faculty busy meeting other specialty or program requirements</b>	<b>53.2% (59)</b>	<b>76.3% (45)</b>	61.2% (104)	10% (17)
Student factors				
<b>Low student interest in corrections</b>	<b>36.0% (40)</b>	<b>66.1% (39)</b>	46.5% (79)	11% (19)
Student's concerns about safety in corrections	15.3% (17)	11.9% (7)	14.1% (24)	1% (1)
Lack of awareness of corrections as a practice environment for psychologists	13.5% (15)	16.9% (10)	14.7% (25)	2% (4)
<b>Student's lack of empathy for offenders</b>	<b>9.9% (10)</b>	<b>1.7% (1)</b>	7.1% (12)	2% (3)
Student's desire to work with clients who are more similar to them and have similar values	30.6% (34)	22% (13)	27.6% (47)	1% (2)
Logistical factors				
Having no correctional site close to the program	15.3% (17)	25.4% (15)	18.8% (32)	7% (12)
<b>Funding (coded from "other" responses)<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>30.0% (15)</b>	<b>6.3% (1)</b>	24.2% (16)	8% (14)
Lack of qualified on-site supervision (coded from "other" responses) <sup>a</sup>	16.0% (8)	25.0% (4)	18.2% (12)	5% (8)
Logistics (coded from "other" responses) <sup>a</sup>	20.0% (10)	12.5% (2)	18.2% (12)	4% (7)
Graduate program requirements (coded from "other" responses) <sup>a</sup>	3.04% (17)	56.3% (9)	39.4% (26)	9% (15)

Note. Bold row frequencies significantly differ between programs with and without correctional training experiences,  $\chi^2 p < .05$ .

<sup>a</sup> Percentages for "other" responses include only institutions that responded to this question (*n* = 66). Most impactful barrier ns and percentages do not add to *N* = 170 and 100% because of missing data (*n* = 2) and program reporting "none" (*n* = 11).

that *do* offer training than by programs that have no corrections training opportunities.

Lastly, we examined the single factor that training directors believed most limited their ability to implement training experiences in corrections. As shown in the last column of Table 2, the most frequent factor was low faculty interest at 33%, followed by low student interest in corrections (11%) and faculty restrictions because of meeting other specialty or program requirements (10%). The least frequently endorsed factor was student concerns about safety, which was endorsed by only a single program director.

## Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study to systematically describe the way that clinical practice in corrections is conveyed in and by U.S. graduate clinical and counseling psychology training programs. Anchoring the interview results to an explicit definition of working with offenders in prison allowed for a national evaluation of the prevalence and forms of corrections training in doctoral programs apart from the burgeoning interest in forensics. Nearly two thirds of APA-accredited programs offered a preparatory pathway from the ivory tower to the gun tower.

Through coursework, faculty, and practicum, doctoral psychology training programs were providing exposure to corrections work. Such opportunities were offered across the PhD or PsyD degree, clinical and counseling programs, and the full spectrum of the practice-research continuum. Congruent with graduate student perceptions (Morgan et al., 2007) and with correctional systems perspectives (Magaletta et al., 2011), practicum training opportunities in corrections appear plentiful. For certain, the figures are well above those reported in the literature from the early 1980s (Grisso et al., 1982).

At the same time, however, courses devoted to corrections remain rare. In 1982, when Grisso et al. examined a similar national sample, they reported finding 2.7% of graduate programs offering a corrections course. Our updated figure is 6%. In addition, Grisso et al. (1982) cited about 16% of students having access to faculty with interest in this area, whereas the current study indicates the chances of completing a program with faculty who can introduce or grow a student's interest in this area are about one in three. However, it must be noted that for coursework and faculty interest alike, the probability of corrections exposure is proportionally greater in clinical than counseling programs, in PsyD than in PhD programs, and in practice oriented than research-oriented PhD programs.

Our finding of infrequent coursework and frequent practicum is a familiar pairing. It reflects three fundamental realities of corrections practice. First, psychologists working in corrections do not practice in a specialty area. Their practice requires broad, generalist skills with particular foundational competencies (e.g., assessment, treatment, crisis intervention, supervision, consultation, and administration). Coursework supporting the expression of such competencies, even for corrections practice, can be, and is provided in broad and general clinical and counseling doctoral psychology training curricula and coursework (Varghese & Cummings, 2012). For example, Magaletta et al. (2007) studied over 150 doctoral level clinical and counseling psychologists practicing in corrections and examined their work duties and professional preparation for such work. Several of the core areas of knowledge ranked as most important, frequently used, or risky if absent in correctional work were psychopathology, psychopharmacology, ethics, and suicide prevention. The most common response for where they received training for practicing in these areas was graduate school.

A second fundamental reality is that when there are more unique features that have to be mastered by psychologists in corrections, these tend to be learned through supervised, on-the-job experience. For competencies and skills such as interdisciplinary communication, working in a segregation unit, and confrontation avoidance, all of which were nominated in Magaletta et al. (2007), these were learned mostly on-the-job. Thus, the type of experiential learning that takes place on closely supervised practicum is favored for the introduction and development of these more unique features. Overall, there may be some elements of corrections competencies that can only be learned during practicum training, through the use of supervised service experiences.

The third fundamental reality is well documented and unfortunate. It is that criminal justice and corrections researchers have a problem cumulating knowledge. Research into the process of change with offenders exists, but overall, as a literature it remains quite fragmented (Gendreau & Goggin, in press; Magaletta, Morgan, Reitzel, & Innes, 2007). Thus, the base of knowledge that could be used, at an academic level, to better prepare clinical and counseling psychology students through specific coursework remains shallow and spread across various disciplines. It exists, but it never accumulates and becomes woven into a specialized body of knowledge. Not yet anyway. Although the most ambitious corrections competent faculty can bring together the key studies and findings from the past and textbooks are starting to emerge, nationally, only 6% of psychology graduate programs are offering a course.

Taken together, our results suggest a potential disconnect between coursework, faculty, and practicum for corrections education in graduate programs. Most doctoral students can obtain an optional practicum outside the university in corrections, but fewer can work on faculty research projects and even fewer can take a corrections course. At the very least, this pattern suggests that the integration of science and practice as applied to corrections is slow to occur in graduate training. Although many students will obtain off-campus experience providing correctional mental health services, the on-campus faculty mentorship and formal coursework are not common.

Although this study provides the first comprehensive survey on the topic, it is not without limitations. For one, more in-depth information on training opportunities for students proved elusive. Although data on corrections courses were obtained, we did not gather data on seminars, or other courses that might have provided one or more lessons addressing services with offenders. Some graduate schools with multiple campuses may have one corrections course implemented across numerous campuses, and our efforts to procure syllabi were not successful. For another, although we know the number of programs with faculty interested in this area, the actual number of faculty functionally available to students remains unknown. In addition, although the initial questions concerning the graduate program had a high likelihood of being accurately answered by training directors, response validity may have attenuated as questions transitioned to student perceptions.

Despite these limitations, our illumination of the national psychology training landscape has numerous implications for education and training toward corrections practice within in doctoral psychology programs. First, careful attention must be paid to the

need for building coherence among coursework, faculty, and practicum. Here the central role of faculty cannot be overstated. They are the singular point holding the most promise for achieving integration of the academic base (learning by studying) and corrections focused skill (learning by doing) among the students they instruct. In addition, by encouraging students to think about correctional settings and the opportunities it brings for training and career development, corrections competent faculty are a critical force for developing the future correctional mental health workforce. As mediators of both coursework and experiential training, they can help correctional systems more effectively train correctional psychologists. They can also assist their graduate programs directors to focus existing coursework to reflect treatment and assessment of offenders. They can help students answer questions about goodness-of-fit with corrections practicum, internship and careers. Thus, for graduate programs seeking to deepen corrections offerings for students and to reach the market of those involved in correctional and criminal justice systems requiring services, we deeply encourage and strongly recommend recruiting faculty with practice and research backgrounds in corrections.

In addition to the importance of recruiting corrections competent graduate school faculty our findings suggest a compelling need for such faculty to engage their off-site criminal justice practicum colleagues. It is through high-quality supervised experience and not experience alone that corrections competencies are developed. Thus, our findings clearly highlight the need for more research into the supervision received during practicum in these training settings. The frequency of criminal justice practicum offered in both clinical and counseling programs should be noted by the training community. Practicum are the initial set of experiences where students begin to unpack and apply their coursework. Absent a much closer examination of the supervisors and structure of these experiences, one cannot formulate opinions regarding the quality of the experience. This must be achieved through direct observation, communication, and relationship building between the graduate program and training site. As noted in almost every contemporary study on practicum, it is imperative that close, direct, and frequent communication become the norm between graduate programs the practicum sites training their students (Hatcher, Wise, Grus, Mangione, & Emmons, 2012; Lewis, Hatcher, & Pate, 2005; Qualls, Duffy, & Crose, 1995). Given the potential uniqueness of the correctional environment, this point is particularly relevant for the numerous criminal justice placements that our findings suggest are occurring.

We have described elsewhere how graduate programs and faculty, without developing new courses, might better align their generalist training curriculum to address the needs of the incarcerated (Magaletta & Verdeyen, 2005). The current findings in general and the barriers data specifically argue for an "alignment method" for developing corrections relevant curriculum. That is, focusing aspects of corrections practice within existing coursework. For example, psychotherapy and intervention courses might introduce the effective role of modified therapeutic communities to address the needs of substance abusers. Assessment coursework might emphasize the role of suicide risk assessment as it applies to individuals involved in the criminal justice system. Ethics coursework might consider how best to integrate an understanding of custodial roles in the process of managing correctional popula-

tions, while simultaneously addressing their function in the rehabilitation of inmates.

A related implication involves the seminars and didactics that occur during criminal justice practicum and internship. In the context of the current findings, these seminars and didactics play an important role in conveying corrections relevant knowledge. For those supervisors who are on-site working with students in practicum and later, on internship, our findings concerning the absence of coursework highlight the need for systematically developing solid corrections-centric didactic material. The supervisors operating within such training sites have a great responsibility for organizing the more unique elements of the knowledge base, as few students will receive such exposure during their formal graduate school coursework. Such didactic seminars might focus upon topics that expand a traditional understanding of psychopathology. For example, doctoral students may have experiences and coursework in treating mental illness, but no undergirding coursework in understanding the process of change as it applies to criminal behavior. Thus, seminars on understanding the criminal lifestyle, how this does and does not link to mental illness, recidivism, and approaches to treatment, might be beneficial. The literature on suicide prevention at the level of both assessment and intervention should be considered. Given the high likelihood of encountering offenders with substance use disorders, seminars or guided self-study on etiology and intervention—the most rigorous and mature area of corrections research—should always be offered.

In accomplishing the objectives of this study there are also implications for corrections systems. Having identified existing correctional training opportunities, corrections agencies can strategically focus and refine their recruitment and workforce development efforts. Typically, 80% of correctional system costs are associated with human resources, including salaries and other payroll expenses (Fixen, Blasé, Timbers, & Wolf, 2001; Hoge, Huey, & O'Connell, 2004; Wright, 2008). Given this investment, the ability of correctional systems to in-reach to educational systems via training should not pass unnoticed. By opening their doors to train students, correctional systems can engineer development of their workforce. Given the difficulties experienced by some corrections systems in recruiting psychologists, this remains a vital opportunity. It also reflects outcomes important to graduate training programs. With internship completed, many students successfully launch careers as psychologists in corrections, thus producing successful distal outcomes data for their graduate program (Boothby & Clements, 2002; Magaletta, Patry, & Norcross, 2012). Psychology training programs that systematically prepare students for corrections practice find their graduates increasingly competitive in this growing marketplace.

For correctional administrators, understanding how graduate programs are preparing students for potential entry into the corrections workforce provides an important perspective on the recruitment pool. For graduate faculty, how they help students achieve this understanding is equally important. For the recipients of such connections, the millions of offenders needing psychological services, our collective and coordinated attention and intention will continue to be needed. The current study provides one roadmap for guiding such efforts.

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